

An Integrated Model to Explain Inter-Relationships in Travel Behaviours

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***Abstract:** This study focuses on the decision making process of international tourists traveling to Tanzania. An integrated approach is proposed to understand the inter-relationships among tourist motivations, expectations, place identity and place dependence. Specifically, travel motivations directly affect tourist's expectations and these expectations have impact on place identity and place dependence. Finally, place identity affects place dependence, both being components of place attachment. The model is based on the theory that potential tourists form their experiences in a path order that is at the start or even stage of planning the itinerary, during their stay and finally when building their attachment as well as future choices towards destinations. A self-administered questionnaire was used to gather data in which a convenience sampling method was employed. Structural equation modeling was used for data analysis in which out of 700 collected questionnaires, 504 responses were retained for analysis. The empirical findings of this study recognize and account for the fact that travel motivation can only be understood by focusing on several underlying factors. Also, the empirical findings recognize that different experiences release and stimulate identification processes, which further strengthen the attachment of tourists to the site they visit. Other researchers can make use of theories developed in this study to come up with more lucid models in different contexts.*

Keywords: travel motivations; travel expectations; place identity; place dependence

INTRODUCTION

The international tourism is a large and growing industry. Its attractiveness as a generator of income, employment, tax, and foreign exchange has led many countries to compete for international travelers (Lea, 1988). As countries strive to increase their share of foreign visitors, it becomes necessary to understand tourists' preferences, including their destination-specific choice motivations and criteria (Yuan and McDonald, 1990). Importantly, tourism has a particularly high potential to contribute to economic development and poverty reduction in African countries (Großpietsch, 2007), including Tanzania, the context of the current study.

Past studies have shown that individual tourists go through an ongoing process with varied yet interconnected stages (Mill and Morrison, 2002). The process is influenced by several factors including motive, which affects all behaviors, in tourism (Iso-Ahola, 1982). The limited literature available has not reached consensus on a theoretical framework for studying the motive for travel (WTO, 1999). Reaching consensus has been hindered by the wide variety of human needs

satisfied by travel and by differences across travelers and their travel choices (Hsu *et al.*, 2010; Kim and Prideaux, 2005; Pearce and Lee, 2005). Thus, the first contribution of this paper is to recognize and account for the fact that travel motivation can only be understood by focusing on several underlying factors. Accordingly, the model developed and tested is based on an understanding of the processes transforming needs and motivated behavior into expectations which in their turn influence the choice of travel destination. Secondly, it is assumed that Africa is a well considered choice for tourists, many of whom being well-off individuals seek to satisfy high-order needs from Maslow's hierarchy. Thus, the study contributes by recognizing that such experiences release and stimulate identification processes, which further strengthen the attachment of tourists to the site they visit. This identification process depends on individuals' motives and expectations. With regard to motivation the focus is on utilitarian, escape, and cultural distance motives, which, in turn, are linked to three constructs, namely key hospitality services, place dependence, and place identity (the latter two being manifestations of travellers' loyalty). The tourism motives are distinguished between those which refer to the reason of visiting a specific destination, from expectations, which are conceptualized as a point of departure for motivations. While motivation in tourism is not place-dependent per se, expectations develop vis-a-vis specific experiences when visiting a place. In this article, it is argued that place attachment results from tourists' motivations towards a specific destination.

The overall objective of this study is to test inter-relationships among travel behavioural constructs such as motivation, expectation, and place identity and place dependence. Thus, the study poses the following specific objectives; (i) test the influence of motivation dimensions on other travel behavioural constructs in the proposed model; (ii) examine the effect of expectation dimensions on other related travel behavioral constructs in the proposed model and; (iii) test the association between place attachment components in the proposed model.

In sum, the literature is extended by including multiple drivers of travel motivations in an elaborate model of tourism behaviour, which recognizes the important role of identification with and attachment to the tourist attraction. Additionally, the context of travel in Africa allowed reseachers to test several constructs unique to it, which might not be relevant for many other travel destinations.

Travel Motivations

Travel motivation is a crucial part of travel consumer behaviour that has gained interest among tourism academicians for the past five decades. Several researchers have attempted to develop models and theories to guide empirical studies of travel motivation. Geuens *et al.* (2002) concluded that three types of shopping motivations could be distinguished in general, namely functional, social, and experiential/hedonic motivations. Functional motivations pertain to tangibles (e.g. quality and price – Dholakia, 1999; Geuens *et al.*, 2002; Shim, Gehrt, and Holikova, 1998; Westbrook and Black, 1985). Social motivations reflect individuals' need to communicate with others sharing their interests (e.g. Dholakia, 1999; Geuens *et al.*, 2002). Finally, hedonic motivations reflect needs for stimulation from new enjoyable consumption experiences (Bellenger and Korgaonkar, 1980; Dholakia, 1999; Geuens

et al., 2002). The importance of motives depends on individual, contextual, and is product-related (Dholakia, 1999; Eastlinck and Feinberg, 1999). Two of the three general motivation types pertain to the topic of this paper. Firstly, functional/utilitarian motivations could affect tourists. Additionally, hedonic motivations should play a part. These are discussed further below.

With regard to utilitarian motives, scholars have reported that utilitarian motives are more rational and task-related than hedonic motives (Babin *et al.*, 1994; Hartman *et al.*, 2006; Cho and Jang, 2008). Hence, utilitarian motives are characterized by extensive information processing (Hartman *et al.*, 2006), which is also typical for many people when they make destination choices. Explicitly, utilitarian motives can lead tourists to satisfy social motivations by telling others about their hedonic motivations such as what they found memorable about a particular culture such as that of Maasai found in Tanzania. Also with regard to role escape motive, escapism has been referred as the tendency to escape from daily reality or routine by indulging in daydreaming, fantasy, or entertainment (The American Heritage, 2009). In practice, this can be linked to positive escape for cultural activities, escape for adventure, escape for relaxation, escape from boredom, and negative (i.e., escape into drugs, into prostitution) experiences. In tourism, the positive experiences are linked to choice of destinations (such as choosing Tanzania) which offer those practices. According to Pesämaa *et al.* (unpublished) negative experiences stimulates ones to fantasize, daydream and even plan means of escape. Cultural distance as another kind of motivation is defined as the extent to which national culture is different from and similar to culture of the host (Shenkar, 2001). Crofts (2004) reported that countries can represent different cultural factors, attributing difference in people's responses to the distinct cultural values. In reality, cultural distance can be used to explain the effect of culture on perception of tourist destinations. The perceived risks in destinations could determine the association between cultural distance and other behavioural constructs including tourist expectations, place identity, place dependence and others.

Tourist Expectations – Key Hospitality Services

Expectation can be defined as prior estimations made by customers' while receiving service (Oliver, 1981). In successful destination marketing, expectations of tourists are important to understand (Stevens, 1992). According to Stevens (1992) this is due to the effects on tourists' destination selections, consuming of goods and services and having the decision to revisit. Likewise, Bosque *et al.* (2009) reported that exploring tourists' expectations is important because they have a chance to significantly influence tourists' behavior and their decision-making process. Prior to selecting a destination to visit, travelers establish an expected result of choice, which may or may not be met, depending on the nature and purpose of the vacation (Correia *et al.*, 2007). Hsu and Cai (2009) defined expectations as the variations of beliefs that can be categorized into efficacy and outcome expectations. An efficacy expectation is "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcomes", while an outcome expectation is a person's estimate that a given behaviour will lead to certain outcomes (Bandura, 1977). An individual can have a belief that a certain activity/action will lead to some clear outcomes, at the same time may also doubt its success. As a result, an individual can

perceive the possible consequences of actions without necessarily executing those actions. This study focuses on key hospitality services as the type of expectation to be studied.

In tourism, hospitality is seen as people business of providing security, physical and psychological comfort for reward (Lockwood and Jones, 1984). According to Hepple *et al.* (1990) a modern perception of hospitality embraces four different characteristics: (i) it is conferred by a host on a guest who is away from their usual home; (ii) it is interactive, involving the coming together of a provider and receiver; (iii) comprises a blend of both tangible and intangible factors; (iv) the host provides for the guest's security, physical and psychological comfort. In this paper it is argued that key hospitality services are tourist expectations which are developed in their earlier stage of the travel. Destinations compete for tourists and being hospitable is seen as offering competitive advantage.

Place Attachment – Place Identity and Place Dependence

Place identity and place dependence are the two dimensions of place attachment (Bricker and Kerstetter, 2000; Hoe *et al.*, 2005; Kyle *et al.*, 2005; Moore and Graefe, 1994). Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) define place attachment as an affective bond or link between people and specific places. According to Smith *et al.* (2010), place attachment is the complex and affective connection that relate the self to place. This view is supported by both Tuan (1980), and Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) who have pointed out that these connections can mostly be understood as the extent to which an individual values or identifies with geographical locatable places.

Place identity engages deeper connections between people and a place in a manner that the personal identity of an individual is intricately connected to a place (Proshanky, 1978). According to Hou *et al.* (2005) place identity refers to the idea that tourists may develop rich memories and feelings toward a particular destination and may hold those feelings central to their definition and expression of the self. It has to be noted that place identity include environment/ physical settings and social elements. Also, place identity concept develops more from affective and cognitive processes (Smith *et al.*, 2010).

On the other hand, place dependence refers to the collection of social and physical resources meeting visitors' particular activity, necessitates and representing the exceptional qualities of a place (Bricker and Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle *et al.*, 2004). Place dependence occurs when visitors show a functional need for a space that is not transferable to another space (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981). Place dependence concept develops from behavioural and functional processes (Smith, 2010). According to Stokols and Shumaker (1981), there are two factors individuals or groups use to determine place dependency namely; one, quality of current place and two, relative quality of comparable alternative places. Consequently, tourists might, for instance, see a particular beach resort as the best location for their specific needs of relaxation and indulgence or may identify a heritage tourism destination as a main location for learning about and celebrating their specific ethnic or national identity (Lee and Allen, 1999; Hou *et al.*, 2005).

FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESIS

Integrative Model

Tourism is place-dependent and tourists travel purposely to explore needs that cannot be fulfilled in their home environment (Dann, 1981; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Further more, tourists are selective and compare potential destinations (Castro *et al.*, 2007; Pike and Ryan, 2004). This selective process is influenced by tourists' motivations and expectations (Dann, 1981) and affect the extent to which their initial purposes can be achieved (Crompton and Baker, 2000). Accordingly, marketing managers are duty bound to conduct research to identify groups whose needs and subsequent motivations and expectations match what their destination can offer.

The model explains the inter-relationships among travel motivation, expectation, place identity and place dependence. Place identity and dependence are the two components of place attachment and also manifestation of loyalty in tourism. Place attachment is an affective bond or link between people and specific places (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001). In general, identification processes affect destination selection processes. It is argued further that motivations have direct and indirect effects on expectation, place attachment components (place identity and place dependency) respectively. Moreover, expectation has a direct effect on place identity and place dependence. Vaske and Kobrin (2001) and Moore and Graefe (1994) argued that frequent visits to a particular place enhance individuals' dependence, which further increases in place identity to that specific place. Figure 1 summarizes the research model underlying the current study.

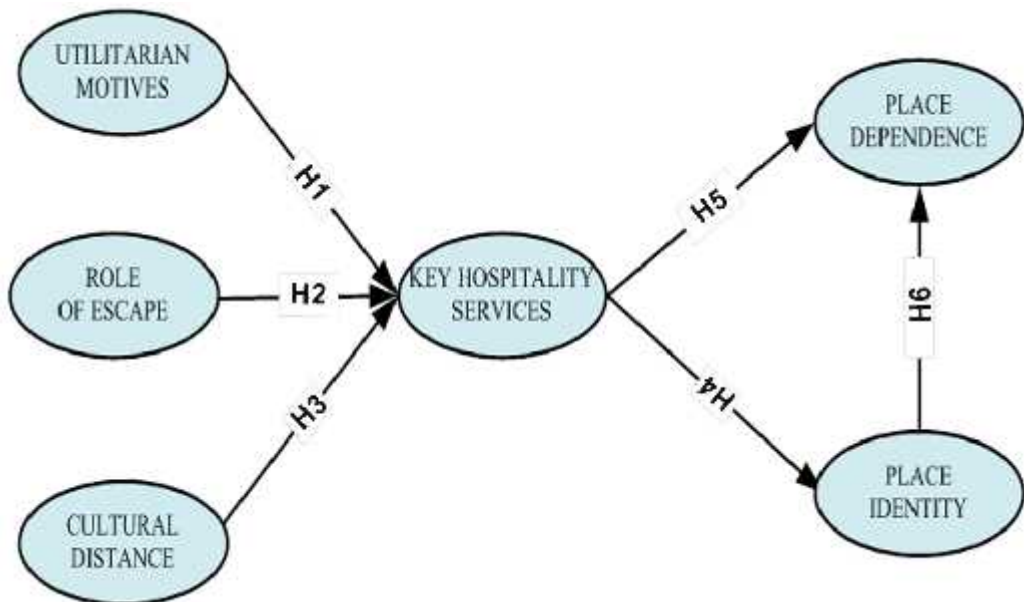


Figure 1: Proposed Model and Hypotheses

Motivation is a reason why people travel. Such reasons may range from stress reduction, adventure, education, novelty or just meeting new people. On the other hand, expectation can be defined as looking forward or anticipating something while

experiencing something. This definition epitomises that while travelling to different places, tourists expect to experience, see or do something in that destination but also expect their hosts to offer services such as food, transportation, accommodation that are of good quality. This article argues that, both motivation and expectations are usually developed before departure. Therefore, it is proposed that expectation is a function of different motivations. This view shared by the author of this article is different to the view held by some other scholars that argued motivation is a function of expectations (Hsu *et al.*, 2010). Thus, in this study we propose that different motives influence expectations especially with regard to key hospitality services:

H1: Utilitarian motives affect key hospitality services

H2: Role of escape motives affect key hospitality services

H3: Cultural distance motives affect key hospitality services

Many expectations arise from core and peripheral activities (Hou *et al.*, 2005; Skogland and Siguaw, 2004) and these have an impact on place identity and place dependence. Serenko and Stach (2009) argue that fundamentally, a positive expectation influences loyalty in most but not in all customers. This phenomenon is consistent to the current study since place identity and place dependence are two manifestations of loyalty. Expectations on key hospitality services in this study include security, accommodation, transportation which is consistent to findings reported by Hepple (1990). In this study, it is argued that positive tourist key hospitality services at the destination affect place identity and place dependence, thus hypotheses (H4 and H5) below are proposed:

H4: Key hospitality services significantly affect place identity

H5: Key hospitality services affect place dependence

Hou and colleague investigated Hakka and non Hakka Taiwanese visitors to Pei-Pu and found that place identity was the strongest construct in defining place attachment for Hakka visitors. This implies that Hakka visitors focus on the level of accuracy and detail in the interpretations and narrations of the host culture. On the other hand, place dependence was the strongest for non-Hakka visitors. This implies that cultural tourists who have no personal connection with the host culture concentrate more on the uniqueness and authenticity of the cultural attractions.

These two dimensions were used as composites. Mlozi *et al.* (2012) confirmed a strong relationship between place dependence and place identity to both subsample that is with high loyalty intentions and low/moderate loyalty intentions. Another study by Mlozi and Pesämaa (2013) argued that place identity has a positive effect on place dependence, and the positive effect increases as tourists become more familiar with the destination. In this study, it is argued that place identity predict place dependence when there is no factor of control (i.e., length of stay, loyalty intentions, number of visit). Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

H6: Place identity significantly affects place dependence

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire used in this study was developed to learn about tourist behaviours towards choosing Tanzania as their current visiting and future destination. Data was later collected from tourist visiting Northern Circuit in mainland Tanzania. Likewise, this instrument acquired biographical data as well as responses to pre-test scale measuring tourist behaviours which include motivations, expectations, place identity and place dependence.

Sampling and Data Collection

A questionnaire was used to collect data in between August and September of 2010. A convenience sampling method was employed since the precise data as to the size and location of this population was not available. This study employed a self-administered method in data collection process in which respondents were asked to take 15-20 minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire.

Table 1: Demographic and Biographical Characteristics of Complete Sample

Characteristics	Distribution of answers
Gender	Male: 44.8%; Female: 55.2%
Age	≤20: 7.7%; 21-30: 42.9%; 31-40: 25.4%; 41-50: 11.3%; 51-60: 8.1%; >60: 4.6%
Education level	Primary school: 1%; High school: 14.1%; 2-3 years (college): 7.7%; 4 years (univ.):40.7; Postgraduate: 36.1%
Occupation	Student: 22.8; Self employed: 12.3%; Employed: 56.2%; Retired: 5.6%; Unemployed: 1.6%
Income (US \$ per month)	<1000:7.4%; 1000-2000:17.5%; 2001-3000:21.6%; 3001-4000:19.7%; 4001-5000:14.5%; 5001-6000:12.1; >6000:7.1%
Tourist's nationality	American: 14.5%; English: 22%; Germany: 12.9%; Dutch: 8.1%; Australian: 6.2%; French: 5.4%; Canadian: 5.2%; Spanish: 3%
Holiday trip/year	One: 28.6%; Two: 38.3%; Three: 20%; Four: 9.7%; >four:1.4%
Duration stayed (days)	Two: 3.6%; Three:7.7%; Four: 6.9%; Five: 7.5%; Six: 9.7%; Seven:19.2; Eight: 7.9%; Nine: 5.4%; Ten: 9.9%; Fourteen:3.6%
Duration expect to stay (days)	Seven: 6.6%; Eight: 5.8%; Nine: 6.7%; Ten:14.9%; Eleven: 5.8%; Twelve:13.9%; Thirteen: 5.6%; Fourteen:13.1%; Fifteen: 6.5%; Sixteen: 4.4%
Number of visit to Tanzania	Visited once: 7.3%; Visited twice: 2%; >Twice: 5% First time visit: 85.7%
Trip plan	1-2weeks: 28.8%; 3-4weeks: 18.8%; 1-2months: 17.5%; 3-4 months: 9.3%; 5-6months: 12.9; 12months: 6.5; >12 months: 3.8%
Purpose of visit	VFR/relative: 9.3%; Leisure: 37.9; Conference/business: 3.4%; Nature: 36.5; Study: 7.1%; Work: 2.6%
Travel to final destination	Bus: 23.6%; Flight: 32.7%; Car/similar: 42.1%

Majority of the respondents were found in tourist destinations such as Serengeti, Tarangire and Lake Manyara National Parks. Other respondents were contacted in tourist hotels, lodges, and coffee shops located in Arusha and Moshi towns. A total of 700 questionnaires were administered to different international tourists in which 504 responses were retained for further analysis. Table 1 above reports some characteristics of collected sample.

Measurement

An important part of this paper is the measurement and how these were developed. The measurements (i.e. latent constructs) of this model follow some general

guidelines about how measurements were developed. This section shows how the researcher ended up with the final measurements as a result of avoiding replication of criteria for each measure. Guidelines were followed to know what measurements were purported to measure, that is, is unidimensional (high substantial loadings) and is relatively independent (discriminate) of other latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The process was systematic. First, and before developing the questionnaire, instrument used in the previous studies were assessed.

Table 2: Questions and Descriptive

	Mean	S.D	MCRS	MCRK
Utilitarian Motives				
M1.1...something I was looking for	3.58	1.07	-4.76	-0.54
M1.2 To achieve a purpose I am here for	3.79	1.09	-6.38	-0.17
M1.3 To find what I expected to find	3.74	1.00	-5.43	0.86
Role Escaping Motives				
M3.1 Get an opportunity to be myself.	3.66	1.04	-5.44	-0.24
M3.2 Get away from the pressures I feel from daily routines	4.07	1.03	-	3.49
M3.3 Watch how other friends experience me during my trip	3.20	1.13	-1.93	-2.89
M3.4 Experience myself in a simpler lifestyle situation	3.63	1.14	-5.44	-0.24
Cultural Distance Motives				
M5.1 I find a strong connectivity towards places like Tanzania	3.36	1.02	-1.71	-2.73
M5.2 I can show my personal style by travelling to places like Tanzania.	3.23	1.07	-2.28	-2.16
M5.3 I feel I am very associated culturally with places like Tanzania.	3.03	1.06	-0.18	-2.32
Key Hospitality Services (6-items)				
E1.1 Trip with no unnecessary delays (including transportation) ^{***}	3.18	1.13	.12	-4.15
E1.2 Luggage will be properly taken care of. ^{***}	3.79	1.02	-5.29	-1.81
E1.3 Easy public transport to and from places	3.08	1.05	.52	-3.25
E1.4 To find a rich variety of accommodation (e.g. hotel, cottages)	3.52	.97	-2.47	-2.99
E1.5 Find a rich variety of restaurants (including cafeterias)	3.26	1.02	-1.47	-3.04
E1.6 Rich variety of entertainment (e.g. pubs, nightclubs) ^{***}	2.68	1.05	2.03	-1.80
Place Identity (5- items)				
PI1.1 I like to stay longer than I do in other similar destinations	3.08	.95	1.33	-.13
PI1.2 To have travelled to Tanzania says a lot about who I am	3.23	1.07	-2.31	-2.27
PI1.3 I am proud sharing its traditions with others. ^{***}	3.58	.94	-4.16	.81
PI1.4 I am impressed more than at other similar destinations	3.33	.91	-1.61	1.04
PI1.5 I Enjoy more than at other similar destinations	3.12	.86	.73	1.40
Place Attachment (4-items)				
PD1.1 Cannot be substituted by other destinations.	3.29	1.06	-1.64	-1.79
PD1.2 More important than other cultural destinations	2.79	.93	1.63	1.10
PD1.3 Tanzania is the best destination representing Africa ^{***}	2.98	.77	-.18	6.07
PD1.4 I enjoy a Tanzania more than other African destinations ^{***}	3.02	.75	.42	9.15

The full discussion of this process follow for each of the latent constructs. Lastly, when data was collected, normality was assessed in which each measure reporting

unproportional high skewness and kurtosis deleted following guidelines from Byrne (2009) were based on Mardias Critical Ratio discussion. A criterion of deleting all variables was followed reporting lower values than 4.0 (see Table 2). Also, some items were deleted (see Table 2) based on modification indices (MI).

Measurement of Travel Motivation

When developing this section one scale from consumer research was used (Babin *et al.*, 1994), four theoretical constructs from tourism literature (Hou *et al.*, 2005) and one construct was own pretested construct, which took into account the contextual situation of Tanzania. Note that while Hou *et al.* (2005) used composites, so that underlying 12 observables became four reflecting one construct labelled “*Enduring Involvement*” the objective here is to use approach of Structural Equation Model and therefore the judgement may differ. The latter was changed so that these measures motives to travel, which is related to their theoretical perspective. The same type of 5-point Likert scale was used. With respect to to this question the following were asked: We would like to know more about your travel motivations to Tanzania.

Please indicate in following statements 1 = Not important at all, 2 = Not important, 3 = Neither important nor unimportant (neutral), 4 = Important and 5 = Very important. Six dimensions were kept and these include (1) “Utilitarian Motives”, (2) “Social Associations”, (3) “Role Escape Motives”, (4) “Value Confirming”, (5) “Cultural Distance Motives” and (6) “Natural Attractions”.

Utilitarian Motives (3-items): Based on the seminal study of Babin *et al.* (1994) we used the three strongest items and revised these to fit a tourism context. These items now reflect a measurement on utilitarian motives for tourism. Their study indicated the measure was reliable (Cronbach alpha .80). Therefore, an identical operationalization was used however, the second item was deleted based on Mardias Critical Ration Skewness (MCRS) and Mardias Critical Ration Kurtosis (MCRK) in which for both measures value less than 4 were acceptable. Specific information about this process and details of the questions are provided in Table 2.

Social Associations (4-items): Social association motives were developed from Hou *et al.* (2005). In their study they used five variables. Their study indicated this measure was reliable (Cronbach alpha .76). However all measures used in this scale had high non-normal distribution. Therefore, this factor was deleted.

Role of escaping (4-items): Role of escaping motives was developed on the basis of Hou *et al.* (2005). Their construct had acceptable reliability (Cronbach alpha .76) and loadings did almost meet the criteria in the recent study. Their third item was marginally low and it was revised in an attempt to make it more meaningful. A similar operationalization was used but added the assumption that they escape to Tanzania to experience a simpler lifestyle situation. This article argues this is plausible for this type of context. The second item was deleted based on Mardias Critical Ration Skewness (MCRS) and Mardias Critical Ration Kurtosis (MCRK) in which for both measures value less than 4 were acceptable. Specific information about this process and details of the questions are provided in Table 2.

Value confirming (2-items): Value confirming motives were developed from Hou *et al.* (2005). In their study they used two variables in which the constructs did not report acceptable reliability according to our criteria (Cronbach alpha .62). In this study all measures used for this scale had high non-normal distribution. Therefore, this factor was deleted.

Cultural distance (3-items): Cultural distance motives were developed on the basis of Hou *et al.* (2005). The construct did not report acceptable reliability according to the criteria of the recent study (Cronbach alpha .68) and all loadings meet criteria to include items that had a loading exceeding .6. All items in this scale had met the criteria and therefore no item was deleted. Specific information about this process and details of the questions are provided in Table 2.

Natural attractions (6-items): Natural attraction motives were developed to reflect contextual motivations to visit Tanzania. However, all measures used for this scale had high non-normal distribution. Therefore, this factor was deleted.

Measurement of Travel Expectation

The scales are adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005). The original ideas and assumptions for these measures came from the work of Hu and Ritchie (1993), and Thach and Axinn (1994). The same type of 5-point Likert scale was used. In the pretext to this question the following were asked: We would like to know more about your expectations on this visit to Tanzania. Please indicate in following statements if you 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree (Neutral), 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly agree. Four dimensions were kept including (1) “Key Tourism Services”, (2) “Natural and Cultural Attractiveness”, (3) “Information services” and (4) “Peripheral services”.

Key hospitality services (6-items): Hou *et al.* (2005) used five items (i.e., transportation, infrastructure, price level, restaurants, quality of food and not crowding) to measure tourism services. Their study indicated this measure is reliable (Cronbach alpha .83) and the four bottom measures indicated poor loadings (our criteria is loadings should exceed .6). They included accommodation in another factor measuring peripheral services. This first measure on “Expected attractiveness” was revealed as important. Therefore, some of the past items were revised and labelled the measure “Key hospitality services”. In some other literature key hospitality services include experiences from restaurants, accommodation, entertainment, and transportation businesses (Hu *et al.*, 2009; Brotherton, 1999; King, 1995). Item one and two were deleted in the early analysis of this study because of problems with non-normality distribution. Likewise, item six was deleted because of problems with Modification Indices (MI). Specific information about this process and details of the questions are provided in Table 2.

Natural and cultural attractiveness (3-items): Hou *et al.* (2005) labeled next dimension cultural attractiveness but we changed that slightly into “Natural and cultural attractiveness”. Their study indicated this measure was reliable (Cronbach alpha .83) and all loadings met the criteria to include items that had a loading

exceeding .6. However all measures used in this study had high non-normal distribution. Therefore, this factor was deleted.

Information services (3-items): Hou *et al.* (2005) proposed three items to measure “Interpretation”. In this study, it was slightly changed into “Information services”. Their study indicated this measure was reliable (Cronbach alpha .72) and all loadings met the criteria to include items because loadings exceed .6. However all measures used in this study had high non-normal distribution. Therefore, this factor was deleted.

Peripheral services (4-items): Hou *et al.* (2005) proposed three items to measure “Peripheral attractions”. Their study indicated problems with reliability (Cronbach alpha .60) and criteria in the recent study was .7. All measures used in this study had high non-normal distribution. Since the efforts to revise the construct were not successful, the whole construct was deleted.

Measurement of Place Attachment

Place attachment to the destination was developed on the basis of Hou *et al.* (2005). The original ideas and assumptions for these measures came from the work of Bricker and Kerstetter (2000), Moore and Graefe (1994), and Shaw and Williams (2000). The two components of place attachment referred in this study as mentioned earlier are place identity and place dependence. Hou and colleagues suggested a two dimensional construct but they used composite scales. The same dimensions were used and asked the respondent to indicate to what extents they agreed or disagreed with the statements by circling one number for each statement: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree (Neutral), 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly agree.

Place identity (5-items): Place identity items were adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005). Originally, Hou *et al.* (2005) used six items to measure “Place Identity” but the sixth item from this original scale was deleted because loading was below recommended .6 level according to Bagozzi and Yi (1988). One reason to the poor loading in the original study could be asked to what extent people identified themselves with visited culture, which may be difficult for many, because they identify themselves with the place they come from. Yet, respondents share and understand cultures and may even search for differences to explain who they are. Therefore, the five items were retained from the original scale which had in the Hou *et al.* (2005) studied with Cronbach alpha level of .83 indicating acceptable reliability. After performing the early analysis items one and three were deleted because of problems with non-normal distribution (see Table 2).

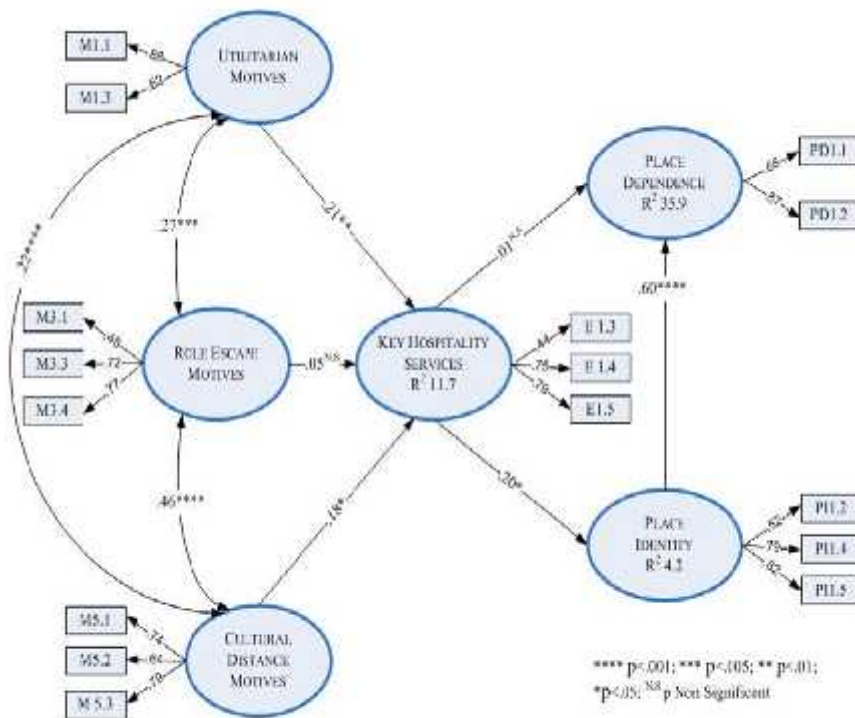
Place dependence (4-items): Place dependence items were adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005). Hou *et al.* used six items to measure place dependence. In the original study of Hou *et al.* (2005) this scale had a Cronbach alpha level of .79 indicating acceptable reliability. In this study, the third and fourth items were omitted from the original scale because of problems with non-normal distribution (see Table 2).

RESULT OF STRUCTURAL MODEL

The analysis started by examining Goodness-of-Fit indexes (Table 3). Chi-Square (χ^2) is the most conservative measure in which it estimates whether there is a correspondence between the population and theory and it is assumed as a significant one. The Chi-Square measure was insignificant suggesting poor fit; nevertheless, large samples inflate the sensitiveness of the Chi-Square measure making this result insignificant (Hair *et al.*, 1992; Hatcher, 1994). This is because Chi-Square is directly proportional to sample size. According to Iacobucci (2009) literature recommends other measures to be used that are not sensitive to sample size.

Table 3: Goodness of Fit Indexes (N=504)

Measurement	Model
Chi-Square	301.37
Degree of freedom	.95
Probability	0.000
Comparative Fit Index	.90
Square Root Mean Residual	.09
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation	.07



Goodness-of-Fit: χ^2 301.37; df .95; p .000; CFI .90; SRMR .09; RMSEA .07.

Figure 2: Structural Model Result

Three indexes used all passed the recommended levels. In order to get a marginal acceptance level, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) should be .90, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) should be .08 (Reisinger and Turner, 1999). Further, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) should be lower than .08; in order to achieve an acceptable goodness-of-fit (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Bentler, 1990). These findings indicated that the model for this study is strong.

The overall purpose of this study was to establish associations that utilitarian, role of escape and cultural distance motives predicted expectation (key hospitality services) which later affected place identity and place dependent. This underlying principle of the model considers that travelers develop their experiences in a path order that is at earlier stage of travelling to the end when individuals attach themselves to specific destination. From the result structural model (Figure 2), it is confirmed that (H1) there is a significant relationship meaning that utilitarian motives affect key hospitality services ($\beta = .21$; $p < .01$). The results also indicate that role escape motives play do not affect key hospitality services meaning there is no significant relationship between the variables ($\beta = .05$; $p = \text{non significant}$; H2).

It was also found that there is a significant association between cultural distance motives and key hospitality services implying that cultural distance motives significantly affect key hospitality services ($\beta = .18$; $p < .05$; H3). Our next sequence tells us that there is a significant relationship between key hospitality services and place identity, meaning key hospitality services affect place identity ($\beta = .2$; $p < .05$; H4). Another disconfirmation of the model is that there is no association between key hospitality services and place dependence, that is key hospitality services do not affect place dependence ($\beta = .01$; $p = \text{non significant}$; H5). We also find that there is a strong relationship between place identity and place dependence, meaning that place dependence is a stronger predictor of place identity ($\beta = .6$; $p < .001$; H6).

Further, the model shows that there is strong intercorrelation between utilitarian and role escape motives; ($\beta = .27$; $p < .005$), role escape and cultural distance motives ($\beta = .46$; $p < .001$), and utilitarian and cultural distance motives ($\beta = .22$; $p < .001$).

In the proposed model the variance of endogenous variables is also explained. Specifically, the variance in key hospitality services (R^2) is explained by 11.7%, while that of place identity and place dependence is explained by 4.2% and 35.9% respectively. Additionally, this means the structural relations among the exogenous and endogenous variables in our model describe 11.7% of the total variation in key hospitality services, 4.2% of the total variation in place identity and 35.9% of the total variation in place dependence.

DISCUSSION

The overall purpose of this study was to establish associations that utilitarian, role of escape and cultural distance motives influence expectations (key hospitality services) which later affect an emotional bond between visitors and attractions of Northern Circuit in Tanzania. Six proposed paths were established and tested (Figure 2). The model is part of the theory that tests the study hypotheses. In this study, it is argued that these paths are significant since they dominate the implications of the study. In specific and interestingly this is because the model associates the motives

to the expectations and the role of place identity on place dependence. These associations help the reader to understand possible consequences of many potential visitors in their early or even at the stage of planning the travel, during their stay and finally when building their attachment as well as future choices towards the destination (Jonsson-Kvist and Klefjo, 2006).

The respondents had motivations that visiting Tanzania would offer them with various experiences such as finding what they expected to find, achieve the purpose of their visit, getting away from their daily routine pressures, natural scenery, realization of a simpler lifestyle, and share culture. This study found out that such experiences would lead to key hospitality services (expectations). Two of the motivation variables revealed that a relationship existed between respondents travel motivations and expectations, while one variable disconfirmed. The strength of their associations differed, as shown by different coefficients related to two motivation factors. Specifically, the linkage between utilitarian motives and key hospitality services was found to be slightly stronger than cultural distance motives and key hospitality services. On the other hand, the relationship between role escape motives and key hospitality services was found not to be significant. Hsu *et al.*, (2010) noted that motivation is an essential part of the travel consumer behaviour; however, studies on the relationships between motivation and other constructs are surprisingly rare. Previous studies (Feather, 1982; Hsu *et al.*, 2010) reported that there is a relationship between motivation and expectation, however their studies confirmed that motivation is a function of expectations that is expectations affected motivation. In this study motivation was proposed to affect expectation and in particular utilitarian and cultural distance motives confirmed to affect key hospitality services, while role escape motives do not affect key hospitality services.

The study also found out that respondent's expectations lead to place attachment. Throughout this study place identity and place dependence are components of place attachment in which it is also argued that these are manifestations of loyalty. A significant relationship between key hospitality services and place identity was established in this study in which place identity predict tourist expectations towards visiting Tanzania. No previous study was able to confirm such a relationship, thus, this is a unique contribution of this study. According to Hou *et al.*, (2005) place identity refers to the idea that tourists may develop rich memories and feelings toward a particular destination and may hold those feelings central to their definition and expression of the self. In hospitality literature emotions are a result of a different experiences attached cultural activities and values. This search process is used as explanation tourists associate themselves with the destination. Therefore, nature, culture, and adventure tourism in the Northern Circuit appear to allow international visitors to develop their variations of belief in key hospitality services in different destinations of Northern Circuit. These processes are to ensure tourists feel at home in temporary environment. These findings supports the idea that, as in other places of the world (Parmer, 1999), tourism may be used to construct a shared national identity.

The study also revealed that place identity influence place dependence in which it was found that place dependence is a stronger predictor of place identity. Authors

have agreed that place dependence and place identity form place attachment. Hou *et al.* (2005) studied Hakka and non Hakka Taiwanese visitors to Pei-Pu to find that place identity were the strongest construct in defining place attachment for Hakka visitors. On the other hand, place dependence was the strongest for non-Hakka visitors. In their study, place identity and place dependence were used as composites and treated separately with different meanings. Mlozi *et al.* (2012) confirmed a strong relationship between place dependence and place identity to both subsample that is with high loyalty intentions and low/moderate loyalty intentions. Another study by Mlozi and Pesāmaa (2013) argued that place identity has a positive effect on place dependence, and the positive effect increases as tourists become more familiar with the destination. In this study, a strong relationship between place identity and place dependence was found for visitors of different ethnic group visiting Tanzania. Notably, these variables were tested in the absence of control variables (i.e., length of stay, number of visit, loyalty intentions) thus adding a unique contribution to Mlozi's earlier studies.

The findings provide valuable contribution towards developing a more integrative theoretical understanding of the link between motivation and other constructs and in specific the role of place identity to place dependence. The study of motivation is in the preliminary stage in understanding consumer behaviour, which changes over time since it is a continuous process. Hsu *et al.* (2010) noted that motivation is an essential part of the travel consumer behaviour; however, studies on the relationships between motivation and other constructs are surprisingly rare. Thus, this study taps on that gap.

Also there have been extended debates over the relationship between place identity and place attachment which this study addresses. Undoubtedly, there are limited integrated theory of place dependence and place identity as components of place attachment. Therefore, this study has shown the importance of constructing such theories from different ethnic backgrounds. Further, the empirical findings of this study confirm that international visitors to Tanzania possess specific travel motivations, expectations, and finally attach themselves to specific destinations in different ways. Other researchers can make use of this model in different context and compare results to this study.

Hoe *et al.* (2005) study focused on culture tourism in Taiwan and they proposed future researches into diverse world regions where other form of tourism may also be related to national identity. This study responded to that call, and focused international tourists to Tanzania. Other studies also may focus on the same types of tourism with different ethnic groups in different countries. Since, one of the initiatives of Tanzania is to promote domestic tourism, this model could as well be used in domestic tourism context and learn how Tanzanians may identify and attach themselves to different destinations within the country having diverse behaviours and cultures. In turn, the findings can help other researchers and policy makers particularly in Tanzania to set appropriate strategies for increasing flow of domestic and international tourist by improving specific motivations, expectations, place identity and place dependence.

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