INVESTIGATING THE BRAND IMAGE OF NIGERIA AND ITS IMPLICATION FOR MARKETING THIS COUNTRY AS A TOURISM DESTINATION: UK PERSPECTIVE

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SALFORD FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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DECLARATION

This is to certify that this thesis is the result of my own work, and that no portion of it contained herein has been submitted for another degree or qualification in this or any other university, to the best of my knowledge and that the original work is my own except where due references are made

ABBREVIATIONS

NTDC: Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation

WTTC: World Travel & Tourism Council

ERB: Elegushi Royal Beach

LCC: Lekki, Lekki Conservation Centre

OGZ: Lekki; and the Origin Gardens and Zoo,

NTI: Nigerian tourism industry

ABSTRACT

Recently, there has been an increase in studies on branding and tourism consumer destinations. These studies identify the major brand-related factors or the key reasons for destination choice among tourists, but these studies are Euro-American-centric. Little is known about this subject in developing economies like Nigeria. Nigeria is blessed with countless tourist attractions and events that are sufficient to stimulate the country's economic and social expansion. Yet, the country's attraction as a tourism destination among Europeans continues to decline. This study, therefore, is driven by the need to understand how Nigeria's brand image and her tourism sector's marketing activities influence British tourists' choice of destination. This study is underpinned by five consumer behaviour theories, including the Nicosia Model, Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model, Howard-Sheth Model, Classical Purchase Behaviour Models, and Theory of Planned Behaviour. Both the positivist and interpretivism paradigms research designs were adopted, using a carefully structured questionnaire embedded with a structured interview guide to collect data from 171 British tourists from 12 selected tourism organisations/agents in the UK. These data were analysed using descriptive statistics, independent samples t-test, components factor analysis, and multiple linear. Findings showed that Nigeria's negative brand image, coupled with the ineffective and inefficient marketing strategies of the Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC), negatively influenced British tourists' choice of Nigeria. At the same time, they visit some African countries that share similar cultures and tourism experiences with Nigeria. Conclusions were drawn based on these findings, and recommendations were offered for future improvements.

Keywords: *Consumer Behaviour, Tourist Destination, Brand Value, Destination Image, Marketing Activities, British Tourists, Choice of Destination.*

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0   CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the thesis. To this end, this chapter is divided into the following sections: section 1.1 provides a detailed background to the study; the rationale for the study is justified in section 1.2; the study's aims, objectives and hypothesis are presented in section 1.3; a summary of the research methods and methodology is presented in section 1.4; scope and limitations are explained in section 1.5, and the key contributions to knowledge are presented in section 1.6; the structure of the remaining part of the thesis is described in section 1.7.

1.1   RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Tourism provides significant and lifelong trading prospects for developed and developing countries (Benavides, 2001; Ofori et al., 2022; Trupp, 2020). Besides, the industry offers an irregular distribution of benefits threatening tourism's economic, social, and environmental sustainability in some emerging economies (Benavides, 2001; Dwyer, 2021). Tourism provides a primary source of economic advancement and diversification for various developing economies (Mishra and Kukreti, 2022). Wall (2006) argue that tourism plays a more active role in developing countries' economic growth than developed nations. Tourism development brings about income and employment generation (Khalil & Kakar, 2007; Mishra and Kukreti, 2022), enriches foreign exchange proceeds through the import of capital goods, merchandise trade, and required services, as well as improves the manufacturing sectors of a country (Durbarry, 2004; Mishra and Kukreti, 2022).

The World Bank Group (2017) also highlights how well-managed tourism enhances livelihoods, natural resources and cultural heritage protection and stimulates international understanding. The United Nations (UN) declared 2017 as the International Year of "Sustainable Tourism for Development" to promote sustainable tourism. The UN recognised sustainable tourism as a dynamic component of achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 8, 12, and 14 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015).

According to World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2017), travel and tourism is the largest service industry globally and is growing continuously. The industry stimulates host countries' Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth and significantly contributes to government tax revenues. This industry is worth US$7.6 trillion, representing over 10 per cent of global GDP, about 7 per cent of all intercontinental trade, and 30 per cent of the international services export. Tourism receipts offer a vital source of foreign exchange for economies around the globe, facilitating economic growth and investment in many other industries. Tourism recorded a 3.1% growth in 2016, higher than the total 2.5% growth of the global economy (World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2017).

The WTTC's (2017) annual analysis, which examines the global employment and economic impact of Travel & Tourism in 25 regions and 185 countries, found that travel and tourism account for 319 million jobs (10 per cent of total employment) and 10.4% of global GDP, representing US$8.8 trillion of the global economy. The leisure market also had a huge chunk of overall spending, representing about 80% of the total, unlike the 21.5% for business spend, while 6.5% of the total global exports travel and 27.2% of total global service exports were from the tourism industry in 2018.

With 3.9% growth in 2018, the travel and tourism industry outgrew the global economy (3.2%) and consistently outpaced the overall economic growth between 2011-2018. Similarly, in Travel & Tourism GDP in 2018, the strongest-growing region was the Asia-Pacific, then Africa, while only China contributed a quarter of the global travel and tourism growth during the same year (Turner, 2019). Additionally, the emergence of several new destinations was also claimed by UNWTO (2014), making the industry highly competitive globally (Dar & Bhat, 2018; Ipole *et al.,* 2018; Ana *et al.,* 2017; Wang, 2016; Parsaeemehr *et al*., 2013).

Furthermore, the rise in destination choices available around the world makes the industry more competitive, as several destinations offer very related experiences (Noela *et al.,* 2018; Qu *et al*., 2011; Blain *et al*., 2005) with similar quality of services (Qu *et al*., 2011). This thus makes the competition tougher among the several tourist destinations (Artuğer *et al*., 2013; Chen & Phou, 2013). Therefore, tourist destinations must create unique brands that tourists can differentiate from (Obiunu, 2018; Yulisutiany, 2018; Demirtas *et al*., 2017; Zahid, 2017; Anupriya *et al.,* 2016; Qu *et al*., 2011).

Extant research (Henok, 2021; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Cai *et al.,* 2004; Leisen, 2001) argues that notable among the factors that inspire tourists is the availability of different tourism destinations. A tourist makes a final decision. Consumers, however, are usually offered other choices of destinations that provide similar services like beautiful scenic views, quality accommodations, friendly people, etc. Hence, it is not sufficient for a destination to be included in the tourists' destinations of interest; instead, it must be differential and unique for the destination to be finally selected by the tourists (Haque *et al.,* 2018).

Examining how destination uniqueness affects tourist satisfaction, Ijeomah *et al.* (2019) investigate the effects of tourist attractions on tourist satisfaction in Elegushi Royal Beach (ERB),

Lekki, Lekki Conservation Centre (LCC), Lekki; and the Origin Gardens and Zoo (OGZ), Ikorodu. Canopy walkways were the most prevalent attractions within LCC resorts, present in 26.32% of LCC locations, followed by family parks (24.56%), nature park trails (22.81%), and treehouses (10.53%). Half of the ERB results included the Atlantic Ocean, whilst the others were popular thanks to beaches (34%) and relaxation spots (16.00%). In contrast, OGZ attractions are comprised of wild animals (26%), bar (28%), and the Atlantic Ocean (34%). They further found that the major tourist activities at LCC included picnics and relaxation (21.21%), as well as canopy walking (22.73%); ERB-based resorts offered swimming and ocean-viewing (22.81%), relaxing and relishing sea breeze (33.33%). By contrast, OGZ-based resorts offered ocean-viewing and enjoying sea breeze (27.50%) and game viewing (30.00%) as the major tourist activities.

On the other hand, LCC-based resorts faced challenges like an attack from monkeys (15.91%), ramshackle wooden walkways (19.32%), and game sighting inability (27.27%). Among ERB-based challenges were litter, broken bottles in the sand (34.29%), and tourists being harassed by touts. Major challenges faced by OGZ included bad access roads (19.05%), inmates' poor environmental conditions (29.76%), etc. Concerning their charges, the study found that 56%, 80%, and 86% of the sample tourists were contented with ERB, LCC, and OGZ charges, respectively. Only 42% and 46% of the tourists were satisfied with OGZ and LCC activities, respectively, while the majority of the tourists (62.00%) were satisfied with ERB activities. Ijeomah *et al.* (2019) argue that destination uniqueness affects tourist satisfaction and choice. They found that tourist satisfaction with ERB was higher than that of LCC and OGZ resorts, thanks to its intimate links with nature. This is also in agreement with the claim of Haque *et al.* (2018) that the concept of destination branding is critical for destination identity in the tourists' minds, among several other alternatives.

The significance of branding and destination image in the past years has increased substantially, and making countries understand the necessity of promoting their image in the international market (Alvarez, 2010). It is, therefore, imperative to identify the significant brand-related factors or the critical reasons for destination choice among tourists. Additionally, to identify the type of image created by tourists based on their views concerning a destination (Balakrishnan *et al*., 2011), thus enhancing the creation of an appealing brand to the target market segment (Henok, 2021 Gretzel *et al*., 2006; Blain *et al*., 2005).

The basis of any organisation's marketing orientation is its understanding of how potential customers decide to spend their available time and money and the value they derive from the outcome (Laws, 1991). Consequently, customer purchasing and repurchasing have become the primary reasons organisations are successful (Cochram, 2006). Competition becomes inevitable as markets expand with firms selling the same products or services.

For this purpose, studying consumer behaviour becomes crucial for marketing activities focusing on promoting and selling tourism products (Fratu, 2011). It allows marketers to develop their decision-making process, predict their consumers' future behaviour, and have an objective image of consumer needs. Also, the knowledge of consumer behaviour helps marketers to understand how their consumers think, feel and select from alternatives such as products, services, brands, holiday destinations, etc. and how consumers are influenced by their environment, reference groups, family, and sales representatives.

Consumer behaviour can be defined as the "study of the processes involved when an individual or group select, purchase, use and dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires" (Solomon *et al*., 2006, pg.6). In order to gain an insight into the real world of how to make a purchase decision, researchers suggest developing models. According to Mishra (2021),

consumer decision-making models stipulate the exact cause and outcome which relates to consumer behaviour. Engel *et al.* (1995) further explain that consumer decision-making models offer several benefits, which include: enabling organisations to understand what occurs as variables and circumstances change; they provide a reference for conceptual frameworks which logically indicate the interrelationship of variables for the research; they offer an opportunity to understand various consumer decision process and marketing strategies, and they play a vital role in establishing a concept or concepts. Previous research has borrowed theories of consumer behaviour from the management and marketing fields and applied them to tourism literature. Most of these studies examined similar things (satisfaction and loyalty); however, the outcome cannot be compared when used in a different research context.

Previous studies demonstrate a focus on different countries to identify the key factors that are responsible for tourists' destination choices (Henok, 2021; Chang-Keun *et al.,* 2018; Balakrishnan *et al*., 2011; Qu *et al*., 2011; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hankinson, 2004; Kaplanidou & C.Vogt, 2003; Cai, 2002; Aaker, 1997). Similarly, despite the distinctions between tourism and other consumer offerings, previous studies place destination personality, brand image, satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and consumer choice of destination high on the agenda for tourism scholars and practitioners alike. Regrettably, the literature still offers little insight into the relationship between these concepts (Henok, 2021; Qu *et al*., 2011). Responding to the calls for more comprehensive findings in the study of tourist destination branding (e.g., Ekinci *et al*., 2013; Tsiotsou & Ratten, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008), the present study investigates the interrelationships among destination branding, destination image, marketing activities and tourist consumer behaviour.

Nigeria is gifted with warm, sundry climates. About 800 kilometres of charming evergreen vegetation and beaches in the south, as well as fascinating landforms that overshadow savannah in

the North (Eja *et al.,* 2012). The name 'Giant of Africa' was earned partly due to her tremendous and exciting natural settings, features like springs, waterfalls, mountainous areas, and hills, with moderate climate and exceptional tropical wildlife. In addition, the socio-cultural heritage of Nigeria, with about 200 million people, and its level of hospitality make the country an enviable and unique pride of place amidst competing tourist destinations around the globe (Maiangwa, 2020; Aniah, 2005). Regarding the number of natural attractions, Olayinka's (2017) statistics reveal that Nigeria is one of the best ten vacation destinations in Africa, as the country is endowed with 2000 spectacular natural attractions.

Despite all these natural endowments and tourism potentials, some Nigerian states experience low tourist inflow. According to the WTTC, in 2012, the tourism industry only accounted for 0.6% of Nigeria's national GDP. In 2016, however, tourism had grown to make 1.7% direct contribution to Nigeria's GDP; 4.7% total contribution to GDP; 1.6% direct contribution to employment; 4.5% total contribution to employment; 2.1% visitor exports; 2.7% domestic spending; 0.9% leisure spending; 0.8% business spending; and 7.2% contribution to capital investment (WTTC, 2017). Awaritefe (2007) observed insignificant patronage from domestic tourism, partly because of the low level of awareness about tourism activities coupled with a typical Nigerian's low-income level. Nonetheless, Olayinka's (2017) statistics reveal that tourist inflow to Nigeria rose from approximately 5 million in 2011 to 14 million in 2014, beyond those of Morocco and South Africa. The current tourism performance of the country is nowhere near the desired vision, as the 2015 travel and tourism competitiveness index pointed out that among 141 countries, Nigeria had a value of 2.79, which placed her 131st (World Economic Forum, 2015). Like Oluwole (2000) acknowledged that poor branding of Nigeria and her tourism industry and unproductive marketing efforts are partly responsible for the low patronage of tourism destinations in Nigeria. The visa

application process for prospective tourists was also highlighted as another key challenge for the Nigerian tourism industry (Odia, 2012; Nigeria High Commission, 2010).

Furthermore, terrorism, high crime rate, and political instability negatively impacted tourist inflow into Nigeria (Eja *et al.* (2012). Insecurity, inadequate infrastructural amenities, ineffective awareness creation and promotion, insufficient funding, and unwanted attitude and image have also been highlighted as the obstacles that must be overcome for the Nigerian tourism industry to flourish (Ndanusa *et al.,* 2014). Perhaps, these and other reasons are why Ayeni and Ebohon (2012) argue that tourism in Nigeria has not yet become a channel of income generation, employment creation, and revenue mobilisation.

Knowing its importance, the Nigerian government carefully chose tourism as a substitute for oil resources and a strategic tool to actualise its 7-point agenda and vision 20-20 (Nigeria High Commission, 2009; Olarewaju, 2009). The 7-point agenda are transportation; power and energy; food security; national security, Niger Delta and energy security; education and human capital development; land tenure reform and home ownership; and wealth creation). Despite the Nigerian government's apparent importance attached to the industry, it has not yet conducted a perception audit on the tourism industry to analyse its present image and identify necessary steps toward repositioning the industry in the minds of potential local and foreign tourists.

It is against this background that the present study investigates UK-based tourists' perception of the Nigerian brand and image, as well as their perceptions of the marketing activities of the Nigerian tourism sector, and how such perceptions affect their behaviour towards Nigeria as a tourist destination. The UK is chosen because of its developed status compared to Nigeria and is home to most Nigerians in the diaspora (Nwozor et al., 2022; Madweke, 2010). In 2017, it was home to at least 210,000 Nigerian emigrants (excluding Nigerians who are UK citizens by birth),

second only to the USA's 280,000 Nigerian emigrants (see Fig. 1.1 below). More so, developed countries like the UK and Canada had also faced the challenges of the negative image that eventually led to their rebranding efforts which repositioned them in the global market (Leonard, 1997; Ferguson, 2001). However, the researcher deemed it fit to sample the UK tourists due to the historical, colonial relationship between the two nations.
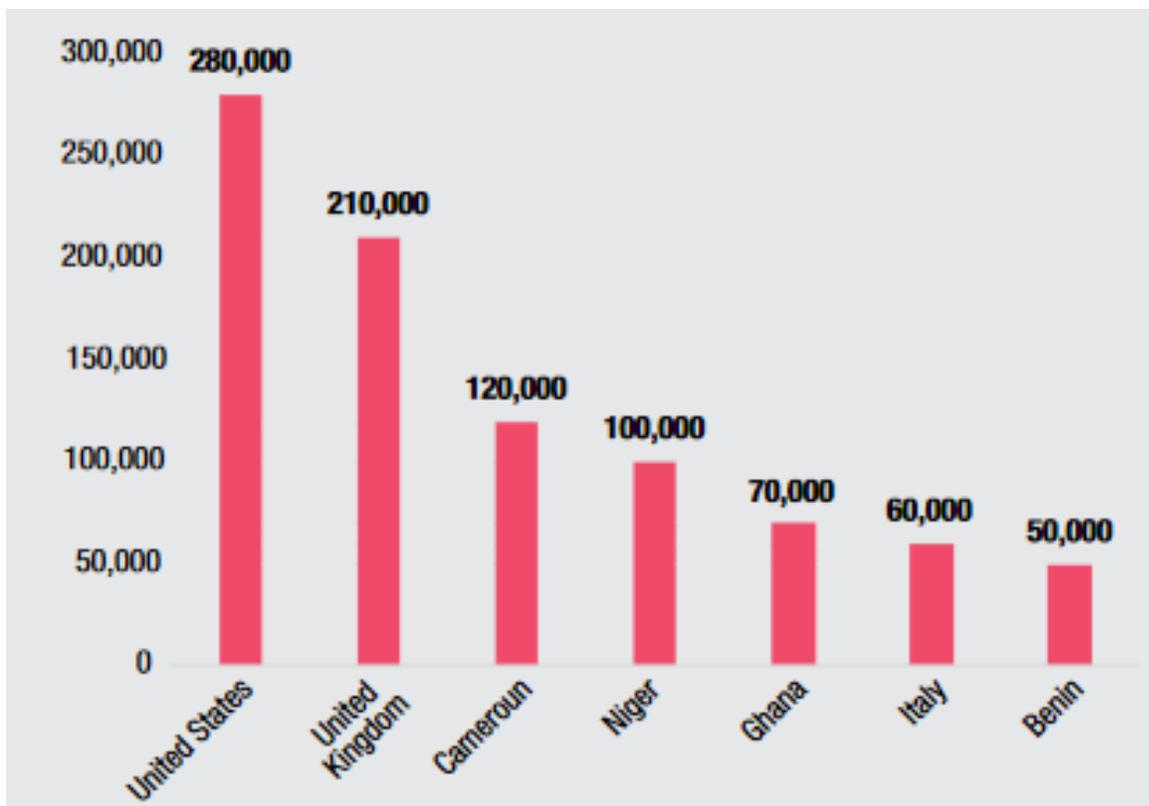
Figure 1.1: Top country destinations for Nigeria emigrants (2017), population

Source: UN-DESA, PwC Analysis (2017)

1.2   RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Nigeria, as a tourist destination, is endowed with bountiful tourism attraction events and sites that, if appropriately harnessed, are viable means of stimulating the country's social and economic advancement. Despite the abundant tourism resources in the country, the marketing tactics and

activities remain ineffective and unproductive (Adeniyi, 2022; Odia & Isibor, 2014; Ugwuonah *et al.,* 2017).

Nigeria is generally struggling for available tourists with other countries around the globe, specifically in comparison to other African countries offering similar tourism experiences. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) 2006, Nigeria's inability to advance its marketing activities has led to a continuous decline in international tourist arrivals. In 2010, the international tourism arrival in Nigeria stood at 1,555,000. However, in 2013 declined to 600,000 in 2013, and the arrival had only 0.6% contribution to the total exports and 0.8% in 2014 (WTO, 2014).

Nigeria is currently faced with the issue of a negative image due to political instability and religious crises. It is viewed as a dangerous holiday destination, which detrimentally impacts its brand image and ability to attract tourists. Most of these negative images come from the media, specifically the internet, as tourists are likely to access this information source when selecting a tourism destination (Stepchenkova, 2010). Recent studies also show that insecurity, political instability, and religious crisis have not improved (Ojo & Aghedo, 2013; Mwang *et al.,* 2014; Odia & Isibor, 2014). Issues linked with Nigeria's image are mainly caused by historical, political (regional conflict), corruption, destination mismanagement and marketing, air flight, management of infrastructures, and the country's national identity. These aspects have resulted in a fall in international tourists visiting Nigeria.

Notwithstanding the well-known views on the impacts of destination marketing on tourists' choices, most of the extant studies focus on regions and cities. They are also carried out in developed economies. Little has been done on the impact of destination marketing on tourists'

choices in African countries, especially in Nigeria. For instance, Agina *et al.* (2017) compare the impact of destination marketing on tourists' choices in Nigeria and some African countries. Ugwuonah *et al*. (2017) conducted a comparative study on the impact of tourism marketing on economic growth in Nigeria, Seychelles, and South Africa; Ajake (2015) highlighted the influence of marketing strategies on tourists' destination area choice in Cross River State, Nigeria. Ali (2013) emphasises marketing as the major impediment to Iran's tourism industry, while Esu and Ebitu (2010) examined the promotion activities of emerging tourism destinations.

This study, therefore, is motivated by the need to understand how the brand image of Nigeria and its tourism sector's marketing activities influenced British tourists' choice of destination. The study also evaluates and proposes viable ways for government and private investors to improve the Nigerian brand image and market Nigeria as a tourism destination.

1.2.1   Gap in Literature

One of the main reasons for conducting this study is the lack of empirical research exploring the impact of tourism marketing in Nigeria. The tourism industry in Nigeria has not yet fully developed in a large-scale capacity, and it has suffered greatly under the past military and civilian regimes (Matthew, 2021; Iyiola & Akintunde, 2011).

Nigeria needs to establish an effective marketing strategy to compete with its competitors. In 2002, the Nigerian Government declared tourism as one of the six critical areas for economic development between 2003 and 2007 (Iyiola & Akintunde, 2011). Progress within the tourism industry has not come to fruition because little effort has been made to promote Nigeria's brand locally and internationally (Onokala & Olajide, 2020), thus making it necessary to conduct a perception audit of potential tourists about the Nigerian brand image.

Tourism destination marketing has generally been an essential subject for researchers in developed and emerging countries. However, there has been little interest in the international marketing approach adopted by the Nigerian tourism sector, with the result that few empirical studies have been done in this area (Ekeke & Olori, 2020; Amalu et al., 2021 Ovat, 2003; Adegbuyi, 2008; Iyiola, 2014; Adeleke, 2015). This is a gap the present study seeks to fill by exposing the Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) to the perceptions of British tourists about its marketing activities and how such actions affect tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as a destination.

Similarly, this study is not just looking at Nigeria's tourism marketing activities in isolation; it examines its relationships with other variables like destination branding, image, and tourist behaviour. Extant research focuses only on one or two of these selected variables. For example, Haque *et al.* (2018) examine the effect of destination image and personality on the choice of Maldives as a tourist destination, concluding that destination personality directly impacts the two destination choices in Maldivian. They also conclude that destination brands significantly influence the relationship between destination brand image and the choice of Maldives. Odia and Agbonifoh (2017) examine the determinants of the perceived image of the Nigerian tourism industry, arguing that the average index obtained on the respondents' perceptions of the Nigerian tourism industry (NTI) was positive.

The NTI was viewed as the most reputable in terms of hospitality but the weakest in political stability. Agina *et al.* (2017) compare Nigeria with other African countries regarding destination marketing and tourists' choice, finding that the Nigerian tourism marketing activities are ineffective. This accounts for the low tourist arrivals to Nigeria, unlike their arrival to those African countries that rank relatively high in the effectiveness of their marketing strategies. Muhwezi *et*

al. (2016) explore how the effects of negative symbolism of destinations could be alleviated, focusing on Uganda's image. They conclude that tourism in Africa is generally perceived as riskier than any contemporary region other than the Middle East. Muhwezi *et al.* (2016) also find that negative images of countries would likely lead to negatively biased perceptions about the destination and, as a result, could affect their competitiveness.

Furthermore, the subject of a brand image upon a tourism destination from the view of a developed country (UK) on an emerging country like Nigeria has not really been addressed before. Also, Nigeria was chosen for this research because it is blessed with natural and artificial tourism attractions, yet it is not a well-known tourism destination.

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Research Aim

The current challenges facing Nigeria's brand image and its tourism market have led the researcher to conduct a study that will help fill the gaps in the literature on how Nigeria's brand image and its tourism marketing activities affect international tourists' decision to visit Nigeria. Consequently, this study investigates and critically evaluates the factors affecting British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's brand image as a tourism destination.

1.3.2 Research Objectives

To achieve this aim, the objectives of this study are:

i)   To evaluate the effects of organic and induced agents on British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's brand image.

ii) To determine the significant factors influencing British tourists' behaviour – decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, and trust – towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

iii) To evaluate the relationship between British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice and Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities.

iv) To evaluate the magnitude and direction of the relationship between British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination and Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities

v) To evaluate the magnitude and direction of the relationship between British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination and Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To achieve the aim and objectives of this study, the following null hypotheses will be tested:

H_{01}: There is no significant difference between the effects of organic and induced agents on British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's brand image.

NB: Organic Agents include Nigeria's popular culture and news, solicited and unsolicited information about Nigeria. While Induced Agents include tourism marketing activities, celebrities' endorsement and testimonies of satisfied customers, free endorsement through travel writing, travel brochures and advertising, and the information provided by tour operators

H₀₂: No significant factors influence British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

H₀₃: Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

H₀₄: Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination.

H₀₅: Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination.

1.5 METHODOLOGY

This section summarises the methodology adopted by this study, while Chapter Four gives a detailed account of the methods adopted. Hence, this study adopts both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms, using a survey design with a blend of open-ended questions to collect primary data. As a fragment of the objectivism epistemology approach, the quantitative paradigm is a procedural philosophy in quantitative research by which natural sciences procedures are applied to social science study (Saunders et al., 2019; Crotty, 1998). Understanding a phenomenon in realism, therefore, should be examined and must be evidence-based (Hammersley, 2013). While studying such phenomena, the association between the dependent and independent variables can be determined through causal inferences as the results of the experimental designs and such association can be fully discovered by the researcher through this process (Cohen *et al*., 2011). In essence, this method enables the researcher to determine the extent to which a unit change in the

independent variable(s) would lead to a change in the dependent variables or how much the independent variable can predict or cause a change in the dependent variable. Among the advantages of this method is its efficacy in helping the researcher understand the research objectives using empirical tests and methods, including measurement, focus group discussion, sampling, or questionnaire. For example, a questionnaire could help the researcher to identify the factors affecting the decision-making process of UK tourists when choosing a destination. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that quantitative methods provide more valid and reliable insights as they are generally structured so that the respondents would respond in line with the close-ended predetermined responses by the researcher, formulated from the research objectives. Therefore, having given their opinions on different variables, the researcher can evaluate the causal relationship between variables through the insights offered by respondents. Conclusions are thus generalisable to a larger population, even for the prospective quantitative assumption.

On the other hand, the qualitative paradigm consists of methods designed to understand information relating to human and social sciences that differ from those adopted in physical sciences (Saunders et al., 2019; Hammersley, 2013). Consequently, relativist ontology is adopted by qualitative scholars; hence, a specific phenomenon may be interpreted in several ways rather than a fact that is determined using a measurement. Practically, researchers who adopt a qualitative approach can comprehensively understand the phenomenon and its complexities in its unique context instead of generalising such results to the general population (Creswell, 2007). The results could also be easily influenced by the researcher's cultural preference, belief system, ways of thinking, or personal interpretation (Saunders et al., 2019; Mack, 2010).

This study's population comprised 298 British tourists who had visited at least one African country, excluding Nigeria. The email addresses of these tourists, who had earlier given their consent

(through the companies), were obtained from 12 randomly selected tourist operators and travel agencies in the United Kingdom for data collection purposes. Hence, the sample size is determined through the use of Yamane's (1967) formula, as shown below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where: n =   Sample size

       N =   Population of the study

       e =   Precision estimate (Confidence level = 0.05)

(See Chapter Four for the sample size calculation based on this formula)

The data collected are therefore analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, with the aid of the Statistical Package for the Social Scientists (SPSS 23.0).

1.6   SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The current study offers valuable insights into UK-based tourists' perception of the Nigerian brand image, coupled with their perceptions of the Nigerian tourism sector's marketing activities, and how such perceptions affect their behaviours towards Nigeria as a tourist destination, in order to explain why they have not visited Nigeria for tourism purposes. A significant limitation of this study is that none of the respondents had been to Nigeria, meaning that studied perceptions may be formed through stereotypes, hearsay, and second-hand knowledge. This study has reduced the effects of this limitation on the outcome of the research and its generalizability by considering only tourists who have visited other African countries, which would enable them to compare their experiences in those African countries against their perceptions of Nigeria's brand. Furthermore,

many Nigerians who have never travelled abroad are enthusiastic about visiting places like the UK or USA, even if just for a few hours. Therefore, when they are presented with such an opportunity to travel, they would not leave such countries until they have taken more than enough photographs to post on their social media accounts to claim they have visited those countries. Many love these countries more than they love Nigeria. Not because they have been there before they developed such love and formed their perceptions about them, but because the governments of the UK, the US and so on do not give room for stereotypes, hearsay, and second-hand knowledge to determine people's perceptions about their countries. Instead, they dictate what perception they want the international community to have about their countries through concerted efforts to build their brands and images and exploit all possible mechanisms and media to achieve this laudable goal. Whether the same can be said about Nigeria is one of the objectives the present study seeks to achieve. This study also examines the tourists' perceptions about the Nigerian tourism sector's marketing activities, as such actions are expected to project their country's image.

Furthermore, the choice of UK tourists who have not visited Nigeria as the respondents for this study is justified by the claim of Odia and Isibor (2014). They posit that as the global marketplace competition becomes intense, a country's reputation plays a more significant role in moulding the people's perceptions about the country than their actual experiences. In sum, tourists' perceptions of a country influence their decision to visit a particular country. For example, no tourist would – despite the potential for good experiences in Nigeria - jettison the information they hear from news and social media about the menace of Boko Haram and crime in Nigeria when choosing a tourism destination. Hence, the perceptions of both old and prospective visitors seem equally affected by a country's brand.

Similarly, the present study only includes two principal variables: the tourists' perception of the Nigerian brand image and the tourism sector's marketing activities as determinants of the tourists' behaviour towards the country. Several other variables, such as the previous experience, level of satisfaction, and financial attributes of the tourist, can also influence tourists' choice of destination or brand preference. The variables are chosen to consider tourists who have not visited Nigeria; hence, their experience and level of satisfaction with the Nigerian tourism industry performance cannot be determined. Unlike Nigeria, where affluent citizens usually carry out tourism (especially to foreign countries), UK, citizens, irrespective of their social class, have the opportunity to holiday at a destination of their choice as they can either fund their holiday trips from their savings or loans from their places of work. This study develops a model based on the variables of interest (see research hypotheses) to enhance the generalizability of the findings. Another crucial aspect is the comparative analysis of the international and local tourists that are not captured as part of the scope of this study. This could be another critical area for further research to explore. It may offer some recommendations for the Nigerian tourism industry to target indigenous and foreign tourists in its marketing activities.

1.7   ANTICIPATED CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

No evidence suggests that there has been any study on the implication of marketing Nigeria as a tourism destination to British consumers, as well as the British tourists' perception of the Nigeria brand personality and brand image. More so, the research seeks to bridge the following gaps, among others.

a) A dearth of comparative analyses of the effects of the brand personality, brand image, and the effectiveness of tourism marketing activities on some selected dimensions of tourism

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consumer behaviour, vis-à-vis attitude, attitude, expectations, and trust as they affect Nigeria as a tourist destination.

b) The paucity of comparative analyses on the impacts of the image formation process, vis-à-vis the organic agent and the induced agent on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists.

c) Scarcity of studies categorising consumer behaviour dimensions into the three components of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

d) Development of tourism literature within Nigeria's tourism industry.

e) Development of potential key factors for successful and sustainable activities in marketing Nigeria as a tourist destination.

1.8   THESIS FRAMEWORK

This thesis contains seven chapters. This thesis establishes the factors affecting perceptions of the Nigeria brand personality and brand image held by visitors from the UK; the succeeding six chapters are in the following order:

Chapter 2: Tourism Customer Behaviour

This chapter evaluates previous literature on the concept of branding, destination branding, and consumer behaviour, as well as the relevant theories and models, among others.

Chapter 3: The Nigeria Tourism Sector

This chapter contains a wide-ranging review of the literature on Nigeria's tourism sector, with subheadings such as a brief about Nigeria, factors affecting Nigeria as a tourist destination,

Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation, marketing Nigeria as a tourism destination, and the hypotheses also restated.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The chapter presents and justifies the philosophical basis for this research, the research methodology, research design, sampling design, data collection instrument, validity and reliability, and analytical procedures.

Chapter 5: Findings and Analysis

This chapter presents and analyses the primary data collected through research questionnaires using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter 6: Discussion

This chapter gives an in-depth discussion of the results. The results are compared with the relevant literature in order to investigate and establish similarities and differences with existing theoretical propositions

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations.

This chapter summarises the research and draws conclusions and recommended strategies related to the objectives discussed in chapter one of this study. It also includes the contribution and the implications for the Nigerian tourism stakeholders (Government, tour operators (public and private), travel agents and so on), as well as the suggestions for further studies.

CHAPTER TWO: BRANDING AND CUSTOMER BEHAVIOUR

2.0   CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a review of related literature. It explains the current understanding of certain concepts revolving around branding and consumer behaviour, as well as the relationship between these concepts regarding tourism.

Globalisation is affecting the tourism industry. Snowballing competition and economic downturns, coupled with energetic technological advancement, offer both threats and opportunities to the industry like every other (Dwyer & Cavlek, 2019; Buhalis & Law, 2008). Scholars regard this industry as a pioneer of new technology adoption. Innovations within the industry cut across several spheres, from electronic booking systems to online business and the latest marketing strategies (Peters & Vellas, 2019; Tsiotsou & Ratten, 2010). As part of these developments, innovative tourism marketers are rapidly embracing branding practices parallel to those used by product marketers to accentuate the exceptionality of the destinations they represent (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Cai, 2002).

It is broadly acknowledged that, like a corporate brand, a place brand can act as an umbrella brand to enhance the branding and promotion of several services, products, and places connected to a given place (Iversen & Hem, 2008; Anholt, 2004). Amidst the exceedingly volatile market conditions with progressively growing competition, innovative destination branding is becoming more relevant for tourism marketers (Hosany *et al.,* 2006).

Regardless of the little attention branding has received in the hospitality and tourism literature, it is claimed to be expanding gradually into tourist destinations (Cai, 2002). Tourism marketing began as an inquiry topic in the late 1990s. Various tourism marketing researchers who participated in the American Marketing Science conference held in Miami, the USA, in 1997 deliberated on

brand development. The 29th annual research conference of the Travel and Tourism Research Association in 1998 also used 'Branding the Travel Market' as its theme. Similarly, in 1999, the Journal of Vacation Marketing dedicated a special issue to 'Destination Branding'. At the beginning of the new millennium, Morgan *et al*. (2002) edited a book on destination branding. More recently, there have been increasing calls for more studies on destination branding (Hanna et al., 2021; Ruiz-Real et al., 2020; Perkins et al., 2020).

Similarly, successful businesses invest substantial resources to understand their customers' wants and needs in the competitive market and gain a better knowledge of customers' buying behaviour to promote and sell their products and services effectively. An industry's ability to create and uphold satisfying customer relationships in the market requires an understanding of buying behaviour. According to Prasad and Jhu (2014), the main choices faced by a consumer are what to buy (products), how much to buy (quantity), where (place), when (time) and how to pay (payments term). The process of selecting between two or more options is referred to as decision-making (Robbins 2013). Therefore, in order to make a decision, there must be a choice available.

Previous studies have established the importance of motivation as an origin of consumer behaviour, brand image, and satisfaction as a significant factor when selecting a certain destination to visit over other destinations (Chang et al., 2019; Rahi et al., 2020; Camprubi *et al.*, 2008; Choi, 2010).

The destination image of a country has become a popular area of study in tourism marketing research and an influential marketing tool (Hanna et al., 2021; Ruiz-Real et al., 2020; Perkins et al., 2020Pike, 2002; Gertner & Kotler, 2004; Camprubi *et al*., 2008; Lin & Haung, 2009). The image of a destination substantially influences tourists' decision-making process and buying

behaviour (Chang et al., 2019; Rahi et al., 2020Sirakaya *et al.*, 2001; Camprubi *et al.,* 2008; Choi, 2010).

2.1   THE CONCEPT OF BRAND

The American Marketing Association (2008) describes a brand as a name, symbol, design, term, or any other attribute that distinguish a seller or service provider from others. Brands allow customers to set expectations, reducing perceived safety, monetary, or social risk (Berry, 2000). This is predominantly important in the service sector because of the difficulties in evaluating services before they are purchased. Kotler and Gertner (2002) postulate that a brand not only represents a promise of value and differentiates products but also stimulates beliefs, incites emotions and instigates behaviours.

Kotler and Keller (2006) define a brand as an expression, name, logo, design, symbol, or combination to acquaint a target consumer with a service or product offered by a vendor(s). A brand plays several critical roles, from differentiating services and products, and communicating with the consumers, to functioning as a legal domain funded by the vendor. A brand encompasses both the tangible and the intangible values of a service or product; the intangible is concerned with the values which attract prospective consumers. A service or product without a name is like a product without any importance other than its price. So there is nothing to compete with except the price. The lowest price typically wins the competition (Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Similarly, Bedbury and Fenichell (2002) affirm that a brand does not represent a product or service; rather, it is the totality of a business's values which imprint an identity or a context in the consumer's mind. From another viewpoint, brands are described as intangible assets that benefit a firm's external and internal stakeholders, such as shareholders, employees, suppliers, and

consumers. (Crane *et al.,* 2008; Srinivasan *et al.,* 2005). Yet, another definition describes brands as a set of opinions (Kapferer, 2007).

The above definitions are just a few from the several perspectives from which various practitioners and researchers have approached brand as a concept. The diversification in brand definitions also implies that a brand could be described from different standpoints, like the management, the legal, or the customer standpoint.

From the management's standpoint, branded items are a ploy to create imperfect competition as a product or service that encompasses distinguishing and non-distinguishing fundamental features. For example, pens could be used to make notes. But what distinguishes a pen from others? The logo, the brand name, and other extrinsic features like the packaging or the price are all needed to build a brand that can differentiate a pen from others. The brand encapsulates what a firm's goods or services stand for and what they are. Prosperous brands usually manage to convince consumers about the uniqueness of the services or products offered under their names and logos. They are clearly different from other products or services in the same market.

Consequently, brands are gradually perceived to constitute dire resources that enhance firms' competitive advantage over their rivals (Hunt, 2000). They are intangible assets contributing to firms' financial performance (Madden *et al.,* 2006). For example, a company that is characterised by higher prices or swift consumer reactions to marketing activities could experience faster and increased cash flows. Also, cash flows susceptibility is controlled through the loyalty of consumers towards a brand. The switching costs of consumers who are emotionally committed to a brand are high, reducing the volatility of cash flows. Consumers who trust a particular brand are likely to repurchase its goods or services, thus leading to persistent cash flows (Chaudhuri & Morris, 2001). In summary, a strong brand enhances financial performance.

From the legal standpoint, a brand is a right that protects the use of a logo, a name, or a combination of both. It is regarded as a trademark through which a vendor's product or service is identified and differentiated from other vendors (Keller, 2008, Ramello, 2006). Albeit brands exist legally the moment a business name is registered, the company has to constantly build and manage its brand to guard it against an untimely termination. However, that a similar legal manner protects different brands does not mean the brands would have the same cash flows, profit margins, or market shares (Keller, 2008). Rather, how each brand positions itself determines the image it imprints in the consumers' minds, which in the long term influences their purchasing decisions (Keller & Lehmann, 2003).

From the consumer standpoint, a brand is a set of perceptions comprising visual, verbal, or contextual information occupying the consumer's mind about a service or product (Kapferer, 2007). A firm's marketing activities coupled with consumers' personal experiences with its brand develop customers' specific perceptions (Romaniuk & Nicholls, 2006). These perceptions, in turn, trigger psychological processes within the consumer's mind and could lead to both cognitive and emotional effects (Bhat & Reddy, 1998). Brands for consumers may have several functions: assurance of a definite level of quality or provision of orientation. For instance, brands make evaluating alternatives easier in categorising products like shampoo, where the consumer can hardly differentiate between several products. More so, brands are not just meant to expedite the consumer's buying process but also serve as a communication device with social groups around the consumers (Del-Río *et al*., 2001).

It could be inferred from the above definitions that the fundamental function of a brand is to provide transparency and convenience in decision-making through the provision of assurance of performance and communicating some expectations, thus offering confidence and expediting the

buying process. A brand also functions as an emotional stimulus that arouses a set of memories and further embodies the consumer's identity through brand imagery. The brand has management, legal, and consumer perceptions; however, this study focuses on the management and consumer perceptions of branding, as they affect the Nigerian tourism sector

2.2   DESTINATION BRANDING

Studies on destination branding are a recent addition to the field of tourism, especially those evaluating the influence of destination branding on destination competitiveness (Wong, 2018). However, branding on its own is not a new concept (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Pike, 2009; Ricardo, 2009). Over the years, many researchers have primarily focused on destination image (Boo *et al*., 2009), which led to the need to establish a framework and concept of the destination brand from the elements of branding theory and other concepts found in the marketing literature (Blain *et al*., 2005; Garcia, 2012).

Pike (2008) describes a destination as a topographical space with the presence of a collection of tourism resources and less of a political borderline. Buhalis (2000) conceptualises a destination as a permanent location which the tourists can subjectively interpret according to their purpose of visit, experience, cultural background, demographic and psychographic characteristics. Periera *et al*. (2012) define destination as where the tourism service providers are located to meet the tourists' needs and where tourism activities occur. Hence, destination branding is defined by Morrison and Anderson (2002) as a means of communicating the unique identity of a destination by differentiating it from its competitors. Another similar definition of destination branding proposed by Cai (2002) suggests that it is concerned with selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building.

They imply how prospective and repeat consumers perceive a specific destination in their minds. This view is supported by others (such as Goeldner *et al*., 2000; Kaplainidou & Vogt, 2003) who see destination branding as a method of promising an unforgettable experience uniquely connected with that destination. Destination branding also consolidates and buttresses the recollection of satisfying memories of the destination experience (Goeldner *et al*., 2000; Kaplainidou & Vogt, 2003). As such, they suggest a link between destination brand and its image.

Like the common understanding of the term 'brand', destination brand employs two crucial functions: identification and differentiation. Identification in branding literature means the act of explicating the origin of s product to the consumers, whilst a product generally embodies a physical offering that can be modified easily. However, a place as a product is a vast entity represented by different tangible and intangible elements (Florek, 2005). For instance, the tangible attributes include beaches or historical sites, whilst the intangible features include customs, culture, and history. Hence, the multifaceted nature of a destination as a brand necessitates the generalisation of the personality. Brand personality is vital for generalising desired characteristics anticipated by the supplier, allowing the supplier to describe how the target market should perceive a brand. Suppliers should therefore define their target market as some features of a destination that may appear positive to one segment and ineffective to another (Fan, 2006). Based on the anticipated brand personality, consumers connect with a particular brand by making a value proposition involving benefits or crediting particular brands (Konecnik & Go, 2008; Aaker, 1996). Besides the role of identification, destination brands are differentiated from their contenders based on the distinct meaning and attachments made by consumers. Tourism destinations, for example, may be scored against criteria such as well-maintained public spaces, high-class accommodations, and decent restaurants (Baker, 2007).

Recent destination branding research (Ekinci *et al.,* 2013); Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Qu *et al.*, 2011) builds on the conventional branding literature (Aaker, 1997; Aaker & Fournier, 1995), which postulates that people are inclined to follow brand personalisation and identification. Brand personalisation and identification are critical in brand choice, purchase prospect, and brand success (Fournier, 1998; Aaker, 1997). A broad consensus in the marketing and management literature agrees on three statements: (1) it is a good business to retain customers; (2) the most efficient way of promoting is positive word-of-mouth; and (3) satisfying customer is a principal driver for future consumer behaviour, particularly in tourism, where the intangible offerings are not easy to evaluate before consumption (Qu *et al*., 2011; Chi & Qu, 2008; Litvin *et al.,* 2008).

Other researchers conceptualise branding in general and destination branding in particular from an alternative approach, and specifically under various concepts such as brand personality, brand identifiers, and brand positioning (Haque *et al.,* 2018; Svetlana & Juline, 2010; Esu & Arrey, 2009), brand essence, brand image, brand loyalty, brand satisfaction, brand association, brand attachment (Haque *et al.,* 2018; Ezeuduji *et al.,* 2016; Wu, 2016; Rajesh, 2013; Veasna *et al*., 2013; Qu *et al.,* 2011), brand equity, brand trust (Hsu & Cai, 2009), etc. However, this study focuses on brand personality and brand image, where some of the above concepts are interwoven. Others are discussed in other subheadings of this study, like tourism consumer behaviour and marketing activities. Previous researchers have also proven the importance of destination image and personality as integral parts of destination branding and that the duo are two separate but interrelated concepts (Hosany *et al.,* 2006).

Several researchers have studied the empirical association between brand personality and brand image and found that brand image encompasses brand personality, as brand personality is the affective constituent of the brand image (Hosany *et al*., 2006; Patterson, 1999). Destination

branding has evolved as a dominant marketing tool due to the growing competition and destination substitutability, while destination personality and destination image are significant components of destination branding (Hosany *et al*., 2006; Chen & Phou, 2013). Ekinci and Hosany (2006) argue that a destination personality is a viable tool for creating destination brands and understanding tourists' standpoints on the destination. Extant research underlines the role of destination personality in building a unique destination identity and crafting resilient destination brands (Kim & Lehto, 2013; Ye, 2012; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011).

2.2.1 Brand Personality

Scholars differ on the meaning or definition of brand personality. Aaker (1997) defines brand personality as the set of human characteristics attributed to a brand. Some European and American researchers, such as Ambroise (2006) and Ferrandi and Valette-Florence (2002), claim that Aaker's description of brand personality is ambiguous and similar to other closely related concepts like brand image or brand identity (Freling & Forbes, 2005). Ambroise (2006), in his definition of brand personality, uses only 'traits', contrary to Aaker's use of 'characteristics'. Ambroise claimed that traits could be used for both persons and brands while he also removed adjectives like "sophistication" and "ruggedness" that do not equivalence in terms of human characteristics (Ambroise, 2006; Ferrandi *et al.*, 2005; Ferrandi & Valette-Florence, 2002).

Ferrandi *et al.* (2005) also argue that brand personality is essentially a concept similar to human personality in marketing. Pitt *et al.* (2006) contend that "personality" implies two things. Firstly, the presence of an individual's internal processes helps to influence behavioural patterns, thus matching what the individual says about themselves, and secondly, the presence of an external process, which focuses on how others perceive the individual, influences what others say and think about an individual (Pitt *et al*. 2006).

Consequently, intense competition in the tourism market around the world today makes it imperative for destination marketers to improve their knowledge about the tourist perceptions of a destination. Hence, destination personality is considered one of the key components of destination branding in identifying and understanding the unique perspectives developed by the tourists about a destination through their visitation to create a unique tourism brand (Kathryn, 2017; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Caprara *et al.*, 2001).

In essence, destination personality evolves from the tourist experience, which shapes tourist perception of the brand (Morgan *et al.*, 2004). Tourists can access and internalise the various communications projected by a destination and create a portrait of the destination's "behaviour". Destinations can be directly qualified with human personality traits through hotel employees, hotel employees, citizens of the nation, and tourist attractions, or simply through the tourist's imagery (Aaker, 1997), or indirectly through marketing activities like value pricing, cooperative advertising, and construction of destinations by the media (Cai, 2002).

Brand personality application and proliferation to diverse studies in consumer goods have been studied since the 1960s. However, its application in a destination context is still subject to further research (Nguyen & Ulku, 2017; Hosany *et al.*, 2006), and it is still emerging (Ozkurt & Alpay, 2018; Rotova, 2018; Kambi & Kambi, 2017; Artuğer & Çetinsöz, 2014; Chen & Phou, 2013; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Hosany *et al.,* 2007; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006) despite a lack of general taxonomy and theories of personality traits applicable to brands (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

Brand personality theory has been enthused by the advent of destination personality research (Ye, 2012). Personality characteristics vary according to the circumstances and can be used in identifying behaviour and forecasting consumer choices over time in various settings (Woszczynski *et al.*, 2002). According to Aaker's (1997) brand personality framework, destination

personality is best described as a cluster of personality traits associated with a tourism destination (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany *et al.,* 2006). Hankinson (2004) describes destination personality as a place's operational, experiential and symbolic attributes. Destination personality is also defined as a country's mental representation on measurements that characteristically capture an individual's personality (Li & Kaplanidou, 2013; Rojas-Méndez *et al*., 2013; d'Astous & Boujbel, 2007; Pitt *et al*., 2007) and how these characteristics are communicated through a country's website (Opoku, 2009).

Subsequently, it is inferred that most previous studies reviewed the above-defined destination personality as the set of human characteristics or traits attributed to a destination. Likewise, destination personalities can be placed on a continuum ranging from traits generally used to compare all the destinations to traits unique to a few destinations. The literature has proven that a relationship exists between the measurement process and destination personality assessment ability. Hence, the following section discusses the procedures for measuring destination personality.

2.2.1.1 Dimension of Destination Personality

Measuring destination personality requires the symbolic features corresponding to a cluster of human characteristics relating to the destination to be considered. The destination personality measurement process should only consider common traits to all destinations and give equal importance to the unique traits of a particular destination (Kumar & Nayak, 2014). This section, therefore, explores methods adopted by tourism researchers in measuring destination personality.

Two methods are generally used within destination personality measurement literature: structured and unstructured approaches. The structured approach identified and integrated a blend of personality adjectives in a standardised instrument. More so, most of the previous studies in this

area adapt Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scale (BPS) to measure destination personality, whereby the personality profile of a place (country, state, province, etc.) is derived from the respondents' rating of the personality adjectives (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). However, Kumar and Nayak (2014) argue that Aaker's (1997) BPS does not comprise possible negative traits a tourist might observe in a destination and that the scale of BPS may be tilted more towards specific culture, so the inclusion of some attributes peculiar to the destination under review is required. Notwithstanding the limitations of the structured approach, Marks (1976) argues that they are easy to administer and simple to code due to scale standardisation that limits the respondents to the predefined attributes. With that, advanced statistical tools can also be used to analyse the findings.

Unstructured approaches, on the other hand, allow respondents to freely describe the destination personality in their best ways (Boivin, 1986). This approach at the beginning of the research does not state any personality attributes; instead, it undertakes an open to elicit product attributes. In this case, the sample is collected with personal interviews, focus groups, or open-ended questions, whilst content analysis and other sorting procedures are used in determining personality dimensions. Hence, it could be induced that the unstructured approach captures the holistic attributes of a destination personality. Nevertheless, this approach is highly inconstant and majorly depends on the participants' writing and verbal skills, their base knowledge and enthusiasm to give multiple details about the product (McDougall & Fry, 1974–75). In addition, the ability to analyse the collected data with statistical tools is restricted, while comparative analyses of several product categories are practically impossible with this approach.

Following the above arguments, this study adopts a combination of structured and unstructured approaches to measure destination personality. The adoption of the two approaches is to mitigate

the effects of the earlier identified limitations and strengthen one with the other. This decision is also based on the recommendation of Kumar and Nayak (2014) that a blend of both unstructured and structured approaches should be used in measuring destination personality to capture the holistic and unique attributes of the destination. Masilo & van der Merwe (2016) used both methods in their explorative study of the motivations, experiences and understanding of heritage amongst 100 local tourists at Liliesleaf Farm Museum and the Hector Pieterson Memorial & Museum. They found that although tourists are generally attracted to heritage tourism destinations because of the history behind them. Other researchers have also combined the two methods in destination personality measurement (d'Astous & Boujbel, 2007; Murphy *et al.,* 2007a; Sahin & Baloglu, 2009; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Klabi, 2012; Rojas-Méndez *et al*., 2013).

Sincerity	**Excitement**	**Competence**	**Sophistication**	**Ruggedness**
Down-to-earth, Real, Sincere, and Honest	Daring, Exciting, Imaginative, and Contemporary	Intelligent, Reliable, Secure, and Confident	Glamorous, Upper class, Good-looking, & Charming	Tough, Outdoorsy, Masculine, and Western
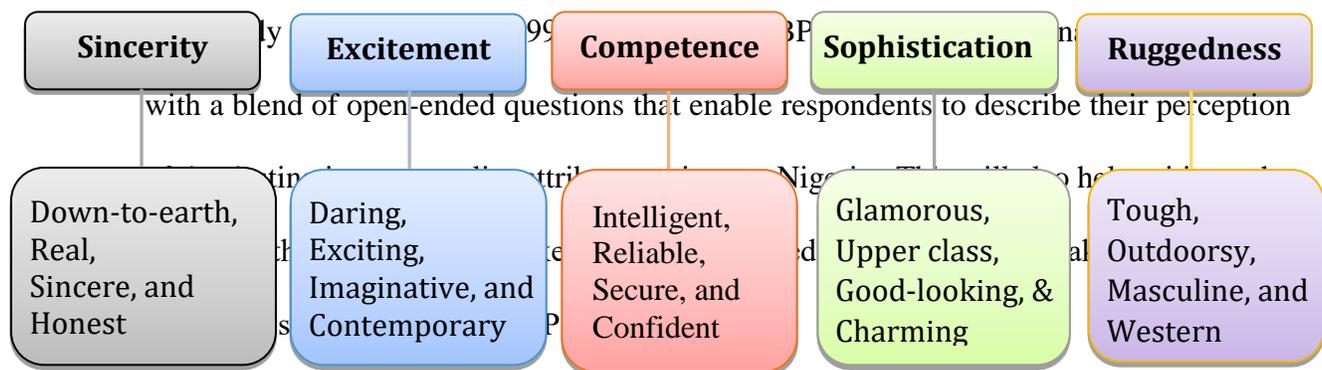
Figure 2.1: Aaker's (1997) 5-Dimension of Brand Personality Model (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006)

2.2.2 Destination Image

Brand image is considered one of the most significant elements of a destination because of its strong influence on a tourist's motivation, preferences and behaviour towards tourism products or services, which contributes to the pull factor for an individual to visit a destination (Chi et al., 2020; Lopes, 2011). According to Lopes (2011), the brand image creates customer satisfaction, and customers' perceptions, in turn, influence the product or service characteristics.

Brand image does not exist in the features, technology, or the product itself but is often seen in promotion, advertisement, or past experience. Brand image has also enabled people to visualise things from a business perspective to help companies benefit in the long run by branding their products or services (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Cannon *et al.*, 2009). This will enable destinations to occupy a better positioning and attract potential consumers to purchase. Therefore, brand image is important to increase the success of any destination (Leisen, 2001). A strong brand image provides added values, brings powerful identity benefits, drives consumers' behaviour, influences their perceptions of reality, opens doors, creates trust and raises expectations of quality and integrity (Morgan *et al.*, 2011).

Similarly, Ryan and Gu (2008) argue that a place's image is an important asset. The image is the foundation of a tourist's expectation, which eventually determines the tourist's behaviours. Destination image informs the supply systems on what should be promoted, how to achieve the promotion, who should be the promoter's target, and how should the product being promoted be designed. Destination image informs the tourist what to consume, according to self-image and needs, and how to behave and purchase (Ryan & Gu, 2008). The significance of image in developing the tourism of a place is evident within extant research (Pike, 2002; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Hyde, 2008; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

Destination image is a term which is lacking an agreed definition as it signifies subjective beliefs and feelings (Grosspietsch, 2006; Castro *et al.*, 2007; Lin & Huang, 2009). It is generally accepted that destination image significantly affects prospective tourists' decision to choose a particular destination, their behaviour whilst on their visit and liability to recommend and repeat visit to that destination. According to Hunt (1975), as cited in Yusuf and Evren (2015), destination image is

more effective than concrete resources in terms of increasing the number of tourists visiting that destination.

According to Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015) and Min *et al.* (2013), destination image can be defined concerning group or individual perceptions of a place. It is defined as a system of communicating thoughts, emotional states, intentions, and imaginations toward a place (Költringer & Dickinger, 2015; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). According to Pike and Ryan (2004) and Lin *et al.* (2007), destination image is the overall outcome of the interactions between the consumers' choice of and attitudes towards a particular destination.

Destination image refers to a person's beliefs and impressions about a destination where he does not reside (Einci, 2003; Kamenidou *et al.*, 2008; Reid and Bojanic, 2009). A destination image can be termed as a mental expression of a destination or image which is not near the observer in any instant (Tuohino, 2002; Govers *et al.*, 2007). Destination image can also be defined as an expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has concerning a particular place (Lee, 2005). These images are important since they strongly influence the decision-making behaviour of prospective tourists. Hence, a positive destination image contributes positively to the experience and affects buying behaviour while consumers visit a destination (Berry, 2000; Ballantine & Aitken, 2007; Brodie, 2009).

Attention has been focused on destination image for the last three decades (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Stepchenkovaa & Mills, 2010; Dimitrios & Barbora, 2018) where several studies in tourism research have been conducted on destination image as a result of its significance in destination branding and marketing (Stepchenkovaa & Mills, 2010; Artuğer & Çetinsöz, 2014). Bigné *et al.* (2001) define destination image as tourists' imagination about the reality of a place and their general perceptions about the place as a tourism destination (Coshall, 2000; Tapachai & Waryszak,

2000; Cai, 2002; Murphy *et al*., 2007a; San & Rodríguez, 2008). Doswell (2000) describes a destination image as the ideas, feelings, and reactions induced by the name of a place, while Kelly and Nankervis (2001); Lumsdon and Swift (2001) argue that a destination image is influenced by the perceptions of various observers across the tourism industry, both from the demand and supply perspectives.

Despite academia's interest in image, some authors accept that there is a shortage of research on the development of the image at various stages of the journey: before the visit, during and after it (Kim *et al.* 2009; Yilmaz *et al.* 2009). These researchers argue that destination image can change not only during the journey but also after concluding the travel experience, thus affecting the tourist's level of satisfaction and the possibility of endorsing the destination or repeat visits (Kim *et al*., 2009; Yilmaz *et al*., 2009).

In addition, destination image primarily comprises three major components, namely tourists' values and expectations (Moutinho, 1993; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000), destination characteristics (Coshall, 2000), and tourists' experiences (Lopes, 2011; San *et al.,* 2008). Destination image depends on the tourist's perceptions, which are influenced by the available information concerning a destination (Murphy *et al*., 2000), inner psychological factors concerning the external environments (Hung *et al*., 2012), friends and families who serve as reference groups and whose word of mouth improves or worsens the image of a destination (Lopes, 2011), tourist's country of origin (Blain *et al*., 2005), tourist's race, age, and previous destination visits (Tasci, 2007).

People form perceptions about a place before they visit based on their prior experiences, media, word-of-mouth communications and beliefs (Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016; White 2004). These perceptions can influence other tourists' intentions to visit the destination in addition to the

intention to recommend the destination to family and friends (Castro *et al.*, 2007). Hence, tourists'

perceptions of a destination image have attracted importance in research (Bigne, 2005). Research

studies have proposed that a destination image is a combination of cognitive and affective images

which reflect the mental process associated with collecting and using the information on a

particular geographical location (Tuohino, 2002; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Martin & Bosque,

2008).

The consideration of these factors enables destination marketing organisations (DMOs) to

successfully promote and differentiate the destinations by creating a lasting image that is also

favourable to its target market, having studied the tourists' values, experiences, and other factors

affecting their perceptions of the destination image. This would enable the DMOs to eliminate the

tourists' negative perceptions about the destination and enhance any positive perceptions they may

hold towards it (Stepchenkovaa & Mills, 2010). It is, therefore, essential to develop the destination

brand based on the perceived destination image (Qu *et al*., 2011). Sonmez and Sirakaya (2002)

argue that the development of a prosperous, sustainable tourism industry requires a perfect

understanding of tourists' perceptions. Undeniably, an inability to understand tourists' perceptions

of the destination image would impede the destination image development. An accurate and

reliable destination image assessment is essential in designing a viable marketing strategy, enables

the DMO to meet the tourists' expectations and, if necessary, create more realistic expectations

(Rezende-Parker *et al*., 2003). Destination image is a prerequisite for tourism success, as tourism

demand generally springs from collective or individual perceptions of destinations (Williams,

1998; Kelly & Nankervis, 2001).

When it comes to the concept of destination image, there is consensus within the literature in

tourism marketing (Pike, 2009; Hosany *et al.*, 2006; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Beerli & Martín, 2004a,

2004b; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & Mccleary, 1999a, 1999b; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Gartner, 1993) that destination image should be considered from three closely interconnected components: (1) cognitive and perceptual, which consists of the consumer's perception of the destination; (2) affective or emotional, or the feelings or emotional individuals demonstrates about the destination; and (3) global, the overall negative or positive impression maintained towards a destination. Furthermore, the perceptual component is a precursor of the emotional, as the rational elements also influence emotions. The perceptual component directly affects the global perception, whilst the emotional component indirectly affects the global perception (Beerli & Martín, 2004a, 2004b).

Hence, destination image is not just about tourists' perception of a destination. Instead, it is also concerned with how tourists' perceptions are developed over time based on information available to the general public. Such perceptions are also influenced by words of mouth from friends and family who have preciously visited the destination, whilst the tourists' experience after the first visit to the destination could also corroborate such pre-visit impressions. Similarly, the marketing activities of DMOs could also shape or modify such impressions even before the first visit. It is on this note that the next section discusses the image formation process.

2.2.2.1 Destination Image Formation Process

Concerning the formation process of destination images, Kim and Richardson (2003) argue that destination images are formed from a broader range of information sources, unlike most services or products, because of a link between a country's national image and its tourist image. Ross (1994) claims that destination image formation is formed by political, social, historical, and economic information. For example, Butler (1998) argues that Scotland's appeal to tourists is tied to an image centred on a historical picture, strengthened by attachment and romantic appeal in art and literature.

Following Gunn's image dimorphic theory, Gartner (1993) argues that the destination image is a combination of images formed through 'organic' and 'induced' agents for potential tourists. Santos (1998) states that organic agents can be 'autonomous, unsolicited or solicited. The autonomous organic agents include the popular culture of the destination and news about it. The unsolicited organic comprises information given by individuals without any request by the potential tourists, while the 'solicited organic' consists of information received by the potential tourists based on the request from friends and relatives. Santos (1998) also states that 'induced agents' are formed based on tourism marketing activities designed to encourage potential tourists to visit a destination. The induced agents, according to Gartner (1993), are subdivided into 'covert 1', comprising celebrities' endorsement and satisfied customers' testimonies, 'covert 2', including free endorsement through travel writing, and 'overt 1', which comprises of travel brochures and advertising, and 'overt 2', which includes information provided by tour operators. Gartner (1993) emphasises that potential tourists may be influenced by organic and induced agents, if available. However, Hankinson (2003) claims that evidence from research shows that organic agents are most frequently used, thus carrying the strongest influence on destination image formation.

Kleppe *et al*. (2002) also argue that autonomous agents play a more significant role in destination image formation among the organic agents. Media and news coverage can offer considerable information about a destination and are likely more reliable, with a better chance of market penetration without being perceived as unfair or as promotional material (Murphy, 1999; Schneider & Sonmez, 1999). Research confirms the superiority of 'organic' agents like media and word of mouth in the image formation process over advertising deployed by DMOs (Hankinson, 2003; Jenkins, 1999; Schofield, 1996). Goodall and Ashworth (1998) also argue that potential

tourists living close to a destination are better positioned to form an image due to being closer to local promotional material.

Similarly, Gartner (1993) contends that induced agents like brochures are the least credible within tourists' decision-making processes. For the destination's image-building process to be fruitful, there is a need for consistency between the induced agents and the destination image portrayed by the mass media (Hankinson, 2001). However, the innate dualism of a place product implies its reliance on holistic services and entity, facilities and attributes, including arts, tourist attractions, cultural venues and entertainment, and catering establishments (Weber & Tyrrell, 2000). Therefore, marketing a consistent image can be challenging because of the diversity of a tourism product. The presence of vast numbers of small enterprises can influence the final product, coupled with the role played by coordinating mediators in both private and public sectors (Morgan *et al*., 2002; Ashworth & Voogd, 1995). Successful image development can also be hindered by the need to achieve harmony between the public and private sectors, whose promotion objectives may vary regarding their social, political, and economic goals (Hankinson, 2003).

2.2.2.2 Measuring Destination Image

Like destination personality, different researchers measure brand image or destination image using different dimensions. For example, Veasna *et al*. (2013), in their study on "the impact of destination source credibility on destination satisfaction: the mediating effects of destination attachment and destination image", adopt a seven-dimensioned approach to destination image, which includes reputation, accessibility, accommodations, cultural diversity, cultural and historical attractions, exoticness, and general level of service. Ezeuduji *et al.* (2019), in their study of "tourists' perceptions of a destination brand Image: KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa", adopt a four-dimensioned approach to destination image comprising symbolic, affective, physical, and

accessibility. Investigating "destination loyalty modelling of the global tourism", Wu (2016) adopts a six-dimensioned approach, comprising reputation, natural attractions, entertainment and events, historical and cultural attractions, accessibility, and the level of service quality.

Examining factors influencing destination image, Beerli and Martin (2004a) adopt a nine-dimensioned approach consisting of natural resources, tourist leisure and recreation, natural environment, general infrastructure, culture, history and arts, social environment, tourist infrastructure, political and economic factors, leisure and recreation. While examining "the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach", Chi and Qu (2008) also measure nine factors, including travel environment, natural attraction, entertainment and event, historical attraction, infrastructure, accessibility, relaxation, outdoor activities, and price and value. While studying "the impact of tourist perceptions, destination image and tourist satisfaction on destination loyalty: a conceptual model", Rajesh (2013) measures destination image from a seven-dimensioned approach comprising attractions, accessibility, lodging, dining, environment, shopping, and events & activities. Examining "Tourist Activity and Destination Brand Perception: The Case of Cape Town, South Africa", Ezeuduji *et al.* (2016) measure destination image according to security, attraction, prices, overall service received, and value for money.

Hence, this study adopts an eight-dimensioned approach toward destination image, including (1) natural attraction, (2) safety and security, (3) entertainment and events, (4) historical attractions, (5) infrastructure, (6) accessibility, (7) outdoor activities, and (8) value for money. These dimensions are adopted as they cut across all those adopted by the researchers referenced above and within other extant research (Anholt, 2011; Amujo & Otubanjo, 2012; Jraisat *et al.,* 2015; Ezeuduji *et al.,* 2016; Bruwer *et al.,* 2017; Mabkhot *et al.,* 2017). However, to mitigate the possible

effects of this structured methodology, these eight dimensions were combined with open-ended questions to allow respondents to describe their perception of the destination image maintained by Nigeria.

2.3   CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AS A DISCIPLINE

According to Kotler and Keller (2011), understanding consumer purchasing behaviour and how customers determine which goods and services to purchase are significant for companies and service providers. This is because it provides companies with a positive competitive advantage over their competitors as they can plan and manage all aspects of the exchange process. Customer behaviour studies portray the customer as playing three roles: user, payer, and buyer (Thapa, 2012). The experiences of those who consume a particular service will become a source of new feedback to influence those who make similar choices in the future. An example is a hotel or a destination holiday bought through an agent for which the consumer can write a review that is visible to others searching for a similar facility. Such reviews can help other consumers in their decision-making processes. This example shows a contemporary development not only of such a review is a source of information, but it can also be a source of influencing others' decisions and thus be an opportunity to market new research.

The 1960s saw the possibility of consumer behaviour becoming an "instance of risk-taking" (Bauer, 1960, p. 24). According to Bauer (1960), consumer behaviour is defined as "any action of a consumer that will produce consequences which they cannot anticipate with any approximating certainty, and some of these at least are likely to be unpleasant" (p. 24). In comparison, Belch and Belch (1998) define consumer behaviour as the process and activities people engage in searching for, selecting, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing products and services to satisfy their

needs and desires. Behaviour transpires either for the individual or in the context of a group or a business. Consumer behaviour has no universally accepted definition across different disciplines. Consumer behaviour includes the use and disposal of products and the study of how they are purchased. Product use is often of great interest to the marketer because this may influence how a product is best positioned or how they can encourage increased consumption (Prasad *et al*. 2014).

Talloo (2007) suggests that the study of consumer behaviour helps businesses to develop their marketing strategies by gaining knowledge of the way consumers think, feel, reason, and select between different alternatives (e.g., brands, products); how the consumer is influenced by their surroundings (e.g., culture, family, signs, media); the consumer's behaviour before, during and after the making of purchasing decisions; consumer knowledge or information processing abilities influencing decisions and marketing outcomes; how consumers' motivation and decision strategies differ between products; and how marketers can adapt and improve their marketing campaigns to reach the consumer effectively. The study of consumer behaviour has been identified as a tool marketers use to determine what consumers look for when making a decision (Labanauskaitė et al., 2020). However, further research will be undertaken to consider whether Nigeria has considered these factors when developing its tourism strategies.

Consumer behaviour pays attention to how individuals decide to utilise their existing resources on consumable items (Labanauskaitė et al., 2020; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). This definition explores how consumers seek products, services, ideas and experiences and points to the significant aspect of customer satisfaction. It widens the understanding of consumer behaviour by referring to the different processes involved in consuming goods and services. This research will focus on consumer buying behaviour linked to decision-making.

2.3.1 Tourism Consumer Behaviour

Consumer behaviour is vital for all tourism marketing activities that sell and promote tourism products. Fratu (2011) views tourism consumer behaviour as the tourist's attitudes and acts that influence the buying decisions of tourism products and services and the post-consuming reactions.

Tourist behaviour is the overall consumer's set of actions, activities and conducts (specific psycho-physical predispositions) related to decision-making within particular social, economic, and demographic conditions. Although, the purpose of consumer behaviour is the individual consumer (tourist) who represents themselves and their households. The essence of understanding tourism consumer behaviour is to discover the satisfaction the tourists derive from visiting a destination towards product development and marketing strategies (Niemczyk, 2014). A content and a satisfied tourist is one whose expectations from a destination are at least equal to the experiences encountered during the visit, from arrival to departure (Kiezel, 2008; Mazurek-Lopacinska, 2005; Niemczyk, 2014).

The more a tourist is satisfied with the product and services of a destination, the higher the level of their loyalty towards the destination. The tourist expresses such loyalty through the destination's recommendation and revisits (O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). Niemczyk (2014) stresses that tourist loyalty towards a destination is the extent to which a tourist unswervingly maintains a positive attitude towards the destination and retains such interest irrespective of the alternative incentives offered by other destinations to attract the tourist.

Discussing tourism consumer behaviour, Poon (1994) argues that tourists are of varying population demographics and are also more experienced, independent, and flexible-minded. Tourists' varying lifestyles and values affect their behaviour. Plog's example (1974) highlights how most American tourists seek educational and cultural values compared to Singaporean tourists who seek business

and novelty. As such, most USA-developed tourism products are educationally and culturally inclined. Due to geographical constraints, most tourism products in Singapore are artificial and business oriented. The Pacific Club's general manager in the Hong Kong marketing office claimed that the Asian travellers' profiles are changing as Asians search for value-added trips and desire city holidays.

According to the European Travel Data Centre, European travellers desire nature to be conspicuous in their holidays (Poon, 1994). Similarly, it was found that about 60 per cent of German tourists crave nature on their holiday trips. As a result, various tourism-dependent nations have developed different tourism products, like natural-based resorts, spas, and ecotourism destinations, to meet the varied nature of tourism demands. To meet the needs of Thai tourists, Thailand had to develop several hotels and health-centred tourism destinations. This shows that tourism consumer behaviour plays a significant role in tourism product development. Understanding their behaviour, therefore, enhances the development of tourism products that will quench the thirst of the tourists.

In addition to the effects of tourists' uneven population demographics on their behaviour, several other factors have also been found to influence tourism consumer behaviour. As such, various scholars and authors explore how different models of consumer behaviour affect tourist behaviour. Some regular conceptual models like innovation, competition, and consumer behaviour were designed through non-tourism research, so it is important to be observant when adapting these models to the tourism context. Scott *et al*. (2014) remark that some new studies have debated the applicability of established marketing concepts or models to tourist behaviour. Some authors, therefore, attempt to design models that would be more acceptable in tourism.

Mountinho (1993) believes that the tourism purchasing process has some peculiarities concerning other forms of purchases. Nevertheless, tourism is an investment without any expected return except satisfaction. Tourists usually save for their trips as well as plan in advance. Indeed, tourists are becoming more resourceful, flexible, experienced, and demanding. Research on tourist behaviour must therefore consider these aspects. Different factors influence individual tourist behaviours. Thus, the suppliers of tourism products need to discover how to design an effective and efficient marketing strategy and understand tourists' opinions on tourist advertising, journey, destination, and distance. They should also explore how tourists decide their trips and how they are influenced by personal factors such as mood and motivation. The findings should also cover economic and social factors. For instance, factors could include aspects such as the growing price of energy, the smaller family trend, new prospects of communication, and access to education.

Dimanche and Havitz (1995) group extant tourist behaviour studies into four categories: studies on ego involvement (self-involvement), family influence on purchase decision, loyalty, and the studies on a quest for novelty. Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) Traveler Destination Choice General Model describes destinations' awareness, preference, and choice. This model considers the research findings in marketing and tourism and cognitive and behavioural psychology. The model comprises eight dimensions and nine connections. The model shows that marketing variables and individual tourist characteristics influence destination awareness. The memories and emotions dimension consists of negative and positive emotions that tourists tie to a destination. These dimensions, coupled with destination awareness, determine tourist destination preferences and regulate their intentions. Also, the choice, which is the last stage of the model, basically depends on the situation and the intentions.

Similarly, Li *et al*. (2013) evaluates the impact of belonging to a particular generation on tourists, with their study demonstrating that previous visits, preferences and future wishes vary from one generation to another. They also display different assessment criteria for tourist destinations. The study also somewhat affirms that different generations get tourism information from different sources, and their vacation activities preferences are not similar.

Crompton (1979) developed the push and pull model to examine the factors affecting tourist behaviour. Like some earlier authors, Crompton's (1979) model is mainly built on the tourist socio-psychological characteristics and the actual destinations' attractiveness and culture. Tourists travel because they are motivated (pushed) by personal factors. Still, they are also attracted (pulled) by factors like cultural and natural resources, benefits, innovations, destination images, and expectations attributed to the intended destination. Dann (1981) also notes that tourists' behaviours are usually influenced by personal factors emanating from the individual tourist, their home environment, and factors relating to the prospective destination.

In summary, scholars have developed different models and dimensions for tourism consumer behaviour and the consumer's purchase decision-making process. This study is not an exemption. The following sections discuss consumer decision-making, consumer behaviour models and theories, and the dimensions of consumer behaviour.

2.3.2   Consumer Decision Making

Moon (2004) suggests that one of the fundamental problems in consumer behaviour can be described as how consumers develop, use their decision-making strategies, and adapt to different consumer decision settings. Also, consumer decision-making has been defined as "the behaviour patterns of consumers that precede, determine and follow on the decision process for the acquisition of need satisfying products, ideas or services" (Du Plessis *et al.*, 1991). Similarly,

Kotler *et al*. (2009) define consumer-decision making as the process involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires. Although, consumer decision-making has no universally agreed definition as it has different meanings across disciplines.

Early studies have approached consumer decision-making from an economic viewpoint and concentrated exclusively on the act of purchase action (Sharma & Foropon, 2019; Loudon & Bitta, 1993). The utmost accepted model from this standpoint is "the utility theory", which suggests that consumers make decisions based on the expected outcomes of their decisions. This model also views consumers as rational actors who can estimate the probabilistic effects of tentative decisions and highlights the outcome that would maximize their self-interest (Zinkhan, 1992; Decision Analyst, 2005; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007).

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1997), several early theories on consumer behaviour were centred on economic theory, which states that individuals act rationally to maximize their benefits while purchasing goods and services. A consumer is generally thought of as someone who identifies a need or desire, makes a purchase, and then disposes of the product during the three stages (pre, encounter and post) in the consumption process (Sharma & Foropon, 2019; Solomon *et al*., 2006).

The evolution of decision-making was uninterrupted until the 1950s, when the view of consumer behaviour responded to the concept and growth of modern marketing to incorporate a more holistic range of activities that impact consumer decisions (Blackwell *et al*. 2001). This range of activities includes needing recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase intention, the act of purchasing, and consumption and disposal. Although many factors influence consumer decision-making in addition to the outcome, many studies have investigated this issue, creating

several different models. These models aim to illustrate the purchase decision-making process and its influential factors.

2.3.2.1 Purchase Decision-Making Process

The consumer purchase decision-making process has been explained as using the information processing approach first proposed by Howard and Sheth (1969) and Bettman (1979). Consumers search for information, evaluate it, and then make the 'right' choice based on their circumstances and preferences. Various models, such as the grand models, have been proposed to explain this behaviour. The purchase decision-making process is productive, shaped by the consumer and the context of decision-making (Bettman *et al.,* 1998) and hence varies across consumers, decisions and contexts (Xia & Sudharshan, 2002). Exploring consumer information processing behaviour in traditional purchasing, which occurs within retail, has attracted the attention of researchers (Su, 2007), resulting in extensive knowledge of behaviour in this setting. Online behaviour has modified this. The Internet has become an important information tool and has changed the connection between sellers and consumers. According to Hoffman (2000), the Internet has been the most important innovation since the development of the printing press.

2.3.3   Consumer Behaviour Models and Theories

The decision-making process is one of the vital concerns in consumer behaviour studies as customers tend to follow a specific pattern when making a decision, but this is not always the case. The best way to explain this process is by using models (Livette, 2006) such as the grand models. These models visually demonstrate the interaction between variables and circumstances and where they are interrelated with consumer behaviour (Walters, 1978). They, therefore, provide an analysis of how consumers choose between two or more alternative products or why they consider selecting only one. They focus on the stages consumers pass when deciding which products or

services to purchase in addition to their behaviour after that choice. They can also facilitate understanding differences in consumer decision-making processes (Engel *et al.*, 1995; Erasmus *et al.*, 2001; Livette, 2006).

Furthermore, models are known to simplify reality and can help review difficult issues (Caine & Robson, 1993). Remarkably, studying online consumer behaviour can be complex because it depends heavily on data gathering, evaluating a bulky volume of information, decision aid systems and purchasing in a self-service environment. Hence, the use of visual behavioural models, which provide an improved insight into the situation, and builds theoretical knowledge and models, is vital for organisations to provide them with tools to understand their consumers better, segment the market, and ultimately increase profitability (Rickwood & White, 2009).

Researchers have evaluated how individual tourists make travel decisions and applied the traditional consumer behaviour model to understand this buying behaviour or pattern. These models are collectively known as the "grand models". A substantial amount of research carried out during the 1960s and 1970s introduced the first and most significant theories of consumer decision-making known as "the grand models of consumer behaviour", which consist of the three main models: Nicosia model (1966); Howard and Sheth's model (1969) and Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1968). Consumer behaviour research did not grow from a purely theoretical basis (Sirakayaa and Woodside, 2005) but was developed from a time when only limited theories existed, and researchers used applied theories from other disciplines to explain consumer behaviour. While numerous theories exist, the grand models are still considered the best-known consumer decision-making models (Erasmus et al., 2001). The classical Purchase Behaviour Model and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) are also broadly used in explaining consumer behaviour.

2.3.3.1 Nicosia Model

Nicosia (1966) proposed a model focusing on consumer-buying decisions involving different products. This model – see Figure 2.2 - emphasises the link between the organisation and their prospective consumers. The organisation communicates to the consumer through marketing (advertising), and the consumers respond to these marketing strategies by purchasing a product or service. This model illustrates the link between the firm's dependence on its consumers through message exposure. The firm attempts to influence consumer behaviour through promotion, manipulating pricing strategies, and accessibility. On the other hand, the consumer influences the firm by their choice.

Figure 2.2: Nicosia model of the consumer decision-making process
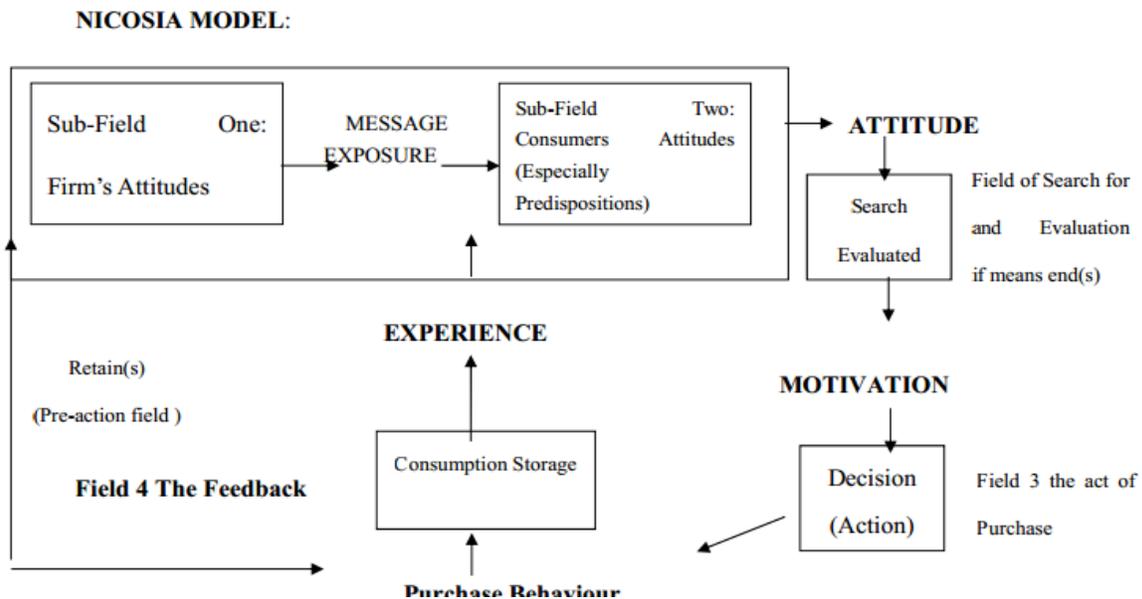
Source: Nicosia and Robert (1976)

This model explains consumer buying behaviour by establishing the connection between the firm and its potential customers. This model is divided into four basic fields.

Field One: The consumer attitude centred on the firms' messages.

Field One is divided into two subfields. Subfield One entails the firm's attributes and communication strategy, which impact consumer attitudes, competitive surroundings and characteristics of the target market. Subfield Two identifies the consumer characteristics such as personality, experience, and how they perceive the promotional idea of these products. At this stage, the consumer forms their attitude towards the firm's products and/or services based on their understanding of the message.

Field Two: Search and evaluation

The consumer starts to explore all other alternative firms and evaluates the firm's brand or country in comparison with alternatives. The firm tries to motivate consumers to purchase their brand instead of alternative brands.

Field Three: The act of the purchase.
The consumer, at this stage, decides on a firm's product and purchases the goods and services.

Field Four: Feedback
This stage of the model evaluates the feedback from both the firm and the consumer after purchasing the product. The firm benefits from its sales data as feedback, and the consumer benefits from their experience with the product. The consumers' perception of their interaction with the firm will affect their predispositions concerning future messages from this organisation and these messages they will communicate to other consumers.

Limitations of the Nicosia Model
This model offers no detailed clarification of the internal factors that can affect the consumer's personality and how the consumer improves their attitude or accessibility towards the product on offer. For example, a tourist may find the tourism destination's message very fascinating but practically cannot visit the destination because it encompasses something prohibited according to

their beliefs, religion and culture. It is necessary to include these factors in the model, which will add more interpretation about the attributes affecting the decision process.

A major criticism of this model is its focus from a marketer's viewpoint, with consumer activities only very broadly defined (Panwar et al., 2019; Zaltman *et al.*, 1973). There has also been little empirical work to support Nicosia's model, although sufficient empirical evidence suggests that the relationships depicted in this model are not valid (Panwar et al., 2019; Tuck, 1976).

2.3.3.2 Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model

The Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model (1968) explains the rapidly growing body of knowledge regarding consumer decision-making. According to this model, a decision-making process follows five stages.

Figure 2.3: Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model of consumer decision making
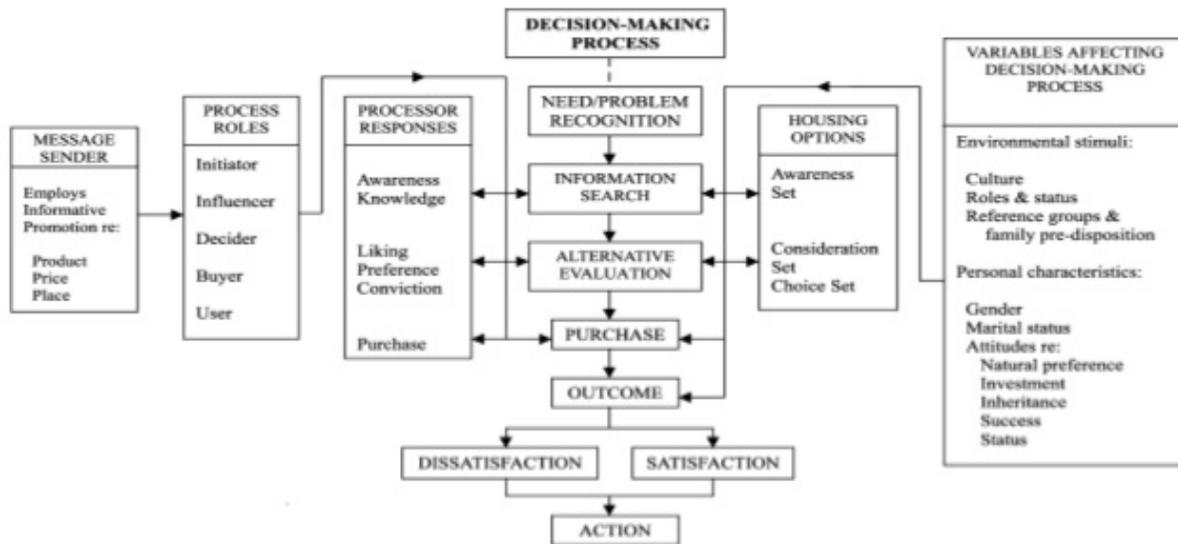
Source: Blackwell *et al*. (2001)

The model is divided into the following stages

1. Problem recognition occurs when the consumer becomes aware of a difference between an actual state and the ideal condition. For example, a maths student who owns a non-programmable calculator learns they need a programmable calculator for their module. The student recognises that a difference exists between the actual state, having a non-programmable calculator, and their ideal state. They thus decide to buy a new calculator.

2. Information search: Hawkins *et al.* (2007) suggest that consumers continually recognise their problems and search both internal and external information to resolve these problems. Internal information searches can be achieved through personal networking with friends, family and commercial services such as personnel, billboards and advertisements. After students identify their need for a programmable calculator, they may search for information about different quality and brands of a calculator to meet their needs.

3. Evaluation of alternatives: Solomon *et al.* (2006) explain that consumers tend to put the most effort in this stage of the decision-making process as it determines what brand the consumer will purchase. A successful information search within a particular product group will yield a variety of brands that a buyer considers possible alternatives.

4. Purchase: At this stage, the consumer decides on the product or brand to buy. This selection is based on the outcome of the evaluation stage and other dimensions. Solomon *et al.* (2006) suggest that the decision rules make a consumer assign unique values to a product. Meanwhile, the decision rule generates significant criteria for consumers to make a decision.

5. Post-purchase evaluation: This is the final stage of consumer decision-making and provides feedback. After purchasing a product or service, the consumer begins to evaluate it to

ascertain if its actual performance meets expectations. This stage results in either satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Tan, 2010), which influences consumer complaints, communication with potential buyers and the repurchasing of similar goods or brands.

Limitation of Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model

This model integrates many variables (for example, culture, personality and values) which can influence consumer decision-making processes. Yet, the model fails to identify factors which precisely shape these variables and how different personalities will produce different decision-making processes (Maulana et al., 2022)

General Limitations of the 'Grand Models'

The grand models were criticized for various reasons. Among these reasons are the restrictions in the theoretical background to consumer behaviour at the time of their development, excessive emphasis given to various aspects, and an assumption of rational consumer decision-making behaviour where consumers spend little time making a purchase and do not follow these sequential stages (Makudza et al., 2022; Santos & Gonçalves, 2021). The core limitation of the grand models is the quantitative approach to their development instead of addressing consumer decision-making from their viewpoints. They consider consumer decision-making processes as a logical problem-solving approach, thus limiting their accuracy. Another vital issue omitted within the early models is that consumers do not always have known preferences but rather "construct" them during decision-making processes (Santos & Gonçalves, 2021; Bettman *et al.*, 1998; Sproule & Archer, 2000).

2.3.3.3 Howard-Sheth Model

Howard-Sheth's (1969) consumer buyer behaviour model–demonstrated in Figure 2.4 - is commonly quoted in consumer behaviour literature (Santos & Gonçalves, 2021). The model highlights the importance of inputs to the consumer buying process and how the consumer orders these inputs before making the final choice. The Howard-Sheth (HS) model of buying behaviour focuses on consumer rationality during purchase decisions, even within conditions of incomplete

information. The HS model at the time was advanced because of its high specificity concerning the variables' connections. For example, the HS model does not only highlight the relationship between attitudes and purchases, but it also notes that consumer intent moderates the influence of attitude on purchase (Hunt & Pappas, 1972). The model is also distinguished for its inclusion of multiple inputs into the process regarding social influences and marketing variables, which is an essential step toward the current input-process-output models (Santos & Gonçalves, 2021).

This model signifies amendments to the previous systematic effort to create a comprehensive theory of consumer decision-making. The model differentiates between the following three levels of decision-making:

1. Extensive problem-solving

The consumer, at this point, has no prior knowledge about the services or preferences for any product. The consumer will seek information about all available products/services and brands within the market before deciding which to purchase.

2. Limited problem-solving

In this situation, the consumer has limited information about the available brand in the market or what they intend to purchase. The consumer will seek to compare brand information to obtain a brand preference.

3. Habitual response behaviour

This is when the consumer has a well-established knowledge base about a product, can differentiate among alternatives, and is predisposed to purchase a particular brand.

Figure 2.4: Howard-Sheth model of consumer decision making
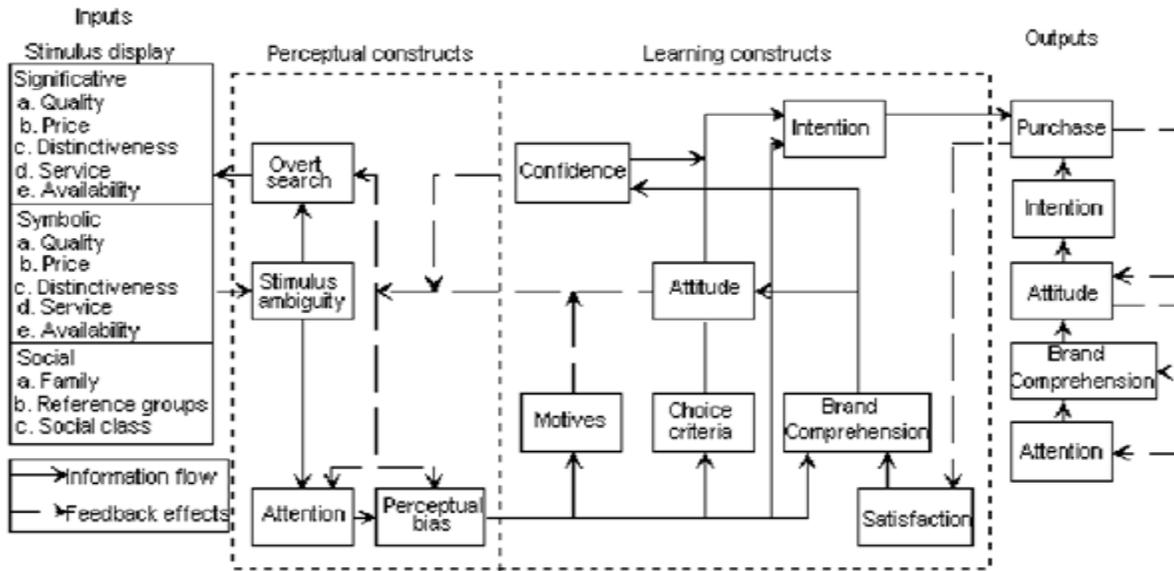
Source: Howard and Sheth (1969, p. 32)

The Howard-Sheth (HS) model has four major sets of variables:

      1.   Inputs

These input variables comprise three distinct types of information stimuli (sources) present within the consumer's environment. Firstly, significative stimuli signify the brand's physical characteristics. Secondly, the symbolic stimuli represent visual or verbal characteristics. Thirdly, the type of information supplied by the consumer's social environment (family, reference group, and social class). These three types of stimuli can influence prospective consumers' perceptions of product brands.

2. Perceptual and Learning constructs

The fundamental aspect of the HS model deals with the psychological variables involved when the consumer is contemplating a decision-making process. These psychological variables are seen simply as ideas. Some of these variables are perceptual and concentrate on how consumers receive and understand information accessed from input stimuli and other parts of the model. For instance, 'stimulus ambiguity' occurs when the consumer does not understand the meaning of the information gathered from the environment. In comparison, 'perceptual bias' happens when the consumer distorts the information given to suit their established needs and experience.

Learned constructs influence the purpose of the consumer's concept formation, goals, information about the brands, criteria for evaluating alternatives and their intentions to buy a product. The proposed interaction between several perceptual and learning constructs and other sections gives the HS model a distinctive character

3. Outputs

The model's outputs are the outcome of the perceptual and learning construct variables and how the consumers react to these variables (for example, attention, brand comprehension, attitudes, intention and the act of purchase).

4. External variables

The external variables are not directly included in the decision-making process. Conversely, external variables include the importance of the purchase, consumer personality traits, religion, and time pressure.

By being more inclusive, the HS model achieves a sense of process complexity, with several variables and numerous relationships to internal processes coupled with external triggers and sources of information. Concepts like the formation of attitude, time and predisposition were

introduced with a predominant sense of perceptual and learning constructs (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013).

Limitations of the Howard-Sheth model

Ironically, the HS model's complexity is also a significant shortcoming (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013). Farley and Ring's (1970) initial confirmation analysis of the HS model showed non-confirmatory and highly unfavourable results. This testing mounted pressure on the data and resulted in a call for enriched data collection and processes to confirm the constructs and relationships claimed by the HS model. Nevertheless, Farley and Ring (1970) were criticised, resulting in an argument over the general testing of similar models (Nyambane & Muiruri, 2021; Taylor & Gutman, 1974; Hunt & Pappas, 1972; Lutz & Resek, 1972).

In 1972, several constructs within the Consumer Decision Making (CDM) models had not been comprehensively explored; for instance, the disconfirmation prototype applicable to the satisfaction construct in the model only emanated in Oliver's (1980) paper. There were, therefore, considerable shortcomings in the operationalisation of wide-ranging theoretical models. Extant literature has recognised that an all-inclusive model could offer value abstractly even if thoroughly testing it at that time was impossible (Nyambane & Muiruri, 2021; Taylor & Gutman, 1974). This is a decisive moment in CDM model development. Though the Nicosia model was developed from overt formulae and grasps some statistical precision, the HS model initiates the consumer behaviour trend without mathematical precisions but conceptual models.

The context of the HS model with CDM-model evolution is not debatable, but the model suffers from conceptual limitations. It is empirically proven that consumers do not necessarily follow the set path of the HS model, while the model is also too complex for repetitive purchases (Nyambane & Muiruri, 2021; Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979). Besides, there are glitches with the HS model's

portrayal of consumers moving from one phase to another linearly. The model is, therefore, subject to similar criticisms as the earlier discussed Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1968) model.

2.3.3.4 Classical Purchase Behaviour Models

The grand models capture the different stages of the traditional purchasing process (Erasmus *et al.*, 2001). These differences usually focus on different variables and how they are presented (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997; Guttman *et al.*, 1998; Erasmus *et al.*, 2001). The classical purchase behaviour model is sequentially derived from the grand models and is also known as the traditional model. The classical model provides the backbone for any consumer purchase decision-making research. This model has been used both in online and traditional purchase behaviour, as many activities are inevitable in any purchasing process. This can be illustrated in the diagram below in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Classical purchase behaviour model

| Need/want recognition | → | Information Search | → | Evaluation of alternatives | → | Information Search | → | Post-Purchase Behaviour |
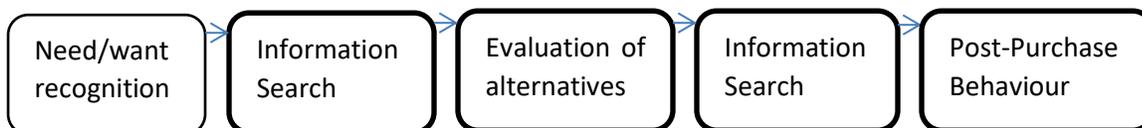
Source: Butler and Peppard (1998)

Limitations of the Classical Model

The major setback of the classical model is its sequential arrangement which is not always followed. Every consumer tends not to follow all the stages; some are skipped depending on the individual and the type of purchase. On the other hand, some consumers might repeat the previous stages more than once. Yet, consumer behaviour study has relied on this model (Peña-García et al., 2020).

2.3.3.5 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

Ajzen's (1988, 1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which is an improvement on Fishbein's (1967) Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), postulates that three significant variables influence an individual's behavioural intention: attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioural control. Ajzen (1988, 1991) contends that intention prompts actual behaviour, and the three major variables influence intention in sequence. According to Francis *et al.* (2004), attitude is a person's total assessment of specific behaviour. It has two interrelated constituents: behavioural beliefs, the consumer's beliefs about the implications of the behaviour, and outcome evaluations, which are the resultant negative or positive conclusions about each view. In summary, attitude demonstrates whether an agent is in support of their own acts.

According to Francis et al. (2004), subjective norms are someone's assessment of social behaviours. Subjective norms have two interconnected components: normative beliefs, the individuals' views of how their close associates would love them to act, and outcome evaluations (as explained under attitude). The perceived behavioural control of a person is how the person views their ability to execute their own intention. This comprises the confidence in – and ability to control – the ability to complete a specific action.

This study assumes that certain variables influence the outcome variable, which is the tourist's destination choice in this context. As destination choice centres around consumer behaviour, tourists may voluntarily select a destination or be influenced by close associates or groups into choosing a particular destination. Voluntary selection is adjudged more efficiently and effectively than the affected. The theory postulates that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influence a person's behavioural intention. Therefore, destination choice is theoretically

influenced by a tourist's attitude towards the destination. Previous research suggests that destination personality effectively influences tourist destination loyalty (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011).

Similarly, Chen and Phou (2013) claim that destination personality significantly influences tourists' behavioural intentions. Therefore, it could be inferred that the tourists' perceptions of the destination personality influence their attitude towards the destination. TPB predicts that 'subjective norms' influence tourists' behaviour, and consequently, the tourists' expectations from a destination are used to proxy attitude, motivation is used to proxy subjective norms, while the tourists' trust and loyalty are the proxies for behavioural control in this study.

Limitations of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

The stability of attitudes has been questioned by extant social psychological research on attitudes, as they are likely to swing as circumstantial factors (like how issues are outlined or affective states) change (Ajzen, 2011; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). This contests TPB's explanatory and predictive power, founded on attitudes toward a behaviour (coupled with subjective norms and perceived behavioural control), resulting in comparable behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). This problem is fundamental to consumer behaviour's observed 'attitude-behaviour gap' (Newholm & Shaw, 2007).

Notwithstanding, some authors have found TPB helpful in examining tourist behaviours. For example, Han and Kim (2010) apply an improved TPB model to a tourist lodging service, explicitly probing the guests' consumption intent in "green" hotels. They argue, whilst adding different dimensions to the TPB model is consistent with the remark of Ajzen (1991), that their model is undoubtedly open to modification and addition of other dimensions, especially if such addition or modification would enhance the explanatory power of the model. Therefore, Han and Kim (2010) analyse the results of their study using the TRA, TPB, and their improved TPB and

claim that their improved model is the most fitting for their study. Hence, they found that adding further dimensions and new links statistically upturns the guests' intent to visit a "green" hotel. Similarly, Tsai (2010) focuses on individual tourists through a slightly modified TPB model in their study.

Similarly, this study also explores the TPB model, as it is found suitable for reducing the complexity within the eight-dimensioned model of consumer behaviour adapted by this study by grouping the eight dimensions into the three dimensions of the TPB: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

2.3.4   Dimensions of Consumer Behaviour

The grand and classical purchase behaviour models suggest that consumers are rational decision-makers. Among their major postulations is that decisions follow an order from attitude – intention – behaviour (Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Decrop, 2010). Tourism consumer behaviour research is continuously marked by studies reinforced by the rational decision-making assumption. These studies examined causal relationships with the use of 'variance' analysis to estimate how much the independent variables could explain the change in the dependent variable (Smallman & Moore, 2010). On the other hand, the theories of Planned Behaviour and Reasoned Action that are founded on the expectancy-value model of attitudes (Fishbein, 1963) are also samples of sequential theories which tourism researchers continue to use in understanding consumer behaviour (Oh & Hsu, 2001; Quintal *et al*., 2010).

Different researchers constantly criticise the assumptions of these models. Among the criticisms is the models' inability to capture the complex nature of the tourism decision-making process emanating from the unique context of travel decisions (Hyde & Lawson, 2003). Complexity is unavoidable because travel decisions involve several vacation itinerary elements (Hyde & Lawson,

2003; Decrop & Snelders, 2004). Some of these decisions are taken before the arrival, and others are taken at the destination (Choi *et al*., 2012). Also peculiar to tourism are the group or dyadic decisions that these models do not capture (Litvin *et al*., 2004; Kang & Hsu, 2005; Bronner & de Hoog, 2008). Furthermore, the complexity is amplified by the fact that situational factors influence many travel decisions (March & Woodside, 2005; Decrop & Snelders, 2004).

In order to mitigate the effects of the limitations of the models earlier identified, this study adapts the eight dimensions of tourism consumer behaviour from Cohen *et al.* (2014), which include decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, attitudes, perceptions, and trust. According to Cohen et al. (2014), these are not exhaustive but are considered the most critical conceptual dimensions of tourism consumer behaviour research. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, tourism consumer behaviour is measured using both structured and unstructured methodologies.

Values

A value is 'an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode' (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Consumer values guide actions, emotions, attitudes, behaviour, and judgments (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000). Tourism literature emphasises two forms of values, external (instrumental) and internal (terminal). External values are object-oriented and are based on the tourists' knowledge of the object, like a goal, situation or experience (Prentice, 1987). Unlike the external values directed by the objects themselves, internal values are based on the classes of objects (Gnoth, 1997).

The value consists of the overall worth or value of a product or service carried in the consumer's mind (Tan *et al*., 2015). In other words, value can be defined as the consumer's total valuation of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given (Parasuraman

et al., 1988). "What is received" can differ among consumers (volume, high quality and convenience), as can "what is given" (money spent, time and effort. Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

Motivations

Several tourism academics (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Zeithaml *et al*., 1993; Gnoth, 1997; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Murphy *et al.,* 2007b; Phillips & Jang, 2007; Correia *et al*., 2009; Hsu *et al.*, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012, Chang-Keun *et al*., 2018) have explored the role of motivation within aspects of marketing such as product development, advertising, segmentation, and positioning (Bieger & Laesser, 2002). Motivation is conceivably best defined as the tourist's biological or psychological needs and wants, including fundamental forces that provoke, control and integrate a tourist's activity and behaviour (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Motivation is the drive or an internal energizing force that leads consumers to satisfy their needs and goals. According to Trehan (2009), motivation can be described as relatively enduring, strong and persistent internal stimuli that arouse and direct behaviour toward certain goals. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, individuals seek to satisfy five stages of needs. These are Physiological needs; these consists of the most basic needs required for survival, such as food, water, air, clothing and shelter, which individuals try to satisfy first. Safety needs include safety, security and freedom from physical and emotional trauma—for instance, health insurance, a safe neighbourhood and automobile airbags. Social needs focus on the human sense of belonging, love and affection. Esteem needs: at this stage, people require respect, recognition and a sense of one's own worth. For example, flying first class can satisfy esteem needs. Self-actualizing needs: this can be seen as the highest stage of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This stage refers to people's need to grow, develop, be less interested in others' opinions, and discover their full potential for success. This can also show in the diagram below.

Figure 2.6: Maslow's hierarchy of needs
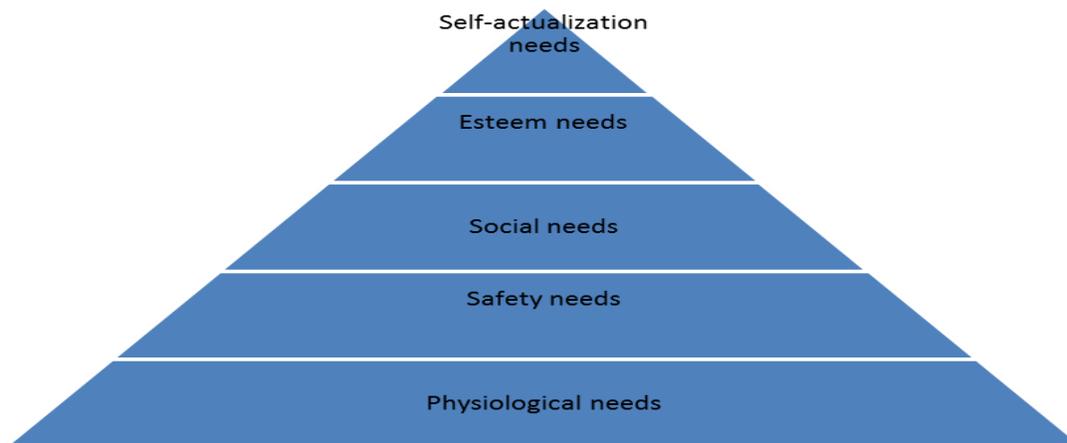
Source: Kotler *et al*., (2013)

Self-concept and Personality

It is widely accepted in the field of marketing that consumers frequent services and products whose images are consistent with the consumers' self-perception (Grubb & Stern, 1971). The consumers' self-concept is the same as their personal identity, which refers to the sum of their cognitive beliefs about themselves (Brehm *et al.,* 1999). Self-concept in consumer behaviour is a multi-faceted construct that blends self-identity with aspirational and social aspects in the consumer's self-description. Personality, on the other hand, is specific persistent human behaviour qualities leading to consistent reactions to the world of stimuli around the individual (Kassarjian, 1971). Hence, personality is integral to an individual's self-concept (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011). It is one of the encompassing concepts in consumer behaviour, influencing aspects such as purchase behaviour and decision, attitude change, product choice, perceptions of innovation, and risk-taking. (Kassarjian, 1971). Tourism's personality influences tourist perceptions, motivations, and behaviour (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004).

Expectations

Expectations are vital in determining customer satisfaction, brand loyalty and other post-service behaviours (Zeithaml *et al.,* 1993). No consensus exists concerning the peculiarities of the expectations in consumer judgments (del Bosque *et al*., 2006). Nonetheless, expectations are described as consumers' wants or desires and relate to the consumers' perceptions of the service a vendor *should* offer (Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988). Similarly, expectations also reflect the expected standard of the consumers when assessing the features of a product or service (Teas, 1993). Hence, expectations could be influenced by outcome or efficacy (Bandura, 1977), ideal or predictive, experience-based or desired (del Bosque *et al*., 2006). For instance, efficacy expectation is 'the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcome' (Bandura, 1977, p. 193), while outcome expectation is a person's evaluation that certain behaviour would result in given outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Predictive expectations are the consumer's predictions about what would likely happen during an imminent exchange or transaction (Zeithaml *et al*., 1993). This expectation is the most commonly used in tourism (del Bosque *et al*., 2006).

Previous studies on tourist expectations have focused on issues concerning service quality for destinations (Truong & Foster, 2006) and hotels (Briggs *et al*., 2007). Expectations are also studied in other segments like adventure tourism (Fluker & Turner, 2000), tourist attractions (Sheng & Chen, 2012), ecotourism (Khan, 2003), travel agencies (del Bosque *et al*., 2006), and gradually in the volunteering sector (Andereck *et al*., 2012). It is widely agreed that consumers form their expectations through prior experience, personal (e.g., word-of-mouth) and non-personal (e.g. advertising) sources of communication, personal characteristics (e.g. gender and nationality), motivations, and attitudes (Sheng & Chen, 2012; Gnoth, 1997; Zeithaml *et al*., 1993).

Attitudes

Consumer attitudes remain a vital component of the marketing environment that enhances or moderates marketing activities (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Attitudes are commonly recognised as one's degree of favourability toward a psychological object (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). It is a learnt behaviour and a function of the consumer's assessment and perception of the main features or beliefs about a certain object (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Thus, the chief element of attitudinal responses is evaluation, as an agent's evaluation is a function of their accessible beliefs, objects, concepts, and behaviour in line with dimensions like dislike or good-bad (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). Attitudes are pivotal to the theories of consumer decision-making (Newholm & Shaw, 2007), as classical perceptions of attitude suggest that consumer behaviour is a function of their attitudes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000).

An attitude is an individual's enduring evaluation of emotional feelings about and behavioural tendencies toward an object or idea (Pride & Ferrell, 2006), whilst belief is a "descriptive thought that a person holds about something" (Kotler, 2006). These beliefs may be based on actual knowledge, views or faith, which may carry an emotional charge. Marketers are concerned about the beliefs people formulate about specific products and services because these beliefs make up product and brand images that affect buying behaviour (Sarangapani, 2009).

Tourism literature on consumer attitudes addresses various issues like anti-tourist attitudes among self-acknowledged travellers (Jacobsen, 2000), differences in complaint attitudes across different nationalities' hotel customers (Yuksel *et al*., 2006), post-trip attitude adjustment towards hosts (Nyaupane *et al*., 2008), multicultural female assessments of souvenir cultural fabric products (Lee *et al*., 2009), attitudes towards long-haul air travel's climate impacts amongst Norwegian

consumers (Higham & Cohen, 2011), and air travellers' attitudes towards the use of registered traveller biometric systems (Morosan, 2012).

Perceptions

Consumers' expectations are usually perceived based on acquaintances, experiences, motivations, and values (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Accordingly, perception is among the fascinating marketing concepts. Moutinho (1993) defines perception as the process through which a consumer chooses, consolidates and construes stimuli in a coherent and meaningful way. Stimuli affect the senses, be it visual, auditory, or tangible, and consumers carefully organise perceptions into useful relationships, with analysis influenced by personal and social factors (Moutinho, 1993).

People tend to perceive the same product simultaneously in different ways. According to Wu and Delong (2006), consumer perception is essential and serves as a background for understanding consumers and a necessary approach to locating consumers in different cultures. Perception can be defined as "the selecting, organizing and interpreting information inputs to produce a meaningful response and coherent picture" (Lamb *et al*., 2004, p. 81). Consumers unconsciously evaluate their needs, values and opportunities in response to stimuli, leading them to use that evaluation to select, organise and interpret stimuli (Durmaz & Tasdemir, 2014).

The marketplace's perception of a brand or industry is vital, which is why branded companies work hard to ensure that the general perception surrounding them is positive. For example, through the alignment of opinions of Michael Jordan in association with the Nike brand, Nike can expand the perception of their own brand.

Tourism research on perceptions also often centres on risk and safety perceptions, dealing, for instance, with visitors' crime perceptions (George, 2010; Barker *et al*., 2003), sensation-seeking (Lepp & Gibson, 2008), disease and terrorism (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009), and

expeditions to high-risk destinations (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). Recent research focuses on tourists' perceptions of medical tourism across divergent national cultures (Yu & Ko, 2012), wind turbines' impacts on recreational landscapes (Frantal & Kunc, 2011), the influence exerted by food and wine managers to induce positive consumer perceptions (Axelsen & Swan, 2010).

Trust

Trust is feasibly the most potent tool for building good customer relationships (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Berry, 1996), thus sustaining consumer loyalty (Sirdeshmukh *et al.,* 2002). Trust also impacts the willingness to depend on a business partner (Moorman *et al.,* 1993). Trust in marketing consists of two main components: reliability and confidence. Customer satisfaction influences trust (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Trust develops through a vibrant process of surpassing consumer expectations and recurring satisfaction over time (Fam *et al*., 2004) and significantly influences loyalty and future behaviour (Kim *et al.*, 2011). Several tourism studies draw from the trust conceptualisation in marketing while investigating its main antecedents like satisfaction and consequences like word-of-mouth and loyalty (Sparks & Browning, 2011). Customer purchasing behaviours are strongly correlated with the level of trust in the service and product (Kim *et al*., 2009). So, trust is seen as either a behavioural intention or a belief/attitude (Kim *et al*., 2011).

CHAPTER THREE: TOURISM MARKETING IN NIGERIA

3.0   CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

This chapter analyses literature relating to Nigeria with emphasis placed on the Nigerian tourism marketing sector, specifically tourist attractions, which is the context of this study. The chapter explores the literature relating to marketing Nigeria concerning tourism of international tourists, who are the primary stakeholders identified in the aim of this study.

In exploring the literature, the focus will be given much attention, especially as the concept of attraction is mainly based on promotion and advertising.

3.1   BRIEF ABOUT NIGERIA

Nigeria is one of Africa's largest countries. It is endowed with a wealth of rich and varied human, natural and cultural resources that are great assets for tourism development (Adeleke, 2009). Nigeria consists of 36 states, 370 ethnic groups, 4000 dialects and over 160 million people, constituting one-seventh of Africa's population. As demonstrated in Figure 3.1, Nigeria shares its international borders with five sovereign African countries: the Republic of Benin on the west, Chad and Cameroon on the east, Niger on the north and the Gulf of Guinea on the south. Nigeria is one of many countries colonised by the British, therefore making English its official language.

Figure 3.1: Map of Nigeria
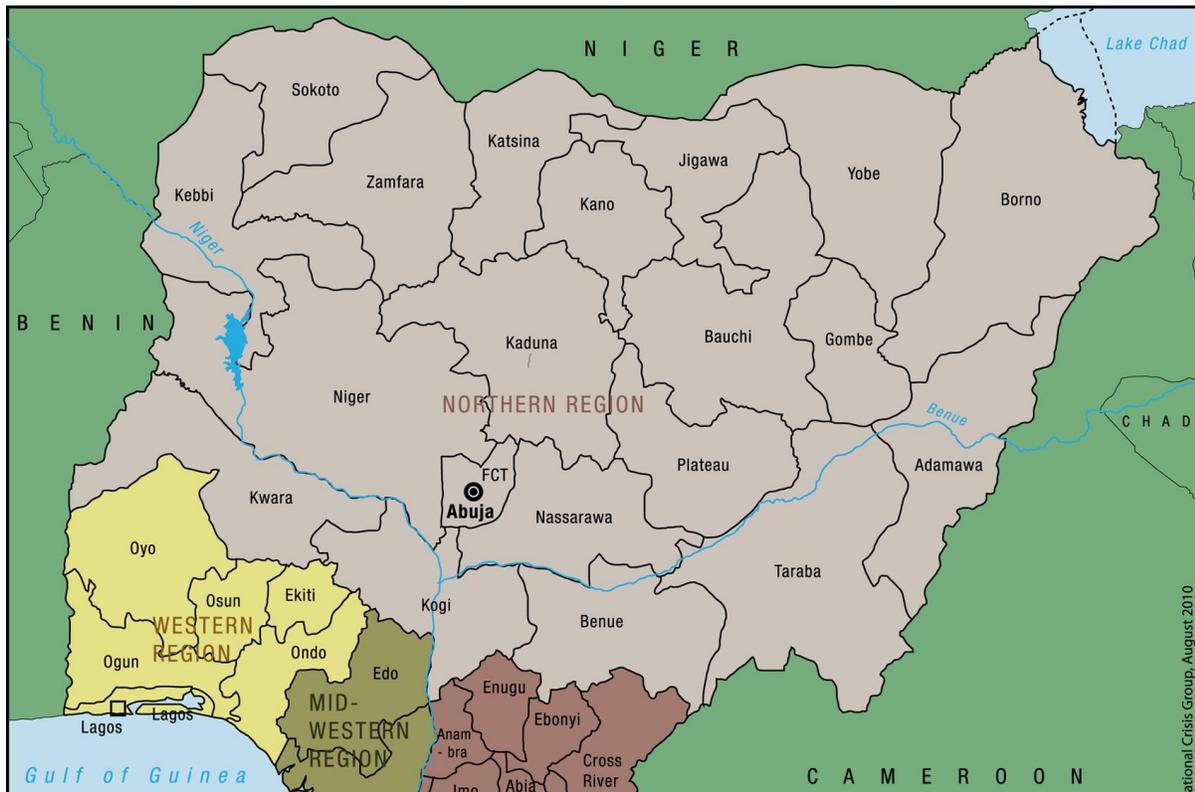
Source: International Crisis Group (2010).

Nigeria is regarded as the second largest country on the African continent and the most populous black nation on earth, with an estimated population of over 160 million people as of 2011 (GARPR, 2011). In terms of her economic index, Nigeria has a GDP of $234.65 billion which translates to a GNI of $1180. Nigeria operates a mixed economic system that involves a dominant public sector and a less dominant government-regulated private sector (Ahunwa, 2011; NPC, 2011). While the country has embarked on a deliberate economic reform, deregulation, and privatisation, the public sector still retains its dominance over the Nigerian economy.

Nigeria is mainly an export-dependent economy, with a large proportion of its export proceeds derived from the oil and gas industries. Despite several attempts at diversifying the economy, oil retains a major role, accounting for over 90 per cent of all foreign exchange proceeds and over 80

per cent of all budgetary revenues (NBS 2010; CBN 2011; CIA fact book 2011). Major trading partners of Nigeria include the USA, which accounts for 28.9% of income, India (12 per cent) and Brazil (4.2%) of all exports, while China (17.5%), the USA (9.1%), and Holland (4.9%) account for most imports into Nigeria.

3.1.1 The Nigerian Political History

Angaye and Gwilliam (2009) describe Nigeria as an artificial creation imposed by the British upon the hitherto independent tribes, ethnic cleavages and peoples of the surrounding lands and waters. Elekwa *et al.* (2004) argue that artificiality is emphasised in an observed absence of Nigerian consciousness and pride in the majority of the citizenry. Nigeria is divided into three major ethnic groups: The *Yorubas* in the West, the *Ibos* in the East and the *Hausas* in the North, and other minority ethnic groups, such as the *Ijaws*, the *Kanuris*, the *Tivs* and the *Ibibios* (Angaye & Gwilliam, 2009).

Guseh and Oritsejafor (2007) report that since Nigeria gained independence in 1960, it has been ruled mostly by military regimes, a journey which started with its first *coup d'état* led by Major Chukwuma Nzeogwu in January 1966. Since then, there have been *coups* and counter-*coups* in Nigeria, eventually leading to 1979, when a general election resulted in a new civilian regime headed by Alhaji Sheu Shagari. Due to corruption charges against Shagari's government, the military again ruled Nigeria until May 1999 (Guseh & Oritsejafor, 2007).

Nigeria is currently operating a presidential system of government with an Executive President. The constitution provides for three arms of government: The Executive (headed by the president); The Legislative, which is subdivided into the Senate and House of Representatives (headed by the Senate president and Hon. Speaker, respectively): and The Judiciary (headed by a Chief Justice. Guseh & Oritsejafor, 2007).

In February 1999, a general election was held, which marked the end of military rule and the beginning of civilian rule based on multi-party democracy. This election brought Chief Olusegun Obasanjo into power as the President of the country, an office he held for two terms of four years (1999-2003 and 2003-2007). After that, the late President Umaru Musa Yar'Dua was elected but then died before the completion of his first term (2003-2009). His death brought in Dr Goodluck Jonathan, who completed the term of the late President (2009-2011) and was subsequently elected and sworn in as Nigerian president on 29th May 2011 (Guseh & Oritsejafor, 2007).

3.1.2 Nigeria's Political System

Administratively, Nigeria is divided into three tiers of government. The Federal, with the seat of power in the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja), 36 States and 774 local government area councils spread across the states. The Federal level is headed by the Executive President, elected Executive Governors to administer the states and the local councils by the Executive Chairmen (Guseh & Oritsejafor, 2007; Nigeria Country Profile, 2008).

The majority of socio-economic policies have been created by the military, which dominated governance in the country for over 51 years. As Otusanya (2011) noted, a successive military incursion into the political and economical administration of the government has resulted in a "de-emphasis on accountability" and institutions that failed to encourage democratic accountability. As a result, notable institutions such as the Judiciary, the Stock Exchange and the Central Bank do not have adequate enforcement mechanisms in place that are capable of challenging the interest of their political class or military hierarchy. A comparative study of leading stock exchanges in Africa indicates that Nigeria is lagging in major market indices and does not compare with others despite the high concentration of industry and a higher national income. (Uche, 2007).

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF TOURISM

Tourism has been defined differently by several authors and researchers. Tourism was defined by Gilbert (1990) as a kind of recreation activity where an individual or group embark on a short-term journey to a community or destination with which they are less familiar to satisfy their leisure needs. Tourism, according to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2015), is defined as a person's or group's activities during their journey or temporary stay in places other than their typical environment for not more than one successive year for vacation, corporate and other reasons unconnected to the implementation of an activity paid from within the visited place. In the definition rendered by the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (IASET), tourism is the conglomeration of the relationship and phenomena emanating from non-residents' travel and stay in a place which is not a permanent home (Ladan, 2003).

Tourism is primarily perceived as when individuals visit a certain place for exploration, relatives and friends, vacations, and fun, engaging in different activities like chatting, sporting, taking rides, sunbathing, touring, singing, reading, relaxing, and enjoying the atmosphere. Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) further argue that tourism also encompasses participation in conventions, business conferences, or other professional activities. They add that for such visits to be regarded as tourism. Tourists must have moved by air, water, or land from their normal home to another destination for any of those above or related reasons and must at least stay there for 24 hours.

The definition of UNWTO (2015) is more encompassing than that of Gilbert (1990), as the latter sees tourism as merely recreational, whilst the former sees it as comprising leisure and business. The definition of IASET emphasises that tourism must not resort to permanent stay at the destination. Nonetheless, the definition of Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) encapsulates the other definitions and, as a result, is considered this study's operational definition of tourism.

3.3   TOURIST ATTRACTIONS IN NIGERIA

Nigeria is among the countries around the globe endowed with many human and natural resources. Nigeria is positioned in the African continent's western coastal region. Naturally, Nigeria is blessed with a varied natural environment that makes her one of the world's charming nations. Nigeria has several tourist attractions lying fallow, including natural attractions such as springs, hills, mountains, waterfalls, rocks, and beaches. Artificial attractions include game reserves, resorts, parks, and ranches and abundant cultural attractions such as festivals and carnivals. More so, these tourist attractions are not concentrated in a specific part of the country; rather, they are spread across all the six geopolitical zones of the country, namely the North Central, Northeast, Northwest, South East, South-South, and the South West. Each of these zones that form the Federal Republic of Nigeria is endowed with at least one tourist attraction, such that if a prospective tourist or a group of tourists are inclined towards a zone than the others, they will find at least one tourist attraction worthy of a visit in that geopolitical zone of their choice (Nigeria–South Africa chamber of commerce, 2014).

Showing the numerous tourist attractions in Nigeria, Abiodun (2001) listed not less than 98 tourist attractions across 26 out of the 36 states in Nigeria, including four attractions in Enugu; three attractions in Borno; two attractions in Edo; eight attractions in Adamawa and Taraba; nine attractions in Benue; one attraction in Abuja; six attractions in Kaduna and Katsina; eleven attractions in Abia, Imo, and Ebonyi states; four attractions in Kano; eight attractions in Lagos; four attractions in Ogun; one attraction in Bauchi; five attractions in Ondo and the Ekiti States; three attractions in Kwara; six attractions in Oyo; one attraction in Cross River; five attractions in Osun; six attractions in Plateau; one attraction in Sokoto; as well as ten attractions in Rivers and the Bayelsa States.

To further demonstrate the extent to which Nigeria is blessed with world-class tourist attractions, below is a glimpse into the 30 foremost tourist attractions in Nigeria - as ranked by the country's Ministry of Information, Culture and Tourism (Akighir & Aaron, 2017). These 30 tourist attractions are distributed across the six geopolitical zones: three are located in the North-Central, three in North-East, four in North-West, four in the South-East, eleven in South-South, and five in the South-West.

3.3.1   Natural Attractions

Nigeria is blessed with several forms of natural tourist attractions, which form the basis for the country's conviction in her capacity to diversify her economy from being an oil-dependent economy. Below are some of the top natural attractions in Nigeria.

1) The Ibeno Beach is located in Ibeno, Akwa Ibom State, South-South, Nigeria.

   This beach is a welcome destination for both local and foreign tourists. Spreading over 245 kilometres on a beach bank, the beach is an awesome leisure seekers' destination. The sunbathing spots, stormy waves, cool breeze occasioned by the water, and pure leaves, thanks to the mangrove jungle and the opulent surrounding, give it an incredible attraction for visitors.

Fig. 3.2: The Ibeno Beach

Source: Tourism for Development Initiative (2013)

2) The Ngwo Pine Forest, located in the Ngwo area of Enugu State; South-East, Nigeria

    This natural and dazzling forest is very attractive to tourists. It is adoringly designed by nature with sharp turns for adventure seekers. Also, the implausibly flowing stream, perfectly set pine trees, and the waters' noisy sprinkling in the shady cave areas could blow one away.

Fig. 3.3: The Ngwo Pine Forest

Source: gramho.com

3) The Awhum Waterfall, located in Awhum, Enugu State, South-East, Nigeria

The Awhum is blessed with several impeccable lakes, waterfalls, and a superb view. The waterfall forms a lovely backdrop in which the water judiciously cascades over its top, forming a stream. It is indeed an extraordinary tourist destination in Nigeria. The Awhum Monastery is situated nearby.

Fig. 3.4: The Awhum Waterfall

Source: ibiene.com

4) The Oban Hills, located in Cross River State, South-South, Nigeria

The Cameroon's Korup National Park shares a border with the Oban Hills, home to several wildlife and plants. More importantly, it is one of the few areas around the globe where the Cassin's hawk eagle, the Crested Guinea fowl, Xavier's green bull, and the bat hawk can all be found. Similarly, it homes over 400 chimpanzee species and is a UNESCO-listed world heritage.

Fig. 3.5: The Oban Hills
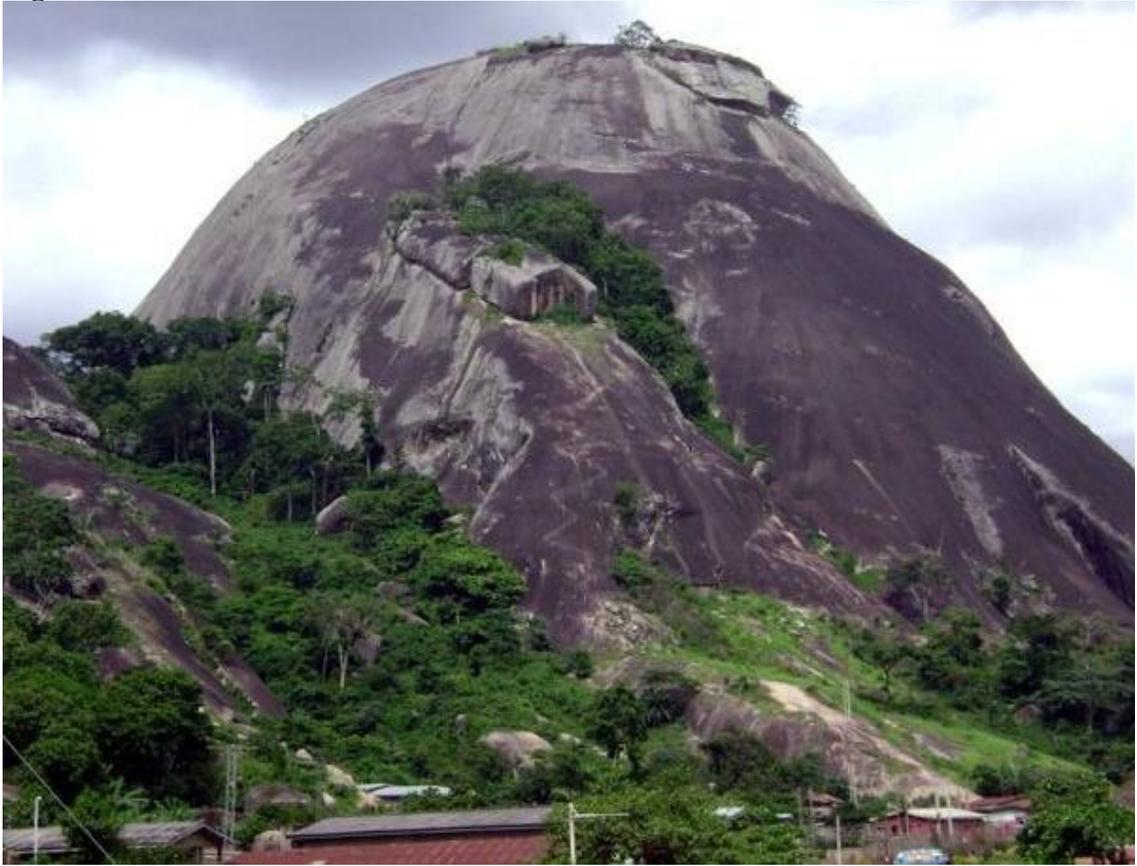
Source: pinterest.com

5) The Oke-Idanre Hill, located in the Oke-Idanre area of Ondo State, South-West, Nigeria

The Oke-Idanre Hill has exhilarating valleys intermixed with high flatland and mountains above sea level. Also situated on the hill is the Omi Aopara, Agbooogun footprint, the thundering water, burial grounds, shrines, and Owa's palace.

Fig. 3.6: The Oke-Idanre Hill

Source: en.wikipedia.org

6) The Ogbunike Caves, located in Enugu State, South-East, Nigeria

The Ogbunike Caves are among the most naturally endowed beautiful destinations in Nigeria. Basically, the caves are of very historical and spiritual essence. For exceedingly adventurous tourists, they would need to descend over 317 steps to enter the caves.

Fig. 3.7: The Ogbunike Caves

Source: funtravelswithmilly.com

7) The Coconut Beach, located in the Badagry area of Lagos State, South-Western Nigeria

The Coconut Beach has stunning ocean views coupled with a perfect relaxation space. The

beach is also encircled by abundant coconut trees just 20 miles away from the Republic of

Benin.

Fig. 3.8: The Coconut Beach

Source: hotels.com

8) The Bar Beach located in Victoria Island, Lagos State, South-West, Nigeria

The Bar Beach – although lacking in coconut trees – is also situated in Lagos. It is positioned near the centre of beautiful Victoria Island and open to visitors who may find its cool breeze and ocean sidewalk intriguing.

Fig. 3.9: The Bar Beach

Source: independent.ng

3.3.2   Man-made Attractions

This tourist attraction allows Nigeria to benefit from the potential of numerous other places to visit. Below are some of the top artificial tourist attractions in the country.

1) The Obudu Mountain Resort is located in the Obudu area of Cross River State, South-South, Nigeria

   This resort majestically sits above the marine level on the Oshie Ridge of the prominent Sankwala Mountains. The comfortable climate, idyllic tranquillity, breathtaking views, and beautiful scenery make this resort one of the most popular tourist attractions in the country.

Fig. 3.10: The Obudu Mountain Resort

Source: lonelyplanet.com

2) The Port Harcourt Tourist Beach, located in the capital of Rivers State, South-South, Nigeria

This resort is built on a gorgeous sand beach. It is a relaxation centre along Kolabi Creek, where different fascinating leisure activities can take place.

Fig. 3.11: The Port Harcourt Tourist Beach

Source: afrotourism.com

3) The Arochukwu Long Juju Slave Route, located in Arochukwu, Abia State, South-East, Nigeria

This route has a six-foot groove that leads tourists to a temple and waterfall in the Route. The Route motivates the tourists to appreciate and check Ibn Ukpabi and the monument of Kamula.

Fig. 3.12: The Arochukwu Long Juju Slave Route

Source: momoafrica.com

4) The Gashaki-Gumpti National Park is located in the Gashaki-Gumpti area of Taraba

   State, North-East, Nigeria

   This park offers an amiable education about life during medieval times in Nigeria. Situated

   on the Chappal Wadi Mountain, the Mountain of Wind, and the Chappal Hendu, the park

   is the biggest and the most assorted National Park in the country.

Fig. 3.13: The Gashaki-Gumpti National Park

Source: ayearcookingtheworld.com

5) The Giant Footprint of Ukhuse Oke, located in the Owan Area of Edo State, South-South, Nigeria

The historical Giant Footprint of Ukhuse Oke is situated between Ukhuse-oke and Ukhuseosi villages, showcasing the unique footprint of an ancient giant permanently embedded in flat granite rocks.

Fig. 3.14: The Giant Footprint of Ukhuse Oke

Source: traveldiagram.com

6) The Alok Ikom Monoliths, located in Ikom, Cross River, South-South, Nigeria

This tourist attraction displays approximately 300 amazing stones, vertically standing in circles and facing one another in groups with texts and images engraved on them. Each Alok Ikom Monolith is made like a lingam.

Fig. 3.15: The Alok Ikom Monoliths

Source: traveldiagram.com

7) The Isaac Boro Garden Park located in Rivers, South-South, Nigeria

This park is situated along the old GRA, opposite the Mile 1 Bridge, Port Harcourt. The

Garden Park is where baseball and softball sports, trade fairs, and live entertainment occur.

The tomb of Major Isaac Boro - a warrior killed during the Civil War - also lies in this

park.

Fig. 3.16: The Isaac Boro Garden Park

Source: hotels. ng

8) The Tinapa Free Zone & Resort, located in Cross River State Capital, South-South, Nigeria

The Calabar charm and its wealthy culture give this resort an elegant scenario that enthrals tourists. This 860,000km^2 area resort is an entertainment zone providing a digital cinema, restaurants, a nightclub, a children's gallery, a mini Amphi theatre, and a Nollywood Studio.

Fig. 3.17: The Tinapa Free Zone & Resort

Source: hotels.ng

9) The Queen Amina's Wall, located in Zaria, Kaduna State, North-Western Nigeria

This is a well-fortified wall built in the city of Zazzau by Queen Amina of Zaria to secure the ancient city. Queen Amina was well-known for her astute military strategies and acts. Captivatingly, the wall remains in the contemporary Zaria city and, as such, a famous tourist attraction in Nigeria.

Fig. 3.18: The Queen Amina's Wall

Source: mvslim.com

10) The Millennium Park located in the Maitama area of the Federal Capital Territory, North-Central, Nigeria

The Millennium Park situated in Abuja is of special importance as it was opened by her Majesty, Queen Elizabeth II of the UK, .in 2003. The park is a relaxation haven and a children's paradise.

Fig. 3.19: The Millennium Park

Source: hotels.ng

11) The Kainji National Park, located in Niger and Kwara States, North-Central, Nigeria

The Kainji National Park was established in 1978 with three unique sectors: the Borgu Game Reserve, the Zugurma Game Reserve, and the Kainji Lake. It is a place to unite with nature and break from urban chaos and noise.

Fig. 3.20: The Kainji National Park

Source: hometown.ng

12) The Yankari National Park, located in Bauchi State, North-Eastern Nigeria

The Yankari Park is an $859m^2$-area park established in 1991 which accommodates different wildlife and various natural warm water springtides. More importantly, this park is one of the eco-destinations of West Africa. In 2000, it hosted above 20,000 tourists from approximately 100 countries.

Fig. 3.21: The Yankari National Park
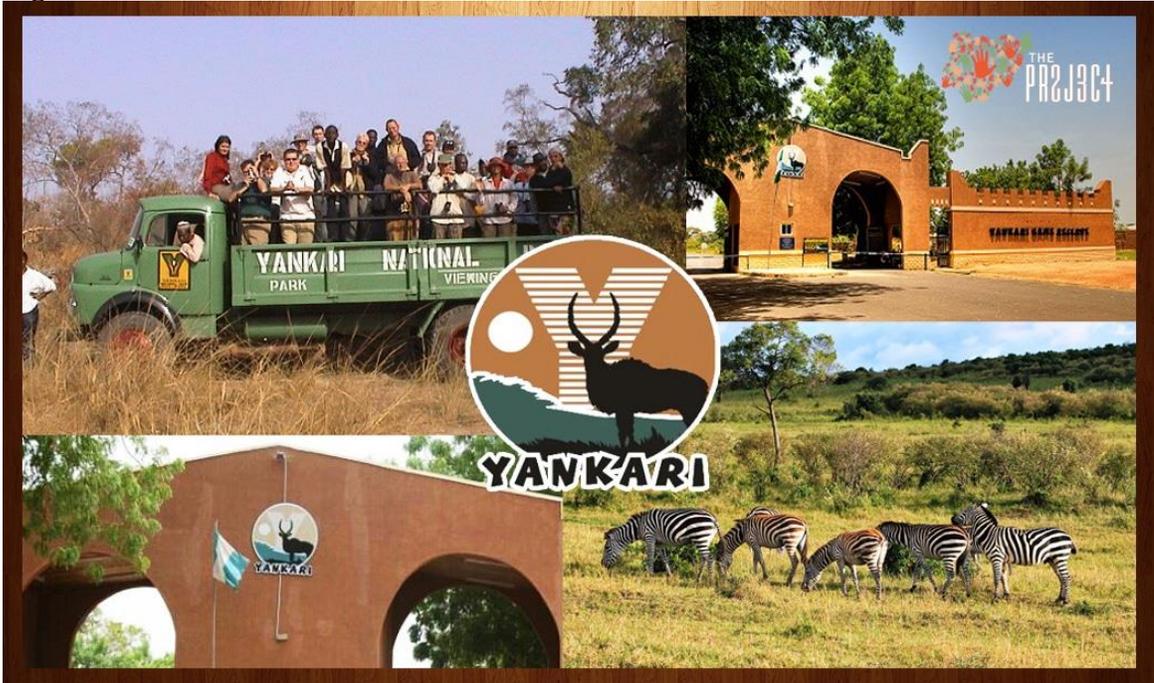
Source: dailynigerian.com

3.3.3 Cultural Attractions

These are attractions which showcase Nigerian traditions, culture, or historical monuments.

Below are some of the top tourist attractions that are related to Nigerian cultures.

1) The Osun-Osogbo Grove, located in the Osun State Capital, South-West, Nigeria

    This is essentially the only Nigerian tourist attraction with sacred shrines, sanctuaries, sculptures, and artworks established in honour of Osun's fertility deity. The Osun-Osogbo Grove is also a World Heritage Site by UNESCO.

Fig. 3.22: The Osun-Osogbo Grove

Source: titiswanderlust.wordpress.com

2) The Emotan Statue is located in Benin, Edo State, South-South, Nigeria

This statue is positioned opposite the Benin City's Oba market. Standing gallantly with traditional costume and headgear, the Statue represents majesty in the Kingdom of Benin.

Fig. 3.23: The Emotan Statue

Source: legit.ng

3) The Royal Palace of Oba of Benin, situated in the Capital city of Edo State, South-South, Nigeria

This is an inheritance space listed by UNESCO near King's Square. The Palace also contains a mammoth pool of sculptural pieces from different Obas of Benin in bronze, ivory, and inherited shrines.

Fig. 3.24: The Royal Palace of Oba of Benin

Source: legit.com

4) The Sukur Cultural Landscape sited in Madageli, Adamawa, North-Eastern Nigeria

Madageli is the Sukur cultural scenery's motherland comprising traditional cemeteries and

customary terraced areas. It is pleasurable with sumptuous forests and is positioned on top

of the Mandara Mountains.

Fig. 3.25: The Sukur Cultural Landscape

Source: weloveyatours.blogspot.com

5) The Surame Cultural Landscape sited in Surame, Sokoto State, North-Western Nigeria

This is an impeccable illustration of the wonders of human creativity, inventiveness, and development. Surame is also a UNESCO global heritage site with walls made of gigantic stones and a palace for the village principal, Hidi.

Fig. 3.26: The Surame Cultural Landscape
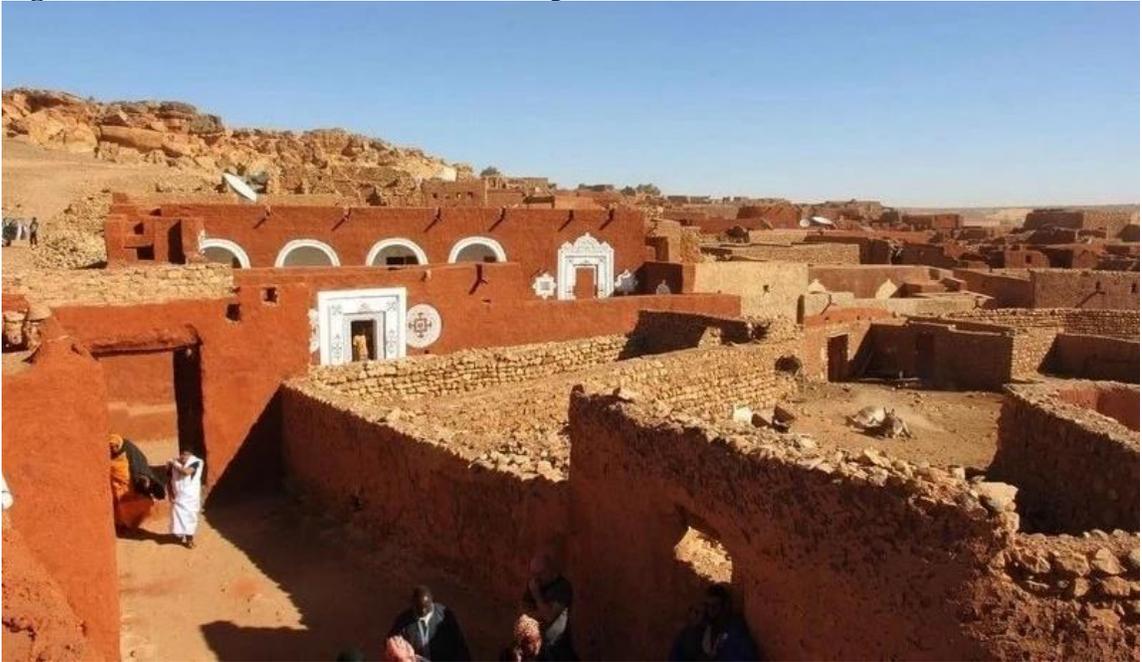
Source: legit.com

6) The Ancient Kano City Walls, situated in Kano State, North-Western Nigeria

Tourists would be opportune to relish the atmosphere of the delightful Kano medieval city along with its ancient walls. The earth monument – which has a radius of approximately 14 kilometres – carries spiritual, historical, and cultural importance. Similarly, the walls are habitually linked with the Emir's Palace.

Fig. 3.27: The Ancient Kano City Walls

Source: imgur.com

7) The Nana Living History Museum, located in Warri, Delta State, South-South, Nigeria

This fanciful national monument is situated in Koko, Warri, and was established by a great businessman of the 19th century, Chief Nana Olomu Ebrohimi.

Fig. 3.28: The Nana Living History Museum

Source: skyitl.com

8) The Ancient Nok Settlement, sited in Jaba area of Kaduna State, North-West, Nigeria

Antiquities from this settlement are housed in galleries and museums in several parts of the

world. The world-famous Terracotta ornament was found in this small archaeologists'

sanctuary.

Fig. 3.29: The Ancient Nok Settlement

Source: hotels.ng

9) The New Afrika Shrine, located in Lagos State Capital, South-Western Nigeria

The New Afrika Shrine is a perfect destination for tourists who feel like enjoying the great music of the legendary Fela crew. This shrine replicates the original Fela Shrine that was burnt down on February 18, 1977.

Fig. 3.30: The New Afrika Shrine

Source: foursquare.com

10) The Abuja Arts and Crafts Village, situated in Abuja, North-Central, Nigeria

This Arts and Crafts Village is positioned within the Abuja Central Business District, close to the Silverbird Cinema, and accommodates numerous artefacts and handicrafts for tourists. It is a cool place for tourists to visit, as they can also buy some unique arts and crafts after sightseeing.

Fig. 3.31: The Abuja Arts and Crafts Village

Source: hotels.com

3.4 FACTORS AFFECTING NIGERIA AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

Extant literature found that tourism in Africa is allegedly riskier than any comparable continent other than the Middle East (Lepp *et al*., 2011; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Carter, 1998). Previous studies found that this perception has resulted in a general opinion that Africa is a place which should be avoided (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). Lepp *et al*. (2011) claim that the perceived threat in Africa as a tourist destination continent is not unconnected with problematic heritage branded by social and political instability, wars, bad governance, crime, terrorism, unfriendly hosts, health and disease, primaeval conditions, language and cultural barriers, economic concerns like currency volatility, as well as unfounded and persistent myths and rumours like "Africa is a single wild

jungle". Lawson and Thyne (2001) found that these risks generate a widely accepted negative image applied to the whole African continent without recognising regional or national variability.

Lepp *et al*. (2011) and Lepp and Gibson (2008) found that the prevalent negative perception of the continent has discouraged several tourists from roaming Africa, thus reducing the rate of tourism in African countries. Muhwezi *et al*. (2016) argue that there is a common negative perception of Africa and its member states in tourist marketplaces due to the biases against Africa and negative stereotypes built from Africa's past and current problematic traditions and its unwillingness to reform them.

As a country, however, several factors affect the Nigerian brand as a tourist destination. For example, experts from Australia associate Nigeria with corruption, whilst experts from France symbolise Nigeria with rainforests, hot weather, and poverty. Experts from New Zealand associate Nigeria with oil and violence, famine, corporate greed, civil war, corruption, and mismanagement, whilst experts from Spain associate Nigeria with adjectives such as artistically rich, Timbuktu, unsafe, rude, and corrupt. Experts from the UK associate Nigeria with fraud, whilst experts from the USA associate Nigeria with poverty, despair, violence, native dress, petrol, rich natural resources, corruption, and open wilderness (Asli & Metin, 2006). Looking at the above symbols from different experts across various countries, it is evident that there are more negative than positive ones. More so, some negative symbols are more frequent than others, thus, causing serious dents to the Nigerian brand and image as a tourist destination.

A common negative perception used of Nigeria as a country is insecurity. Recently, Nigeria has experienced an increase in the rate of insecurity in complex and diverse manners, ranging from socio-economic and political agitations to cultism, ransom kidnapping, and ethnoreligious crises to 'Boko Haram' suicide bombers (Ajayi & Oyebade, 2021; Dele, 2021). Dele listed lack of

economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security as the seven dimensions of human insecurity that are affecting the development of the tourism industry in Nigeria. In 2008, Ibrahim Yakubu Lame - the Minister of Police Affairs - reported that 353 people were kidnapped in Nigeria, with two deaths recorded, and in 2009, 512 kidnapping cases were reported with 30 deaths (Lame, 2009). Similarly, Nigeria was described by Clayton Consultants (2009) as within the world's top 8 hotspots for kidnapping. Shell Petroleum reported the kidnap of 133 of its staff between 2006 and 2008 (Shell, 2009).

Another negative perception of Nigeria is its association with bribery and corruption. Such is the level of corruption in Nigeria; everyone is prone to risk. Olaniyan (2006) remarks that corruption blemishes our brand image as a country compromises our reputation and values and erodes our equity. Nuhu Ribadu recorded while in office as the former chairman of the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) that more than $400 billion was looted from Nigeria. This figure is six times the sum spent to rebuild Western Europe after World War II (Akubor, 2011). The Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index also ranked Nigeria as the 'most corrupt nation in 1996, 1997 and 2000; the 2nd most corrupt country in 1999 and 2001-2003; the 3rd most corrupt country in 2004 and 2005; the 4th most corrupt nation in 1998; and lastly, the 5th most corrupt country in 2006 (Aluko, 2006).

Poverty is another negative perception of Nigerian society. World Bank Statistics (2004) records that at least 66 per cent of the Nigerian population were below the poverty line of $1 per day compared to 43 per cent in 1985. Sharing the sentiments of others on oil resources and the poverty level in Nigeria, Larmode (2008) remarks that the Nigerian government made almost half a trillion

dollars from oil in less than five decades, which eventually dwarfed the international aid to the entirety of Africa. Yet nearly 70 per cent of Nigerian citizens live in abject poverty.

Also, the unstable power supply is another challenge in Nigeria. Arobieke *et al.* (2012) claim that the Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN) barely meets Nigerians' electricity needs as its supply of 3,600 MW is usually well below the demand for power (7,600MW). The high cost of running generators was attributed to the withdrawal of Michelin Plc., which led to the direct loss of 1,300 jobs in Nigeria (George & Oseni, 2012).

However, the above does not imply that there is nothing good about Nigeria as a nation, and extant literature also identifies positive aspects of Nigeria. For example, regarding hospitality, Nigeria was adjudged to be the happiest and friendliest people on earth in the UK New Scientist magazine's international poll. Odia (2012) also found that the Nigerian tourist image performed well when ranked according to the hospitality index.

Nigeria is also blessed with several natural resources. Nigeria can produce enough sugar to earn lots of foreign exchange if well-harnessed (Wada *et al.,* 2001). Besides sugar, cassava, soybean/cowpea, and the aquaculture system, resources are abundantly deposited in Nigeria. The country is also gifted with copious resources that could enhance the iron and steel industry development. The leading resources are coal, iron ore, limestone, dolomite, clays, refractory, and ferroalloys. Nigeria possesses nearly 1.3 billion tonnes of coal deposits in Nassarawa, Kogi, and the Enugu States, roughly 25 billion barrels of petroleum and natural gas in Rivers, Imo, Delta, Cross River, and Bayelsa State, bituminous tar sand in a belt that runs roughly east-west from Ondo to Ogun, and radioactive minerals in Sokoto, Gombe, and Plateau states (Ibrahim & Biliaminu, 2010). Furthermore, Nigeria is also endowed with other natural resources like cocoa, cotton, and groundnuts.

The Telecommunications sector of the country is also another success story, as it witnessed remarkable growth, turning the sector into the largest GSM market across Africa since the arrival of GSM in 2001 (Kenneth, 2007; Ndukwe, 2004). The industry has improved Nigeria's GDP with its 0.32% contribution in 2000 and 3.66% in 2009 (NCC, 2012). It also generated more than 200 billion Naira within the first decade of its emergence (Adeyinka *et al.,* 2007).

Despite its mammoth material and human resources, Nigeria is still wrestling with numerous problems such as advance fee fraud, bribery and corruption, poor infrastructure, unemployment, poor work ethics, ethnic and religious unrests, poor agricultural, health, and educational systems, insecurity, poverty and hunger (Nworah, 2007). The negative impacts of image loss have placed the country in a disadvantaged position in the global market. The awareness of other positive images amongst foreign tourists could enhance Nigeria's brand and image as a viable tourism destination, allowing it to compete effectively with other tourism destinations in Africa and in the global tourism market (Jude. & Ukekwe, 2020). Thus, there is a need for branding and rebranding the country.

3.4.1   Rebranding Nigeria

To a great extent, a country's reputation determines the perception of that country held by people at home and abroad. In today's highly competitive marketplace, a country's image is very tough to build and maintain, yet it is a critical success factor. As the market becomes more congested and the competition more vigorous, consumers, immigrants, tourists, and investors will likely rely more on the country's reputation than on its real attributes in buying, travelling, and investment decisions. Approaching the 21st century, many nations around the globe now realise the essence of creating a brand for themselves (Odia & Isibor, 2014). For instance, Leonard (1997) highlights the

convincing need to rebrand Britain after observing the gulf between the global perception of Britain as a nostalgic island steeped in its tradition and its reality as an exceedingly creative nation.

According to Ngoasong et al., (2021), some African countries are beginning to use their rich and diverse tourism products, increasingly business friendly government policies, changing the global perception of Africa as a tourist destination to attract tourist. For instance, Ghana is rebranding to attract tourists to its Apo festival of Bono Takyiman (Quan-Baffour, 2020). Similarly, Ferguson (2001) remarks on the need to rebrand Canada as no country wishes to remain unknown. Instead, every nation desires to create a unique and endearing brand with positive multidimensional attributes for world influence and economic growth. Brymer (2003) contends that copious opportunities abound within the global market, but countries with poor or unknown reputations will be ostracised. Brymer's (2003) observation about 'poor or unknown reputation' perfectly fits the situation of Nigeria and the majority of developing countries. Anholt (2007, p. 121), in his comments on the situation of Nigeria, remarks that:

> "The significance of reputation for places such as Lagos and Nigeria are not trivial. If their image is entirely composed of negative elements–such as crime, war, poverty, disease or corruption–then it is unlikely that the city or the country will be able to attract many tourists, foreign investors, trading partners or even consumers for locally produced products".

An ex-Minister of Information and Communication, Akunyili (2009) also acknowledges the need to redeem Nigeria's sagging image, remarking that Nigeria's image within and outside the country is highly tarnished. Particularly, outside Nigeria, Nigeria and Nigerians are perceived so badly that an average Nigerian is considered a potential criminal and fraudster. Nigerians are rarely given the avenue to prove themselves otherwise.

The subject of rebranding Nigeria has, in recent times, gained ample attention because of the country's apparent negative image. The government has made several efforts to reposition the country's brand image. The foremost attempt was the Heart of Africa Project (HOA), launched in 2004 under the Obasanjo administration. The next major effort was that of the Yar'dua government in 2009, when 'Professor launched the Rebrand Nigeria Campaign'. Dora Akunyili through 'Good People, Great Nation. One reason for the HOA project's failure was primarily launched overseas whilst disregarding the mechanism of internal marketing (Ujiagbedion, 2008; Nworah, 2007). The fundamental step of image audit was also omitted before the HOA project was launched (Nworah, 2007). Critically analysing the second attempt, it was found that the gap of perception audit also characterized the HOA. Consequently, Fasure (2009) referred to the second rebranding attempt as 'Good Salesman with Bad Product'.

This study, therefore, determines the perception of the current Nigerian brand image among British tourists, finds out whether the Nigerian tourist sector's marketing activities have enhanced the brand image, and what effects these have on their choice of Nigeria as Nigeria a tourist destination.

3.5   NIGERIAN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION

Nigerian independence provided some sort of global recognition which invariably attracted holiday enthusiasts and foreign investors to the country. Although Nigeria gained independence in 1960, Nigerian tourism activities date back to 1472, when the country hosted its first European tourist, who were the first batch of Portuguese to arrive in Lagos (Ojo *et al*., 2012; Aaker *et al*., 2004). The British colonial masters' initial effort to control Nigerian wealth, especially in culture, was made through the establishment of the Colonial Antiquities Commission in 1953. The aim of creating the commission was to detect and preserve national antiquities and monuments.

Successive advancement of the commission's status and roles was done from time to time (Curtis, 2001; Clarke, 2003). The agency was mandated to promote healthy international and domestic tourism geared towards revenue generation for Nigeria (Hall, 2002; Aaker, 1997; Hunt, 1975).

As a result of the total near-dependence on the oil and gas industries, other sectors of the economy experienced years of neglect which accounts for the near comatose state of key industrial sectors. Munzali (2011) cites common examples as the manufacturing, tourism, and transport industries. Given its broad reform agenda, the Nigerian government has placed a premium on travel and tourism as a strategic sector in the national economy. Adepoju (2014) suggests that in addition to the market decline in crude oil, the wide-scale adoption of fracking technology has a major influence on the decline in global crude oil demand, which has negatively affected Nigeria's crude oil production and foreign exchange. Whilst suggesting tourism may be a suitable replacement for oil as a foreign exchange earner, Adepoju (2014) underlines the need to transform the Nigerian tourism brand and rebrand the country's image.

According to Ashaolu (2010), in pursuit of the goal of improving the quality of life of the people as one of the benefits of political independence, the Federal Government of Nigeria set up the then Nigerian Tourism Board to encourage the creation and development of tourism. In the third national development plan, 1975-1980, tourism was for the first time included, with an allocation of N120 million. Early efforts at formally promoting tourism were gainfully utilized, and initiatives included: the Hotel Presidential Port Harcourt, the Yankari Game Reserve, Arguugu fishing and culture village, Ikogosi warm spring water, and the Mande tourist village near Jos. Subsequently, the Federal Government, in 1990, transformed the Federal Ministry of Trade into the Federal Ministry of Trade and Tourism. In 1992 it was named the Federal Ministry of Commerce and Tourism, with tourism awarded the status of a department in 1991.

Through the Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC), Nigeria has recently created a new brand, "Fascinating Nigeria", to revitalise and develop the struggling tourism industry as a complete value chain (Duke, 2013; NTDC, 2014). This move aims to make travel and tourism a major portion of the nation's GDP and to boost non-oil revenues as Nigeria continues its mission to diversify its economy. Other recent initiatives by the NTDC to provide further growth in travel and tourism include joining the International Coalition of Tourism Partners (ICTP); forming alliances with emerging global travel and tourism giants such as South Africa, UAE, Israel and Saudi Arabia; and participating in international tourism trade fairs such as WTM London and ITB Berlin. In terms of project development, Mbanefo (2015) asserts the NTDC has been able to list and categorise tourist attractions in Nigeria in a compendium to enhance further the marketing of the tourism potential of the Nigerian market.

The Federal Government's Policy on the Tourism sub-sector development is part of the government's effort to diversify the economy from oil. Although the hospitality services (hotel and restaurant) contribution to GDP is less than one per cent, Nigeria's tourism industry has recorded a steady growth of 10 and 12 per cent between 2010 and 2012. However, these growth rates - when compared with comparative figures from other African Countries - show that Southern and East Africa appear as dominant destinations of choice. In accounting for this noticeable trend, Duke (2013) suggests that the closer cultural affinity of settled colonialists with their home country is a major factor in the marked difference between volumes of annual tourist visits. The tourism industry offers the opportunity to lessen the country's dependence on oil revenue. Ajibola (2013) argues that the lack of adequate empirical data hinders policymakers and other stakeholders on the viability of most of the existing tourism destinations in Nigeria. Similarly, inadequate statistics

and knowledge of Nigeria as a tourist destination are also identified as factors militating against tourism development in Nigeria (Report, 2006: NIHOTOUR, 2006; 2011; Munzali, 2014).

In tackling some of these challenges, the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) and the Federal Ministry of Culture have begun registering hotels and tourist enterprises in the country. Duke (2013) posits that registration is paramount for the tourism sector to develop data management systems required for planning purposes and to assist tourists in booking and gaining access to hotels safely with a scheme for ranking hotels.

The NTDC is currently developing three tourist sites in the Federal Capital Territory, Osun, and Ekiti states to boost sustainable tourism and eradicate poverty in line with the objectives of the tourism ministry and the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2014). The Federal Ministry of Tourism and Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation also set up a committee of experts, including academics and representatives from airlines, tourism, and media industries, to raise a shortlist of sites and events that will serve as the seven landmarks that every tourist to Nigeria - and indeed, all Nigerians - should see as a way of raising national consciousness about the beauty of the Nigerian environment.

3.5.1 Government Tourism Objectives

The Nigerian government's cardinal objective concerning tourism is formulated and implemented through the NTDC, which seeks to position tourism as a key sector for economic growth, thus contributing as a tool for poverty alleviation by promoting the cultural heritage and tourism potential inherent in the Nigerian nation-state. The ministry and the tourism board achieve these objectives by identifying, developing and marketing the country's diverse cultural and tourism opportunity as part of a broader goal of repositioning Nigeria as a globally recognised positive

brand. NTDA (2014) identifies the following as the main objectives of the Nigerian government in tourism development:

To position the tourism sector as a major foreign exchange earner, a tool for wealth creation and rural development.

Act as a means of fostering peace and promoting national integration in a cultural and ethnically diverse country such as Nigeria.

To increase the overall contribution of tourism to Nigeria's GDP and, by extension, national income.

Developing a sustainable tourism industry through utilisation of the country's cultural heritage and abundant tourism assets.

While these objectives are laudable and appear to have largely been put into practice, Ayeni and Edoboh (2013) contend that data paucity, poor support infrastructure base and poor strategic marketing have hindered mainly the achievement of these objectives.

3.6   MARKETING NIGERIA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

Tourism plays an important role in the socio-economic development of many countries with regards to increasing their economic standards, reducing unemployment, increasing the GDP and other revenue opportunities. This has led to developing the tourism industry and diversifying the Nigerian economy from solely relying on crude oil as foreign exchange earnings (Iyiola, 2014). The lack of awareness of Nigeria as a tourism destination in the international market has resulted in low revenues from foreign tourists, especially from the British market (Yusuff, 2016). Despite Nigeria's many tourist attractions, tourism has not met its full potential to attract massive capital

investments and foreign direct investments necessary to improve tourist infrastructure. This has also led to Nigeria's poor international image and few tourists visiting the country (Yusuff, 2016 Iyiola & Akintunde, 2011).

UNWTO (cited in Pike & Page, 2014) claims that destination marketing is now recognised as one of the pillars of the future advancement and sustainability of tourism destinations in a growing competitive and globalized tourist market. Destination marketing research has evolved into a different paradigm and its importance. According to Pike & Page (2014), its importance is strengthened by four major propositions connected to global tourism. Firstly that most parts of tourism happen at destinations. Secondly, UNWTO suggests that destinations are "the fundamental unit of analysis in tourism". Thirdly, the destination is currently the prime brand in the travel business. Finally, many cities, states, and nations now fund a Destination Marketing Organization as the principal driver to complete and attract people to their visitor space or unique place.

According to the WTO (2004), destination marketing encompasses all the processes and activities to bring sellers and buyers together to respond to competitive positioning and fulfil consumer demands. It is a set of continuous activities to distribute products efficiently to prospective markets. Destination marketing encompasses decision-making about the product, pricing, branding, market segmentation, advertising, and distribution.

Kotler *et al.* (2006) claim that destination marketing is essential to a location's popularity development and retention. On the other hand, tourism planners mainly concentrate on destination developments and pay little or no attention to the retention and preservation of the attributes attracting tourists in the first place. Buhalis and Law (2008) found that destination marketing expedites the accomplishment of tourism policy, which ideally should occur in tandem with the overall regional development strategic plan. It is generally acknowledged that a destination's

tourism development, to a great extent, depends on tourism resources, both ecological and cultural, possessed by the destination in both quantity and quality. Equally, marketability, promotion, and tourism infrastructure are vital for sustainable tourism development (Ajadi, 2012).

The above literature suggests that destination marketing is the pivot of any sustainable tourism industry, but the question is, could this be why the Nigerian tourism industry is underperforming? Therefore, discussing issues like destination competitiveness and tourism product promotion is imperative.

3.6.1   Destination Competitiveness

Destination competitiveness is a country's ability to create added values to upsurge the national wealth by managing attractiveness, assets and processes, proximity and aggressiveness, and by assimilating these relationships into a social and economic model which emphasises the destination's preservation and natural capital for future generations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). In the global markets, the success of launching a destination is determined by its competitiveness compared to others (Tanja *et al.*, 2011). A destination will attain a competitive advantage if its total appeal to potential visitors is identical to that of a substitute destination. However, a tourism destination's competitiveness is not determined by the set of unbending natural, artistic, cultural, or environmental resources; rather, it is determined by its overall appeal. Accordingly, tourism in a particular destination will attain an intimidating position in the global market if only such a destination can gain and sustain a competitive advantage. In order to realise accurate matches between the management strategies and tourism resources, the government and the industry should define and have a full grasp of the market and strongest points of the competitiveness of the new country in the tourism industry (Tanja *et al.*, 2011).

There is a need for tourism destinations to develop, sustain, protect and fortify their global competitive positions (Crouch, 2011). Developing destination competitiveness models would enable stakeholders in tourism to detect major strengths and weaknesses, highpoint prospects for visitors' attraction development, create strategies to exploit these opportunities, and counter potential threats to future adaptation development (Balkaran & Maharaj, 2013).

3.6.2 Tourism Product Promotion

Marketing communication is a major aspect of hospitality and tourism services delivery. This sector greatly depends on marketing due to its peculiarities as services. Marketing communications, however, is a tool which goes far beyond mere advertising. One of the crucial factors determining the tourism sector's success is giving the right people the right messages (Yusuff , 2016;Suli *et al.,* 2013). Cirikovic (2016) contends that marketing communication remains the key player in attaining the competitive position of a tourism destination. Through the communication strategies and the processes by which they are achieved, tourism destinations or sectors disseminate information about their products, activities, and services as comprehensive as possible, as well as achieving feedback concerning how the information is received and valued by the target audience (Bogan, 2014).

Communication is a multifaceted mechanism to send messages and images to potential clients about destinations and their products and services. This comprises both the external and internal actions of a firm, agency, or association that gathers market participants' knowledge, opinions, and attitudes to create promotional content targeted at the market and the customer segments (Bruhn, 1999). In the present emerging state of tourism globally, marketing is not only a critical economic tool in the decision-making process of the potential tourists but also ensures tourism activities' growth and correspondingly transformation in both the medium and the long term. This

approach occurs as tourists gradually become busier professionals with unique obligations who can assess a tourism service or product through fair and real marketing (Bogan, 2014).

Through effective and efficient communication, the tourism entity identifies the target markets and their potential clients' preferences that could enhance their destination loyalty. To achieve this communication goal, the entity must achieve a homogenous and constructive sum of all the information and data that could help determine the competition response patterns and determine viable communication mechanisms and techniques which could be used to promote the entity's products and services effectively. As the tourist choice of destination is influenced by the tourist's previous experience or tourism entity's promotion activities, it is therefore imperative to discover the extent to which the Nigerian tourism sector's marketing activities influence the British tourists in their destination choices. Iyiola and Akintunde (2011) claim that extensive research has not been done in marketing Nigeria as a tourism destination. Nevertheless, the general body of literature in the area of tourism can be incorporated. In assessing tourism destinations within Nigeria which have been unsuccessful in achieving their full capacities because of ineffective promotion strategies. The fundamental means of promotion in tourism are shown in Fig. 3.2 below:

Fig. 3.2 Means of Promotion for Tourism

Mass-media	Promotional actions	Mass-media and event compilation	Promotional actions and event compilation
Commercials for radio, television or printing	Games, competitions, raffles, lottery, coupons	Speeches and press conferences, specialized workshops	Meetings and commercial presentations
Printed specialty guides and catalogues	Small gifts and souvenirs	Sponsoring some forms of tourism	Other fairs and commercial exhibition
Brochures, flyers and other printed materials	Fairs, exhibitions, and tourist events	Proprietary means of information	Personal mail offer
Billboards, posters, advertising messages, demos, photo exhibitions	Protocol trips for journalists, cultural and economy attachés	Tourism company or advertising magazine	Sport, cultural, national and international events
Internet	Group sales, sales	Planning special events	Religious events
Audio-video materials (CDs, videos)	Short advertisements in large malls	Telemarketing	Book fairs

Source: Bogan (2014)

3.6.2.1 Measuring the Effectiveness of NTDC Marketing Activities

Ayeni & Ebohon (2012) claim that poor strategic marketing is one of the major factors affecting the Nigerian tourism sector. Adepoju (2014) also establishes the need to transform the Nigerian tourism brand and rebrand the country's image. Similarly, in 2014, the NTDC identified Nigeria's four main tourism development objectives. The first of the four objectives is '*to position the tourism sector as a major foreign exchange earner; a tool for wealth creation and rural development*. This objective, however, represents the marketing aspect of the four main objectives, which means that the NTDC also acknowledged the need for strategic marketing in the Nigerian tourism industry. This study, therefore, evaluates the effectiveness of the NTDC's marketing efforts from the British tourists' standpoints, using the four dimensions of Bogan's (2014) Means of Tourism Promotion, comprising of (1) mass media, (2) promotional actions, (3) mass media and event compilation, and (4) promotional actions and event compilation. This is achieved using both

structured and unstructured methods, as open-ended questions are embedded into the four-dimensioned scale.

3.7 RESTATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Scholars have established that education and mass media are responsible for describing destinations with negative symbols (Wei, 2000; Lee, 1990). They claim that the receivers of information would likely endorse information from news and education (which are forms of organic agents) rather than from other sources. As such, they might be influenced unconsciously by the value-laden information gotten through education and news (Croteau & Hoynes, 2002). Similarly, word-of-mouth (another form of organic agent) is essential for positive recommendations of destinations to potential tourists and revisits by existing tourists as a dissatisfied tourist would likely spread negative images of the destination (O'Leary & Deejan, 2008).

Nonetheless, according to Bogan (2014), a purchase decision is a progressive sequence of identifying desires or necessities, searching and estimating substitutes, picking a tourist product and the post-purchase assessment. Bogan (2014) argues that tourists can manage and increase their self-confidence in the process of making purchase decisions if they are experienced (they contact a trusted travel agency or tour operator who at all times offers quality products based on their requests), they use known or recommended services providers, and if the service providers give them warranties for unfavourable conditions, like gifting another tourist service pack or another destination. First-timers usually opt for tourist products which are low-priced and more accessible, accepting the risk of quality-related issues concerning their destinations of choice, and they

research and crosscheck the information they receive, collating promotional materials and messages from various sources.

This implies that in some instances, the organic agents come to play, and in other cases, the induced agents. Hence, this study tests the following hypotheses.

H$_{01}$: There is no significant difference between the effects of the organic and induced agents on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists.

According to Ajzen (1988, 1991), three main factors - namely attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control - influence a person's behavioural intention, and such intention stimulates actual behaviour. Francis *et al.* (2004) argue that attitude is the consumer's beliefs about the consequences of the behaviour, and outcome evaluations, determine whether the consumer would support a decision. Subjective norms are the consumers' views on how their close associates would love them to act, based on their values. Perceived behavioural control relates to the seeming confidence or trust a consumer has towards acting in a particular manner or taking certain decisions.

This implies that the major factors influencing consumer buying behaviour can be categorised into attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. It is on this note that this study proposes the hypothesis below.

H$_{02}$: There are no significant factors influencing British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

Motivation through marketing activities influences pre-visit factors like attitudes and expectations (Hsu *et al.*, 2010). Consumers can choose particular brands during purchase because they know what to expect in terms of quality and can also connect their preference to the particular brand's

offerings (Kotler *et al*., 2013). Through branding, consumers' decision-making process is simplified as customers do not necessarily need to rely on the market at every point of purchase. Hotel image recognises that destination image influences tourists' behaviour and choice of destination (Költringer & Dickinger, 2015; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Tourists' destination choices and revisiting decisions are influenced by destination image (Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015; Hosany & Prayag, 2013). This study is therefore led to the third hypothesis.

H03:   The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

The essence of brand personality is highlighted by extant literature (Gouteron, 2006); Ferrandi *et al*., 2005; Wyson *et al*., 2002; Aaker, 1997). Brand personality is also perceived as the main source of differentiating a brand from others. It is pivotal to brand attitude determination (Ferrandi *et al*., 2005) and creating emotions and expectations (Ferrandi & Valette-Florence, 2002). An essential asset of a destination is its image. It is the foundation upon which tourists build their expectations, on which the tourists' behaviours ultimately depend (Ryan & Gu, 2008).

Destination image comprises three predominant elements, namely, (1) tourist's values and expectations (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000); (2) destination characteristics (Coshall, 2000); and (3) tourist's experience (San *et al.,* 2008; Lopes, 2011). Destination image is built on tourists' perceptions, which are determined by the available information about the destination (Murphy *et al*., 2000), reference groups who are friends and families, which may improve or tarnish the destination image (Lopes, 2011), inner psychological factors concerning the external environments

(Hung *et al*., 2012), tourists' nationality (Blain *et al*., 2005), tourists' demographic (for example, age, race), and previous destination visits (Tasci, 2007).

Furthermore, a product or service, features, and technology do not depict the brand image; rather, the brand image is often presented through advertisement, promotion, or previous experience. In summary, promotion and advertisement enable organisations to benefit from their branding activities by allowing prospective consumers to envisage things from a business perspective, thereby raising their expectations of the product or service (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Cannon et al., 2009). This enables tourism destinations to occupy a better position and invite potential consumers to purchase (Leisen, 2001). Hence, this study tests the hypothesis below.

H04: The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination.

Bedbury and Fenichell (2002) argue that a brand is not just about a service or a product. It is, rather, the sum of all that a firm does – the good, the bad, and the off strategy – which in one way or the other, imprints a huge context or an identity in the consumer's mind, hence, a brand is a symbol of promise and trust. Similarly, a vibrant and excellent brand image delivers added values, offers dominant identity benefits, controls consumers' behaviour, influences consumers' perceptions of reality, opens doors, creates respect and trust, and increases prospects of superiority and integrity (Morgan *et al*., 2011). Based on this notion, this study proposed the following hypothesis.

H05: The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' rust in Nigeria as a tourist destination.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0   CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The research methodology is one of the principal components of the research process, appraising the effectiveness and adequacy of the research results and conclusions. The methodology is also used to estimate the soundness and reliability of the data collection instruments and facilitates a comprehensive understanding of the scientific inquiry method (Ajayi, 2014; Ghauri & Grönhaug, 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2003). Similarly, Creswell (2012) defines research methodology as the assumption that deals with the choice of the researcher's experience in collecting and analysing the reality discovered. This study investigates the British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's brand image and its implication for marketing the country as a tourism destination. This chapter, therefore, aims to discuss and justify the research methods adopted for this research, the methods used to collect and analyse data and discuss and justify the sampling methods used to select the sample.

4.1   RESEARCH DESIGN

Kothari (2004) defines research design as the progressive planning stage of the research methods used to determine the appropriate data collection procedure and analysis methods to achieve the study's research objectives. The research design provides a basis for determining the research instrument, sampling procedure, as well as methods of data analysis (Wolf & Pant, 2007; Olu, 2007). Hence, this study adopts both qualitative and qualitative paradigms.

Under objective epistemology, the quantitative paradigm, according to Crotty (1998), is a positivist research methodological philosophy where natural scientific methods are used to discover social science studies. The understanding of a phenomenon in realism, therefore, must be evidence-based

and should be appraised (Hammersley, 2013). Cohen *et al*. (2011) clarify that the study of a phenomenon uncovers the relationship between dependent and independent variables through causal extrapolations of the experimental design results before finally being interpreted by the researcher. Quantitative methods are based upon values of reason, truth and validity with a focus on facts gathered through direct observation, measured empirically using quantitative methods and statistical analysis (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006; Saunders *et al.,* 2007; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008; Easterby-Smith *et al.,* 2008; Neuman, 2011).

The strength of a quantitative approach is that validity may be evidenced and improved through data collection and analysis methods. This view is supported by Cohen *et al*. (2007), who state that "quantitative data validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatments of the data" (p. 133). A quantitative approach is also "useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made" (Johnson *&* Onwuegbuzie, 2007). One of the weaknesses of a quantitative approach is that the researcher nonetheless influences hypotheses. Cohen *et al*. (2007) support this view by suggesting that "expression is instinctive; it shouldn't be made dumb, and it fails to take account of our unique ability to interpret our experiences and represent them to others" (p. 18).

On the other hand, qualitative approaches - which can also be referred to as constructivism (Saunders et al., 2016; Collis & Hussey, 2013) - were created as a response to criticism of the quantitative approach (Saunders *et al*., 2015). The qualitative philosophy disagrees with the position of the quantitative approach that the world is one. In other words, the qualitative philosophy argues that issues should not be viewed or examined from the researcher's perspective alone, like in the quantitative paradigm, where the researcher restricts others (the participants) to their predefined responses. Contrarily, the qualitative paradigm argues that everybody has a unique

ability, which should be helpful in examining a phenomenon or addressing issues. According to Cantrell (1993), the qualitative approach sees reality as constructed. According to Saunders *et al.* (2012), qualitative approaches are based on the principle that differences in the social world require an understanding of meaning attributed to actions by agents. This implies that every individual interprets their social world through their own perspectives. Quantitative approaches see reality as objective, whilst constructivism, on the other hand, suggests that reality is socially constructed and our reaction to others results from the importance attached to others' actions (Shotter & Cunliffe, 2012). A constructivist believes people should not be studied out of context or reduced to a variable, as would be the case from a quantitative approach.

The qualitative paradigm also enables researchers to broadly understand the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique setting instead of merely generalising an outcome to the entire population (Creswell, 2007). However, this approach is also criticized as results can be swayed by the researcher's interpretations, cultural preferences, or belief systems. As such, findings are subjective (Mack, 2010).

Both quantitative and qualitative paradigms have their merits and drawbacks. Nonetheless, as this study focuses on the perceptions of UK tourists, which is just one of the several other target consumers of the Nigerian tourism industry, it is imperative to adopt a method that would enable generalisability of the research findings to other areas not considered in this study. This study, therefore, adopts the quantitative paradigm. Nonetheless, the research is also not deaf to the fact that the quantitative paradigm does not recognise the uniquely human ability to interpret their experiences and describe them to others (Cohen *et al*., 2007), which is a significant strength of the qualitative paradigm. On this note, this study adopts a mixed research method by combining the quantitative and qualitative paradigms.

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Bowling (2002) asserts that mixed-methods design comes with three major benefits, which include triangulation (namely, to substantiate data and acquire convergent validity), complementarity (to understand and expound the outcomes of the analyses completely), and development (to serve as a guide to advance data gathering, sampling or analysis). In assessing organisations, triangulation is a viable means to increase validity and minimise bias. At the same time, complementarity leads to an in-depth understanding of the organisation, enhancing analysis of the assumptions and values driving conduct within the organisation.

Creswell (2009) argues that triangulation uses several observations or perceptions to clarify or verify meaning. He explains further that no interpretations or observations are flawlessly repeatable and that studying phenomena from multiple perspectives inevitably clarifies meaning. A narrow and more common description of triangulation is that "it is a vehicle for cross-validation when multiple methods produce comparable data" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000: p. 29). Similarly, paradigm complementarity through mixed methods enables a greater understanding of the organisation. Bryman (2004) claims that the two methodologies are undoubtedly far more complimentary than researchers give them credit. There is, therefore, mounting interest among scholars in organisational culture, in the close-knitted relationship between both paradigms, whilst still valuing their differences (Scott et al., 2006; Idowu, 2017), along with the need to adopt both methods and methodologies in organisational studies and analyses (Ogbonna & Harris, 2008).

4.2   Research Methodology

The overall research process can be categorised into four stages, as presented in figure 4.1 below, using Turner, Cardinal, and Burton's (2015) design. Stage one is Research Conceptualisation. This stage started with a general review of the literature on tourism marketing and tourism. Terms like tourism, UK Tourists, tourist destination, and tourism in Africa were used to conduct a general search of the

literature on the topic. The objective was to get familiar with general conversation and common debates on the topic. This process helped the researcher to define the research problem clearly. The second round of the literature was then undertaken. This involves reviewing literature focusing explicitly on tourism marketing, destination marketing and research methods to identify research gaps. With the research gap, the researcher formulated the research objectives and questions.

The second stage was the research design stage. It involves the construction of a questionnaire and Interview guide based on the literature review and pilot study, refining the questionnaire and the interview guide based on feedback from the pilot study, and selection of appropriate data analytical techniques and tools based on the nature of the data and the research objective (Saunders et al., 2019).

The third stage was categorised as research implementation. At this stage, data were collected, analysed and triangulated. As stated above, this study adopts a mixed methodology. This approach involves collecting qualitative and quantitative data, independently analysing the two sets of data and integrating both findings to provide acceptable answers to all the research questions. To achieve this objective, the study used the convergent parallel design, one of the three commonly used strategies in mixed-methods research (Creswell, 2014). The other two, according to Creswell, are Explanatory Sequential Design (EDS) and Exploratory Sequential Design (ESD). The convergent parallel mixed-methods design collects qualitative and quantitative data with equal priority. Each data set was analysed separately, and the findings were then compared "to form an integrated whole" (Bryman & Bell, 2015: 646). This process is called triangulation (Creswell, 2014).

The convergent parallel mixed-methods design means that qualitative and quantitative data can be collected simultaneously. Therefore, a structured interview guide was embedded in a carefully designed questionnaire. The interview guide was in the form of an open-ended question in Section B-F. The details of the questionnaire are provided in section 4.3 below

The study used three trained and paid research assistants to collect data from 12 identified travelling agencies. The questionnaire was a digital one. The research assistant shared the survey's Google link with the participants and did several follow-ups to increase the response rate. Before that, a pilot study was done to test the research instrument's content and face validity and reliability. See section 4.3.2 for details of how the pilot study was done. The feedback from the pilot study was used to standardise the research instrument.

The final stage of the research was categorised as the reporting writing stage. This involves a discussion of the findings of the preceding stage, drawing conclusions and recommendations from the discussion and putting together all the earlier parts of the study to form the thesis.

Fig. 4.1: Research Methodology Flowchat

Research Conceptualisation Stage

General Review of Literature

Definition of Research Problem

Specific Literature Review

Formulation of Research Objective / Question

Construction of Questionnaire and Interview Guide

- To get familiar with general conversation on the topic
- To narrow the discussion to a well-defined problem following the general review of the entrepreneurship literature
- To further review the debate on the research problem within a well-defined and related literature
- To formulate specific research objective after the review of specific related literature

Research Design Stage

Pilot Guide

Refined Questionnaire and Interview Guide

- To design appropriate research Instruments for that collection
- To test for vitality and reliability of the instruments before large-scale data collection
- To reverse the instruments based on the outcome of the pilots' studies

Selection of Data Analysis Technique

To identify appropriate data analytical Technique

Research Implementation Stage

Simultaneous Collection of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

To collect appropriate primary data

Quantitative Analysis

Qualitative Analysis

To analyse both the quantitative and qualitative Data using the identified appropriate techniques

Triangulation of Results

To triangulate the results of previous analysis to arrive at a more nuance understanding of entrepreneurial opportunities identification

Reporting Stage

Discussion, Conclusion, Recommendation and Suggestion for future studies

To integrate the results into a report, make recommendation and suggest for further studies on the subject

STUDY POPULATION AND SAMPLING FRAME

Adebayo (2000) defines a population as the group from which the researcher obtains the essential information regarding the study's objectives. Kumar (2011) also describes a population as the group of people from whom the information required by the researcher to answer the research questions is acquired.

Therefore, this study's population comprises British tourists who have visited at least one African country (but not Nigeria) for tourism purposes, whose contacts were obtained from twelve (12) randomly selected tourist operators and travel agencies in the United Kingdom.

On the other hand, a sampling frame is a whole population from which the study's sample size is determined (Cooper & Schindler, 2007; Olaseni, 2004). Hence, the sampling frame for this study is the 298 British tourists selected from the 12 tourism organisations in the United Kingdom as follows: Organisation A (17 tourists); Organisation B (25 tourists); Organisation C (31 tourists); Organisation D (18 tourists); Organisation E (26 tourists); Organisation F (25 tourists); Organisation G (34 tourists); Organisation H (22 tourists); Organisation I (18 tourists); Organisation J (26 tourists); Organisation K (31 tourists); and Organisation L (25 tourists).

4.2.1   Research Variables

Based on the hypotheses earlier raised by the researcher, the variables of this study are presented in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Research Variables

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable
One: There is no significant difference between the effects of the organic and induced agents on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists.	- Nigeria's brand image	- Organic agents - Induced agents
Two: There is no significant causal relationship between the consumer behaviour dimension and the British tourists' choice of destination.	- Choice of destination	- Consumer behaviour dimension
Three: The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice	- Tourists' attitude	- Nigeria's brand personality, - Nigeria's brand image, and - NTDC's marketing activities
Four: The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination.	- Tourists' expectations	- Nigeria's brand personality, - Nigeria's brand image, and - NTDC's marketing activities
Five: The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination.	- Tourists' trust	- Nigeria's brand personality, - Nigeria's brand image, and - NTDC's marketing activities

4.2.2   Subject Selection Rationale

This study's inclusion-exclusion criterion was the accessibility of the researcher to tourist organisations and their willingness to release the contacts of their customers (tourists) for data collection. More so, the tourists whose contacts were requested were not Nigerian and had visited at least one African country but *not* Nigeria before the researcher visited the organisations.

4.2.3   Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Adebayo (2000) asserts that in quantitative research, the sample size is determined to affirm that the sample is a true representation of the entire study's population. Furthermore, Israel (2013) argues that the major sample size determinants are objectives of the study, sampling frame, significance level, error of sampling, as well as the degree of inconsistency in the measured variables. For the purpose of this study, therefore, the sample was determined through the application of Yamane's (1967) formula as shown below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where: n =   Sample size

N =   Population of the study

e =   Precision estimate (Confidence level)

The precision estimate = 0.05.

$$n = \frac{298}{1 + 298(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{298}{1 + 298 * 0.0025}$$

$$n = \frac{298}{1 + 0.745}$$

$$n = \frac{298}{1.745}$$

$$= 170.77 \cong 171 \; tourists$$

Therefore, the sample size for this study is 171 British tourists from the 12 selected tourism organisations based in the UK. The next stage was to ensure that the sample accurately represented the number of tourists in each of the 12 organisations based on their contacts. Therefore, the stratified proportional allocation method of Bowley (1926) is adopted by this study to distribute the sample size into different strata for data collection purposes. Bowley's (1926) formula is given as:

$$nh = \frac{n * Nh}{N}$$

Where: nh =   Number of units allotted to each organisation (Stratum)

        n =   Total sample size

        Nh =   Number of items in each stratum

        N =   Total Population

Table 4.2 shows the proportional allocation of the sample size using the above formula.

Table 4.2: Proportional Allocation of the Sample Size

S/N	Stratum	Number of Tourist	Calculation of Sample Size	Sample Size Approximated ($\cong$)
1.	Organisation A	17	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 17}{298}$	10
2.	Organisation B	25	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 25}{298}$	14
3.	Organisation C	31	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 31}{298}$	18
4.	Organisation D	18	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 18}{298}$	10
5.	Organisation E	26	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 26}{298}$	15
6.	Organisation F	25	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 25}{298}$	14
7.	Organisation G	34	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 34}{298}$	20

8.	Organisation H	22	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 22}{298}$	13
9.	Organisation I	18	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 18}{298}$	10
10.	Organisation J	26	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 26}{298}$	15
11.	Organisation K	31	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 31}{298}$	18
12	Organisation L	25	$nh = \dfrac{171 * 25}{298}$	14
	TOTAL	**298**		**171**

Source: Researcher's Analysis

4.3   RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A research instrument is a tool to obtain relevant data to help achieve the stated research objectives (Dixon-Ogbechi, 2002). The instrument for this study was a questionnaire developed by the researcher, adopting extant validated instruments and themes from the study's literature review. The use of questionnaires to achieve the quantitative part of this study is evident in its ability to enhance reliability and validity and to allow for satisfactory data collection (Sreejesh *et al*., 2013).

The questionnaire was structured in Sections A-F. Section A obtained the participants' demographic data, including their gender, age group, educational qualification, income range, and travel experience. Sections B-F consisted of mainly closed-ended items developed on a five-point Likert scale, with answers as Very low, Low, Moderate, High, and Very High for Sections B-D and F. Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Fairly Agree, Agree, and Strongly Agree were answers given in Section E.

Furthermore, Section B comprised ten themes adopted from work by Aaker (1997) and Ekinci and Hosany (2006) to seek the participants' views about the personality of Nigeria as a tourist destination, with a focus on sincerity (items 1 and 2), excitement (items 3 and 4), competence

(items 5 and 6), sophistication (items 7 and 8), and ruggedness (items 9 and 10). Section C contained 16 items adapted from a range of extant literature (Ezeuduji *et al.,* (2019); Bruwer *et al.*, 2017; Mabkhot *et al.*, 2017; Ezeuduji *et al.,* 2016; Wu, 2016; Jraisat *et al.*, 2015; Rajesh, 2013; Veasna *et al.*, 2013; Amujo & Otubanjo, 2012; Anholt, 2011; Chi & Qu, 2008; Beerli & Martin, 2004) to measure their perceptions of the Nigeria brand image, focusing on natural attraction (items 1 and 2), safety and security (items 3 and 4), entertainment and event (items 5 and 6), historic attraction (items 7 and 8), infrastructure (items 9 and 10), accessibility (items 11 and 12), outdoor activities (items 13 and 14), and value for money (items 15 and 16).

Section D consisted of 8 items adapted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), Santos (1998), and Gartner (1993) to measure factors influencing their perceptions of the Nigeria brand image, using organic agents (items 1-3) and induced agents (items 4-8). Section E included 18 items adapted from Cohen *et al.* (2014) to measure tourists' behaviours towards Nigeria as a destination, using a choice of destination (items 1 and 2), values (items 3 and 4), motivation (items 5-7), self-concept (items 8 and 9), expectations (items 10 and 11), attitude (items 12 and 13), perception (items 14 and 15), and attitude (item 16-18). Section F comprised 16 items adapted from Bogan (2014) to seek their standpoints concerning the effectiveness of the marketing activities of the NTDC, using mass media (items 1-5), promotional actions (items 6-8), mass media and event compilation (9-11), and promotional actions and event compilation (items 12-16).

However, since this study adopts a mixed-methods approach by combining both quantitative and qualitative paradigms, a structured interview guide was embedded in the questionnaire, including an open-ended question in Section B-F.

4.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Validity helps to ensure that the research instrument measures what it aims to measure, while reliability, on the other hand, is the consistency of the results. Collis *et al*. (2013) argue that ensuring reliability ensures that results are accurate, precise, and consistent. In other words, reliability means ensuring the data is free from errors to an acceptable level (Sreejesh *et al.*, 2013). Reliability can be evaluated statistically by identifying the internal consistency or correlation of the variables using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. At the same time, validity, on the other hand, is a benefit of the quantitative paradigm. Generally, the use of dynamic methodologies like experimental or survey research combined with the application of appropriate methods of sampling, instrumentation and statistical analysis, and quantitative findings aid the provision of wide-ranging answers to the research questions (Cohen *et al.*, 2011).

4.3.1.1 The Validity of the Instrument

The research instrument was validated by conducting a pre-pilot study with some PhD students, the supervisory research team and some academics. A full pilot with some selected British tourists. The full details of the pilot study are provided in the next section.

The term pilot in research literature has been interpreted in different ways. Eldridge *et al*. (2016) describe pilot studies as focusing on a project, experiment, or development undertaken before an upcoming broader experiment, development, or project. In essence, a pilot study aids decision-making, thus serving as a minor set of observations or experiments to decide whether and how to launch a full-blown project (Collins English Dictionary, 2014).

Generally, a pilot is undertaken before a more extensive study in a manner closely related to the main study itself (Lancaster *et al.*, 2004; Eldridge *et al*., 2016). The term "pilot study" is

interchangeably used with the feasibility study, which is designed to guide large-scale investigation planning (Thabane *et al*., 2010). Pilots involve a strategy (such as the instrument's reliability) designed to minimise the chances of failure within a full-scale research study. Moore *et al.* (2011) stress that pilot studies mean feasibility to the magnitude that they serve as preliminary studies planned to test the performance capabilities and characteristics of the study designs, procedures, measures, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and operating strategies that are being considered for use in a future and larger study.

From the above, Thabane *et al.* (2010) claim that no clear distinction exists between pilot trials, pilots, and feasibility studies in the usage of the terms. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) contend that the term 'pilot study' (also referred to as 'feasibility') implies a mini version of a full-sized study and the explicit pretesting of a specific research instrument such as an interview schedule or questionnaire. The term feasibility study was also used by Bowen *et al*. (2009) to mean any form of study that helps researchers in preparing for a full-scale research study.

On the other hand, Arain *et al.* (2010) maintain that the terms feasibility and pilot are not the same and should not be used interchangeably. They argue that feasibility studies are carried out to find important components that are essential to the main study development. In contrast, pilot studies, on the other hand, are the miniature conducts of the main study. This standpoint is in accordance with others suggesting that pilot and feasibility studies have different goals, so they are mutually exclusive. For example, Bugge *et al*. (2013) claim that a feasibility study is designed to determine whether or not a study is doable, whilst a pilot study is a mini form of the main trial, which is designed to test areas of study processes and design for the execution of a larger main trial subsequently.

Answering specific research questions is not the primary objective of a pilot study; rather, pilot studies are designed to prevent the researcher from conducting a full-blown study with inadequate knowledge of the proposed methods. In other words, pilot studies are conducted to avoid a severe error in a study that is costly both in money and time (Polit & Beck, 2017). Generally, researchers embark on pilot studies to assess the appropriateness of their planned procedures and methods (Polit & Beck, 2017).

In summary, there appears to be a lack of consensus among scholars about the meaning or definition of a pilot study. Similarly, scholars such as Moore *et al.* (2011), Thabane *et al.* (2010), and Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) favour the similarities between the two terms and their interchangeable usage. Thabane *et al.* (2010) argue that there is no clear difference in the feasibility study, pilot trials, and pilot study usage. On the other hand, Arain *et al.* (2010) and Bugge *et al.* (2013) highlight clear distinctions between pilot and feasibility studies.

This study adopts the definition given by Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002), which describes a pilot study as a miniature form of the main study, meant to explicitly pre-test the research instrument such as the interview schedule or questionnaire in order to prevent grave errors in the main study that could result in a waste of time and money (Polit & Beck, 2017).

4.3.1.2 The Pilot Study

The pilot study started with a pre-pilot study with eight PhD colleagues at Salford Business School. All eight are UK citizens who have gone on tourism but not necessarily to Africa. The objective here was to check for clarity and correctness of the survey questions and instructions and the adequacy of the anonymity and confidentiality clauses. The participants were requested to record completion times and note the questions and instructions they found difficult to understand. All

eight returned the instrument with helpful feedback. Their feedback was used to improve the questionnaire for the second draft.

The revised draft was emailed to the research supervisory team and some other senior academics for further review. Their feedback led to including the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and rewording some of the questions and instructions. The initial plan was to conduct semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data, which the researcher agreed with after further literature reviews. After that, the researcher developed the final draft.

Having validated the instrument, a pilot study was carried out with 20 copies of the questionnaire personally administered to 20 European citizens, whose contacts were obtained through the researcher's social networks. The process of the pilot study occurred for four weeks. Having obtained the pilot study participants' contacts, the research assistants used three forms of email to communicate with the prospective participants concerning the survey's objectives. Invitation emails provided the participants with information about the study, familiarised them with the survey, invited them to participate, and explained that completing the survey signifies informed consent. Three days later, another email was sent to remind those who were yet to reply to the initial mail. Finally, an email was sent to appreciate their participation after submitting the completed survey.

The researcher tested the survey process to ensure that the research assistants sent the appropriate emails and received by the participants, that the survey could be accessed and completed with no trouble, and that their responses were correctly coded in SPSS and subsequently analysed statistically to ensure its reliability.

4.3.1.3 Reliability of the Instrument

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed to measure the instrument's level of reliability using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS 23.0). Despite the possibility of other reliability tests such as split-half, and test-retest, the researcher's decision to use the Cronbach alpha coefficient was based on the argument that the Cronbach's alpha (α) test is stress-free when determining an instrument's internal consistency, as its interpretation, is direct and simple making the test less time-consuming (Namdeo & Rout, 2016).

4.3.1.4 Reliability Coefficient Interpretation

Melanie (2012) claims that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is usually between 0 and 1 and, in most cases, not less than 0 (see also Gwet, 2014). Nonetheless, Cronbach's alpha coefficient could be negative when there is negative inter-item covariance with a very high absolute value (Cronbach, 2004). In an instrument or a scale, the internal consistency of the items can be measured by the closeness of its Cronbach's alpha coefficient to 1 and *vice versa* (Gliem & Gliem, 2002). Hence, Cronbach's alpha coefficient interpretation rules, according to George and Mallery (2003), state that the reliability of an instrument or a scale is: unacceptable if the coefficient is <0.5; poor if the coefficient >0.5 but <0.6; questionable if the coefficient >0.6 but <0.7; acceptable is the coefficient >0.7 but <0.8; good if the coefficient >0.8 but <0.9; and excellent if the coefficient >0.9. Similarly, Gliem and Gliem (2002) suggest that items could be discarded if such actions significantly increase Cronbach's alpha coefficient, particularly when the coefficient is <0.7, and such discard would raise it above 0.7. Correspondingly, an item could be discarded to reasonably reduce the coefficient. As Cronbach's alpha evaluates the level of internal consistency of a scale or an instrument, normally distributed data have a greater chance of yielding a higher Cronbach's alpha coefficient, unlike positively or negatively skewed (Brown, 2002).

Adding to the interpretation rules offered by George and Mallery (2003) and Brown (2001), Tavakol and Dennick (2011) argue that a high Cronbach's coefficient requires a proper justification. As such, coefficients do not always mean that internal consistency is high, as the number of items in a scale affects the coefficient. In other words, too few items lead to a low Cronbach's coefficient and *vice versa,* irrespective of the item's homogeneity. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) thus suggest that a Cronbach's coefficient above 0.90 may mean that some scale items are redundant or homogenous. Therefore, they recommend that items whose deletion would bring Cronbach's alpha value from >0.9 to >0.8 but <0.9 lower than should be discarded in such cases.

Following the above discussion, the reliability of the instrument for this study was tested under each of the five Scales (Sections B-F) of the instrument, comprising of Destination Personality, Destination Image, Image Formation Process, Tourism Consumer Behaviour, and Nigeria's Tourism Marketing Activities, as shown in tables 4.3-4.7 below.

4.3.1.5 Reliability Results

Table 4.3 Reliability Statistics for Destination Personality

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.813	10

Source: Pilot Study Report (2020)

Table 4.3 implies that the Section B items measuring destination personality were adjudged good (highly reliable) as Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.813 >0.8 and <0.9.

Table 4.4   Reliability Statistics for Destination Image

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.877	16

Source: Pilot Study Report (2020)

Table 4.4 indicates that Section C's items assessing destination image were highly reliable (good) as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.877 >0.8 but <0.9.

Table 4.5   Reliability Statistics for Image Formation Process

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.806	8

Source: Pilot Study Report (2020)

The Cronbach's alpha value in Table 4.5 is 0.806 >0.8 and <0.9, which implies that the image formation process construct of the questionnaire was highly reliable.

Table 4.6   Reliability Statistics for Tourism Consumer Behaviour

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.891	18

Source: Pilot Study Report (2020)

The result in Table 4.6 depicts that the Cronbach alpha coefficient for tourism consumer behaviour construct is good as it is 0.891 >0.8 and <0.9.

Table 4.7   Reliability Statistics for Nigeria's Tourism Marketing Activities

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.875	16

Source: Pilot Study Report (2020)

Table 4.7 shows that Cronbach's alpha coefficient obtained for Nigeria's tourism marketing activities construct was 0.875 >0.8 and <0.9, meaning that this construct of the instrument was highly reliable.

Hence, it can be concluded that all the five constructs of the instrument (Sections B-F) were suitable, and their levels of internal consistency were high.

4.3.2   Procedure for Data Collection

To ease the data collection process, the researcher employed three research assistants, who were final year students in their respective universities, and had taken necessary research methodology courses before their engagement. On Tuesday, 10th December 2019, the researcher trained the research assistants by taking them through the research aim and objectives and the expected deliverables and milestones. This training includes sourcing and collation of the tourists' contacts from the 12 selected tourist operators and travel agencies, sending the questionnaire's Google link to contacts, following up with participants to achieve a high response rate, and generating an Excel sheet from Google after getting over an 80 per cent response rate, and coding of the responses into usable format on SPSS. They were deployed to the field on Wednesday, 11th December 2019, to source the required contacts from the 12 selected organisations. By Thursday, 19th December 2019, the required contacts had been obtained and sorted into 3 for each research assistant to become accustomed to gathering responses to the questionnaire via the Google link. On Friday,

20th December 2019, the Google link was sent via email to participants with a brief introduction about the study and the importance of their participation in the survey. By Thursday 13th February 2020, over 80% of the participants had completed the questionnaire; hence, an Excel sheet was queried from the google form, and the research assistants coded the responses and subsequently entered them into SPSS for statistical analyses between Monday, 17th March and Friday, 21st February 2020.

4.4   DATA ANALYSIS

The collected data for this study were analysed using SPSS 23.0, an IBM Corporation-designed statistical package widely used by researchers or academicians around the globe. This statistical software package was chosen as it is user-friendly and can be used to perform several statistical tests. SPSS 23.0 undertakes both correlational and comparison statistical tests as univariate, bivariate and/or multivariate analyses for both non-parametric and parametric statistical tools (Azman-Ong & Puteh, 2018).

SPSS also enables a researcher to check test assumptions like the normality test and outliers test. In addition, SPSS allows for the perfect conduct of frequency analysis. Similarly, in the variable items validation context, SPSS can be used to conduct Explanatory Factors Analysis (EFA) since it produces wide-ranging output, unlike other statistical software (Azman-Ong & Puteh, 2018).

Having key-in the data into SPSS, frequency distribution tables and chats were deployed to present the participants' demographic data. At the same time, the Independent Samples t-test was used to test hypothesis one, Components Factor Analysis was used to test hypothesis two, and Multiple Linear Regression was used to test hypotheses three, four, and five.

The researcher's choice of these statistical tools was based on assessing their capability to enhance the achievement of this study's objectives. Norman (2010, cited in Egboro, 2015) maintained that research reports' reviewers usually criticise researchers' choice of statistical techniques. Some of the criticisms, though, are founded. Still, the use of different parametric techniques, like ANOVA, correlation, t-test, and regression, is generally criticised due to small sample sizes, the distribution of data, and the use of Likert scales in data collection. Hence, they claim that parametric statistics are unsuitable in such situations. Norman (2010) demonstrates parametric statistics robustness by scrutinising these arguments, allowing researchers to explore the above assumptions or violations. Norman (2010) argues further that the assumptions are unverified; therefore, researchers are at liberty to use parametric statistics without fear of getting the wrong results. This is also the stand of Bacchetti (2002, cited in Egboro, 2015) and Gaito (1980). Following the above argument, the researcher's choice of t-test, component factor analysis, and multiple linear regression analysis is justified empirically.

Furthermore, the choice of these analytical tools has also been proven with their usage in extant literature with related objectives, justifying their viability for the attainment of this study's objectives. For instance, t-test, factor analysis, and regression analysis were deployed by Odia and Agbonifoh (2017) to determine the predictors of the Nigerian tourism industry's perceived image. T-test was used by Veasna *et al.* (2013) to examine the influence of destination source credibility on destination satisfaction. T-test was also used by Watkins *et al.* (2006) to explore the Black Country's image as a tourist destination. Factor analysis was used by Josefa *et al.* (2017) to examine the precursors and implications of destination image gap, Sebastian *et al.* (2017) in their study of the effect of place branding on both residents and tourists, and Hultman *et al.* (2015) to examine the impacts of destination personality, identification, and satisfaction on tourist loyalty,

and within other extant destination image literature (Qu *et al.*, 2011; Lin *et al.*, 2007; Hallab and Kyungmi, 2005; Govers and Go, 2003). Regression analysis was used by Kim and Lee (2018) in examining tourist destination brand equity, Wu (2016) to examine the global tourism destination loyalty modelling, by Rowland *et al.* (2015) in their study of tourist destination brand identity and its impact on patronage, as well as Phillips and Jang (2007) and Molina and Esteban (2006) in similar studies.

4.5   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Merit, integrity, respect, and justice are part of the ethics a researcher must strive to fulfil. This study, therefore, considered ethical requirements by ensuring that:

- The participants were adequately briefed about the aim of the study.

- The participants took part in the survey of their own free will, without any form of coercion

- The participants' information was treated with the utmost sense of confidentiality and anonymity

- The participant's personal data were well secured from intruders

- This study conformed to all institution's statutory requirements like referencing

- The researcher ensured that the participants were not subjected to any form of harm as a result of their participation in this study

- The researcher carefully crafted the questions to avoid any form of bias, cultural discrimination, political chaos, and offensive language.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.0   INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's brand image and its implication for marketing the country as a tourism destination. The researcher collected primary data using a self-completed questionnaire administered to 171 British tourists from the 12 selected tourism organisations in the UK through Google Forms, out of which 156 questionnaires (corresponding to 91.2% of the forms) were completed. This chapter presents and analyses the data collected using frequency counts and charts to present the participants' demographics. In contrast, the independent samples t-test was used to test hypothesis one, and components factor analysis was used to test hypothesis two. Multiple linear regression was used to test hypotheses three, four, and five. To achieve these, SPSS 23.0 was used, at 0.05 as the significance level.

5.1   PRESENTATION OF PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHICS

This section presents the participants' demographic data, using frequency counts and chats, as shown below.

Table 5.1 Demographic Composition of the Participants

Options	N	%
Gender		
Female	40	25.6
Male	88	56.4
Prefer not to mention	28	17.9
Total	**156**	**100.0**
Age		
25-30 years	71	45.5
31-35 years	63	40.4
36-40 years	12	7.7
41-45 years	10	6.4
Total	**156**	**100.0**
Educational Qualification		
College	32	20.5
Graduate	124	79.5
Total	**156**	**100.0**
Annual Income		
£10,000-£20,000	94	60.3
£20,001-£30,000	41	26.3
£40,001-£50,000	11	7.1
Above £60,000	10	6.4
Total	**156**	**100.0**
African Countries Visited for Tourism		
Egypt	29	18.6
Ethiopia	11	7.1
Ghana	40	25.6
Namibia	8	5.1
South Africa	30	19.2
Tanzania	12	7.7
The Gambia	13	8.3
Other	13	8.3
Total	**156**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey 2020

Table 5.1 shows the demographic data of the participants. Concerning their gender, the table shows that the majority (56.4%) of the participants were male, 25.6% of them were female, while the remaining 17.9% preferred not to mention their genders. This is presented in Fig. 5.1.
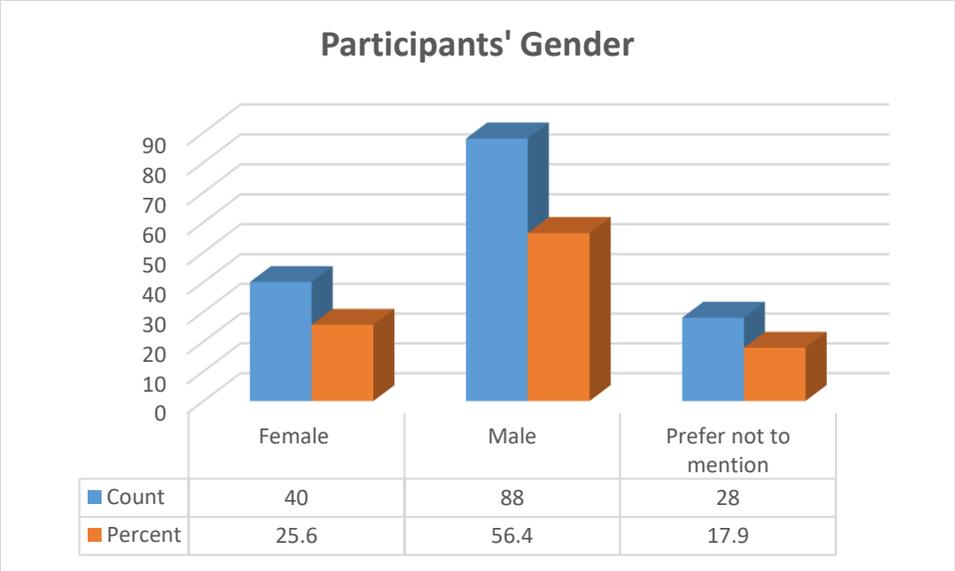
Fig. 5.1: Participants' Gender

Concerning the participants' age group, the table shows that 45.5% of participants were aged between 25-30 years, 40.4% were aged between 31-35 years, 7.7% were aged between 36-40 years, while the remaining 6.4% of them were aged between 41-45 years. This is presented in Fig. 5.2 below.
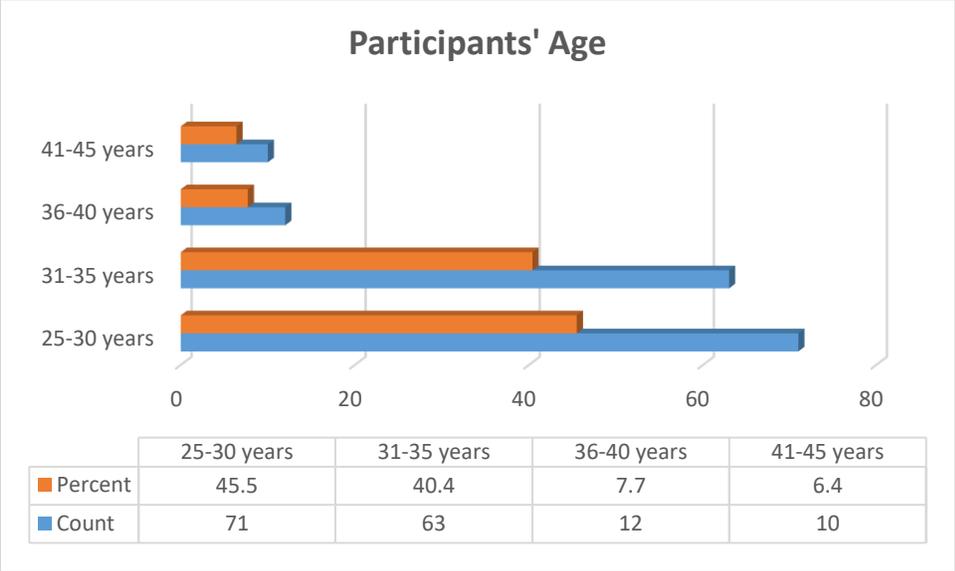
Fig. 5.2: Participants' Age

Regarding the participants' highest educational qualification, most (79.5%) were graduates, and the remaining 20.5% had a college education. This is presented in Fig 5.3 below.

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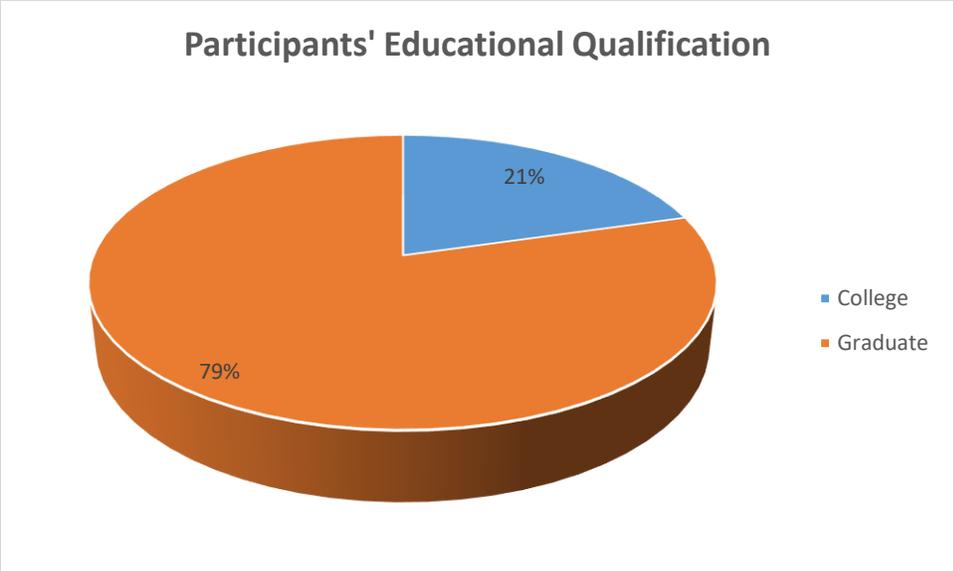
Fig. 5.3: Participants' Educational Qualification

Concerning the participants' annual income, the majority (60.3%) earned between ₤10,000-₤20,000 annually, 26.3% earned ₤20,001-₤30,000 annually, 7.1% earned ₤40,001-₤50,000 annually, while the remaining 6.4% earned above ₤60,000 annually. This is presented in Fig 5.4.
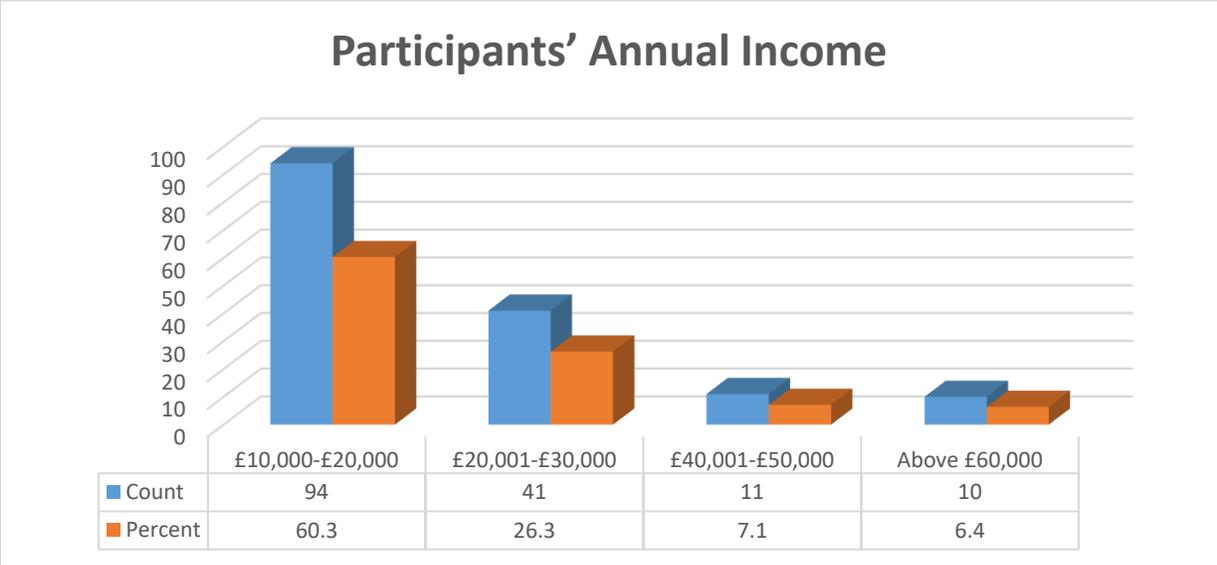
Fig. 5.4: Participants' Annual Income

With regards to the African countries earlier visited by the participants for tourist purposes, the table indicates that 18.62% of participants have visited Egypt, 7.1% have visited Ethiopia, 25.6% of participants have visited Ghana, 5.1% have visited Namibia, 19.2% have visited South Africa,

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7.7% have visited Tanzania, 8.3% have visited The Gambia, while the remaining 8.3% of them have visited other African countries. Hence, Ghana was the most frequently visited. This is presented in Fig. 5.5.

African Countries Earlier Visited by the Participants

	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Namibia	South Africa	Tanzania	The Gambia	Other
Count	29	11	40	8	30	12	13	13
Percent	18.6	7.1	25.6	5.1	19.2	7.7	8.3	8.3
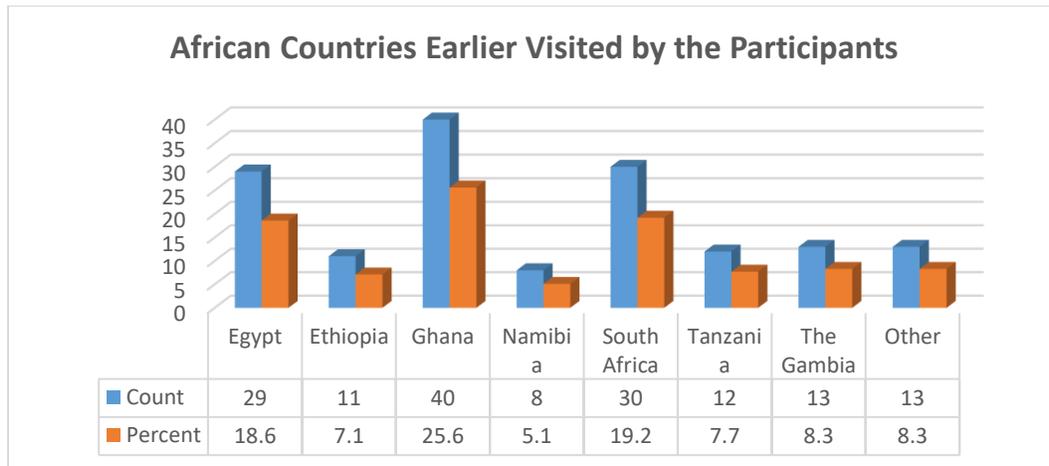
Fig. 5.5: African Countries Earlier Visited by the Participants

5.2 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses earlier raised in this study are tested in this session, using independent samples t-test for hypothesis one, factor analysis for hypothesis two, and multiple linear regression for hypotheses three, four, and five, at a 0.05 level of significance.

5.2.1 Test of Hypothesis One Using T-test

H_{01}: There is no significant difference between the effects of organic and induced agents on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists.

Decision Rule for T-test

If the t-test p-value (t) is < 0.05 (level of significance), reject the null hypothesis and accept its alternative, and if otherwise, do not reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.2: T-test Statistics

Image Formation Process	N	$\bar{x}$	STD.	df	t	P-val.	Sig.	Remark	Decision
Organic Agents	156	3.97	.533	320	3.606	0.000	0.05	Significant	Rejected
Induced Agents	156	3.68	.824						

P-value = 0.000 < level of significance

Independent samples t-test statistics were conducted to determine if there is any significant difference between the effects of organic and induced agents on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists. Table 5.2 demonstrates that a statistically significant difference exists between the effects of organic agents (N=156, Mean=3.97, SD=0.533; Df=320) and the effects of induced agents (N=156, Mean=3.68, SD=0.824; Df=320). Similarly, t=3.606, $p<0.05$ indicates that a significant difference exists between the effects of the organic and induced agent on the Nigerian brand image among British tourists. Hence, the null hypothesis that states, "there is no significant difference between the effects of organic and induced agents on the Nigeria brand image among British tourists" is **rejected,** and its alternative is **accepted**. The implication is that the organic agents of image formation maintain a significantly higher level of influence over the British tourists' perception of the Nigeria brand image than induced agents.

5.2.2   Test of Hypothesis Two Using Factor Analysis

As this study adapted an eight-dimensioned approach toward consumer behaviour, this section reduces the complexity of the dimensions. So, factor analysis is used to reduce the eight dimensions to fewer dimensions by grouping the eight variables into the three broader dimensions concerning the theory of planned behaviour, namely, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. This is consistent with the general objective of factor analysis, which is to easily summarise data to interpret and understand the patterns and relationships. It is usually used to regroup variables into a limited cluster based on their shared variance. Hence, factor analysis is

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designed to isolate concepts and constructs, using mathematical techniques to simplify interrelated

measures in order to ascertain patterns in a group of variables (Child, 2006).

H$_{02}$:   There are no significant factors influencing British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as

their destination of choice.

The results are shown in the tables below.

Table 5.3 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.973	74.666	74.666	5.973	74.666	74.666	4.185	52.318	52.318
2	1.004	12.555	87.222	1.004	12.555	87.222	1.650	20.630	72.949
3	.500	6.250	93.472	.500	6.250	93.472	1.642	20.523	93.472
4	.182	2.270	95.742						
5	.170	2.128	97.869						
6	.116	1.450	99.320						
7	.054	.674	99.994						
8	.000	.006	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.3 demonstrates the eigenvalues connected with each factor (linear component) before

extraction, after extraction, and after rotation. Before extraction, eight factors were identified

within the dataset. The eigenvalues of each factor represent the change explained by the certain

component, and the eigenvalues are also shown in terms of the per cent of the change explained.

Table 5.3 indicates how factor 1 explained 74.666% of the total change in consumer behaviour. It

is important to explain that the first three factors explain a comparatively large amount of variance

(especially factor 1), while the remaining factors explain very little of the variance. The first three

factors are then extracted and displayed, and the percentage of variance is presented in the column

labelled "Extraction Sum of Squared Loading". The final part of the table labelled "Rotation Sums

of Squared Loadings" displays the eigenvalues of the extracted factors after rotation. This section

improves the factor structure, and one implication for these data is that the relative contribution of the three factors is equalised. For instance, before rotation, factor 1 accounted for substantially more variance than the other two factors (74.666% against 12.555% and 6.250%). However, redistributing the contributions after extraction, factor 1 only accounted for 52.318% of the variance, while factors two and three accounted for 20.630% and 20.523respectively.

Table 5.4 Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Choice of Destination	.628	.494	.477
Self-Concept and Personality	.286	.016	.943
Perception	.920	.184	.254
Motivation	.795	.498	.049
Trust	.834	.357	.272
Expectation	.850	.225	.435
Attitude	.861	.213	.440
Value	.264	.949	.033

Table 5.4 shows the items grouped under each of the three factors loaded; hence, there is a need to group those items under a common theme. Considering the theory of planned behaviour, most of the variables loaded on factor 1 seem to relate to Attitude, the variable loaded on factor 2 seems to relate to Subjective Norms, while the variable loaded on factor 3 seems to relate to Perceived Behavioural Control. Hence, this analysis shows that the initial eight dimensions of consumer behaviour adopted by this study are composed of three broader sections: Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioural Control. Therefore, the null hypothesis two of this study is rejected, and its alternative is accepted. This implies that the significant factors influencing British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination are Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioural Control.

5.2.3 Test of Hypothesis 3-5, Using Multiple Linear Regression

Hypothesis Three

The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

Table 5.5 Regression Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	11.162	.903		12.362	.000
Brand Personality	.155	.214	.084	.725	.470
Brand Image	2.962	.439	.967	-6.753	.000
NTDC Marketing Activities	.317	.089	.344	3.559	.000

Dependent Variable: Attitude

R= 0.665, R^2 = 0.443, Adjusted R^2 = 0.432, Durbin Watson = 1.757

F-value = 40.265 (p-value = 0.000<0.05)

Table 5.5 demonstrates the causal relationship between each independent variable (as shown under "beta") with the dependent variable. The above model indicates that Brand Image made the highest contribution to the changes in the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice, with a coefficient of 0.967 (*Sig. = 0.000*). The NTDC's Marketing Activities follow this with a coefficient of 0.344 (*Sig. = 0.000*), showing that these two variables have a significant causal relationship with the British tourists' attitude. Brand Personality had the least insignificant contribution with a coefficient of 0.084 (*Sig. = 0.470>0.05*).

The p-value indicates the ability of the model to explain the changes in the dependent variable. Since the *p*= 0.000 < 0.01, then, we conclude that the model is 99 percent significant. Essentially, the model explains the change in the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination

of choice. This implies that the null hypothesis is **rejected,** and its alternative is accepted; hence, the Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

The model yielded an R-coefficient of 0.665, indicating that the causal relationship between the dependent and the independent variables is positively strong. The model also yielded an R-square (R^2) coefficient of 0.443, which shows that 44.3% of the variations in the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice were caused by the Nigeria brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities. The adjusted R^2 also demonstrates that 43.2% of the variance in the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice was explained by the model, and the remaining 56.8% exists outside the model.

Similarly, the Durbin Watson (DW) statistic examines the level of autocorrelation in the regression analysis residuals. The DW's value ranges between 0 and 4; an absolute value of 2.0 shows that the sample is not autocorrelated, 0.00-1.99 indicates positive autocorrelation, and 2.01-4.00 implies negative autocorrelation. The above DW value (1.757) falls within 0.00-1.99, which implies a positive autocorrelation in the sample. This means that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is sustainable and generalizable.

The significant F-Change stood at 40.265 for the model with a returned p-value of 0.000 < 0.01, which shows that the model is 99 per cent significant.

Following the above summary, it can be concluded that the independent variables generally contributed 44.3% to the changes in the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice. However, brand image contributed 96.7%, NTDC marketing activities contributed 34.4%, and brand personality contributed 8.4% to the change.

Hypothesis Four

The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination.

Table 5.6 Regression Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	12.659	1.008		12.557	.000
Brand Personality	.076	.238	.036	-.320	.750
Brand Image	3.178	.490	.903	-6.490	.000
NTDC Marketing Activities	.390	.099	.369	3.926	.000

Dependent Variable: Expectation

R= 0.689, R^2 = 0.474, Adjusted R^2 = 0.464, Durbin Watson = 1.727

F-value = 44.713 (p-value = 0.000<0.05)

Table 5.6 above indicates that Brand Image had the main contribution to the deviations in the British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination with a coefficient of 0.967 (*Sig. = 0.000*), followed by NTDC Marketing Activities with a coefficient of 0.369 (*Sig. = 0.000*), demonstrating that these two independent variables have a significant causal relationship with the British tourists' expectations, while Brand Personality had the least and insignificant contribution with a coefficient of 0.036 (*Sig. = 0.750>0.05*).

The p-val. = 0.000 < 0.01, indicating that the model is 99 percent significant. In summary, the model adequately explains the change in British tourists' expectations. Hence, the null hypothesis is **rejected,** and its alternative is accepted. In other words, the Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination.

The R-coefficient yielded for this model is 0.689, which indicates that the causal relationship between the dependent and the independent variables is positively strong. The model also yielded an R-square (R^2) coefficient of 0.474, showing that 47.4% of the changes in the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination was caused by the Nigerian brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities. The adjusted R^2 also shows that the model explained 46.4% of the changes in British tourists' expectations, and the remaining 53.6% exists outside the model.

The DW value of 1.727 shows a positive autocorrelation in the sample, which implies that the association between the independent and dependent variables is generalizable and sustainable. In comparison, the significant F-Change is 44.713 for the model with a returned p-value of $0.000 < 0.01$, which shows that the model is 99 per cent significant.

Therefore, the independent variables collectively contributed 47.4% to the changes in the British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination. However, brand image contributed 90.3%, NTDC marketing activities contributed 36.9%, and brand personality contributed 3.6% to the change.

Hypothesis Five

The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities do not significantly predict the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination.

Table 5.7 Regression Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.717	.616		6.033	.000
Brand Personality	1.178	.146	.849	8.081	.000
Brand Image	1.427	.299	.621	-4.768	.000
NTDC Marketing Activities	.431	.061	.623	-7.097	.000

Dependent Variable: Trust

R= 0.735, R^2 = 0.540, Adjusted R^2 = 0.530, Durbin Watson = 1.241

F-value = 59.375 (p-value = 0.000<0.05)

Table 5.7 shows that Brand Personality had the peak contribution to the variation in the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination with a coefficient of 0.849 (*Sig. = 0.000*). NTDC Marketing Activities follow this with a coefficient of 0.623 (*Sig. = 0.000*), and Brand Image with a coefficient of 0.621 (*Sig. = 0.000*), indicating that the three independent variables have a significant causal relationship with the trust of British tourists.

The p-val. = 0.000 < 0.01, shows that the model is 99 percent significant. This means that the model satisfactorily explains the deviation in the British tourists' trust. Hence, the null hypothesis is **rejected,** and its alternative is accepted. Namely, Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination.

The R-coefficient = 0.735 indicates the strong causal relationship between the variables. The R-square (R^2) coefficient = 0.540 indicates that 54 per cent of the changes in the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination was caused by the Nigerian brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities. The adjusted R^2 indicated that the model explained 53.0% of the variances in the British tourists' trust, and the remaining 47.0% exists outside the model.

The DW value of 1.241 indicates the existence of positive autocorrelation in the sample, thus demonstrating that the correlation between the independent and dependent variables is generalizable and sustainable. While the significant F-Change is 59.375 for the model with a returned p-value of $0.000 < 0.01$, indicating that the model is 99 per cent significant.

From the above, it can be concluded that the independent variables mutually contributed 54 per cent to the changes in British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination. Comparatively, however, brand personality contributed 84.9%, brand personality contributed 62.1%, and NTDC marketing activities contributed 62.3% to the change.

5.3   QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Integrated Interview Guide

In order to allow the participants to freely express themselves on the issues raised by the researcher and adopt a complementary approach in the research design, this study combined quantitative and qualitative paradigms by integrating open-ended questions into the research questionnaire. In total, 47 participants responded to the open-ended questions, as they were not required fields. This section, therefore, presents the responses of the 47 participants thematically.

Theme 1: The Major Factor(s) Influencing Tourist Choice of Destination

Firstly, the quantitative analysis under participants' demographics demonstrated that British tourists have never visited Nigeria for tourism purposes but have visited some other African countries like Ghana, South Africa, Egypt, The Gambia, Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Namibia, among others. To understand the factors responsible for choosing these African countries by UK tourists, this study analysed responses to question six of section A of the questionnaire. The question reads *Could you please list the major factor(s) that influenced your decision to visit the country(ies) you checked/listed above?*

As expected, the responses vary. Some respondents emphasised that the history of the tourism destinations attracted them. They listed ancient temples, historical sites, paintings and historical hospitality of the destinations as factors that influenced their decisions (Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016). Other common factors listed are the African culture, warm weather, natural landscape and wildlife of the sub-Sahara African countries. A few respondents listed interest in the original African history and first-hand experience of emerging developments in some African countries (Ngoasong et al., 2021; Quan-Baffour, 2020; Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016). In summary, these factors can be categorised into six as listed below:

1. The historical values present in those African countries, such as ancient temples and other historical sites, paintings, friendly environment and great hospitality (Ngoasong et al., 2021).

2. The warm weather conditions, landscapes, and the presence of wildlife in those African countries (Ngoasong et al., 2021).

3. Some British tourists quest to gain more knowledge about their background in African history.

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4. The African countries' rich cultural heritage and entertainment values caught British tourists' attention (Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016).

5. Some tourists view Ghana as a fast-developing African nation, so they visit the country to experience some developments (Quan-Baffour, 2020)

6. The great opportunities available to tourists in those African countries include adventure, rich natural resources, welcoming local populations, ethnicity and infrastructure. (Quan-Baffour, 2020; Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016)

Theme 2: Nigeria's personality at a glance

The quantitative analysis under the hypothesis five test showed that brand personality significantly influenced British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination among the three independent variables. The interview result showed that the British tourists have mixed feelings about Nigeria's personality.

Some viewed Nigeria as accommodating, full of energy, fun, and surprises, awesome and impressive, smart, positive and hardworking, creative, dedicated and energetic. On the other hand, some of them considered Nigeria to be unsafe, unpredictable, and unproductive. The first point (being unsafe) is enough to discourage prospective tourists from visiting Nigeria (Ajayi & Oyebade, 2021; Jude. & Ukekwe, 2020). However, all the positive remarks about Nigeria's personality as safety of life and property come first, the compromise of which plays a huge role in decision-making (Ajayi & Oyebade, 2021; Dele, 2021).

Theme 3: Description of Nigeria's image

The test of hypotheses three and four under the descriptive analysis demonstrated that brand image greatly influenced British tourists' attitudes and expectations. The interview result revealed that the British tourists have mixed feelings about Nigeria's image, that is, both positive and negative.

Some British tourists viewed Nigeria as a culturally rich country with reliable and energetic people, its status as the Giant of Africa, and beautiful scenery. Nonetheless, some British tourists believe Nigeria's image is tainted and needs serious rebranding efforts (Ajayi & Oyebade, 2021). For example, they believed that Nigeria is overshadowed by the rate of crime and terrorism, insecurity, poor healthcare system,

Theme 4: Other Factors Influence Tourists' Perceptions of Nigeria's Image

The test of hypothesis one, under the descriptive analysis, indicates that the organic agents (Nigeria's popular culture and news on the subject of Nigeria, solicited and unsolicited information) have more influence on the image formation process of the tourists than the induced agents. The interview results showed that British tourists form their perceptions about Nigeria's image through what other countries say about Nigeria, people's goodwill, the class difference between the rich and poor in many areas, and personal adventure. As highlighted in chapter three, several studies have confirmed the negative effect of the state of insecurity and ethno-religious conflicts, which dominate the Nigerian media (unsolicited information) on the tourism industry and the potential of the Nigerian rich culture to attract tourism (Ajayi & Oyebade, 2021; Dele, 2021; Quan-Baffour, 2020)

Theme 5: British Tourists' behaviour and attitude towards Nigeria as a tourism destination

The test of hypothesis two under the descriptive statistics showed that British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as a tourism destination could be categorised into three main factors. That is Attitude (choice of destination, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, and attitude), Subjective Norms (value), and Perceived Behavioural Control (self-concept and personality). The interview results further demonstrated that some of the tourists are fascinated by Nigeria's culture, values,

heritage and history but do not still have the confidence to visit Nigeria for tourism purposes due to issues such as insecurity and crime rate (Dele, 2021).

Theme 6: The Effectiveness of the NTDC Marketing Activities

The test of hypotheses 3-5 under the descriptive statistics indicated that the NTDC's marketing activities significantly influenced the British tourists' attitude, expectations, and trust. Discussing the NTDC's marketing activities further, the interview data demonstrated:

1. The NTDC is unreliable in marketing activities and is far from being effective and cautious (Yusuff, 2016).

2. The NTDC is characterised by poor media presence with a lack of strategic marketing and planning to help maximise the abundance of potential GDP and means to help create a positive destination and brand image (Yusuff, 2016).

3. A lack of flexible tourist opportunities.

4. The NTDC is not serious about the tourism business in Nigeria, as so many opportunities are lying fallow.

5.4   SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

-   The British tourists' decisions to visit some African countries other than Nigeria were majorly influenced by the historical values, great hospitality, warm weather conditions, the British tourists' quest to gain more knowledge about their background of African history, the rich cultural heritage and entertainment values, among others.

-   The organic agents of image formation significantly influence the British tourists' perception of the Nigerian brand image more than induced agents.

- British tourists also form their perceptions about Nigeria's image through what other countries say about Nigeria, people's goodwill, the class difference between the rich and poor in many areas of the country, and personal adventure.

- The significant factors influencing British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice are Attitude (choice of destination, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, and attitude); Subjective Norms (value); and Perceived Behavioural Control (self-concept and personality).

- The Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

- Brand personality does not significantly predict British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

- Among the major issues with Nigeria's personality and image is the level of insecurity, crime rate, and the poor healthcare system.

- Brand image and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly contribute to the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice, with the brand image having the highest contribution.

- A significant causal relationship exists between British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination and the Nigeria brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities.

- Brand personality's contribution to the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination of choice is insignificant.

- Brand image and NTDC's marketing activities contribute significantly to the British tourists' expectations of Nigeria as a tourism destination of choice, while brand image makes the biggest contribution.

- A significant causal relationship exists between the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourist destination and the Nigerian brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities.

- Brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities contribute significantly to the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination, with brand personality being the main contributing factor.

- The NTDC is unreliable in marketing activities and far from being effective and cautious.
- The NTDC is characterised by poor media presence with a lack of strategic marketing and planning to help maximise the abundance of potential GDP and means to help create a positive destination and brand image.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the results by comparing them with the related literature to find out and establish differences and similarities with extant hypothetical propositions. Hence, the discussion is done concerning this study's objectives, while the study's theoretical implications are also discussed under the following themes.

Theme 1: The Participants' Suitability

This section is necessary to confirm if this study's participants have the experience and knowledge needed to give the required information concerning the UK perspective of Nigeria's brand image and its implication for marketing Nigeria as a tourism destination, which ultimately serves as the basis for this study's results.

The demographic distribution of the participants indicates that none were below 25 years of age. This shows that none of the participants were children. Instead, they were all adults capable of taking travel decisions for themselves. None of them was older than 45 years old, indicating that they are also in their active age when they can travel as much as they desire.

Similarly, about 25 per cent of the participants have visited Ghana for tourism, whilst some have also visited African countries like South Africa, Egypt, The Gambia, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Namibia, and other countries safe Nigeria. This demonstrates that these tourists have little or no interest in visiting Nigeria for tourist activities, and that is why the present study seeks to know the roles played by Nigeria's brand image and the marketing activities of the NTDC in the lack of interest in Nigeria as a tourism destination amongst the UK's tourists. This study established further that the decisions to visit the African countries and not Nigeria were influenced significantly by the

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countries' great hospitality, historical values, friendly weather conditions, some tourists' thirst for more knowledge about their background of African history, entertainment values, and the rich cultural heritage, among others.

Theme 2: Nigeria's personality at a glance (see interview analysis)

The findings of this study demonstrated that British tourists have mixed feelings concerning the personality of Nigeria as a country. Some perceived Nigeria and Nigerians as fun, accommodating, enthusiastic, astonishing, extraordinary, cheerful, hardworking, intelligent, dedicated, and creative. On the other hand, some of them see Nigeria as being unsafe, unproductive, and unpredictable. Some also see Nigeria as a country where the security of life and property is not guaranteed. They are petrified to visit Nigeria, especially with the current rate of Boko Haram attacks on both citizens and visitors in the northern part of the country. Indeed, herders and militant insurgencies have also led to an upsurge in kidnappings and other social crime rates in the southern part of the country, so much that one cannot easily predict a safe area within the country, especially for foreigners who are prime targets of the kidnappers. This problem of gross insecurity is enough to dissuade potential tourists from visiting Nigeria, regardless of all the positive remarks about Nigeria's personality, as the safety of life and property is sacrosanct.

Theme 3: Description of Nigeria's image (see interview analysis)

The findings of this study reveal that British tourists also have both positive and negative feelings toward Nigeria's image. While some perceived Nigeria as a culturally rich country, blessed with energetic and reliable people, the Giant of Africa, and endowed with gorgeous scenery, others believed that Nigeria requires serious rebranding activities to redeem its grossly tainted image. For example, some British tourists believe that Nigeria is dwarfed by the rate of crime and terrorism, general insecurity, and a poor healthcare system.

Theme 4: The major factors influencing tourists' perception of Nigeria's image

This study found that the organic agents of image formation influence the British tourists' perception of the Nigeria brand image more than the induced agents. This implies that the details tourists get from news materials, popular culture, as well as unsolicited and solicited information from relatives and friends about Nigeria, influence their perception of the country's image than other details they gather from other testimonies, independent commendations from travel writings, travel advertisings, and information received from travel brochures and tour operators. This is consistent with the claim that mass media and education are, to some extent, responsible for the negative description of some destinations (Lee, 1990; Wei, 2000). They argue that the information obtained from news and education (which are forms of organic agents) would likely be endorsed more than those received from other sources. As a result, they might be intuitively influenced by the value-laden information received from education and news (Croteau & Hoynes, 2002). Similarly, word-of-mouth from family and friends (another form of organic agent) is crucial for recommendations of destinations to prospective tourists and revisits by existing tourists (O'Leary & Deejan, 2008).

This study further demonstrates that British tourists' perceptions of Nigeria's image are influenced by what other countries say about Nigeria, people's goodwill, the class difference between the rich and poor in Nigeria, and tourists' personal adventures.

Theme 5: Factors influencing the British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice

This study found that the factors significantly influencing British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria include the choice of destination (preference), self-concept and personality, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, attitude, and value. This study further proved that these factors could

be categorised under three main headings: attitudes, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioural Control. The results of this study further demonstrated that although some tourists are fascinated by Nigeria's culture, values, heritage and history, they still lack the confidence to visit Nigeria for tourism purposes due to issues such as the crime rate and insecurity.

This result is consistent with claims that consumer values predominantly guide the consumer's emotions, actions, behaviour, attitudes, and judgments (Xiang et al., 2019; Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000). Several tourism academics have established motivation's significant role in marketing decisions (Pestana et al., 2020; Yousaf et al., 2018; Bieger & Laesser, 2002). The psychological and biological wants and needs of the tourist include essential forces that provoke, control and assimilate the behaviour and activity of a tourist (Said & Maryono, 2018; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Personality is an essential component of a person's self-concept (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011) and one of the major elements of consumers' behaviour that influence their purchase behaviour and decision, attitude, choice of product or service, perceptions of innovation, risk-taking, and so on. (Abbasi, 2020; Woinowsky, 2019; Kassarjian, 1971). Tourists' personality and self-concept thus influence their motivations, perceptions, and behaviour towards a destination (Prayag et al., 2022; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004). It is generally agreed that consumers' expectations are formed through previous experiences, word-of-mouth, advertising, gender and nationality, as well as attitudes and motivations (Gnoth, 1997; Sheng & Chen, 2012; Zeithaml *et al*., 1993).

Attitudes are also fundamental within consumer decision-making theories (Prayag et al., 2022; Newholm & Shaw, 2007), as classical perceptions of attitude assert that consumer behaviour is determined by attitudes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). Wu and Delong (2006) argue that consumer perception is imperative, forms the basis for understanding consumers, and is a vital approach

when locating consumers within various cultures. Meanwhile, trust is the main component on which consumer loyalty is sustained (Sirdeshmukh *et al.,* 2002).

Theme 6: The Effectiveness of the NTDC Marketing Activities

The findings of this study showed that the British tourists rated the NTDC's marketing activities as ineffective. The following points detail some specific remarks:

1. NTDC's marketing activities are unreliable and inefficient.

2. The media presence of the NTDC is very poor. The NTDC also lacks strategic planning and marketing to maximise the abundance of impending GDP and a means to help create a positive destination brand image.

3. Its failure to market flexible tourism opportunities.

4. The NTDC is not tapping into so many tourism opportunities lying fallow in Nigeria.

Theme 7: The predictive power of Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities on the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as their destination of choice.

The findings of this study demonstrate that Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the attitude of British tourists towards Nigeria as their destination of choice. The findings show that the British tourists' attitude towards Nigeria was mainly influenced by their perceptions of Nigeria's image, followed by the NTDC's marketing activities. At the same time, Nigeria's brand personality had the least influence on the British tourists' attitude towards the country in terms of tourism.

This result agrees with arguments that the attitudes and expectations of prospective tourists are influenced by the motivation they derive from marketing activities (Hsu *et al.*, 2010); the

importance of brand personality has also been established by Ferrandi *et al*. (2005), Gouteron (2006), and Wyson *et al*. (2002). Brand personality is also found to be the major source of brand differentiation and critical to determining consumers' attitudes (Bairrada et al., 2018; Ferrandi *et al*., 2005). Whilst extant literature (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Hosany & Prayag, 2013); Költringer & Dickinger, 2015; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015) argues that destination image significantly influences tourists' choice of destination and revisiting decision.

Theme 8: The predictive power of the Nigeria brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities on the British tourists' expectations from Nigeria as a tourism destination.

This study revealed that the Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict the expectations of British tourists from Nigeria as a tourism destination. The findings demonstrate that British tourists' expectations from Nigeria were significantly influenced by their perceptions about the image of Nigeria, followed by the marketing activities of NTDC, whilst the brand personality of Nigeria had the least impact on the British tourists' expectations of the country in terms of tourism.

This confirms the argument made by Ferrandi and Valette-Florence (2002) that brand personality is an essential consideration when modelling consumers' emotions and expectations. Ryan and Gu (2008) argue that a destination image is one of its vital assets and the basis upon which tourists' expectations are built, which is a major determinant of the tourists' behaviours. Similarly, advertisement and promotion allow organisations to profit from their branding activities by assisting potential consumers in picturing things from a business standpoint, thus reinforcing their expectations from the brand (Cannon *et al.*, 2009; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). This helps tourism

destinations to claim a better position in the consumers' minds and influence their behaviour (Leisen, 2001).

Theme 9: The predictive power of the Nigeria brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities on the British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination.

This study found that Nigeria's brand personality, image, and the NTDC's marketing activities significantly predict British tourists' trust in Nigeria as a tourism destination. The findings established further that the British tourists' trust in Nigeria was principally influenced by their perceptions of Nigeria's brand personality, followed by the marketing activities of the NTDC. By contrast, their perceptions about Nigeria's image had the least influence on the British tourists' trust in the country in terms of tourism.

This result agrees with the claim that a brand is a symbol of promise and trust (Hayes & Krugman, 2019; Bedbury & Fenichell, 2002), as it is the totality of all an organisation does that somehow imprints an identity in the minds of the consumer. Similarly, an excellent and energetic brand image brings added value, offers dominant identity benefits, influences consumers' behaviour, controls how the consumers perceive reality, creates trust and respect, unlocks doors, and increases the superiority and integrity prospects of the brand (Tran et al., 2021; Morgan *et al*., 2011).

6.2   THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study reviewed the Nicosia model of consumer decision-making processes which explains consumer buying behaviours in connection with the firm in four basic fields. The first field posits that firms' messages determine consumer attitudes. This proposition is affirmed by this study, as the test of the third hypothesis showed that the NTDC's marketing activities - which carry its messages to the consumers - are the second most influential factor in determining the British

tourists' attitude towards Nigeria as a destination of choice. The second field centres on search and evaluation, positing that the consumer begins the purchase process by exploring all other alternative firms and examining the firm's brand or country compared to alternatives. This study also confirmed the importance of search and evaluation, as demonstrated by the test of the fourth hypothesis that the expectations of British tourists from Nigeria were primarily influenced by their views about Nigeria's brand image. The third field focuses on the act of the purchase, whereby the consumer decides on a firm's service or product and then eventually purchases its product or service. This study confirms this through the test of hypothesis two, that choice of destination, self-concept and personality, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, attitude, and value significantly influence the British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice. The fourth field, feedback from both the consumer and the firm, is outside the scope of this study, which focused on British tourists who have not visited Nigeria for tourism purposes but have nonetheless visited other African countries.

This study also reviewed the Howard-Sheth Model, built on four major variables. The first is input, which comprises three separate information sources available to the consumer to stimulate their interest in the brand. Firstly, are the significative stimuli, which are the brand's physical characteristics and, in the context of this study, the brand personality. Secondly, the symbolic stimuli consist of visual characteristics and represent the brand image in this study's context. Finally, the information supplied by the social environment of the consumers (for example, reference groups, family, and social classes), which in the context of this study, is represented by organic agents. These three forms of stimuli provide consumers with useful information regarding the brand. The influence of these stimuli, as suggested by the Howard-Sheth Model, has been confirmed by the findings of this study under the test of hypotheses one and three. The second

variable of the Howard-Sheth Model is "perceptual and learning constructs", which relate to the psychological variables that influence the consumer's decision-making process. These variables in the context of this study are likened to expectations and perceptions, which this study has established under the test of hypothesis two to influence consumer behaviour. The third variable of the Howard-Sheth Model is "input", consisting of consumer's attitudes, brand comprehension, attention, and the act of purchase, which in the context of this study are likened to attitude and choice of destination. This study has also established their influence on consumer behaviour under the test of hypothesis two. The fourth variable of the Howard-Sheth Model is "external variables", which indirectly influence the consumer's decision-making processes. They include the essence of the purchase, the consumer's religion, personality traits, and time pressure. These are also likened to destination, self-concept and personality, motivation, trust, and value, all of which have been established to significantly influence consumer behaviour under the test of the second hypothesis of this study.

Also reviewed within this study was the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model, which posits that a decision-making process follows five stages. The first stage is problem recognition, which is why the consumer wants to purchase a good or service, which is not within the scope of this study. The second stage is information search, whereby the consumer internally and externally searches for information that can help fulfilled the earlier established problem. This is similar to the influence of organic and induced agents in the image formation process, which is significant under the test of hypothesis one of this study. The third stage of the model is the "evaluation of alternatives", which, despite being a vital part of the consumer's decision process, is not within the scope of this study. The fourth stage is "purchase", which in this study is termed consumer behaviour, comprising eight factors influencing the tourists' visit to Nigeria for tourism purposes. Hence, the

test of hypothesis two of this study was significantly influenced by factors like the consumer's value, motivation, perception, self-concept and personality, expectations, etc. The fifth stage is "post-purchase evaluation", which is outside this study's scope as the target population comprises UK tourists who have not visited Nigeria for tourism purposes.

This study also reviewed the classical purchase behaviour model, comprising of need and want recognition, information search, evaluation of alternative, information search, and post-purchase evaluation, all of which have been addressed under the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model above.

Finally, this study reviewed the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which posits that three major variables influence a person's behavioural intention: attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The test of hypothesis two of this study established the influence of the three major variables on British tourists' behaviour towards Nigeria as their destination of choice. Attitude comprises factors like the consumer's choice of destination, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, and attitude; the subjective norm in the context of this study is the consumer's value, while behavioural control is reflected within the consumer's self-concept and personality.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1   CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises the research, draws conclusions, and recommends strategies related to the objectives highlighted in Chapter One of this study. The chapter also includes the contributions of this study to the tourism industry within Nigeria and gives valuable suggestions for further studies.

7.2   SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study investigates the factors affecting British consumers' perception of Nigeria's brand image as a tourism destination. The study reviewed models and theories relating to consumer behaviour, such as the Nicosia Model, Howard-Sheth Model, Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model, Classical Purchase Behaviour Models, and the Theory of Planned Behaviour. This study adopted both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The study collected data from 171 British tourists from the 12 selected UK tourism organisations, using a self-designed questionnaire embedded with a structured interview. The collected data were analysed using frequency counts and charts to present the participants' demographics. Independent Samples t-test was used to test hypothesis one, a Components Factor Analysis was used to test hypothesis two, and Multiple Linear Regression was used to test hypotheses three, four, and five with the aid of SPSS 23.0.

Additionally, the data collected from the interviews were analysed thematically. After that, the findings of this study were discussed under nine themes, and the theoretical implications were also argued. This chapter, therefore, summarises the study, reaches reasonable conclusions, highlights the study's contributions and provides valuable recommendations for future improvement.

7.3   CONCLUSION

This study concludes that British tourists who have visited at least one African country - such as Ghana, South Africa, Egypt, and The Gambia - but did not visit Nigeria were motivated by a search for great hospitality, historical values, friendly weather conditions, the quest to gain more knowledge about their African historical background, entertainment values, and rich cultural heritage. The study reveals that Nigeria is not lacking in any of these factors, but information about them is not readily available, thereby leading to a negative brand image of Nigeria. The perceptions of British tourists held towards Nigeria were greatly influenced by Nigeria's popular culture and news to emerge from Nigeria, solicited and unsolicited information from friends and families, other countries' views about Nigeria, people's goodwill, the gap between the poor and rich in different parts of the country, and tourists' personal adventures.

This study also concludes that although Nigeria possesses many of the values possessed by the African countries visited by British tourists, it suffers due to major stumbling blocks such as its insecurity, crime rate, and poor healthcare system. Notwithstanding Nigeria's positive values, such as its rich cultural background, trustworthy and energetic people, its status as the Giant of Africa, and stunning scenery, among others, tourists cannot compromise the security of their lives and property, thereby preventing them from visiting the country for tourism purposes.

7.4   RECOMMENDATION

Following the above conclusion, the lack of interest of British tourists in Nigeria is because of the poor brand image of the country due to excessive negative news about the country. This study finds that the organic agents of image formation (such as the information tourists get from the Nigerian news agencies, popular culture, as well as unsolicited and solicited information from relatives and friends about Nigeria) influence their perception of the country's image more

than other details they gather from other testimonies, independent commendations from travel writing, travel advertisers, and information received from travel brochures and tour operators. As highlighted in this study, the destination image concerns how tourists' perceptions are developed over time based on information available to the general public. Words of mouth from friends and family who have previously visited the destination also influenced such perceptions. The tourists' experiences after the first visit to the destination could also corroborate such pre-visit impressions. Therefore, the first recommendation of this study is that the Nigerian government, through NTDC, must engage in aggressive marketing of the Nigerian brand image. This study confirms that the country is blessed with all the factors that attract British tourists to other African countries. Nigeria is blessed with great hospitality, historical values, friendly weather conditions, entertainment values, and a rich cultural heritage. Still, these are not positively projected to the outside world. Therefore, the Nigerian government must employ strategies to promote the country as a choice destination for tourists. To achieve this, the NTDC must work with the Nigerian media to project more positive news about the country to the outside world.

Second, the Nigerian government must seek to improve the country's personality. According to the findings of this study, the insecurity of life and property in the country is a major factor that negatively influences British tourists' perception of the country. The country's personality can be improved by ensuring adequate environmental and social development. Through suitable design and efficient use of the built environment, fear and incidence of crime can be drastically reduced whilst the quality of life would be immensely improved. Through practical and efficient social development, the underlying economic, social, and cultural processes contributing to victimization and crime would be identified, and adequately addressing them would help close the gap between criminal justice policies and social support programmes for communities,

families, and individuals. If this could be achieved, Nigeria could be considered a destination for tourism purposes.

Third, the Nigerian government also needs to deploy an effective strategy that would enhance the provision of social amenities for citizens and visitors, improve its educational system and health sector, and drastically reduce the level of corruption in order to reposition the country and promote a better brand image. Similarly, the marketing activities of DMOs could also shape or modify such impressions even before the first visit.

Fourthly, Nigeria and the NTDC require a strategic partnership with stakeholders in the tourism industry (such as local and international tourism agencies, DMOs, and news agencies) to develop promotional programmes to market Nigeria as a tourist destination. This can be achieved by integrating various promotional tools to reach different fragments of the international markets. Well-documented commercials should be created and aired on mainstream international mass media, with an efficient and user-friendly website and social media to engage potential tourists. Interactive mobile applications can also be developed and made accessible globally to help showcase Nigeria's tourism potential and stress the Nigerian tourism sector's local features, such as markets, foods, entertainment, arts and crafts, and ecotourism sites.

Finally, as shown in this study, Nigeria is blessed with many cultural festivals, just like many other countries usually visited by British tourists. But while other countries promote their cultures and festivals to attract cultural tourists, Nigeria did little in this direction. Therefore, the NTDC should develop and promote Nigeria's cultural tourism to the outside world.

7.5 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

The present study has successfully contributed to knowledge in the following areas:

1) This study established that in terms of tourists' attitude toward Nigeria and their expectations from the country as a tourism destination was most likely to be influenced by brand image rather than the NTDC, while brand personality had no significant influence. On the other hand, Regarding the level of trust the tourists have in Nigeria, brand personality had the most considerable effect than brand image and NTDC's marketing activities.

2) This study also recognises that natural attractions such as Nigeria's popular culture and news, unsolicited and solicited information given by families and friends, other countries' opinions about Nigeria, people's goodwill, the perceived class disparity in Nigeria, and personal adventures of the tourists have a farther-reaching impact on how people form opinions about Nigeria than induced items such as marketing activities, testimonies of satisfied customers or celebrities' endorsement, free endorsement through travel writing, travel brochures and advertising, and information provided by tour operators.

3) This study recategorized adapted consumer behaviours into the three components of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, namely Attitude (choice of destination, perception, motivation, trust, expectation, and attitude); Subjective Norms (value); and Behavioural Control (self-concept and personality).

4) This study also makes an empirical contribution to the development of tourism marketing in Nigeria and, if effectively utilised, could help in the development of a large-scale tourism industry which capitalises on Nigeria's abundant tourism potential, vast diversity in terms of

population, geographical features and culture, and tourist destinations with great cultural heritage.

7.6   SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

As the present study investigated the brand image of Nigeria and its implication for marketing the country as a tourism destination from the UK tourists' perspective, the following areas are recommended for further study.

1)   The effects of a country's brand image and brand personality on its tourism patronage: A comparative study of Nigeria and Ghana.

2)   A comparative analysis of the impacts of destination marketing on tourists' choice among West African countries from a UK perspective; and

3)   The impacts of tourism marketing on economic growth and development: A comparative study of Nigeria, Egypt, and Ghana.

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APPENDIX

University of **Salford** MANCHESTER | **Salford Business School**

MARKETING IMPLICATION OF THE NIGERIA BRAND IMAGE AS A TOURISM DESTINATION (MINBITD)

INFORMATION TO RESPONDENTS

<u>To Whom it may Concern</u>

My name is Nimota Jida, and I am a PhD student at the University of Salford. For my thesis, I am examining factors that British tourists will consider when visiting Nigeria for tourism purposes. Because you have visited at least one country in Africa but not Nigeria, I am inviting you to participate in this study by completing the attached questionnaire. It is expected that your response and those of others would help achieve this study's aim.

If you choose to participate in this study, please answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaires promptly to the person that gave it to you. Participation is strictly voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time. You are free to select the option that best suits your opinion on each item, as there are no wrong or right answers. *Please be assured that your responses are anonymous and will remain confidential.*

The following questionnaire will require approximately ten minutes to complete. It would be highly appreciated if you could spare some time to respond to this survey, as your responses would contribute immensely to the success of this study

Thanks, in anticipation of your cooperation.

If you have any questions concerning this study, please get in touch with the undersigned.

Yours sincerely,

Nimota Jida

email: n.m.jida1@edu.salford.ac.uk
telephone +447393063670.

GENERAL INSTRUCTION: *Please check* ☑ *as appropriate*

SECTION A – Demographic Data

This section aims to collect some biodata for analysis purpose

1. How best would you like to describe your gender?
     Answer: _____

2. Which of the following best describes your age?
     (a) 18-24 years   [   ]   (b) 25-30 years   [   ]   (c) 31-35 years   [   ]

(d) 36-40 years   [   ]   (e) 41-45 years   [   ]   (f) 46-50 years   [   ]

(g) 51-55years   [   ]   (h) 56-60 years   [   ]   (i) Above 60 years   [   ]

3. What is your highest educational qualification?
   (a) College [   ]   (b) Graduate   [   ]   (c) Postgraduate [   ]   (d)   Other:
   _____

4. Which of the ranges below best describes your annual income (£)?
   (a) 10,000-20,000   [   ]   (b) 20,001-30,000   [   ]   (c) 30,001-40,000[   ]

   (d) 40,001-50,000   [   ]   (e) 50,001-60,000   [   ]   (f) Above 60,000 [   ]

5. Which of the following African countries have you visited as a tourist? **(You can check more than One)**
   (a) Egypt   [   ]   (b) Ethiopia   [   ]   (c) Ghana   [   ]

   (d) Kenya   [   ]   (e) Madagascar   [   ]   (f) Morocco   [   ]

   (g) Namibia   [   ]   (h) South Africa   [   ]   (i) Tanzania   [   ]

   (j) The Gambia   [   ]   (k) Zambia   [   ]   (l)   Other:
   _____

6. Could you please list the major factor(s) that influenced your decision to visit the country(ies) you checked/listed above?

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

SECTION B – DESTINATION PERSONALITY

This section invites you to rate your understanding of Nigeria personality. That is, the unique attributes of Nigeria/Nigerians that shape your perception about the country.

Please check (✓): **Very low** = 1; **Low** = 2; **Moderate** = 3; **High** = 4; **Very High** = 5; as appropriate

S/N	ITEM	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Down-to-earth					
2.	Honest					
3.	Daring					
4.	Imaginative					
5.	Intelligent					
6.	Reliable					
7.	Glamorous					
8.	Upper class					
9.	Tough					
10.	Outdoorsy (e.g.)					

11: In what other ways can you summarise the Nigeria's personality?

_____

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SECTION C – DESTINATION IMAGE

Compare to other African countries you have visited, how would you rate the prevalence or availability of the following attributes or factors in Nigeria?

Please check (✓): **Very low** = 1; **Low** = 2; **Moderate** = 3; **High** = 4; **Very High** = 5; as appropriate

S/N	ITEM	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Scenic mountain & valleys, etc.					
2.	Caves and underground formations					
3.	Terrorist attack					
4.	Crime rate					
5.	Cultural events & festivals					
6.	Nightlife and entertainment					
7.	History and heritage					
8.	Vintage buildings and other monuments					
9.	Private and public transport facilities					
10.	Quality healthcare services					
11.	Traffic flow and parking facilities					
12.	Affordable trolley system					
13.	Picnicking					
14.	Camping and hunting					
15.	Outstanding accommodation (e.g. Hotel,					
16.	Attractions and activities					

17. Apart from the above, **i**n what other ways would you describe the Nigeria's image?

_____

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_____

SECTION D – IMAGE FORMATION PROCESS

To what extent do the following means influence your perception about the prevalence or availability of the attributes or factors in Section C above?

Please check (✓): **Very low** = 1; **Low** = 2; **Moderate** = 3; **High** = 4; **Very High** = 5; as appropriate

S/N	ITEM	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	News materials					
2.	Popular culture					
3.	Solicited and unsolicited information from relatives and friends					
4.	Celebrities' testimonies					
5.	Satisfied customers' testimonies					
6.	Independent commendations from travel writing					
7.	Travel advertising					
8.	Information received from travel brochures and tour operators					

9. What other factors influence your perception about the Nigeria's image?

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SECTION E – TOURISM CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

This section seeks to find out your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements concerning your tourism behaviour towards Nigeria?

Please check (✓): **Strongly Disagree** = 1; **Disagree** = 2; **Fairly Agree** = 3; **Agree** = 4; **Strongly Agree** = 5; as appropriate

S/N	ITEM	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Holidaying in Nigeria is not as important and interesting to me as it is elsewhere					
2.	Nigeria is not the best place for what I love to do on holidays					
3.	Nigeria does not offer tourists with genuine visitor experience					
4.	I don't think I can gain valuable experience and knowledge if I visit Nigeria for tourism					
5.	I am not motivated to visit Nigeria, because, it lacks variety of activities for doing and seeing					
6.	Nigeria cannot offer me with the kind of family/friend togetherness I want in tourism					

7.	Nigeria cannot offer me the kind of novelty/romance I want in tourism					
8.	There seems to be no connection between the character of Nigeria and the way I perceive myself					
9.	The character of Nigeria is very far from the perception of people about my personality					
10.	I'm not sure Nigeria can meet up to my service-quality expectations					
11.	Nigeria cannot adequately fulfil my expectations in terms of tourist attractions					
12.	I'm not usually excited about Nigeria as a tourism destination					
13.	I don't think I can feel comfortable in the Nigerian ambience/temperature					
14.	I don't think Nigeria can offer me a stimulating experience as a tourist					
15.	I don't really feel travelling to Nigeria would be an enjoyable experience for me					
16.	I do not trust the Nigerian brand when it comes to tourism					
17.	I'm not willing to rely on Nigeria's ability to deliver the kind of tourism experience I crave for					
18.	I don't have enough confidence in the Nigerian tourism sector					

19. In what other ways can you describe your behaviour/attitude towards Nigeria as a tourism destination?

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_____

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SECTION F – NIGERIA'S TOURISM MARKETING ACTIVITIES

How best would you rate the effectiveness of the marketing activities of the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) in the following areas?

Please check (✓): **Very low** = 1; **Low** = 2; **Moderate** = 3; **High** = 4; **Very High** = 5; as appropriate

S/N	ITEM	SCALE				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Print, television, or radio commercials					
2.	Catalogues and printed speciality guide					
3.	Flyers, brochures & other printed materials					
4.	Posters, demos, billboards, advertising messages, or photo exhibition					
5.	Internet and audio-visual materials					
6.	Souvenirs and small gifts					
7.	Exhibitions, fairs, and tourist events					
8.	Short advertisements in large malls					
9.	Branded means of information					

10.	Advertising magazines and tourism companies					
11.	Special events planning and telemarketing					
12.	Commercial and meetings presentation					
13.	Commercial exhibitions and other fairs					
14.	Personal mail offer					
15.	Cultural, sports, national, and international events					
16.	Religious events					

17. In what other ways can you summarise the effectiveness of the NTDC marketing activities?

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Thanks for your participation!