

An Evaluation of Wildlife Tourism Destinations' Attributes, Overall Satisfaction and Revisit Intentions: A Tourist Guides' Perspective

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Abstract

This study developed and tested a model integrating associations of tourist guides, wildlife tourism destination attributes, overall satisfaction and revisit intentions. The study is based on a cross-sectional research survey of tourist guides visiting Lake Nakuru National Park (LNNP) in Kenya, where no such investigation has been conducted before. It was grounded on expectation/disconfirmation theory using attitudinal approach to destination loyalty. Data collection was done through self-administered structured questionnaires. Simple random sampling was used to select the sample size of 298 tourist guides during the study period. Data on socio-demographic characteristics was analysed descriptively while the evaluation of the measurement model was done through exploratory factor analysis and path analysis. The results showed a stronger positive association between wildlife resources and satisfaction, followed by cost of attractions, park image and park accessibility. There was a positive but weak relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention. Therefore, wildlife resources, park accessibility, cost of attractions, and park image dimensions are indicators of satisfaction, but satisfaction was not a good indicator for revisit intentions.

Keywords: Wildlife tourism; destination attributes; evaluation; satisfaction; revisit intention; tourist guides

Introduction

Wildlife tourism destinations in Africa are affected by rapid ecological changes alongside intensive competition in terms of attracting tourists. As a result, destinations employ various strategies to either improve or maintain their market share. Crucially many tourism destinations feel that satisfying and retaining tourist guides is crucial for tourist satisfaction and ensuring they have a pleasant experience. This is because the quality of a tourist guide's services can successfully break or make a tour (Cetin & Yarcana, 2017). Furthermore, tour operators are mainly dependent on tourist guides for creation of an enriching holiday experience (Jonasson & Scherle, 2012).

Effective destination marketing requires visitor satisfaction, which influences the choice of destination and the revisit (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Wildlife tourist guides are heterogeneous with different psychological needs and satisfaction targets that they feel will



ensure their customers return for repeat visits and pass on referrals. Thus, tourist guides choose destination attributes that will not only satisfy their needs but, by extension, the needs of their clients. Other studies indicate that satisfying and retaining past and current clients is vital for retaining and increasing market share (Bulut, 2011; Cetinkaya & Oter, 2016).

As the interface between wildlife tourism destination and visitors, tourist guides are information providers and interpreters (Rabotić, 2010). They promote sustainability and educate their clients (Zillinger, Jonasson & Adolfsson, 2012). They do this by communicating and interpreting the significance of preserving the environment and encourage marginal impact practices (Black, Ham & Weiler, 2001). In addition, they ensure that the tour operators' promises are realized (Cohen, Ifergan & Cohen, 2002; Geva & Goldman, 1991; Howard, Thwaites & Smith, 2001).

Satisfied tourist guides relay positive destination information to their clients; encourage repeat visits; provide positive word-of-mouth commendations and reduce clients' complaints (Okello & Grasty, 2009). They present tourists with pleasant, fulfilling, and safe experiences (Chang, 2014; Min, 2012). They also provide vital feedback on the suppliers, itineraries, and customers to improve future services and explore business opportunities by cross-selling alternative services offered by tour operators (Cetin & Yarcan, 2017).

Tourist guiding business is highly competitive with high levels of price negotiations during low seasons. Occasionally, tourist guides complement low guiding fees with tips and other commissions from ancillary service providers. As noted by Ap and Wong (2001), limited number of guides survive when deprived of additional income from non-compulsory tour sales and shopping. As a result, they prefer escorting tourists to captivating destinations for a greater satisfaction level, sometimes with expectations of tips in return. They also secure future businesses by advising clients on alternative tours while cross-selling other services offered by tour operators (Cetin & Yarcan, 2017). Their success can also be evaluated through tourists' intention to repurchase, recommend and overall image of tour operators (Cetin & Yarcan, 2017).

It is reasonable to argue that this success or failure is mainly dependent on tourist guides' satisfaction with destination attributes and their willingness to recommend such destinations for revisit. Surprisingly, a paucity of research focuses on tourist guides' evaluation of tourism destination attributes, satisfaction, and behavioural intention. To this end, this article proposed and tested a model incorporating the relationship between tourist guides evaluation of wildlife tourism destination attributes, overall satisfaction and revisit intentions using a structural equation modelling approach.

Literature review

Wildlife tourism destination attributes

Tourism destinations have several attributes that differentiate them from their competitors (Sirakaya, McLellan & Uyal, 1996). These attributes influence tourists' decision-making processes (Fishbein, 1976). Several attributes exist in academic literature on tourism destination attractiveness (Table 1). From previous studies, tourism destination attributes are applied differently to fit the context of the studies possibly due to scope, target audience, relevance, robustness, resources and time constraints (Allin, Bennett, Newton, 2001; Ceron & Dubois, 2003; World Tourism Organization [WTO], 2004).

Table 1: Summary of previous studies on tourism destination attractiveness attributes

Study	Destination attributes
Gearing, Swart & Var (1974)	Social factors; natural factors; historical factors; infrastructure and food and shelter; and recreational and shopping facilities.
Goodrich (1978)	Availability of facilities; water sports facilities; scenic beauty; cultural and historical interest; pleasant attitude of the people; rest and relaxation

	opportunities; shopping facilities; suitable accommodations; cuisine; availability of entertainment.
Ritchie & Zins (1978)	Cultural and social characteristics; natural beauty and climate; attitudes towards tourists; region's accessibility; price levels; region's infrastructure; recreation, sport and educational facilities; and shopping and commercial facilities;
Ferrario (1979)	Accessibility; seasonality; importance; admission; fragility; and popularity.
Tang and Rochananond (1990)	Culture and social characteristics; natural beauty and climate; sports, recreation and education facilities; country's infrastructure; cost of living; shopping and commercial facilities; accessibility of the country; attitude towards tourists.
Hu and Ritchie (1993)	Accessibility; climate; sports/recreational opportunities; scenery; communication difficulty due to language barriers; food; entertainment; historical attractions; uniqueness of local people's life; museums, cultural attractions; the availability/quality of accommodations; festivals, attitude towards tourists; shopping; price levels; special events; and availability/quality of local transportation.
Kim (1998)	Quality of accommodation facilities; clean and peaceful environment; safety; family-oriented amenities; entertainment; recreational opportunities; accessibility; reputation.
Krešić & Prebežac, (2011)	Climate; feeling of personal safety; image of the country; quality of the country's promotion; quality of information in destination; scenic beauty; accessibility; presentation of cultural heritage; environmental preservation; urban and architectural harmony of the place; tidiness of the place; friendliness; variety of restaurants; quality of accommodation; entertainment opportunities; quality of restaurants; sport and recreation opportunities; value for money; and shopping opportunities.
Tam (2012)	Price levels; safety and security; cultural attractions; scenery; attitude towards tourists; availability/quality of local transportation; local people's life uniqueness; food; historical attractions; accessibility; difficulties in communication; availability/quality of accommodation; weather and climate; shopping; sports/recreational opportunities; entertainment activities; and festivals special events.
Lee, Chen & Huang (2014)	Comfortable climate; beautiful scenery; bicycle route alternatives and varieties; nearby attractions; smooth pavement surface; connection-oriented transport services; low traffic flow and density; provision of catering services; bicycle route signs; lighting systems; provision of lodging facilities; public rest areas and rest room facilities; and interpretation and information signage.
Ariya, Wishitemi and Sitati (2017); Ariya, Sitati & Wishitemi (2017)	Unique wildlife resources; variety of wildlife resources; proximity to attraction sites; abundance of wildlife resources; proximity to attraction sites; quality of park route signs; quality of road systems; safety and security inside the park; park branding as Rhino and Bird Sanctuary; park entry fee; guiding fee; and cost of meals and/or accommodation.
Kim, Joun, Choe and Schroeder (2019)	Attractions; atmosphere; quality of experience; amenity; activities; and behaviour.

There are limited studies focusing on wildlife tourism destination attributes (Ariya, Sitati & Wishitemi, 2017; Ariya, Wishitemi & Sitati, 2017; Kim 1998). An early study by Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001) provided a wildlife tourism conceptual framework with six intrinsic quality experience factors of intensity, authenticity, uniqueness, popularity of species, species status, and duration. Orams (2002) later established that visitors need to closely interact with nature during their experiences while Tam (2012: 223) argued that “different attributes of tourism destination can be perceived and evaluated differently depending on the context in which the judgement is made”.

Borrowing from the previous studies by Ariya, Sitati and Wishitemi (2017) and Ariya, Wishitemi and Sitati (2017), the current study attempts to adopt twelve relevant attributes based on four dimensions (wildlife resources, park accessibility, cost of attractions and park image) as determinant variables for wildlife tourism destination evaluation. Wildlife resources' attributes employed are uniqueness, variety, and abundance. Park accessibility attributes adopted are proximity to attraction sites, quality of road systems and park route signs. Under cost of attractions, the attributes include park entry fee, cost of meals and/or



accommodation and guiding fee while park image's attributes considered are park branding as Bird and Rhino sanctuary, and safety and security in the park.

Visitor satisfaction

The construct of tourist guides' satisfaction is limited in the literature as well as perceptions of guides in the travel industry (Salazar, 2006). This article reviews visitor satisfaction literature by operationalising tourist guides as visitors to wildlife tourism destinations. Visitor satisfaction is regarded as the result of a contrast between expectations/pre-travel expectations and experiences/post-travel experiences (Cetinkaya & Oter, 2016; Truong & Foster, 2006). It is a psychological result obtained from reaction with various service facets within a destination (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Although majority of professional tourist guides follow an itinerary as planned by tour operators, they possess inherent pre-visit expectations and post-travel experiences just like the tourists they guide.

Gratified tourist guides will feel satisfied and exit the destination with positive memory, which influences their decision to return, enhance guiding experience, or recommend a destination to tour operators for future itinerary planning. Previous literature suggests that satisfied clients communicate positive experiences to others and do repeat visits (Alén, Rodríguez & Fraiz, 2007; Kozak & Rimmington 2000; Opperman, 2000). To a destination, visitor satisfaction plays an important role in marketing planning and tourism product development (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Visitor satisfaction literature in tourism industry is still rather ambiguous in nature with significant differences in conceptualization and theories (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bosque & Martín, 2008; Kozak 2001a). Whereas early studies focused on a global approach to satisfaction (Oliver, 1993), recently attribute-level approach has emerged (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Chen & Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Hsu, 2003). Attribute-level approach has been employed in both satisfaction and service quality studies in terms of service attributes to measure satisfaction (Heung, 2000). Further, a multiple-attribute approach has been applied to investigate traveller's satisfaction (Hsu, 2003).

The current study adopted a destination attribute-based conceptualization approach to measure tourist guides' satisfaction towards different wildlife destination attributes. The study by Kozak and Rimmington (2000) augment that it is vital to classify and measure visitor satisfaction with every destination attribute as satisfaction/dissatisfaction with one of the components may result into satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the general destination.

Regarding theory, perceived overall performance, and expectation/disconfirmation theories are regularly used in visitor satisfaction (Chen & Chen, 2010; Hui, Wan & Ho, 2007; Kozak, 2001b). The perceived overall performance theory proposes that visitors' satisfaction/dissatisfaction is determined by probing their assessment of the veritable performance of the product/service irrespective of the existence of any prior expectations (Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurrin, & Seegoolam, 2011). The expectation/disconfirmation theory proposes that satisfaction is an outcome of the difference between expectations and perceived experience (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). If the perceived visitor performance of tourism destination is lower/higher than expectation, a negative/positive disconfirmation yields dissatisfaction/satisfaction (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Hui et al., 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

This study adopted expectation/disconfirmation theory. The study argues that tourist guides have pre-conceived expectations towards tourism destinations before a visit. In addition, the theory has been the main framework adopted in evaluation of tourist satisfaction (Bosque & Martín, 2008; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Since tourist guides are mainly not first purchasers nor often do sporadic purchases at destinations, the limitation of this theory as questioned by some authors (see Hui et al., 2007; Kozak, 2001a; Millán & Esteban, 2004;



Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001) do not apply. Another limitation of expectation/disconfirmation theory is the shared effect between expectations scores and perceived performance scales evaluated simultaneously (Millán & Esteban, 2004). In this study, tourist guides were advised to fill-in their expectation scores as they entered the park and perceived performance scores as they exited the park.

Destination loyalty

In the increasing competition in wildlife safaris in Africa, wildlife tourism destinations require alternative marketing strategies to sustain loyal visitors or tourist guides and secure sustainable competitive advantage. This calls for change in attitude and behaviour towards repeat usage of services (Backman & Crompton, 1991). Moreover, understanding destination attributes that increase loyalty provides useful information for destination marketers and managers to gauge the success of marketing strategy (Flavian, Martinaz & Polo, 2001).

Motivational literature indicates that visitors are “pushed” by internal psychological forces into making travel decisions and “pulled” by destination attributes’ external forces (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Based on pull-push forces, satisfaction with travel experience occurs, contributing to destination loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, studies on the effectiveness of tourism destination loyalty concept and application are limited (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Other studies have also highlighted the need for more studies specifically on the relationship between destination loyalty and satisfaction (Chi & Qu, 2008; Hui et al., 2007; Oppermann, 2000). Chi and Qu (2008: 625) emphasized that ‘it is time for practitioners and academics to conduct more studies of loyalty to have greater knowledge of this concept’. The concept of visitor loyalty into tourism research has been assessed using three approaches of attitudinal, behavioural and composite (Oppermann, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) as summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Summary of approaches measuring visitor loyalty

Author(s)	Approaches measuring visitor loyalty
Yoon and Uysal (2005)	Behavioural approach
Alegre and Garau (2010); Chen and Chen (2010); Chi and Qu (2008); Gallarza and Saura (2006); Hui et al. (2007); Kozak (2001b); William and Soutra (2009); Yoon and Uysal, (2005)	Attitudinal approach
Backman and Crompton (1991); Oppermann (2000)	Composite or combination approach

The behavioural approach is operationally characterized ‘as sequence purchase, proportion of patronage, or probability of purchase’ (Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48) frequently measured using repeat visitation indicators (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Alegre & Juaneda, 2006; Correia, Oliveira & Butler, 2008; Petrick, 2004). It has been argued that the measurement of this approach produces only static outcome of the dynamic process and lacks a conceptual standpoint (Dick & Basu, 1994). Furthermore, the approach fails to clarify factors affecting visitor loyalty in terms of products as well as difficulty for a destination to explain why and how visitors may be willing to revisit or recommend to potential tourists (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

The attitudinal approach is an attempt by the visitors to surpass apparent behaviour while expressing their loyalty in terms of statement of preference or psychological commitment (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Tourist guides, as destination visitors, may have affection towards a particular tourism destination and express their intention to visit or purchase. Therefore, the attitudinal approach explains an additional portion of unexplained variance that behavioural approaches do not address (Backman & Crompton, 1991).

The composite/combination approach is combination of attitudinal and behavioral approaches. The approach argues that to be truly loyal, a customer must purchase the product and possess positive attitude towards the product (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Oppermann, 2000). The limitation of a composite approach is that ‘not all the weighting or quantified scores may apply to both the behavioural and attitudinal factors, and they may have a differing measurements’ (Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48). Even though the approach is most comprehensive, Oppermann (2000) questions its practicability. Therefore, in this study, attitudinal approach is employed to measure destination loyalty. The construct “revisiting intention” was adopted as a measure of wildlife tourism destination loyalty intention.

The study model

This study attempts to amplify the theoretical and empirical literature of the associations among wildlife destination attributes evaluation, overall satisfaction and revisit intention. The research model proposed is illustrated in Figure 1. The hypothesized model is anchored on evaluation constructs selected by theoretical considerations and tested using structural equation modeling program. Wildlife tourism destination dimensions of wildlife resources, park accessibility, cost of attractions and parks image were considered as exogenous variables in the path analysis. Satisfaction was considered an endogenous variable as well as a mediating variable to predict revisit intention (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Chen & Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Hui et al., 2007; Kozak, 2001b; Matzler et al., 2007). Perceived attractiveness is considered as a construct of destination performance and as an indicator that affect destination choice (Ariya et al., 2017; 2017; Um, Chon & Ro, 2006; Um & Crompton, 1990).

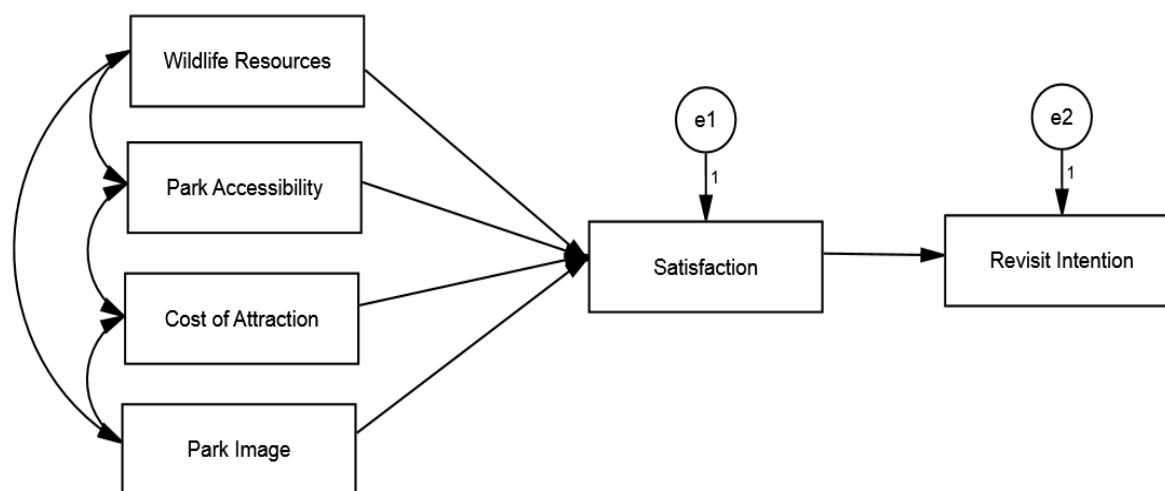


Figure 1: Hypothesized model of the association among wildlife destination attributes evaluation, satisfaction and revisit intention

Study site and methodology

The study was undertaken at Lake Nakuru National Park (LNNP) in Nakuru County, Kenya. The park is categorized as premium by Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) due to its contribution to national economy through wildlife tourism and management and ecological contribution to the delicate ecosystem (GoK, 2010; Dharani, Kinyamario & Onyari, 2006). The study was based on a cross-sectional survey design. All tourist guides visiting the park during the study period that were willing to fill in the questionnaires were considered during the study. Samples were then drawn from the target population via a random sampling technique. Data



collection was done through self-administered questionnaires at the park's three gates (Main, Nderit and Lanet gates).

A total of 385 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents through simple random sampling; 340 were returned. Of the returned questionnaires, 42 were incomplete and so were eliminated. Hence 298 cases were coded for data analysis yielding a response rate of 77.4%. Previous studies indicate that the recommended sample size for common factor analysis is at least 200 participants (Gorsuch, 1983) or even a larger sample size of up to 300 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) since small samples are likely to yield unreliable results especially in Structural Equation Modeling analysis (Hoyle, 1995; Lei & Wu, 2007).

A questionnaire containing three sections was developed for the purpose of the survey. The preliminary section had a concise cover letter explaining the purpose of the survey and socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Part A had twelve destination attributes where the respondents were required to rate them based on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=not attractive, 2=fairly attractive, 3=attractive, 4=very attractive and 5 =outstandingly attractive. Likert-type scales are regarded as appropriate for evaluating visitors' experiences of attractions and are easy to construct and manage (Ritchie, 1991; 1995) and seems to be acceptable (Um et al., 2006). Part B consisted of items regarding guide's extent of satisfaction with destination attributes. A 5-point Likert-type scale of 1=Very dissatisfied to 5=very satisfied was also employed. On the final section of part C was one-item question concerning future revisit intention, which was measured based on a 3-point Likert-type scale of 1=definitely not, 2=undecided and 3=definitely will.

The actual data collection exercise ranged from September 2016 to June 2017. The questionnaires were designed in English since the language was well understood by all tourist guides visiting the park. Before data collection, the study was approved by Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Path analysis was used to establish the direct and indirect relative weights of constructs in the model (Arbuckle & Worthke, 1999; Um et al., 2006).

Before path analysis, socio-demographic data was analysed descriptively then exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was done to explore the relationships among the variables under study. According to Gerbing and Hamilton (1996), EFA provides a useful step, especially when a priori theoretical knowledge has been used to generate the data. The EFA also provides a theoretical solution uncontaminated by unique and error variability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this study, EFA becomes appropriate since the underlying factor structure of the measured variables in Kenya's wildlife tourism destination context has not been previously explored and it allows for possible reduction of the attributes to a smaller set of summarized factors. All statistical analysis was done using SPSS 20.0 and AMOS 24.0.

Results

Socio-demographic attributes of the tourist guides

A total of 298 tourist guide respondents made the complete sample survey during the study period. In terms of gender, majority (79.9%) were male and only 20.1% were female. Regarding age, 30.9% were aged between 30-35 years, followed by those aged between 43-48 years (27.2%), 36-42 years (18.1%), 24-29 years (11.7%), 18-23 years (8.1%), and 49-54 years (4.0%) being the least. The respondents also had various levels of formal education with 37.2% having attained college education, followed by university education (26.5%), less than high school (20.1%), and finally high school (16.1%) level. In terms of professional qualification, 27.5% had undergone tour guiding or tour consultant professional training, 8.4% had foreign languages training, 8.1% had tour driving training while the majority (56.0%) had no professional training.

Concerning the relationship between formal education level and professional training, all the respondents who had less than high school as formal education level had professional qualification in tour driving and 44.4% had tour guiding or consultant training. Moreover, 36.0% who attained high school education level had foreign languages training while 56.1% with college education level had further training in tour guiding or consultancy. Majority (64.0%) who attained university degree level of education also had foreign languages training as indicated in Figure 1. The respondents visited LNNP for various reasons including wildlife safari (73.8%) followed by lake scenery (42.3%), then ornithological safari (38.3%), package tour (35.2%), and finally leisure and recreation (12.1%).

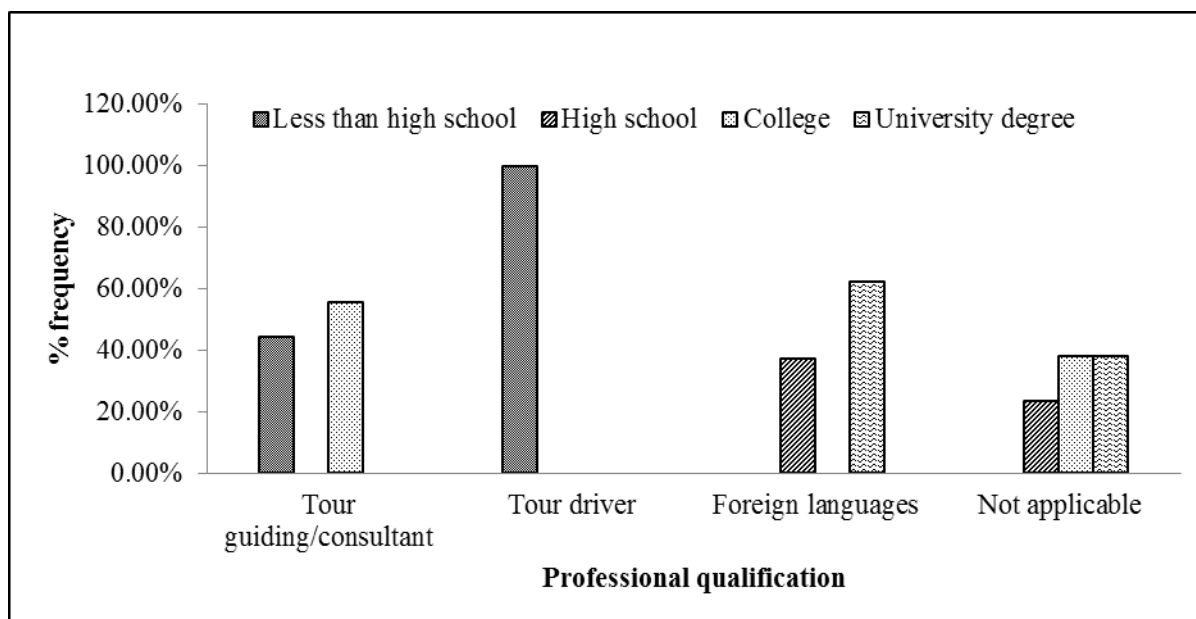


Figure 2: The relationship between formal education level and professional qualification of the respondents
Source: Authors

Factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the twelve destination attributes. The correlation matrix revealed a substantial number of variables correlated at $r=0.3$ and above. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy of 0.647 and Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($p<0.001$) both confirmed the suitability of the data for factorization. The EFA also revealed four components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (3.858, 1.800, 1.451, 1.131) explaining a total variance of 55.29%. However, inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the second factor. This was further supported by Horn’s parallel analysis (Table 1). In addition, most of the items loaded quite strongly (above 4) on the first two components as depicted on the Factor Matrix table. Therefore, only two factors were retained for further investigation.

Table 3: The comparison of eigenvalues from EFA and the corresponding criterion values obtained from parallel analysis

Component number	Actual eigenvalues from EFA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	3.858	1.0626	Accept
2	1.800	1.0184	Accept
3	1.451	0.9692	Reject
4	1.131	0.9185	Reject

Source: Authors



A varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation yielded rotated solution with a number of strong loadings above 0.5. Wildlife destination attributes of ‘unique’, ‘variety’ and ‘abundances’ wildlife resources; ‘park branding as rhino sanctuary’ and ‘safety and security inside the park’ loaded on component 1 contributing 34.64% variance. Attributes that loaded on component 2 were ‘quality of road systems’; ‘proximity of attraction sites’ and ‘quality of park route signs’ contributing 21.41% variance (Table 2). Cumulatively, the two component solution explained a total variance of 56.05%. Three variables of ‘park entry fee’, ‘cost of meals and/or accommodation’ and ‘park branding as bird sanctuary’ did not load on the components hence were dropped in the final model measurement.

Table 4: The result of EFA on wildlife destination attributes evaluation

Attributes	Factor loading		Eigenvalue	Explained (%) Variance	Communality
	Factor 1	Factor 2			
<i>Factor 1</i>					
Unique wildlife resources	0.932		3.858	27.40	0.874
Variety of wildlife resources	0.861				0.765
Abundance of wildlife resources	0.826				0.695
Park branding as rhino sanctuary	0.469				0.221
Safety and security inside the park	0.469				0.223
Quality of road systems	0.550				0.598
<i>Factor 2</i>					
Quality of park route signs		0.526	1.800	10.95	0.526
Guiding fee		0.509			0.274
Proximity to attraction sites		0.497			0.417
Total variance explained				38.35	

Note: Variable evaluation- 1=Not attractive and 5=Outstandingly attractive

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

KMO (Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy) = 0.647

Bartlett's test of sphericity: $p < 0.001$

Source: Authors

A further EFA was performed on the satisfaction attributes. A number of items showed correlation above 0.3 with a KMO=0.651 and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$). Four components of eigenvalues exceeding 1 (4.509, 1.795, 1.570, 1.181) were also revealed explaining a total variance of 75.45%. The screeplot inspection revealed a clear break after the second component. The results of parallel analysis showed two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix (Table 3). Thus, two factors were retained for factor rotation.

Table 5: The comparison of eigenvalues from EFA and the corresponding criterion values obtained from parallel analysis

Component number	Actual eigenvalues from EFA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	4.509	1.0653	Accept
2	1.795	1.0149	Accept
3	1.570	0.9631	Reject
4	1.181	0.9160	Reject

Source: Authors

To aid in the interpretation of the two components, oblimin rotation with Kaiser normalisation was performed because varimax rotation had cross loadings. The satisfaction attributes of ‘unique’, ‘variety’ and ‘abundance’ wildlife resources as well as park branding as ‘bird’ and ‘rhino’ sanctuary loaded on component 1 contributing 34.71% variance. Quality



road systems, quality park route signs and safety and security inside the park loaded in component 2 contributing 10.95% variance (Table 4). Cumulatively, the two-component solution explained a total variance of 45.66%. Four variables of ‘proximity of attraction sites’, ‘park entry fee’, ‘guiding fee’ and ‘cost of meals and/or accommodation’ did not load on the components and hence were discarded in the final model measurement.

Table 6: The result of EFA on wildlife destination satisfaction attributes

Attributes	Factor loading		Eigenvalue	Explained (%) Variance	Community
	Factor 1	Factor 2			
Factor 1			4.165	34.71	
Unique wildlife resources	0.707				0.761
Variety of wildlife resources	0.695				0.738
Abundance of wildlife resources	0.681				0.662
Park branding as bird sanctuary	0.813				0.651
Park branding as rhino sanctuary	0.701				0.496
Factor 2			1.314	10.95	
Quality of road systems		-0.877			0.855
Quality of park route signs		-0.758			0.572
Safety and security inside the park		-0.684			0.486
Total variance explained				45.66	

Note: Variable evaluation- 1= Very Dissatisfied and 5= Very Satisfied
 Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
 KMO (Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy) = 0.651
 Bartlett's test of sphericity: p<0.001
 Source: Authors

Structural model testing

The hypothesised model of the association among wildlife destination attributes evaluation, satisfaction and revisit intention was path analyzed. The model fit was first assessed by the likelihood ratio chi-square statistic. The overall model was statistically significant ($\chi^2=27.960$, $df = 6$, $p = <0.001$) with the model normed χ^2 (i.e. $\chi^2/d.f$) of 4.66. The model normed value is more than the common decision rule cut-off value of 3.0, indicating acceptable overall model fit (Min, 2012). Moreover, other indicators of goodness of fit (acceptably ≥ 0.90) are normal fit index (NFI) = 0.964, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.971, Tucker Lewis index (TLI) = 0.927, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.971, relative fit index (RFI) = 0.909, goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = 0.973 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.042 (acceptably ≤ 0.08), indicating the model had a good fit to the data as suggested by previous research studies (Hatcher, 1994; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Min 2012; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Um et al., 2006).

Table 7: Summary of model fit statistics

Fit statistics	Value (N = 298)	Acceptable value	Related literature
Likelihood ratio			
chi-square statistic χ^2/df	4.66	≥ 3	Byrne (1998); Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000); Hatcher (1994); Hu and Bentler (1999); Min (2012); Nunnally and Bernstein (1994); Schumacker and Lomax (2004); Um et al. (2006)
Normal fit index (NFI)	0.964	≥ 0.9	
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.971	≥ 0.9	
Tucker Lewis index (TLI)	0.927	≥ 0.9	
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.971	≥ 0.9	
Relative fit index (RFI)	0.909	≥ 0.9	



Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0.973	≥ 0.9
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.042	≤ 0.08

Source: Authors

To determine the relationships of each pair of the variable as suggested in the model, standardized path coefficient (Table 6) indicates positive association between wildlife resources and satisfaction (0.676, $p < 0.001$), followed by cost of attractions (0.306, $p < 0.001$), park image (0.274, $p < 0.001$) and park accessibility (0.110, $p < 0.001$). The relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention also showed a weak but positive correlation coefficient (0.137, $p = 0.017$).

Table 8: Standardized regression coefficient

Relation	Standardized coefficient	path	S.E.	C.R.	P - Value
Satisfaction <--- Wildlife resources	0.676		0.016	25.893	***
Satisfaction <--- Park accessibility	0.110		0.014	4.55	***
Satisfaction <--- Cost of attractions	0.306		0.017	13.703	***
Satisfaction <--- Park image	0.274		0.018	11.22	***
Revisit intention <--- Satisfaction	0.137		0.052	2.386	0.017

*** $p < 0.001$, $p = 0.05$

Source: Authors

Although the model was statistically significant and all the paths in the hypothesised model were found to be significant, satisfaction had less effect on revisit intention with only 2% of variance in revisit intention. Therefore, satisfaction was established not to be a good indicator for revisit intention. Wildlife resources, park accessibility, cost of attractions and park image dimensions were significant indicators of satisfaction, accounting for 86% of its variance (Figure 3). Wildlife resources dimension was the most influential antecedent of satisfaction in terms of magnitude of the standardized coefficient. The weakest correlation coefficient was between park accessibility and satisfaction (Figure 3).

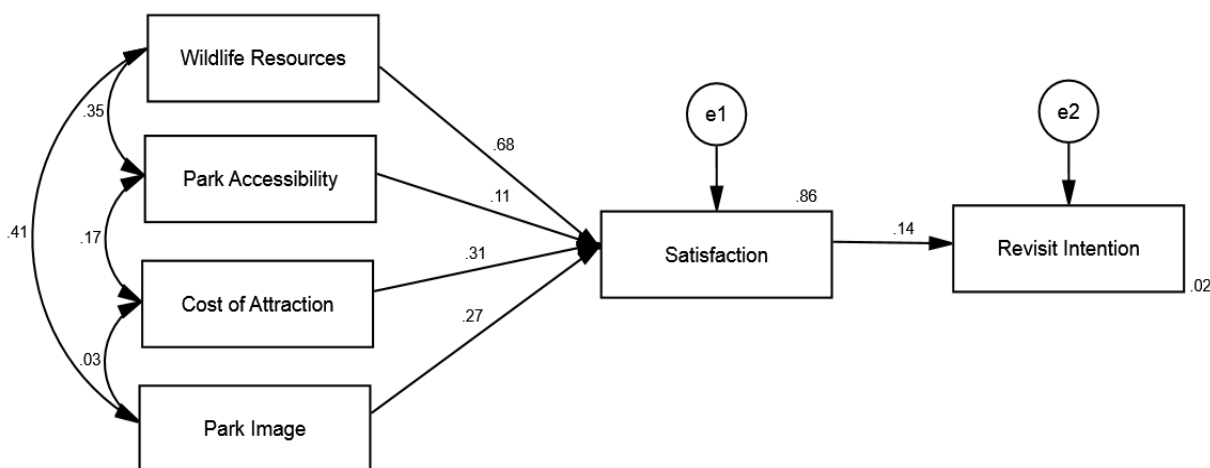


Figure 3: Results of the hypothesised model with standard regression estimates

Discussion

This study presents new insights into the association between wildlife tourism destination attribute, satisfaction and revisit intention from the tourist guides' perspective. Although several studies with some level of ambiguity in academic literature exist on the relationship



between visitors' satisfaction and destination loyalty with consistent need for further research (Bigné et al., 2001; Choo & Petrick, 2014; Hernández-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena, Sánchez-García, 2006; Oppermann, 2000; Williams & Soutar, 2009; Zhang, Wu & Buhalis, 2017)), the current study presents a new dimension in this area of research. A review of the extant literature indicates little to no focus on tourist guides as visitors as well as testing the model in a wildlife tourism destination. The empirical results provided reasonable support for the hypothesised model as supported by the data. Therefore, the study advances knowledge on the relationship between wildlife tourism destination attribute evaluation, satisfaction and revisit and the impacts of these constructs.

The wildlife resources factor in terms of uniqueness, variety, and abundance was the most significant antecedent in explaining satisfaction. Studies have shown that tourists have wide interest in wildlife-based tourism activities that attach value on uniqueness, abundance and variety (Curtin & Wilkes, 2005; Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005). Since tourist guides play very crucial and diagnostic roles on tourists' satisfaction with travel experience, they possibly must seek and get satisfied with national parks that provide variety, unique and abundant wildlife species to satisfy their visitors.

Tourist guides, as promoters of tourism packages, image and knowledge, also strive to present to their clients unique destinations in order to sustain their businesses and by extension that of tour operators through future visits or referral business. Studies have also established that destination's natural uniqueness is a potential 'pull' factor for visitors (Hu & Ritchie, 1993). Lake Nakuru National Park is regarded globally as a home to globally-threatened White rhino (*Ceratotherium simum*) and Black rhino (*Diceros bicornis*). The park is also branded as wetland of international importance with unique and a variety of bird species (Dharani et al., 2006; GoK, 2010). Therefore, the park presents the best opportunity for wildlife and ornithological safaris, making it a suitable destination in satisfying tourist guides' needs and aspirations.

The cost of attraction, park image, and accessibility also significantly influenced tourist guides' satisfaction level. Previous studies indicate that the cost of travel and price of services can exert a heavy influence on destination choice (Murphy, Pritchard & Smith 2000; Yuksel 2001). Furthermore, visitors gauge whether gained benefits are worth the time, money and effort invested, which further impacts on their level of satisfaction and revisit intention (Lee, Yoon & Lee 2007) or recommendation. Lake Nakuru National Park charges private tourist guides park entry fee of Kes 860 (US\$ 8.6) for Kenyan citizens. Community guides are charged Kes 1,000 (US\$ 10) for a maximum of four hours within the park until the year 2017 when entry charges for community guides was reviewed to an annual fee of Kes 6,000 (US\$ 60). Tourist guides are the main beneficiaries of the guiding fee they charge clients. This can be indirectly as salaries either for private guides or directly for community guides, making guiding fee a key antecedent for satisfaction.

In Kenya, accessibility to tourist attractions is crucial for development of tourism (Akama & Kieti, 2003). Accessibility can enhance experience with wildlife attractions as well as other activities within the park. Other studies have also established a growing demand for closer interactions with wildlife in their natural habitats (Rodger, Moore & Newsome, 2009) and especially animals that are unusual or endangered (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Rodger, Moore & Newsome 2007; Semeniuk, Haider, Cooper & Rothley, 2010). Therefore, LNNP, being home to the endangered Black and White rhinos, tree climbing lions and a variety of bird species, tourist guides could put more emphasis on close proximity to the attraction sites.

Moreover, accessibility of Lake Nakuru shores in terms of good road networks with well-designated signage is also of great value for ornithologists visiting the park.



Furthermore, park image was one of important factors in tourist guides' satisfaction. The results justify reputation as a major variable that influences choice for park visitation and that well-known areas tend to have higher demand (de Castro, Souza & Thapa, 2015). The park is marketed internationally as Kenya's first Ramsar Site and Bird and Rhino Sanctuary. It has also been designated as an Important Bird Area (GoK, 2010; Ndubi, Masiga, Irura, Mariita & Maragia, 2013; Onywere, Shisanya, Obando, Ramsar, 2015). Based on these international renowned brands, tourist guides could put more value on the already created international brand images. In addition, security within the park is also a key factor for tourist guides.

Tourist guides' satisfaction had a weak but positive effect on revisit intention. This finding concurs with Eusébio and Vieira (2013) and Hui et al. (2007) who established a weaker positive exploratory power of satisfaction on revisit intention among tourists. Other studies focusing on tourists also suggest a positive relationship between satisfaction and revisit intentions (Chi & Qu, 2008; Um et al., 2006). While it is more probable for satisfied guides to pass on positive word-of-mouth to other guides, visitors and tour operators about the destinations they visit, tourist guides sometimes have no control (especially on packaged tours) on revisit intention. Private driver guides are mainly hired and/or employed by tour operators to guide visitors based on a pre-determined itinerary, thus making it difficult to have an independent choice on re-visiting a destination.

Conclusion

The study aimed at establishing the association among wildlife tourism destination attributes, satisfaction and revisit intentions as perceived by tourist guides visiting LNNP, Kenya. While there is progressive extant literature on destination attributes, satisfaction, and loyalty among tourists, there was lack of evidence from the tourist guides' perspective and specific destinations related to wildlife tourism. The findings of this study provide empirical evidence that wildlife tourism destination attributes had a strong effect on satisfaction, while satisfaction had low but positive effect on destination revisit intention. In terms of the association between destination attributes and satisfaction with the LNNP, there was a strong positive relationship between wildlife resources and satisfaction. There also existed positive relationships between park accessibility, cost of attractions and park image with satisfaction as well as satisfaction and revisit intention. The model further demonstrates that satisfaction can be understood by evaluating destination attributes and can serve as a basis for assessing the performance of products and services at the destination. Satisfaction is also important because it influences perception towards future product purchases. It is therefore recommended that destination managers and marketers to sustainably maintain or improve park wildlife resources, quality of park infrastructure and park image. Specifically, for LNNP, the park managers should invest more on currently damaged infrastructure inside the park to improve park accessibility, progressively guard the current unique wildlife and bird species while maintaining or improving their variety and population. Further, recent ecological and hydrological challenges facing the park may adversely affect its future international image. For example, the park has been highly branded as home to Flamingos, which are currently diminishing due to hydrological changes. Therefore, destination marketers should develop alternative marketing strategies with more emphasis on available alternative bird species and key wildlife species.

The study had few limitations, which presents opportunities for future research. First, the research employed a mixture of a multi-item scale using Likert-type scale and dichotomous scale to provide more precision and application of sophisticated analysis techniques, a possible alternative application of dichotomous scale, which could be more convenient for tourist guides to answer, may be considered in future research. Second, the



study was limited to association of wildlife destination attributes evaluation, satisfaction, and re-visit intention. Further studies investigating the relationship between wildlife destination attributes, satisfaction, revisit intention and recommendation. Third, data was collected from one specific wildlife tourism destination; while LNNP remains one of the few premium Kenya's parks, the results may not be generalized to other national parks without caution. Therefore, the study recommends future studies that consider diverse national parks/reserves.

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