EFFECTIVENESS OF ADVERTISING IN THE PROMOTION OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN KENYA

 \mathbf{BY}

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DECLARATION

I declare that this is my original work and has not been su other university.	bmitted for a degree or diploma in an
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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wife Everlyn, my sons, Hezron and Eugene for the selfless support throughout the program. Without them, life could not be what it is.

To my mum, brothers and sisters whose patience and support they have shown me all through the study period.

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted with an objective of finding out the effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya. The main objective being to test the extend to which various advertising attributes influences different people to visit various places of tourism interest. This was based on the fact that different people get influenced by advertisements they see in the print, electronic, internet and outdoor places. Therefore the study was set out to find out if advertising had any influence on this behaviour.

To achieve this objective, primary data was collected from a sample of 100 respondents, out of whom all responded successfully leading to a response rate of 91% which was considered sufficient enough to achieve the intended objective. 100 respondents were picked randomly at Sarit Centre as that is where most of the affluent and high income earners shop. Data was collected by five data collectors on a face to face random sampling.

The data collected was analysed by use of descriptive statistics. These included tables, charts and percentages. Frequency tables were used to summarise the extent to which each advertising attribute influenced the effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya.

The study found out that majority of the respondents rated most of the advertising attributes as important in influencing them to start touring a given place of interest. Majority of the domestic tourists start touring at the age of between 19 - 24 years making up the primary market for domestic tourism.

Chapter five of the report discussed major issues as gathered from the research. Conclusions and suggestions for further research were also discussed. As recommendation, the Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya, should carry out more research on other factors influencing domestic tourism since advertising was found to play a major role in influencing the touring behaviour of domestic tourism.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The environment in which organizations operate is constantly changing with different factors influencing the organizations. The tourism industry is characterised by market fluctuations due to many factors namely economic, political and social environment in and out country of the bounds isn't left behind in this (Mudambi and Baum, 1997). There exists stiff inter-country competition for tourist from foreign countries with every country marketing itself as tourist destination has further exacerbated the market volatility. Owing to this unpredictability in tourism industry whereby foreign customers are not always a guarantee given both micro and macro-economic situation in and out of the country, tourism has reverted to diversifying their market by targeting their home country citizens. But the question is how to attract the home country citizens (Mudambi and Baum, 1997).

Tourism industry player have adopted the use of marketing strategies as a remedy to intercountry competition for foreign customers whereby advertisement targeting domestic tourist is the order of the day (Pearce and Robinson, 2007). The days when firms could simply wait for clients to beat a path to their door are long gone. Organizations must realize that their services and products, regardless of how good they are, simply do not sell themselves (Kotler, 2000).

In the 1990s tourism continues to represent one of the most important industries in the global economy and also in Kenya where it brings an estimate of Kshs 65.4 billion per annum. However, huge changes have to be made, namely because of several events, in order to restore consumer trust in travelling. Moreover, the "new" consumer, seeking new experiences more suitable to his individual needs, forces the tourist industry to develop its relationship with destinations and their heritage. The complexity of the demand, caused by high bargaining power and the number of opportunities and segments to serve, corresponds to a more specialized offer based on synergies among primary resources, infrastructures, firms, residents and tourists (Pearce and Robinson, 2007).

The increasing demand for new destinations exerts a constant pressure on development in order to satisfy the growth of this complex and pervasive industry. However, the price war competition of undifferentiated mass market operators is a threat to destination development and environmental planning; given that the exploitation of natural assets by mass tourism ruins the very thing the tourists seek (Poon, 1993). Thus, issues regarding tourism need a new framework based on a systemic approach, both in place governance and tourism marketing. Many factors, such as more experienced consumers, global economic restructuring and environmental limits to growth, require rapid change, especially in destination strategies (Pechlaner and Weiermair, 2000; Franch, 2002). The complexity of the tourist market, the supply type diversity and the evolution of tourist buying behaviour require competitive strategies in distribution and the search for constant differentiation.

Choices made by tourists are changeable, due to the economic conditions in their country of origin and perception of status associated with destination (Shaw and Williams, 1994). Therefore, from a sustainability point of view, tourism is expected to be part of a programme for integrated rural development and the market can only be sustainable if foreign tourist visitation is augmented by domestic tourism. If this is adhered to, there will be an increase in the quality of holidays for customers and in margins for operators.

For destination marketers, advertising perhaps is the most significant aspect as an image influences on travel behavior. Basic consumer behavior theory suggests that consumers make product choice decisions based on the advertised images they form of different brands (MacInnis and Price, 1987; Runyon, 1977). The consumer knows and identifies a certain brand by the image that exists in his or her mind (Runyon, 1977). Reynolds (1965) describes an image as a mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected advertised impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these selected impressions are elaborated, embellished, ordered and advertised.

The traveler creates an image by processing the promotional mix information about a destination from various sources (mix) over time. This information is organized into a mental construct that in some way is meaningful to the individual. Gunn (1972) suggests that destination images

fall on a continuum beginning with the organic image followed by the induced image and ending in the complex image. The stage of an individual's image depends on his or her experience with the destination as perceived from the promotional mix.

Curtis (2001) asserts that tourism is a strategic sector for development as it offers opportunities to be seized, while at the same time presents challenges to policy-makers in terms of adequate conception and implementation of tourism strategies. Firstly, development of the tourism sector is closely linked to the degree of socio-economic development of the country. It is no coincidence that the major economic players in East Africa are also the main host countries for tourists in the region. However, the situation is problematic, particularly due to the difficulty in attracting private investments in infrastructure sectors. The situation is even more problematic in comparative terms, in view of the fact that countries have produced more consistent results in terms of attracting investments to infrastructure, showing higher competitiveness potential in the medium and long-term.

Secondly, the revealed terrorism threat crises, impacts heavily in the growth rates for the sector. The impact is felt more strongly in Kenya since the country still has a strong dependency on tourism from the Americas and the Europeans. However, when compared with the superior performance of other African countries, Kenya faces strong competition, specifically from South Africa (Curtis, 2001).

Thirdly, research of the image of Kenya abroad highlights the existence of a negative perception about the social and economic conditions, as well as the lack of security, though this perception does not prevail for other countries. This image factor, associated with others such as the high cost of domestic transport and the inability to distinguish what makes Kenya different in relation to other English-speaking countries may have an influence on the competitive disadvantage of Kenya in relation to the countries (Curtis, 2001).

1.1.1 Promotion Mix Tools

The speed with which tourism is developing around the world obliges management of tourist destinations to continuously fine-tune their promotion mix and advertising strategies. The tourist firms should adopt a development policy that establishes priorities aimed at client-oriented strategies, garnering foreign markets, refining marketing strategies and strengthening partnerships. The aim of the promotion and marketing is to ensure maximum effectiveness of promotional activity in order to strengthen and enhance the tourism firms both in the domestic and as international tourist destination. It presents guidelines to direct the course of action of promotional activity initiated in years to come.

Effective advertising cannot guarantee success, but it certainly increases its chances. Advertising plays an important and limited role within the process of marketing. Good marketers see their business from the customer's viewpoint and organize their entire enterprise to develop relationships with the customer based on trust.

The promotional mix tools (through advertising, publicity, personal selling and sales promotions) the product's ability to satisfy the customer's needs. The promotional mix tools include; Media advertising, Public relations, Personal selling, Sales promotion, Price discounting, Distribution channels, Familiarization trips, Exhibitions and shows, Sales literature, Merchandising and point-of-sale displays, Direct mail and Sponsorship/special events. The advertising strategies in the tourism sector includes; Television, press, radio, billboards and the Internet; tourist board travel related guides, books and brochures that sell advertising space.

One of the most basic desires of a company is to provide information about a product to potential consumers. Tools available to an organization for informing potential consumers about a product include billboards, flyers, Internet Web sites, magazines, newspapers, radio spots, and television commercials. Normally a variety of these promotional tools are used to communicate a single, coordinated message to potential consumers. These different promotional tools can provide potential consumers with an array of information about a product, such as features, quality, and/or price. The informational focus depends on the makeup of the target audience that the

company is trying to reach with its message.

Another goal of promotional activities in a business is to create product demand. A company has several promotional options for fostering product demand. For example, a company may focus on using a primary demand strategy that concentrates on trying to increase demand for a general product or service line. Large companies or cooperatives that have well-known and large product lines normally use the primary demand strategy. Advertisements for these companies carry over to all product categories and, as a result, may improve sales in several product areas. Companies also use another marketing strategy, known as selective demand, which concentrates on promoting a specific brand within a company's product line. Selective demand is often used to help promote a new product so that consumers are aware of the new addition to a large company's product line. A company may also utilize a selective demand strategy when it wants to sell a product that has a high profit margin. A good example of this strategy is the active promotion of sport utility vehicles by major automobile companies.

1.1.2 Overview of Kenya Tourism Industry

Kenya lies a long the East coast of Africa covering an area of 586,350 Sq.km. with an estimated population of 38 million. Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy. Kenya is in the process of establishing a firm industrial base with import substitution and processing industries having been firmly established. The country aims at joining the newly industrialized nations status by the year 2020. Tourism is currently the second largest contributor to the economy after agriculture.

Tourism in Kenya dates back to pre-independence days and history has it recorded that as early as the 1930's, overseas visitors and explorers had started coming to Kenya mainly for big-game hunting expeditions while others came in search of solitude. These expeditions were locally referred to by the Swahili word "Safari" thus bequeathing to the travel world literature with a new vocabulary. Among the early visitors were Statesmen, Royalties and celebrities such as Theodore Roosevelt, Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II, and Ernest Hemingway respectively (Wahome, 1993)

At that time, there was already a relatively well developed but limited tourism infrastructure. The available accommodation was spartan but ideal for both the visitors as well as the settler community in Kenya. However soon after independence, the Kenya Government realized the enormous potential of the nascent tourism industry and hence undertook to upgrade the existing infrastructure and superstructure as well as investing in additional facilities. To achieve its goal, the Government encouraged local and foreign entrepreneurs to invest in the tourism and hospitality industries thus paving the way for the future development of the sector (Makawiti,2005)

Tourism in Kenya is mainly based on natural attractions which include wildlife in its natural habitats as well as idyllic beaches. Approximately 10% of the country has been set aside for conservation of wildlife and biodiversity. Game viewing is a very popular pursuit since most visitors to Kenya are predominantly interested in seeing "the big five" namely the Elephant, Rhino, Lion, Buffalo, and the Leopard, not to mention other lesser and unique game the Africa's savanna and forests. A Safari is such a popular product that has enabled the country to continue recording remarkable growth in the volume of visitors. Kenya registered well over 1,000,000 visitors' arrivals in 1997 while the bed capacity rose to over 73,000 beds in classified hotels. The sector is a major employer as it currently employs approximately over 219,000. This figure represents about 11% of the total workforce in the country.

Tourism has been a major social phenomenon from time immemorial. Motivated by the natural urge of every human being for new experiences, adventure, education and entertainment, these also include social, cultural and business interests.

1.1.3 Domestic Tourism

Kenya's tourism is bouncing back after falling on hard times last year. Industry players are optimistic, despite the global downturn, that the sector will reclaim its position as a top earner. Marketers of Kenya's tourism have their work cut out for them in 2009; last year the sector witnessed its worst performance in four years following the post-election violence that scared off visitors, causing the once-thriving industry to fall on hard times.

The industry is bouncing back, with the country slowly managing to rehabilitate its image as a travel destination. But now it's a double whammy with the bearish run expected to continue on the effects of the global financial crisis.

The Kenya Tourist Board (KTB) estimates for tourist arrivals between January and October 2008 dropped by 34.7%, from 873,000 to 565,000 due to the unrest that jolted the country in the first quarter, and a weakened global economy. Current data from the Kenya Bureau of Statistics shows the tourism sector declined 34.7% over most of last year.

But to dismiss this sector's importance, and indeed its potential, would be ill advised. Kenya is now stable and international tourism is turning around, thanks to the fact that the country has always been one of the most popular destinations in Africa, drawing 2 million international arrivals in 2007.

Kenya's domestic tourism marketing is becoming very aggressive. From playing golf with the children or friends to hot air ballooning over the Maasai-Mara and dining outdoors in a five-star hotel — this is some of the fun that awaits the domestic tourist as he or she appreciates nature, says the Kenya Tourism Board.

But while the campaign paints the picture of a perfect holiday, there is a spoilsport for many Kenyans, the cost. It is so high that it would perhaps force one to take a hefty bank loan or put many plans on hold.

Much as one would like to take some time off and relax with one's loved ones, only the rich

would consider visiting the scenic Maasai-Mara or the sandy beaches of the coast, yet the KTB marketers say they want as many Kenyans as possible to go on holiday.

The Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya (DTCK), a public-private sectors initiative that was launched late last year to build a domestic foundation for the tourism business and reduce its exposure to foreign visitors, has just launched the "Tembea Kenya" initiative.

KTB, which markets the country both locally and abroad, has also launched its own "Magical Kenya" campaign. The aim of the campaigns is to make it possible for many Kenyans to afford at least a holiday a year at any of the many attractions, but this does not seem to be happening.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Kenya's tourist product is well geared for domestic tourism, yet encouraging this vital sector can be a challenge without proper marketing skill. To date, the attention given to tourism by economists belies its economic significance. This is particularly true for the specialists in development economics considering the potential role of tourism as a driving force for economic development of poor countries. Nevertheless, there has been some important work in estimating the determinants of demand for tourism (Paraskevopoulos, 1977). These demands can be categorized as affect local or in foreign tourism market hence there is a need to diversify market risk in the tourism sector owing to the market volatility. In a literature survey, Crouch (1994) found out how advertisement could be used to grow the domestic tourism sector.

Nice places to live and work are usually also nice places to visit. We ignore at our peril the fact that citizens from near and far, but within the country's boundaries, can help fuel the virtuous circle of demand, provision and investment, as much, if at times, not more than the foreign visitors themselves. Domestic tourism's wider social and economic roles, particularly as a tool in regeneration, have now become more apparent to Government at all levels. Consequently, national, regional and local government are far more willing to invest into the core product and the necessary tourism support infrastructure that help ensure that we all gain the maximum advantages from a booming domestic tourism market and the associated healthy local visitor

economy surrounding it.

Domestic tourism is one of the most vibrant expressions of Kenya heritage. It is the single unifying force, which helps in achieving understanding between various linguistic, religious and communal groups living in different parts of the country. In the contemporary Kenya, the phenomenon of domestic tourism with its vibrant and changing dimensions can be expected to make an even greater contribution toward strengthening the fabric of the unity of Kenya but only if it is properly marketed to reach greater part of the population (Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya, 2005).

According to Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya 2005 Annual Report, Domestic Tourism has become a significant form of tourism in Kenya where it is found that it can cushion off the tourism industry during low periods of international tourist arrivals. With the aggressive promotion of the domestic sector, local tourism business is expected to increase significantly as Kenyans disposable income gradually increases. Various studies have been done on tourism without a single one on tourism advertising (Muya, G.M. 2007). Maore, (2005) in his study on the influence of advertising in the adoption of smoking in Nairobi, found that advertising is still demanding in influencing customers. Domestic tourist does not however, just come about without proper advertising strategies are laid down to reach, persuade and convince them on why they need to spend their money on tourism. This study investigates the effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were:

- i. To determine the effectiveness of advertising as adopted by Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya in the promotion of domestic tourism
- ii. To establish the challenges faced by Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya in promoting domestic tourism.

1.4 Importance of the Study

This study will be important to the various players in the tourism industry including the management of domestic tourism, the government, researchers as well as the small business owners in the tourism industry in Kenya.

The management of Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya will be able to identify the best promotional practices to adopt in order to enhance domestic tourism in Kenya. The managers will be able to know the promotion mix elements that play a bigger role in attracting more tourists and how to implement them in order to remain competitive.

The government will be able to assess the level and the importance of promotional practices that need to be employed so as to sell the country as a stable nation. The government will also be able to ascertain the extent of importance of these promotional mix elements and conform to the guidelines provided for the industry by the government.

The small businessmen who sell their wares to tourists will also find the study useful as they will be able identify the importance of advertising in order to promote their businesses.

The study will also be of value to researchers as a basis for further research in the area of domestic tourism. The students and academicians will use this study as a basis for discussions on

the topic of effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Promotion Mix Elements

Marketing managers use different components of the promotional mix as tools for achieving

company objectives—advertising, personal selling, public relations, and sales promotion. Each

of these elements can be further divided into additional subcomponents or strategies. The

majority of a company's promotional resources are usually spent on these four elements for a

simple reason: Companies perceive these methods as the most effective means to promote their

products. Other specialized promotional techniques, however, are also used to enhance

promotional objectives (Kotler and Armstrong, 1993).

2.1.1 Advertising

Advertising is a non-personal form of promotion that is delivered through selected media outlets

that, under most circumstances, require the marketer to pay for message placement. Advertising

has long been viewed as a method of mass promotion in that a single message can reach a large

number of people. But, this mass promotion approach presents problems since many exposed to

an advertising message may not be within the marketer's target market, and thus, may be an

inefficient use of promotional funds. However, this is changing as new advertising technologies

and the emergence of new media outlets offer more options for targeted advertising.

Advertising also has a history of being considered a one-way form of marketing communication

where the message receiver (i.e., target market) is not in position to immediately respond to the

message (e.g., seek more information). This too is changing. For example, in the next few years

technologies will be readily available to enable a television viewer to click a button to request

more details on a product seen on their favorite TV program. In fact, it is expected that over the

next 10-20 years advertising will move away from a one-way communication model and become

one that is highly interactive.

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Another characteristic that may change as advertising evolves is the view that advertising does not stimulate immediate demand for the product advertised. That is, customers cannot quickly purchase a product they see advertised. But as more media outlets allow customers to interact with the messages being delivered the ability of advertising to quickly stimulate demand will improve.

Advertising is often thought of as the paid, nonpersonal communication used in the promotion of a cause, idea, product, or service by an identified sponsor. The various advertising delivery methods include banners at sporting events, billboards, Internet Web sites, logos on clothing, magazines, newspapers, radio spots, and television commercials. Among the common forms of advertising are advocacy, comparative, cooperative, informational, institutional, persuasive, product, reminder, point-of-purchase, and specialty (Boone and Kurtz, 1992).

The purpose of advertising is to inform or persuade a targeted audience to purchase a product or service, visit a location, or adopt an idea. Advertising is also classified as to its intended purpose. The purpose of product advertising is to secure the purchase of the product by consumers. The purpose of institutional advertising is to promote the image or philosophy of a company. Advertising can be further divided into six subcategories: pioneering, competitive, comparative, advocacy, reminder, and cooperative advertising. Pioneering advertising aims to develop primary demand for the product or product category. Competitive advertising seeks to develop demand for a specific product or service. Comparative advertising seeks to contrast one product or service with another. Advocacy advertising is an organizational approach designed to support socially responsible activities, causes, or messages such as helping feed the homeless. Reminder advertising seeks to keep a product or company name in the mind of consumers by its repetitive nature. Cooperative advertising occurs when wholesalers and retailers work with product manufacturers to produce a single advertising campaign and share the costs. Advantages of advertising include the ability to reach a large group or audience at a relatively low cost per individual contacted. Further, advertising allows organizations to control the message, which means the message can be adapted to either a mass or a specific target audience. Disadvantages of advertising include difficulty in measuring results and the inability to close sales because there

is no personal contact between the organization and consumers.

2.1.2 Personal Selling

Personal selling is a promotional method in which one party (e.g., salesperson) uses skills and techniques for building personal relationships with another party (e.g., those involved in a purchase decision) that results in both parties obtaining value. In most cases the "value" for the salesperson is realized through the financial rewards of the sale while the customer's "value" is realized from the benefits obtained by consuming the product. However, getting a customer to purchase a product is not always the objective of personal selling. For instance, selling may be used for the purpose of simply delivering information.

Personal selling involves an interpersonal influence and information-exchange process. There are seven general steps in the personal selling process: prospecting and qualifying, pre-approach, approach, presentation and demonstration, handling objections, closing, and follow-up. Personal selling does provide a measurement of effectiveness because a more immediate response is received by the salesperson from the customer. Another advantage of personal selling is that salespeople can shape the information presented to fit the needs of the customer. Disadvantages are the high cost per contact and dependence on the ability of the salesperson.

Personal selling is considered one of the most effective promotional techniques because it facilitates interaction between consumer and seller. With personal selling, a salesperson can listen to and determine a consumer's needs by asking questions and receiving feedback from the consumer. Furthermore, personal selling activities can generate long-lasting friendships between consumers and sellers that typically generate many repeat purchases. Personal selling can also occur by means of interactive computers, telephone conferences, and interactive videoconferencing. A drawback of personal selling, however, is its high cost. Examples of products promoted through personal selling include automobiles, life insurance, real estate, and many industrial products (Churchill and Peter, 1995).

Because selling involves personal contact, this promotional method often occurs through face-to-

face meetings or via a telephone conversation, though newer technologies allow contact to take place over the Internet including using video conferencing or text messaging (e.g., online chat).

Among marketing jobs, more are employed in sales positions than any other marketing-related occupation. In the U.S. alone, the U.S. Department of Labor estimates that over 14 million or about 11% of the overall labor force are directly involved in selling and sales-related positions. Worldwide this figure may be closer to 100 million. Yet these figures vastly under-estimate the number of people who are actively engaged in some aspect of selling as part of their normal job responsibilities. While millions of people can easily be seen as holding sales jobs, the promotional techniques used in selling are also part of the day-to-day activities of many who are usually not directly associated with selling. For instance, top corporate executives whose job title is CEO are continually selling their company to major customers, stock investors, government officials and many other stakeholders. The techniques they employ to gain benefits for their company are the same used by the front-line salesperson to sell to a small customer. Consequently, our discussion of the promotional value of personal selling has implications beyond marketing and sales departments.

Personal selling is the most practical promotional option for reaching customers who are not easily reached through other methods. The best example is in selling to the business market where, compared to the consumer market, advertising, public relations and sales promotions are often not well received.

2.1.3 Public Relations

Public relations has been described as building goodwill with a company's various publics, including consumers, employees, government officials, stockholders, and suppliers. The overall goal of any public relations effort is to project a positive company image when dealing with such issues as community and government relations, employment practices, and environmental issues.

Public relations efforts are extremely important for maintaining a company's consumer base. Consumers must believe that they are buying from a caring, honest, and trustworthy company. Negative media stories about, for example, exploiting workers or producing substandard products can do enormous damage to a company in the eyes of consumers. Erosion of a company's client base is likely to result in both lost sales and lost market share.

The most valuable asset a company has is its employees. Therefore, it is essential that employees believe in their company. Public relations communications are extremely important in ensuring that employees receive information about the company before outside media receive and report the information. A good example of providing superior public relations would be to inform company employees that a small reduction in the work force is required but that a full severance package will be provided for laid-off employees. Although this news is not positive, the employees are hearing about it first from the company and are also aware that they will be receiving assistance from the company. If employees read or see negative reports about the employer without a credible public relations explanations, they may find other work or reduce their productivity because of low morale.

Maintaining a positive public image is also important because government agencies and offices (e.g., Federal Trade Commission, Federal Communication Commission) monitor the media and have regulatory oversight over company activities. Positive stories in the media obviously help promote a positive image to government regulators, which reduces the chance of being investigated and possibly fined. The opposite is also true: Stories about client complaints or other dishonest practices or potentially illegal actions will draw the government's attention and probably some sort of investigation—something that no company wants. An investigation can drag on for months, even years, providing even more negative publicity. Even if the government regulators find no wrongdoing, the public is still likely to be skeptical because the company was investigated. Therefore, every company must make its best effort to answer any questions that regulators have regarding negative media stories or consumer complaints. A strong, well-organized public relations department will ward off potential trouble by being honest, friendly, positive, and helpful to government regulators and members of the news media.

Another key interest group for any company that offers publicly traded securities is the stockholders. If company stockholders generally receive positive news about a

company, they are more likely to maintain investment, which helps keep the stock price up. Negative news that is not countered with positive public relations can create uncertainty about how the company is running and encourage stockholders to sell and to invest in other companies. This action can cause the stock value to decrease, making it difficult to attract new investors.

Positive public relations are essential for a company's relation with its suppliers. Suppliers are most concerned about being paid for the product they are selling to a company. Since most suppliers are generally not paid until ten to twenty days after delivery of their product, they must have faith in the ability of a company to pay its bills. Any negative news regarding a company's financial position in the absence of a full and complete explanation from the public relations department may result in a damaged reputation with suppliers. Suppliers could stop shipping their products or demand that payment is made at the time of delivery. Neither option is appealing to a company, and both could cause critical delays in getting its products to market (Farese, Kimbrell, and Woloszyk 1991).

2.1.4 Sales Promotion

Sales promotion describes promotional methods using special short-term techniques to persuade members of a target market to respond or undertake certain activity. As a reward, marketers offer something of value to those responding generally in the form of lower cost of ownership for a purchased product (e.g., lower purchase price, money back) or the inclusion of additional value-added material (e.g., something more for the same price).

Sales promotions are often confused with advertising. For instance, a television advertisement mentioning a contest awarding winners with a free trip to a Caribbean island may give the contest the appearance of advertising. While the delivery of the marketer's message through television media is certainly labeled as advertising, what is contained in the message, namely the contest, is considered a sales promotion. The factors that distinguish between the two promotional approaches are:

First, the promotion involves a short-term value proposition for example the contest is only

offered for a limited period of time and the customer must perform some activity in order to be eligible to receive the value proposition for example customer must enter contest.

The inclusion of a timing constraint and an activity requirement are hallmarks of sales promotion.

Sales promotions are used by a wide range of organizations in both the consumer and business markets, though the frequency and spending levels are much greater for consumer products marketers. One estimate by the Promotion Marketing Association suggests that in the US alone spending on sales promotion exceeds that of advertising.

Sales promotion is used to build product awareness. Several sales promotion techniques are highly effective in exposing customers to products for the first time and can serve as key promotional components in the early stages of new product introduction. Additionally, as part of the effort to build product awareness, several sales promotion techniques possess the added advantage of capturing customer information at the time of exposure to the promotion. In this way sales promotion can act as an effective customer information gathering tool (i.e., sales lead generation), which can then be used as part of follow-up marketing efforts.

Sales promotion is used to create interest. Marketers find that sales promotions are very effective in creating interest in a product. In fact, creating interest is often considered the most important use of sales promotion. In the retail industry an appealing sales promotions can significantly increase customer traffic to retail outlets. Internet marketers can use similar approaches to bolster the number of website visitors. Another important way to create interest is to move customers to experience a product. Several sales promotion techniques offer the opportunity for customers to try products for free or at low cost.

Sales promotion is used to provide information. Generally sales promotion techniques are designed to move customers to some action and are rarely simply informational in nature. However, some sales promotions do offer customers access to product information. For instance, a promotion may allow customers to try a fee-based online service for free for several days. This

free access may include receiving product information via email.

Sales promotion is used to stimulate demand. Next to building initial product awareness, the most important use of sales promotion is to build demand by convincing customers to make a purchase. Special promotions, especially those that lower the cost of ownership to the customer (e.g., price reduction), can be employed to stimulate sales.

Sales promotion is also used to reinforce the brand. Once customers have made a purchase sales promotion can be used to both encourage additional purchasing and also as a reward for purchase loyalty (see loyalty programs below). Many companies, including airlines and retail stores, reward good or "preferred" customers with special promotions, such as email "special deals" and surprise price reductions at the cash register.

2.2 Marketing of Service

When it comes to marketing a service, it can at times be more challenging than marketing a product. You are not selling something that is tangible; you are in fact selling the invisible. When selling a service the customer experience is extremely important to closing the deal and marketing effectively. The experience has an impact on the perceived value of the service.

Services also tend to have the reputation built on one person. The people involved in selling and performing the service have the ability to make or break a company's reputation. It's harder to do damage control for service companies, which means you must always be on your game and your reputation must remained untarnished and pristine. Consumers often find it more difficult to compare service vendors. They cannot touch or feel the product; rather they have to trust that the service will be performed as promised. How can you help your consumers compare you to other vendors?

A service cannot be returned. If a service is purchased, but does not live up to the consumers expectation they cannot return it for a new product. This costs the consumer time and as individuals, time has more value than money.

Marketing a Service Company

Keep in mind that in traditional marketing we have the 4 Ps. When it comes to service marketing we add three more. Traditional marketing components include Product, Price, Place and Promotion. When it comes to marketing services, three more components are added to consider. They include:

All people either involved directly or indirectly of the consumption of a service is important. People can add a significant value to a service offering. People sell the service and either make or break the marketing of the services you offer. It's time to take a look at the "face" of your service and evaluate.

The way that service is delivered needs to be communicated and followed through. You are creating an intangible experience so communication and documentation is the only physical evidence you have to share with your consumer. Make sure you are doing enough of it.

Procedure and flow of activities of how services are consumed is an essential element to your strategy in marketing a service. Everything must run smoothly to keep the trust of your consumer.

By developing the 4 Ps of marketing and enhancing them with the three mentioned above you can successfully market your service even though you are selling the invisible.

2.3 Tourism Destination Image

A tourist destination's image is one of the most important strategic tools for creating and sustaining tourist destinations, yet images relating to tourist perceptions of regions and countries have been taken somewhat for granted in tourism marketing. A strong tourist destination image means perceived superior customer value that positively influences buying behaviour and consequently enhances marketing effectiveness.

2.3.1 Image Formation and Destination Choice

For destination marketers, perhaps the most significant aspect of an image is its influence on travel behavior. Basic consumer behavior theory suggests that consumers make product choice decisions based on the images they form of different brands (MacInnis and Price, 1987; Runyon, 1977). The consumer knows and identifies a certain brand by the image that exists in his or her mind (Runyon, 1977). Reynolds (1965) describes an image as a mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these selected impressions are elaborated, embellished and ordered.

The traveler creates an image by processing information about a destination from various sources over time. This information is organized into a mental construct that in some way is meaningful to the individual. Gunn (1972) suggests that destination images fall on a continuum beginning with the organic image followed by the induced image and ending in the complex image. The stage of an individual's image depends on his or her experience with the destination.

2.3.2 Organic Image

According to Gunn (1972), the organic image arises from a long history of non-tourism specific information, such as history and geography books, newspaper reports, magazine articles, and television reports that were not intended as tourism-specific. Thus, individuals who have never visited a destination nor have sought out any tourism-specific information will likely have some kind of information stored in their memory. At this point there might be an incomplete image, to which the traveler adds other bits and pieces. The induced image is derived from a conscious effort of tourism promotion directed by tourism organizations. While the organic image is beyond the control of the destination area, the induced image is directed by the destination's marketing efforts. It depends upon colorful brochures distributed at Visitor Information Centers, information available in travel agencies, travel articles in magazines, TV advertisements, and many other activities a tourism organization might choose to promote the destination. The complex image is a result of an actual visitation and incorporates the experience at the

destination. Because of this direct experience with the destination, the image tends to be more complex and differentiated (Chon, 1991; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). For instance, Baloglu and McCleary (1999), in their analysis of images held by the US pleasure travel market of various Mediterranean tourist destinations, found significant differences between visitors and non-visitors. While non-visitors perceived Turkey, Italy, and Greece as equally appealing, visitors found Greece less appealing when compared with Turkey and Italy.

2.3.3 Resulting Images

In any stage, the resulting image will be less a function of the information itself but of an individual's perception of that information. Therefore, the image rather than the product itself determines the consideration of that brand in the consumer's choice process. Runyon (1977) points out that the degree to which the brand is accepted or rejected is governed by the strength and nature of the brand image. Once a consumer decides to travel, he or she expects a rewarding experience from the trip. The traveler's anticipations are derived from the image the traveler has of the destination (Gartner, 1989). The image represents the destination in the traveler's mind and gives him or her a pre-taste of that destination (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991); it determines the traveler's consideration of a given area as a vacation destination. Then, once the destination is in the evoked set, its image is modified by further information and evaluated against the images of alternative destinations. The destination with the most favorable image connotes the greatest level of need satisfaction to the traveler. And, therefore, the more favorable the image of a destination, the greater the likelihood of choice (Goodrich, 1978).

2.4 Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs)

Pike, (2004) asserts that very little published branding research provides pragmatic guides for destination marketing organisations (DMOs). The destination branding literature only surfaced relatively recently, with the first academic conference session convened in 1996, the first journal articles appearing in the late 1990s, and the first book published in 2002. The lack of literature seems incongruent with suggestions that the future of marketing will be a battle of brands, and that destinations are arguably the travel industry's biggest brands. With travellers spoilt by choice

of available destinations, never before has it been more important for a destination to develop an effective brand. Alas, to do so is also more difficult than ever before.

In common with branding other goods and services, a place name by itself is not sufficient differentiation. In most cases a place name, such as Hamilton or Popocateptl, does not provide an explicit association with the position sought by the DMO in travel markets. On rare occasions, a place name has been changed to increase appeal to travellers, such as in the case of Elston, which was changed to Surfers Paradise in the 1930s. More recent exceptions include an island in the Caribbean renamed CuervoNation by the well-known tequila brand, and another changed from Hog Island to Paradise Island to appeal to cruise lines (Henderson, 2000).

For the majority of destinations, however, a slogan is a necessary public articulation of a destination's brand positioning strategy. Places are becoming increasingly substitutable and difficult to differentiate, and a slogan provides the link between the brand identity aspired to by DMOs and the actual brand image held in the market. There have been many criticisms of destination slogans over the years, best summed up in Gold and Ward's (1994) suggestion that they fail to achieve anything other than ephemeral indifference. In other words, the slogans are unlikely to meaningfully differentiate the destinations over time. Branding destinations is more complex and challenging than other goods and services, for at least six reasons.

First, and arguably most significant, destinations are far more multidimensional than consumer goods and other types of services. To be effective, positioning theory suggests that reaching the minds of busy consumers requires a succinct message focusing on one or a few brand associations. Nowhere is this challenge better highlighted than in the development of a slogan that encapsulates a destination's diverse and often eclectic range of natural resources, built attractions, culture, activities, amenities and accommodation. This is often reflected in slogans that appear to attempt to cover everything, such as "Kenya – creation's most beautiful destinations, all in one country" and "Ohio – so much to discover". In other cases the difficulty appears to manifest in slogans such as "Greece – beyond words". Rarely does a destination achieve a focused slogan such as "Arizona – Grand Canyon state" or "Snowy Mountains –

Australia's high country".

Second, the market interests of the diverse group of active stakeholders are heterogeneous. Counter to a market orientation where products are designed to suit market needs, DMOs are forced into targeting a multiplicity of geographic markets to attract a wide range of segments for their range of products, most of which are rigid in what they can be used for. Is one slogan, such as "Idaho – great potatoes, tasty destinations" and "Slovenia – the grown place of Europe" likely to be meaningful to all market segments? (Henderson, 2000).

Third, the politics of decision making can render the best of theory irrelevant. The issues of who decides the brand theme, and how they are held accountable, are critical. Reliant on government funding, DMOs are evolving into public-private partnerships, and the topic of who should be appointed board members makes for interesting debate. There is often mistrust that tourism businesses represented on tourism boards have unfair influence. In this regard the author witnessed one domineering attraction manager influence an RTO board to change the destination brand of five years, for no other reason than he had personally grown tired of it. This decision was made in spite of research indicating the existing theme was starting to gain traction in the destination's most valuable market (Henderson, 2000). At another political level, some DMOs, such as Louisiana and Valencia, have been legislated to change advertising agencies on a regular basis, subjecting brand message consistency to regular modification. Other destination brand campaigns have been derailed by influential intermediaries, as happened in the case of Morocco, when European tour wholesalers forced the cancellation of a new brand that did not fit their offerings.

Fourth, there is a fine balance to be struck between community consensus and brand theory because a top down approach to destination brand implementation is likely to fail. Critically, DMOs lack any direct control over the actual delivery of the brand promise by the local tourism community. Without buy-in from these stakeholders the strategy will flail. This occurred in the case of "Oregon – things look different here" (Curtis, 2001), where regional tourism organisations initially resisted a brand strategy imposed by the state tourism organisation. The host population also interact with visitors and, particularly in resort communities, should

therefore feel that the destination brand represents their sense of place too. However, Henderson's (2000) survey found evidence to suggest the "New Asia – Singapore" brand did not match the experiences of local residents. Thus, while consumer-based brand equity is of more practical to DMOs than a balance sheet destination brand value, there is also a case for the concept of community based brand equity to enter the marketing vernacular.

Fifth, brand loyalty, one of the cornerstones of consumer-based brand equity models, can be operationalised to some extent by measuring repeat visitation through a DMO's visitor monitor programme. Staying in touch with previous visitors is a powerful but untapped means of enhancing the destination brand, but DMOs have no access to the hundreds of thousands of visitors' contact details left at accommodation registration desks. How then can a DMO practically stimulate loyalty by engaging in dialogue with so many customers, in a meaningful way, as espoused in customer relationship management theory?

Sixth, funding is often a continuous problem for DMOs, in both scale and consistency. Even the largest DMO budgets pale in comparison to those of the major corporate brands, with which they compete for discretionary consumer spend. Since DMOs have no direct financial stake in visitor expenditure, they must continually lobby for public and private funding. A successful brand campaign leading to increased yields for local businesses does not translate into increased revenue for the DMO. Indeed the reverse situation has occurred at destinations where funding has been pulled by the government, such as in Colorado for example (Henderson, 2000).

As noted by Jevons (2005) "the bottom line question that is often unasked is whether our understanding of what brands are, and what branding does, much clearer as a result of all the research that has been published... ".Certainly, from the perspective of destination brand slogans, it is not. Almost every destination uses a slogan, an indication they are considered important, and yet published research remains almost non-existent.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This research utilized a case study design. This was narrowed down to a specific unit thus the Sarit Centre case study so as for it to be comprehensive enough to give representative information for similar units operating in the same environment. The use of the case study in the research also had the advantage of being the easiest research free from material bias and enabled one to study intensively on a particular unit.

3.2 Data Collection

The source of data used in this study is primary data which was obtained using questionnaires with a Likert Scale as the main part of the questionnaire, in order to measure the extent to which advertising is effective in the promotion of domestic tourism. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. Part A serves to collect demographic data, and part B and C is consisting of likert type of questions testing the extent to which advertising influences the promotion of domestic tourism. Semi-structured questionnaires were administered to 100 shoppers at Sarit Centre picked randomly on a Saturday. The shoppers were picked randomly so as to give each shopper an equal chance of being picked. The data was collected from respondents who frequent Sarit Centre because they are the ones who have disposable income. Majority of the shoppers who shop at Sarit Centre fall in class A and B with an average income of Kshs 50, 000 and above, who are either actual or potential targets of domestic tourism. Both open-ended and closed-ended questions was used to obtain qualitative and quantitative data respectively. The researcher recruited four assistants who received a brief training before the process. The interviews were face to face to avoid errors.

The research was conducted on a busy Saturday between 10.00am and 6.00pm. This is because of the shopping behaviour at Sarit Centre where shopping is mostly done on Saturdays.

3.3 Data Analysis and Presentation

Qualitative data was analyzed using qualitative analysis while SPSS was used to analyze the quantitative data. Qualitative data analysis seeks to make general statements on how categories or themes of data are related (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The qualitative analysis was done using content analysis. Content analysis is the systematic qualitative description of the composition of the objects or materials of the study. Quantitative analysis was done using descriptive statistics such as mean scores and standard deviations. The results were presented using tables, graphs and charts for ease of understanding.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretations of the data from the field. From a study of a targeted population of 100 respondents, 94 respondents filled the questionnaires comprising 94% response rate.

4.2 Part A: General Information

Table 1: Respondent's Highest Level of Education

	Frequency	Percent
Primary	5	5.3
Secondary	26	27.7
College	32	34.0
University	28	29.8
No formal education	3	3.2
Total	94	100.0

The findings in Table 1 show the respondents level of education. From the study, the majority of respondents as shown by 34% had a college level of education, 29.8% had a university level of education, 27.7% had a secondary school level of education, 5.3% had a primary level of education, while 3.2% of the respondents reported that they had no formal education. This information is also shown in the Figure 1.

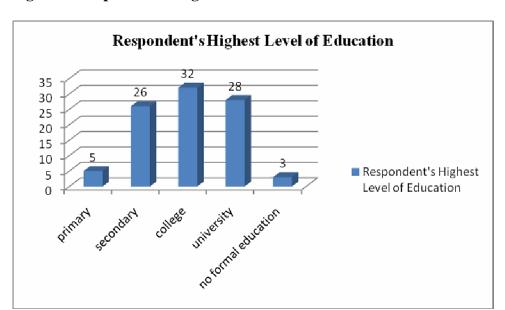


Figure 1: Respondent's Highest Level of Education

Occupation

On the respondents occupation, the study found that the majority of respondents were marketers, others were business people e.g. shopkeepers, drivers, food production, painters, mechanics, teachers, sales people and gardeners.

Table 2: Age Bracket

	Frequency	Percent
below 18 years	1	1.1
19-24 years	32	34.0
25-29 years	23	24.5
30-34 years	15	16.0
35-39 years	18	19.1
above 40 years	5	5.3
Total	94	100.0

The study also sought to establish the respondents age bracket. According to the findings, most of the respondents were 19-24 years as indicated by 34%, 24.5% of the respondents reported that they were 25-29 years, 19.1% of the respondents were 25-39 years, 16% were 30-34 years, 5.3% of the respondents were above 40 years, while a small proportion of respondents as shown by 1.1% were below 18 years.

Figure 2: Age Bracket

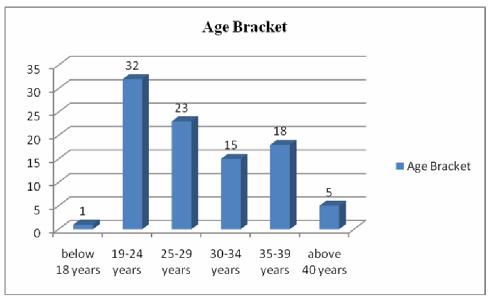


Table 3: Respondents Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	66	70.2
Female	28	29.8
Total	94	100.0

On the respondents' gender, the study found that the majority of the respondents (70.2%)

were males, while females were shown by 29.8% of the respondents.

Figure 3: Gender of the Respondents

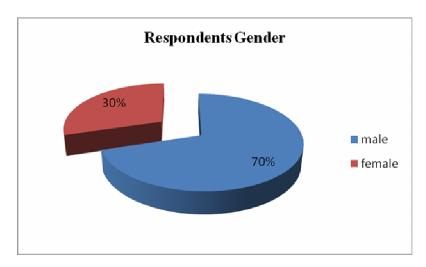


Table 4: Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent
Single	40	42.6
Married	54	57.4
Total	94	100.0

The findings in Table 4 show the marital status of the respondents. According to the study, the majority of the respondents were married as shown by 57.4%, while 42.6% of the respondents were single.

Figure 4: Marital Status

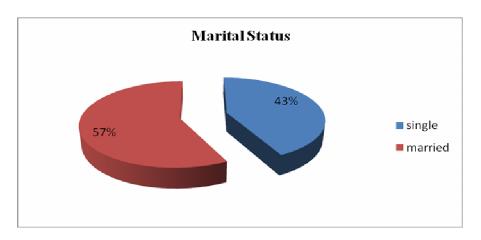


Table 5: Respondents Favourite Tourist Destinations

	Favourite destination	Not favourite
Maasai Mara	28.7	71.3
Amboseli	12.8	87.2
North Coast	12.8	87.2
South Coast	17.0	87.0
Tsavo	12.8	87.2
Nairobi National Park	9.6	90.4
North Rift	2.1	97.9
Mt. Kenya	2.1	97.9
Western Kenya	3.2	96.8
Nyanza	3.2	96.8
Nakuru	6.4	93.6
Naivasha	4.3	95.7

The respondents were also requested to indicate their favourite tourism destinations. The respondents gave varying destinations where 28% of the respondents said that their favourite tourism destination was Maasai Mara, 17% said South coast, the respondents who said that their favourite tourism destination was Amboseli, North Coast and Tsavo were shown by 12.8% in each, 9.6% said Nairobi national park, 6.4% said Nakuru, 4.3% said Naivasha, the respondents who said Nyanza and those who said Western Kenya were shown by 3.2%, while the respondents who said that their favourite tourism destinations were North rift and Mt. Kenya were shown by 2.1% of the respondents.

Table 6: Whether Advertisement Has Led To the Increase in Tourists Numbers in Kenya

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	89	94.7
No	5	5.3
Total	94	100.0

The study also sought to establish whether advertisement led to the increase in tourists' numbers in Kenya. According to the study, most of the respondents (94.7%) said that advertisements led to the increase in tourists numbers in Kenya, while a small proportion of respondents as shown by 5.3% disagreed with this.

Figure 5: Whether Advertisement Has Led To the Increase in Tourists Numbers in Kenya

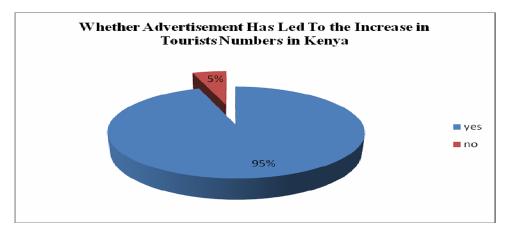


Table 7: The Age of the Respondent When They Started Touring

	Frequency	Percent
less than 5 years	7	7.4
6-10 years	19	20.2
11-15 years	14	14.9
16-20 years	19	20.2
21-25 years	29	30.9
26 years and above	6	6.4
Total	94	100.0

The respondents were also asked to state their ages when they started touring. According to the study, most of the respondents said that they started touring when they were 21-25 years old, the respondents who started touring when they were 6-10 years, and those who started touring when they were 16-20 years were shown by 20.2% in each, 14.9% of the respondents started touring when they were 11-15 years, 7.4% started when they were less than 5 years, while 6.4% of the respondents started touring when they were 26 years and above. This information shows that most people start touring when they are between the ages 6-25 years.

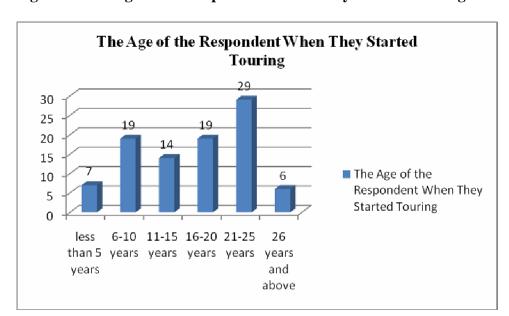


Figure 6: The Age of the Respondent When They Started Touring

4.3 Part B: Advertisement Aspects that Influence the Decisions to Start Touring

Table 8: Advertisement Factors That Influenced the Respondents in Their Decisions to Start Touring

The statements in Table 8 concerns domestic tourism advertisements. On a scale of 1-5, the respondents were requested to indicate the extent that they felt each of them influenced them in their decisions to start touring. The researcher used mean score to interpret the findings for easier interpretations.

	Very important	important	indifferent	Less important	Not important at all	Mean
the benefit outlined in the ad	41.5	35.1	11.7	10.6	1.1	4.1
the humour in the ad	24.5	42.5	8.5	9.6	14.9	3.5
creativity of the ad	33.3	25.5	23.4	10.6	7.4	3.7

whether the ad stand out from						
those of competitors	25.5	23.4	21.3	13.8	16.0	3.3
whether the ad depicts a certain lifestyle	30.9	37.2	12.8	9.6	9.6	3.7
whether the ad depicts technical expertise	27.7	31.9	20.2	8.5	11.7	3.6
the persuasiveness of the ad to consume a service	27.7	35.1	23.4	8.5	5.3	3.7
whether the ad depicts a scientific evidence	13.8	24.5	27.7	16.0	18.1	3.0
how long the ad has been there	17.0	35.1	20.2	14.9	12.8	3.3
consistency of the ad slogan with what you believe in or like	25.5	36.2	18.1	13.8	6.4	3.6
whether the ad depicts testimonial evidence	28.7	31.9	14.9	17.0	7.4	3.6
the personality used in endorsing the ad	34.0	37.2	12.8	11.7	4.3	3.9
the feelings the ad evokes in you	39.0	31.9	20.2	7.4	1.1	4.0
the program in which the ad appears (incase of TV and Radio)	34.0	30.9	17.0	7.4	10.6	3.7
how often the ad is availed (frequency)	31.9	35.1	12.8	8.5	11.7	3.7
the timing of the message	29.8	13.8	20.2	26.6	9.6	3.3
the mood during the time the ad is displayed	21.3	28.7	16.0	24.5	9.6	3.3
the language used	34.0	26.6	18.1	12.8	8.5	3.6
the ease to recall the ad	40.4	21.3	16.0	13.8	8.5	3.7

According to the findings, the factors that were important in the advertisements that enhanced the majority of the respondents to start touring were the benefit outlined in the ad as shown by a mean score of 4.1, the feelings the ad evokes in the as indicated by a score of 4.0, the personality used in endorsing the ad shown by a mean score of 3.9, how often the ad was availed (frequency), the program in which the ad appears (in case of TV and Radio), the persuasiveness of the ad to consume a service, whether the ad depicts a certain lifestyle, and creativity of the ad as shown by a mean score of 3.7 in each case, whether the ad depicts technical expertise, consistency of the ad slogan with what you believe in or like, whether the ad depicts testimonial evidence and the language used as shown by a mean score of 3.6 and the humour in the ad as indicated by a score of 3.5.

Further, the advertisement statements that were rated as moderate by most of the respondents in influencing their decisions to start touring were the mood during the time the ad is displayed, the timing of the message, how long the ad has been there, whether the ad stand out from those of competitors as shown by a score of 3.3 and also whether the ad depicts a scientific evidence as shown by a score of 3.0.

4.4 Part C: Promotion Mix Tools That Influence Continued Loyalty to the Destinations Chosen

Table 9: Respondents Feelings on How Domestic Tourism Advertisements Influences Their Continued Loyalty to the Destinations Chosen

The statements in Table 9 concerns domestic tourism adverts. Using a response scale of 1-5, the respondents were requested to indicate the extent that they felt each of them influenced their continued loyalty to the destinations chosen. Mean score were used to interpret the data.

Promotion mix tools		Very great extent	Great extent	Moderate extent	Less extent	Not at all	Mean
Advertising	print	43.6	30.9	13.8	7.4	4.3	4.0
	electronic	47.9	25.5	22.3	2.1	2.1	4.1
	outdoor	36.2	18.1	23.4	6.4	16	3.5
Sales promotion	price cuts	66	11.7	12.8	2.1	7.4	4.3
	brochures	26.6	45.7	17	7.4	3.2	3.9
	special deals	29.8	21.3	28.7	4.3	16	3.4
Publicity	CSR	27.7	37.2	7.4	9.6	18.1	3.5
	print	30.9	28.7	21.3	14.9	4.3	3.7
	electronic	39.4	27.7	13.8	12.8	6.4	3.8
Personal selling	structured selling	30.4	44.7	18.1	2.1	4.3	4.0
	cold calling	24.5	23.4	22.3	7.4	22.3	3.2
	telephone calls	27.7	31.9	16	10.6	13.8	3.5

On advertisements, the statements that influenced the respondents continued loyalty to a great extent were electronic as indicated by a score of 4.1, print shown by a score of 4.0 and outdoor as shown by a mean score of 3.5.

On sales promotion the statements that influenced the respondents continued loyalty were price cuts as shown by a mean score of 4.3 and brochures as shown by a mean score of 3.9. Special deals influenced the respondents continued loyalty to a moderate extent as shown by a mean score of 3.4.

On publicity the statements that influenced the respondents continued loyalty to their chosen destinations were electronic as shown by a mean score of 3.8, print as shown by a mean score of 3.7 and CSR as shown by a mean score of 3.5.

On personal selling the statements that influenced the respondents continued loyalty were structured selling as shown by a mean score of 4.0 and telephone as shown by a mean score of 3.5. Cold calling influenced the respondents continued loyalty to their chosen destinations to a moderate extent as shown by a mean score of 3.2.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONS CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Discussions

This chapter presents the discussions, conclusions and recommendations of the study based on the objectives of the study.

From the study, the researcher found that most of the respondents had a college level of education. The respondents occupations included were marketers, they were business people e.g. shopkeepers, drivers, food production, painters, mechanics, teachers, sales people and gardeners. The study also established that most of the respondents were aged between 19-39 years old. Most of the respondents were males and the majority of them were married. On the respondents' favourite destinations, the respondents gave differing destinations which included Maasai Mara, South coast, Amboseli, North Coast, Tsavo, Nairobi national park, Nakuru, 4 Naivasha, Nyanza, Western Kenya, North rift and Mt. Kenya. From the study, the researcher found that advertising led to the increase in tourists numbers in Kenya. Most of the respondents also indicated that they started touring when they were between the ages of 6-25 years old.

The study also established that the advertisement factors that were important in influencing the respondents decision to start touring were the benefit outlined in the ad, the feelings the ad evokes in the ad, the personality used in endorsing the ad, how often the ad was availed (frequency), the program in which the ad appears (in case of TV and Radio), the persuasiveness of the ad to consume a service, whether the ad depicts a certain lifestyle, creativity of the ad, whether the ad depicts technical expertise, consistency of the ad slogan with what you believe in or like, whether the ad depicts testimonial evidence and the language used as shown by a mean score of 3.6 and the humour in the advertisement.

The study also found that the advertisement tools that influenced the respondents continued loyalty to their chosen destinations were print, electronic and outdoor. The sales promotion mix tools were price cuts and brochures, the publicity tools were CSR, print and electronic, while the promotional selling promotion mix tools that influenced the respondents continued loyalty to

their chosen destinations were structured selling and telephone.

5.2 Conclusions

From the findings, the study concludes that advertisement is an effective means of increasing the numbers in domestic tourism.

The study also concludes that the domestic tourism advertisements aspects that influences the domestic tourists in their decisions to start touring are the benefit outlined in the ad, the feelings the ad evokes in the ad, the personality used in endorsing the ad, how often the ad was availed (frequency), the program in which the ad appears (in case of TV and Radio), the persuasiveness of the ad to consume a service, whether the ad depicts a certain lifestyle, creativity of the ad, whether the ad depicts technical expertise, consistency of the ad slogan with what you believe in or like, whether the ad depicts testimonial evidence and the language used as shown by a mean score of 3.6 and the humour in the advertisement.

The study also concludes that the domestic tourism advertisements that influences the domestic tourists continued loyalty to the destinations they choose are print, electronic outdoor, price cuts, CSR, structured selling and telephone.

5.3 Recommendations

The study therefore recommends that to make advertisement effective in order to increase the numbers of domestic tourists, the advertisements should include the benefits of the domestic tourism, the advertisement should be availed more frequently, the advertisements should be availed in the most popular programs either in the TV or radio, the advertisement should be able to persuade as many people as possible, it should be creative and also the advertisement should be brought in a language that most people will be able to understand.

The study also recommends that in order to increase the loyalty of domestic tourists to the destinations they choose, the promotional mix tools that should be used are such as print,

electronic, outdoor advertisement, price cuts, brochures, CSR, telephone and structured selling.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

This study was confined to finding out the effectiveness of advertising in the promotion of domestic tourism. The research findings indicated that advertisements lead to increased interests in places of tourism experience. However, due to lack of time and resources, the researcher could not be able to analyse other factors that affect the promotion of domestic tourism. Therefore, further studies need to be done to unravel the other factors that promote domestic tourism. This will assist the Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya to come up with sound strategies towards the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya.

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APPENDIX

Appendix I: Questionnaire

I am carrying out a research on effectiveness of advertising on the promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya. You have been chosen as one of the respondents. Please help answer all the following questions.

101	iowing que	stions.						
<u>PA</u>	ART A:							
1. What is your highest level of education?								
	(i)	Primary		()				
	(ii)	Secondary		()				
	(iii)	College		()				
	(iv)	University		()				
	(v)	No formal education		()				
		our occupation?						
3.	Please tic	k the age bracket in wl	hich you	ı fall				
	(i)	Below 18 years	()	(iv) 30-34 years	()			
	(ii)	19-24 years	()	(v) 35-39 years	()			
	(iii)	25-29 years	()	(vi) Above 40 years	()			
4.	What is y	our gender?						

I	Male	()	Fema	le	()				
5. I	Please in	ndicate your m	arital sta	tus					
	(i)	Single	()	ii)	Married		()		
6. W	hich is	your favorite	tourism c	lestir	nation?				
	(i)	Maasai Mar	·a		()			
	(ii)	Amboseli			()			
	(iii)	North Coas	t		()			
	(iv)	South Coas	st		()			
	(v)	Tsavo			()			
	(vi)	Nairobi Nat	ional Pa	rk	()			
	(vii)	North Rift			()			
	(viii)	Mt. Kenya			()			
	(ix)	Western Ke	nya		()			
	(x)	Nyanza			()			
	(xi)	Nakuru			()			
	(xii)	Naivasha			()			
	(xiii)	Other (Pleas	se specif	y)					
7.	Has ad	lvertising led t	to the inc	rease	e in touri	st nu	mbers	in Ken	ya?
	Yes	()	No	()				

8. How old were you when you started touring?												
	(i)	Less than	5 yrs		()						
	(ii)	6 to 10 yrs	8		()						
	(iii)	11 to 15 y	rs		()						
	(iv)	16 to 20 y	rs		()						
	(v)	21 to 25 y	rs		()						
	(vi)	26 yrs and	l above		()						
PART	<u>B:</u>											
the mos	st impo	ortant an 1	not impo	ortant at	all, ple	ism adverts. On a ease indicate by the start touring.						_
5-V	Very im	portant			2-Les	s important						
4-I	mporta	nt			1-Not	important at all						
3-I	ndiffer	ent										
							5	4	3	2	1	
1)	The l	oenefit outl	lined in the	he ad.			()	()	()	()	()	
2)	The l	numor in th	ne ad.				()	()	()	()	()	
3)	Crea	tivity	of	the	ad.			()	()	()	()	()

4)	Whether the ad stand out from those of competitors	()	()	()	()	()
5)	Whether the ad depicts a certain lifestyle	()	()	()	()	()
6)	Whether the ad depicts technical expertise	()	()	()	()	()
7)	The persuasiveness of the ad to						
	consume a service	()	()	()	()	()
8)	Whether the ad depicts a scientific evidence	()	()	()	()	()
9)	How long the ad has been there	()	()	()	()	()
10)	Consistency of the ad slogan with what						
	you believe in or like	()	()	()	()	()
11)	Whether the ad depicts testimonial evidence	()	()	()	()	()
12)	The personality used in endorsing the ad	()	()	()	()	()
13)	The feelings the ad evokes in you	()	()	()	()	()
14)	The program in which the ad						
	appears (incase of TV and Radio)	()	()	()	()	()
15)	How often the ad is availed (Frequency)	()	()	()	()	()
16)	The timing of the message	()	()	()	()	()
17)	The mood during the time the ad is played	()	()	()	()	()
18)	The language used	()	()	()	()	()
19)	The ease to recall the advert	()	()	()	()	()

PART C:

The statements below concerns domestic tourism adverts. On a scale of 5-1, with 5 indicating very great extent and 1 not at all, please indicate by ticking, to what extent you feel each of them influences your continued **loyalty** to the destination you choose

5-very great extent 2-less extent

4-great extent 1-Not at all

3-moderate extent

Promotion mix tools		Very Great Extent	Great Extent	Moder ate Extent	Less Extent	Not at All
advertising	Print					
	Electronic					
	outdoor					
Sales promotion	Price cuts					
	Brochures					
	Special deals					
Publicity	CSR					
	Print					
	Electronic					
Personal Structured selling selling						

Cold calling			
Telephone calls			

Thank you for your Co-operation

Appendix II: Letter of introduction



UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

MBA PROGRAM - LOWER KABETE CAMPUS

Telephone: 020-2059162 Telegrams: "Varsity", Nairobi Telex: 22095 Varsity

P.O. Box 30197 Nairobi, Kenya

DATE 1 09 2009

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The bearer of this letter .	ROBERT	BOSIRE	NTAGAKA
	0 01 -	1	

Registration No: D611P18204103

is a Master of Business Administration (MBA) student of the University of Nairobi.

He/she is required to submit as part of his/her coursework assessment a research project report on a management problem. We would like the students to do their projects on real problems affecting firms in Kenya. We would, therefore, appreciate if you assist him/her by allowing him/her to collect data in your organization for the research.

The results of the report will be used solely for academic purposes and a copy of the same will be availed to the interviewed organizations on request.

Thank you.

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI SCHOOL OF BUSINESS MBA OFFICE P. O. Box 30197

NAIROBI

DR. W.N. IRAKI CO-ORDINATOR, MBA PROGRAM