



**A TYPOLOGY OF GAY LEISURE TRAVELLERS: AN AFRICAN
PERSPECTIVE**

by

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ABSTRACT

Over the last two decades, academic literature, various market research studies, and media reports have widely contributed to the belief that the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) market, and more specifically the gay male sub-segment, display favourable characteristics for the tourism industry. As recently as 2017, gay travel was regarded as one of the fastest-growing markets in the international travel industry. It is thus clear that the importance of this market, whether accurate or not, has been well documented over the years and is well known by the tourism industry; however, despite an increasing trend where tourism destinations promote themselves as 'gay friendly' in an attempt to attract gay (homosexual) travellers, a segment of the LGBT travel market, these travellers are perceived to be a homogeneous market segment or a niche market as a result of the assumption that gay men and women lead similar lifestyles and because they are homosexual, indicating that sexual orientation is used as the principal distinguishing characteristic of this population. This assumption is problematic and rather simplistic as it conceals many other important variables, and may hinder effective destination marketing. In order to correctly harness the existing potential within this segment, there is a need to overcome the challenge of correctly understanding and adapting the tourism offering to the preferences and needs of gay travellers; hence this research aimed to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers, by segmenting gay travellers into homogeneous sub-segments in an attempt to contribute to the gap in literature regarding this market's heterogeneity.

A web-based electronic survey was completed by 506 gay travellers, and attribute-based benefit segmentation was carried out by applying a hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's procedure with Euclidean distances. The typology is based on the push and pull framework; the motivations of travellers were assessed both in terms of their socio-psychological motivations and destination attributes of Cape Town. A number of conclusions can be drawn from the suggested typology of gay leisure travellers. First, the typology suggests four unique gay travel sub-segments ranging from *Passive Relaxers* on the one end to *Wildlife Explorers, Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* and *Gay-Centric Travellers* on the extreme end, which empirically proves that gay travellers are not homogeneous as there are sub-segments of gay travellers with different consumer behaviours. Therefore, these sub-segments may be referred to as niches as individuals

within these sub-groups are homogeneous in certain characteristics. Second, there are two sub-segments in which travellers' behaviour is not influenced by their sexuality, while the sexuality of travellers in the two other sub-segments influences their travel behaviour to varying degrees. Third, there is evidence that the gay traveller is integrating with other larger mainstream market segments and that the literature on gay travel may soon find itself outdated as fewer gay individuals, as the typology shows, base their travel decisions solely on gay-related issues, possibly owing to an increasing societal acceptance of homosexuality and the insignificance of a 'gay identity' to many of the post-modern gay generation. Fourth, the typology shows that only a distinct sub-segment, the *Gay-Centric Traveller*, can be described as a gay tourist and that not all gay travellers or activities by these travellers can be labelled as gay tourism. Fifth, the typology may serve as a framework for relating the destination attributes (pull motivations), to the important push motivations that influence tourist decision making and travel behaviour, and is therefore useful to the destination in developing product and promotional strategies. Consequently, the identified sub-segments, each with its own set of motivations, could help the destination refine its target-marketing strategies and may assist in understanding the different opportunities each sub-segment presents.

Key words: gay travel, gay friendly, LGBT, market segment, motivation, attribute-based benefit segmentation, homogeneous, heterogeneous, cluster analysis, typology, travel behaviour.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration		ii
Abstract		iii
Acknowledgements		v
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT		
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Problem statement	3
1.3	Research aim and objectives	5
1.3.1	Research aim	5
1.3.2	Research objectives	5
1.4	Research questions	6
1.5	Research methodology	6
1.5.1	Literature review	6
1.5.2	Empirical survey	7
1.5.2.1	Research design	7
1.5.2.2	The questionnaire survey	8
1.5.2.2.1	Target population and sampling	9
1.5.2.2.2	Survey administration – self completion web-based sample survey	10
1.5.2.2.3	Data analysis	11
1.6	Significance of the research	12
1.7	Ethical considerations	13
1.8	Structure of the study	14
1.9	Glossary of abbreviations and terms used	17
1.9.1	Abbreviations	17
1.9.2	Terms	18
CHAPTER 2: THE LEGALISTIC HISTORY OF THE GAY MOVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA		
2.1	Introduction	24
2.2	Sexuality and the gay liberation struggle: the road to acceptance and recognition in South Africa	24
2.2.1	The Forest Town raid	27
2.2.2	Proposed amendments to the Immorality Act of 1957	27
2.2.3	The Homosexual Law Reform Fund of 1968	28
2.2.4	First gay organisations of South Africa	29
2.2.5	The origins of the ‘gay rights clause’	30
2.2.6	The liberal Constitution of 1996	35
2.2.7	Tolerant laws versus a conservative society	37
2.3	Alone in Africa: the case of Cape Town’s gay village	40
2.3.1	Cape Town’s De Waterkant: from slum to gay mecca	41
2.3.2	De Waterkant: the ‘de-gaying’ of Africa’s ‘gaybourhood’	46
2.4	Summary	55

CHAPTER 3: THE GAY MARKET SEGMENT(S) – HOMOSEXUAL NOT HOMOGENEOUS

3.1	Introduction	58
3.2	The gay market segment(s)	58
3.2.1	Overview of market segmentation	60
3.2.1.1	Segmentation requirements/criteria	63
3.2.1.2	Evaluating the gay market segment against segmentation criteria	64
3.2.2	Perceptions/observations of the LGBT market and the gay segment(s)	70
3.2.2.1	Community Marketing Inc. studies	74
3.2.2.2	Out Now Global studies	76
3.2.2.3	Witeck Communications Inc. studies	78
3.2.2.4	The Gay European Tourism Association study	80
3.3	The development of South Africa's 'gay capital'	83
3.3.1	Trouble in paradise: opposition to Cape Town's gay image	92
3.4	Summary	96

CHAPTER 4: GAY TRAVELLERS' HOLIDAY MOTIVATIONS

4.1	Introduction	100
4.2	An introduction to tourism destinations	101
4.3	'Gay-friendly' destination marketing	103
4.3.1	Negative effects (disadvantages) of marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly'	104
4.3.2	Positive effects (advantages) of marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly'	105
4.4	Popular gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations	108
4.4.1	Academic research findings	108
4.4.1.1	Clift and Forrest's (1999) study	108
4.4.1.2	Hughes's (2002) study	109
4.4.1.3	Lück's (2005) study	110
4.4.2	Market research findings	111
4.4.2.1	Community Marketing Inc. studies	111
4.4.2.2	Out Now Global studies	112
4.4.3	Other studies	113
4.5	'Gay-unfriendly' destinations	117
4.6	Travel motivations: understanding tourist behaviour through theories and typologies	121
4.6.1	General travel motivation theories	121
4.6.1.1	Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943)	122
4.6.1.2	Dann's Push-Pull Theory (1977)	124
4.6.1.3	Crompton's (1979) conceptual framework of the role and relationships of motivation	125
4.6.1.4	Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (1982)	127
4.6.1.5	Pearce's Travel Career Ladder (1988)	129
4.6.2	General tourist typologies	131
4.6.3	Factors influencing gay travellers' holiday motivations	141
4.6.4	Push motivations of the gay traveller	148

4.6.4.1	Escaping heteronormativity	148
4.6.4.2	Constructing and validating 'gay identity' through travel	149
4.6.4.3	Pursuing sex/romance	151
4.6.5	Popular pull motivations (destination attributes) attracting gay travellers	154
4.6.5.1	'Gay friendliness' as a popular pull attribute	154
4.6.5.2	Gay marriage and civil partnerships as a popular pull attribute	156
4.6.5.3	Gay events/festivals as a popular pull attribute	156
4.6.5.4	'Gay space'/infrastructure as a popular pull attribute	160
4.7	Possible attractive attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for gay travellers	163
4.7.1	Location and climate	163
4.7.2	Variety of mainstream tourist attractions	163
4.7.3	Established 'gay space'/infrastructure	164
4.7.4	Cosmopolitan reputation	164
4.7.5	Uniquely African	165
4.7.6	Progressive democracy, 'gay friendliness' and tolerance	165
4.7.7	Favourable exchange rate	166
4.7.8	Gay wedding and honeymoon destination	166
4.7.9	National and international gay events/festivals	167
4.7.10	Strong local gay population	167
4.8	Possible factors leading to non-visits by gay travellers to Cape Town	168
4.8.1	Insufficient marketing of Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination	168
4.8.2	Port restrictions	168
4.8.3	Limited entertainment	169
4.8.4	Occasional discrimination	169
4.8.5	High crime rate	169
4.8.6	Long-haul destination	170
4.9	Summary	171

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1	Introduction	174
5.2	Research design	174
5.3	Data collection	176
5.3.1	Secondary data: the literature review	176
5.3.2	Primary data	178
5.3.2.1	Questionnaire design	179
5.3.2.2	Validity and reliability of the research instrument (questionnaire)	182
5.3.2.2.1	Pilot study	182
5.3.2.3	Target population and sampling	184
5.3.2.4	Sample size	187
5.3.2.5	Questionnaire administration	189
5.3.2.5.1	Self-administered web-based electronic questionnaire	191
5.4	Data analysis	194
5.4.1	Data preparation	194
5.4.2	Selection of data analysis technique(s)	195
5.4.2.1	Factor-cluster segmentation	196
5.4.2.2	Conducting cluster analysis	199

5.5	Ethical considerations	205
5.6	Summary	206

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1	Introduction	207
6.2	Travel motivations	208
6.2.1	Push motivations	208
6.2.1.1	Physiological needs category	209
6.2.1.2	Knowledge needs category	212
6.2.1.3	Self-actualisation needs category	212
6.2.1.4	Belonging needs category	213
6.2.1.5	Personal needs category	214
6.2.1.6	Esteem needs category	215
6.2.2	Pull motivations	215
6.2.2.1	Culture and sights attributes	217
6.2.2.2	Comfort and relaxation attributes	219
6.2.2.3	Gay-related attributes	222
6.3	Traveller profile and holiday-related information	227
6.3.1	Respondent origin	229
6.3.2	Gender of respondents	231
6.3.3	Age	231
6.3.4	Level of education	232
6.3.5	Occupation	233
6.3.6	Sexual identity	233
6.3.7	Relationship status	234
6.3.8	Family planning	235
6.3.9	Classification of home environment	236
6.3.10	Openness of sexuality in home environment	236
6.3.11	Average monthly income	237
6.3.12	Travel companion	238
6.3.13	Number of visits to Cape Town	240
6.3.14	Duration of visits	240
6.3.15	Accommodation types used during visit	241
6.3.16	Holiday type	241
6.3.17	Booking method	241
6.3.18	Time spent on holiday planning	242
6.3.19	Revisit and recommendation intention	242
6.3.20	Spending patterns	244
6.4	Travel patterns	245
6.4.1	International destinations to be visited over the next three years	246
6.4.2	Avoidance of destinations owing to sexuality	249
6.4.3	Frequencies of international leisure travel	252
6.5	Market segmentation of the gay leisure traveller	253
6.5.1	Identification, interpretation and profiling of the segmented clusters	254
6.5.1.1	Cluster 1 – Passive Relaxers	258
6.5.1.2	Cluster 2 – Wildlife Explorers	259
6.5.1.3	Cluster 3 – Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies	259
6.5.1.4	Cluster 4 – Gay-Centric Travellers	260

6.5.2	Conclusions from the cluster analysis	264
6.6	Summary	267

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1	Introduction	270
7.2	Summary of the research	270
7.3	Conclusions	274
7.3.1	Conclusions with regard to the literature review	274
7.3.2	Conclusions with regard to the empirical survey	275
7.3.2.1	Conclusions with regard to gay traveller motivations	275
7.3.2.2	Conclusions with regard to gay traveller profile and holiday-related information	278
7.3.2.3	Conclusions with regard to gay travel patterns	284
7.3.2.4	Conclusions with regard to attribute-based market segmentation	285
7.4	Contribution of this research	285
7.4.1	A typology of gay leisure travellers: an African perspective	287
7.5	Limitations of this research	290
7.6	Recommendations	291
7.6.1	Recommendations for destination marketing	291
7.6.2	Recommendations for future research	294
7.7	Concluding remarks	295

REFERENCES		296
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LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1:	35 Loader Street	42
Figure 2.2:	An example of a trendy new development in De Waterkant	45
Figure 2.3:	An example of a new mainstream accommodation establishment in De Waterkant	49
Figure 2.4:	Café Manhattan	50
Figure 2.5:	The entrance to the Cape Quarter Retail Centre	51
Figure 2.6:	An example of a mixed-use development below Somerset Road	52
Figure 3.1:	Rainbow flags outside Crew Bar in De Waterkant	67
Figure 3.2:	CTT's current promotional material to attract gay travellers to the MCQP	91
Figure 4.1:	A conceptualisation of the role and relationships of motivation	126
Figure 4.2:	Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation	128
Figure 4.3:	Pearce's Travel Career Ladder	130
Figure 4.4:	Cohen's (1972) typology of tourists	132
Figure 4.5:	Psychographic personality types	134
Figure 4.6:	Push and pull factors related to gay tourism	143
Figure 4.7:	Typology of gay men's holidays	144
Figure 4.8:	Gay-Identity Travel Motivation Model	147
Figure 6.1:	Frequencies of international leisure travel	252
Figure 7.1:	A typology of gay leisure travellers: an African perspective	287

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1:	Legal victories as a result of the liberal Constitution of 199636	
Table 3.1:	Bases (variables) for segmenting consumer markets	61
Table 3.2:	Lifestyle factors	62
Table 3.3:	Estimated size of European LGBT population	81
Table 3.4:	Estimated annual expenditure on tourism by LGBT European population	82
Table 4.1:	Six A's framework of tourism destinations	102
Table 4.2:	Countries in which same-sex sexual acts are illegal	118
Table 4.3:	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	123
Table 4.4:	Needs and tourism motives	124
Table 4.5:	Previous empirical research investigating push and pull factors	138
Table 5.1:	Previous studies implementing non-probability sampling techniques	188
Table 5.2:	Usual sample sizes used in marketing research studies	188
Table 5.3:	Different modes of survey administration	190
Table 6.1:	Push factors' mean scores ($n = 506$)	209
Table 6.2:	Push factors grouped into categories ($n = 506$ in %)	210
Table 6.3:	Pull factors' mean scores ($n = 506$)	216
Table 6.4:	Pull factors grouped into categories ($n = 506$ in %)	217
Table 6.5:	Traveller profile ($n = 506$ in %)	228
Table 6.6:	Average disposable monthly income in rands ($n = 453$)	238
Table 6.7:	Holiday-related information ($n = 506$ in %)	239
Table 6.8:	Average spending per person per category per visit in rands ($n = 494$)	245
Table 6.9:	'Gay-friendly' urban destinations to be visited over the next three years	247
Table 6.10:	'Gay-friendly' beach destinations to be visited over the next three years	248
Table 6.11:	'Gay-friendly' island destinations to be visited over the next three years	248
Table 6.12:	Destinations avoided related to sexuality	250
Table 6.13:	The four clusters ($n = 469$)	254
Table 6.14:	Results of ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons for pull factors in the four clusters of gay leisure travellers	255
Table 6.15:	Cross-tabulations and chi-squared test results of clusters compared with push factor variables	256
Table 6.16:	Cross-tabulations and chi-squared test results of clusters compared with socio-demographic and travel behaviour variables	257
Table 6.17:	ANOVA test results of clusters compared with income and spending patterns	257
Table 6.18:	Cross-tabulations of clusters to 'gay-friendly' destinations travelled to in the last 5 years (2012 – 2016)	263
ANNEXURES		342
Annexure A:	Web-based electronic survey	342
Annexure B:	Ethical clearance certificate	349
Annexure C:	Exchange rates	350
Annexure D:	Language editing certificate	351

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction

The tourism industry has grown at such an accelerated pace that it is now one of the highest priority industries in the world, contributes 10.2% to the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and creates 292 million jobs – one in 10 jobs worldwide in 2016 (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). With this growth and its subsequent benefit on especially economic development and job creation, tourism destination competitors are increasingly aiming for a larger share of tourists (Zhou, 2005:1) by trying to understand the needs tourists are trying to fulfil through travelling and why they choose a specific destination for travel (Oh et al., 1995:123). Furthermore, as travel and tourism marketing has shifted online, destinations have increasingly found themselves competing in a global marketplace. In responding to competitors and in order to differentiate the destination, destination marketers seek to make their destinations attractive to new and emerging consumer segments, or those segments of the market that are “... perceived to travel more frequently and exhibit higher levels of spending than others” (UNWTO, 2017a:12).

One such segment is believed to be the gay traveller (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:711; Haslop et al., 1998:319; Lück, 2005:3; Sweet, 2008; Roth, 2010; UNWTO, 2017a:42), born in the late 19th century when gay individuals sought ‘gay-friendly’ destinations in mostly Mediterranean countries, in which they could freely express their desires, what is nowadays referred to as their ‘lifestyle’ (De Waal, 2002). However, owing to the expansion of global gay rights and recognition, the visibility of gay tourism has significantly increased since (UNWTO, 2017a:15). This, together with the view on gays as a ‘dream segment’, is shared by several researchers (Wardlow, 1996:1; Haslop et al., 1998:318; Puar, 2002:108; Hower, 2004; Hughes, 2006:72; Oakenfull, 2013:80; Abernethy, 2014) and leads to an increasing number of destinations competing for the gay traveller (Guaracino, 2007:159; Roth, 2010). One such destination is Cape Town, where the significance of gay tourism is outlined by various researchers including Visser (2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2005, 2014), Hughes (2005, 2006), Oswin (2005a), Rogerson and Visser (2005), Steyn (2006), Rink (2008a, 2008b, 2011, 2013), Van der Wal (2008),

Hattingh (2011), Beebe (2012) and Sasse (2013).

Cape Town is a popular tourism destination for many different types of travellers and a leading competitor in the international tourism market (Zhou, 2005:1), further evident in the many accolades and awards received in recent years. In 2010, the *National Geographic* named Cape Town the second best beach destination in the world in the publication's list of the Top 10 Beach Cities, second only to Barcelona and beating cities like Miami, Honolulu, Rio de Janeiro and Tel Aviv (*National Geographic*, 2010; Williams, 2015a). In 2011, Cape Town received the *TripAdvisor's 2011 Traveler's Choice Destination Award* based on opinions of millions of travellers (TripAdvisor, 2011). Cape Town was voted as the third best city in the world by *Lonely Planet's Best in Travel 2014 – Top 10 Cities* (Lonely Planet, 2013; Nagel, 2013; South African Tourism, 2013a). Cape Town was also the number one place to visit in 2014 according to the *New York Times*, securing this top position ahead of Los Angeles, the Vatican and the Seychelles, in American newspapers' list of 52 places to visit in 2014 (*Mail & Guardian*, 2014). The British newspaper, *The Guardian*, in a report titled 'Holiday hotspots: where to go in 2014', rates Cape Town in the number one position, and acknowledges its status as World Design Capital 2014 (*The Guardian*, 2014). Cape Town was voted the "best destination in the world for a city break", as chosen by readers in *The Telegraph Travel Awards 2014*, the world's biggest reader travel awards (De Bruyn, 2014).

In 2016 Cape Town was named as the number one food city in the world by *Condé Nast's Reader's Choice Awards* (Cape Town Tourism, 2016a). Cape Town was also voted as the second best city in the world by *Lonely Planet's Best in Travel 2017 – Top 10 Cities* (Lonely Planet, 2016; Rautenbach, 2016). Cape Town's popularity is further increased by the abundance of natural resources, ideal weather, heritage, and diversity of people, and other attributes such as the role it plays in the victory of democracy, which makes Cape Town very attractive and charming to many different market segments (*Mail & Guardian*, 2014), and increasingly to the gay traveller, as South Africa's post-apartheid Constitution tips the balance in these travellers' favour (De Waal, 2002). Implemented in 1996, the Constitution prohibits discrimination on the basis of 'sexual orientation' and it is the first constitution in the world to do so and is, therefore, important for this reason (Cock, 2002:35; Mngomeni, 2014) and for this study. As a result, Cape Town has a welcoming attitude and a reputation for being liberal in its

socio-political views (Visser, 2003a:175). This commitment to gay rights and diversity led to the city being firmly placed on the international gay travel map (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004).

Cape Town – informally known as the ‘Gay capital of Africa’ – is a favoured gay travel destination (Mngomeni, 2014). The City’s growth in popularity among gay travellers resulted in the development of exclusively gay guesthouses, bars, restaurants and even beaches (UNWTO, 2012:21). However, competition among international ‘gay-friendly’ tourism destinations is intensifying owing to gay tourism’s rapid and continuing growth (Waite & Markwell, 2006:69; Guaracino, 2007:153; Morris & Carney, 2009:5) and its associated economic contribution (Hattingh, 2011:127; UNWTO, 2017a:8). According to analysis carried out by Witeck Communications, in 2016 the combined Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transexual (LGBT) buying power of LGBT consumers in the United States (US) is forecasted to exceed an estimated \$917 billion (UNWTO, 2017a:42). Gay travel is one of the fastest-growing markets in the international travel industry as approximately 36 million overnight visitors who travelled to international destinations around the world were part of the LGBT community (UNWTO, 2017a:44). Furthermore, in an economic impact study conducted in 2009, it was found that a single night event, the annual Mother City Queer Project (MCQP) in Cape Town, injected approximately R26 million into Cape Town’s economy (Hattingh, 2011:127). Gay travellers are estimated to contribute around R1.8 billion to the Cape Town economy each year (Grove, 2014) as it is estimated that 10 to 12% of all travellers to Cape Town are gay (UNWTO, 2012:23).

It is thus evident that the importance of this segment is well known by the tourism industry; however the understanding of gay travellers’ preferences when they are travelling and visiting a destination has not yet been so broadly researched (UNWTO, 2017a:46).

1.2 Problem statement

In order to correctly harness the existing potential within this segment, there is a need to overcome the challenge of correctly understanding and adapting the tourism offering to the preferences and needs of gay travellers (UNWTO, 2017a:10). Branchik (2002:96) and Jensen-Campbell (2004:5) argue that the larger LGBT market consists of a variety

of segments, of which the gay traveller is one such segment. Cape Town, used as a case study for this study, targets the gay traveller in addition to the hedonistic, cultural, outdoor and culinary traveller (Cape Town Tourism, 2017). Gay travellers, as a segment of the LGBT market, are however perceived to be a homogeneous market segment, as sexual orientation is used as the principal distinguishing characteristic of this population (Fugate, 1993:47; Canavan, 2015:7). This perception is, however, problematic as it may hinder effective marketing. Although gay travellers form part of a community that shares experiences, knowledge and communication (UNWTO, 2017a:46), and assists in creating a sense of belonging to a group (Verdugo, 2010:3), Pritchard et al. (1998:274) argue that sexual orientation, by itself, is insufficient as a segmentation criterion and state that, for example, seniors and young people are categorised according to their age, and gay people in terms of their sexual orientation, which is rather simplistic as it conceals many other important variables. Bell and Binnie (2000:100) agree and argue that gay travellers should not be treated as a homogeneous segment just because they are homosexual, as sexuality is crosscut by socioeconomic status, race and gender.

The reality is that the gay population mirrors the rest of society in a wide variety of aspects (Herrera, 2003:21). Hughes (2005:59) supports this view and argues that the gay population are as diverse in their occupations, employment status, incomes, ethnicity, general lifestyles and reasons for travelling as is the rest of society, and as Herrera (2003:8) contends, do not necessarily hold the same motivations and morals or pursue the same activities. Therefore, as Schofield and Schmidt (2005:311) and Canavan (2015:1) argue, using sexual orientation as a segmentation criterion may be an inappropriate and ineffective means for segmenting gay consumers. Indeed, some researchers and organisations, some as far back as 20 years, have argued that gay travellers are not a homogeneous segment (Pritchard et al., 1998:280; Herrera, 2003:8; Schofield & Schmidt, 2005:311; Crocco et al., 2006:224; Johnson, 2008) and are characterised by a variety of sub-segments (Pritchard & Morgan, 1997:16; Hughes, 2005:55; Hughes, 2006:153; Blichfeldt et al., 2011:22, Hattingh, 2011:50; Wientjens, 2013; UNWTO, 2017a:43).

The research problem can therefore be stated as, despite an increasing interest in researching gay tourism by academics and marketing companies, the specific sub-segments remain largely unknown and these travellers are still mostly regarded as a

homogeneous group, suggesting a gap in the literature. Against this background, this research builds on the calls of Herrera and Scott (2005:260), Hughes (2006:5), Carolan (2007:17-18) and Cohen et al. (2014:894) for further consumer research on the diversity of potential sub-segments among gay travellers.

1.3 Research aim and objectives

1.3.1 Research aim

To segment gay leisure travellers through 'attribute-based benefit segmentation' to ascertain if significant sub-groups exist.

1.3.2 Research objectives

Proceeding from the problem statement and research aim, the following objectives were relevant:

- To review the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa through exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era to determine how Cape Town became a gay capital and a popular international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination.
- To identify the implications of marketing a tourism destination as gay or 'gay friendly' for the tourism industry.
- To investigate the socio-psychological (push) factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday.
- To determine the destination attributes (pull factors) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town.
- To develop a typology of gay leisure travellers based on their socio-psychological travel motivations and the destination attributes of Cape Town.

1.4 Research questions

The study aimed to specifically answer the following questions developed from the research aim and objectives:

- What led to the decriminalisation of homosexuality in South Africa and how did Cape Town specifically transform into a gay capital and an international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination?
- What are the implications when marketing a tourism destination as gay or 'gay friendly'?
- Which socio-psychological (push) factors influence gay travellers to go on holiday?
- What are the destination attributes (pull factors) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town?
- Which socio-psychological travel motivations and destination attributes are important to include in a typology of gay leisure travellers?

1.5 Research methodology

In order to achieve the aim and objectives of this study and to answer the research questions, the research was divided into two parts: a literature review and an empirical survey. The following section provides an overview of the methodology followed. For a full discussion of the methodology followed, refer to Chapter 5.

1.5.1 Literature review

The study consists of three literature chapters constructed through investigating and analysing a variety of information sources, including Cape Town Official Visitor Guides, local gay travel guides, academic journals, government publications, tourism reports, magazine and newspaper articles, conference proceedings, books and the Internet. Databases consulted include the Cape Peninsula University of Technology's (CPUT) library database, EBSCO-Host, Science Direct, SA e-publications and Google Scholar.

One chapter reviewed the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa by exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era and considered how the new

South African Constitution of 1996 contributed to the increasingly visible and accepted gay civil society in Cape Town, specifically a part of the city now known as 'De Waterkant Village' as well as how this village positioned Cape Town as a leading 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of the 21st century. Another chapter placed the gay traveller in a tourism context in order to develop a better understanding of the gay traveller as a market segment, as it has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that such a segment exists. Consequently, this chapter considered whether one might identify a homogeneous gay market segment by unpacking market segmentation theories. This chapter further discussed how Cape Town became the 'gay capital' of South Africa by investigating the past and present initiatives that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's reputation as an international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination. The last theoretical chapter discussed the implications for marketing a tourism destination as gay or 'gay friendly'. Furthermore, travel motivation theories and tourist typologies were reviewed and the specific travel motivations (push and pull factors) among gay individuals were investigated.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

The next section briefly discusses the research design employed for the empirical analysis.

1.5.2.1 Research design

A research design is the blueprint of how research question(s) will be answered (Saunders et al., 2009:88) and is generally classified as either exploratory research (which aims to yield insights into and a broad understanding of certain phenomena that are difficult to measure) or conclusive research (which aims to test specific relationships and to explain specific phenomena (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:70). The present study clearly belongs to a conclusive research design as it aimed to describe the gay tourism phenomenon. Descriptive research, a sub-division of a conclusive research design, is used "... to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations" (Robson, 2002:59) and contributes to the development of tourist profiles, tourist flows and patterns, descriptions of travel experiences, and consumer behaviour (i.e. tourist typologies) (George, 2008:108). This research can therefore be described as cross-sectional

descriptive research as it sought to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers. Cross-sectional research, a sub-division of descriptive research, collects "... information from any given sample of population elements only once" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:74). The present study adopted a cross-sectional research design as feedback and input from a large group of gay travellers was required, with time and financial resource restrictions.

Two methodologies using different tools for collecting and analysing data are widely used in the social sciences: quantitative methodology and qualitative methodology (Bryman, 2004:19). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:76) "... conclusive research is typically more formal and structured than exploratory research, and the data obtained are subjected to quantitative analysis". As this research adopted a conclusive, descriptive and cross-sectional research design, a quantitative methodology was recommended to explain the heterogeneity of gay travellers, by sub-dividing (sub-segmenting) this segment into distinct sub-groups (sub-segments) according to their holiday motivations as a means of developing a typology of gay leisure travellers. It was suggested that the use of quantitative techniques and multivariate analytic methods could significantly assist with the segmentation process (Eftchiadou, 2001:7) by categorising data sets into similar behavioural groupings derived mainly through these quantitative techniques (Dolnicar, 2002a:3; Weaver & Lawton, 2005:211; Isaac, 2008:75), thus a questionnaire survey was deemed to be the most appropriate method of primary data collection for this study.

1.5.2.2 The questionnaire survey

Conducting research using a quantitative methodology requires the thoughtful design of a questionnaire survey – a series of easily understandable questions or statements put to respondents that attempts to solve the research problem and answer the research questions (George, 2008:123). A structured questionnaire survey was developed for this study and included mostly closed-ended questions (fixed-response questions) with some open-ended ones. The questionnaire covered four sections: a section covering holiday related information, a section on travel motivations (push and pull factors), a traveller profile section, and a section on travel patterns. The questionnaire survey appears as Annexure A.

1.5.2.2.1 Target population and sampling

Sampling involves defining a target population (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:82; Zikmund et al., 2013:387), which can be explained as the "... full set of cases from which a sample is taken" (Saunders et al., 2009:212). Given that the aim of the current study was to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers, the population of this study included all domestic and international gay travellers to Cape Town for a minimum of three nights for leisure purposes. A minimum number of three nights was chosen to ensure that the respondents had adequate exposure to various attributes of Cape Town to complete the questionnaire meaningfully. Leisure refers to "... discretionary time available when obligations are at a minimum" (Cooper et al., 2008:15). Ballegaard and Chor (2009:5) suggest that leisure tourism constitutes "... blocks of leisure time that are spent away from home". This study therefore focused on the gay leisure traveller only and excluded gay travellers on business trips, as it is understood that a business trip would be seen as the motivator for travel and not necessarily any other attribute of the destination. Once the population had been identified, a sampling method needed to be decided on.

It was impossible to determine the number of travellers who made up the current study's target population (domestic and international gay travellers that have stayed in Cape Town for a minimum of three nights for leisure purposes). It has been recognised that researching issues related to homosexuality is complex and one particular complexity in investigating gay tourism is locating informants (Monterrubio, 2008:146). The gay traveller can be regarded as a 'hidden population' (Hughes, 2004:72) as it is "... difficult to randomly confront people for an interview because homosexuality is a sensitive sexual identity, which is not visible unless people want to express it themselves" (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:5). In other words, gay travellers are 'invisible' as researchers cannot identify them by "... simply using their eyes, as they can with, say, male, female, black, Latino, Asian or Caucasian travellers" (Guaracino & Salvato, 2017:9). Therefore, the object of analysis being strictly personal and confidential did not allow the use of traditional sampling techniques. It is stated that particular complexities exist with sexuality-focused studies such as this one, as the area of human behaviour has some 'sensitivity'. In addition, the practicality of obtaining data about marginalised activities (Hughes, 1997:3) often complicates the sampling process, which was the case for the current study as there were very limited *scientific statistics* regarding the number of gay

travellers to Cape Town, resulting in a useful sampling framework – a list of elements from which the sample is taken (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:73; Zikmund et al., 2013:388), not being available to inform the sampling process. Owing to the lack of a sampling framework, all probability-sampling techniques were deemed inappropriate. This necessitated the use of a non-probability sampling technique. The most appropriate non-probability sampling methods for the current study were judgemental sampling, supplemented by convenience sampling and snowball sampling (discussed in detail in Section 5.3.2.5.1).

When a researcher deliberately selects specific sampling cases, the sample size needs to be examined more closely (Thompson, 2003:160-161). The suggested minimum sample size for a non-probability sampling technique is 200 cases (respondents) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:409). This study attempted to more than double the suggested minimum sample size ($n = 200$) required for non-probability sampling by aiming for a sample of 500. The final sample size was 506 respondents, much larger than the suggested minimum sample size required for cluster analyses (see Section 1.5.2.2.3 below) as suggested by Formann (1984) and cited by Dolnicar (2002b:4) in which the minimal sample size should be no less than $2k$ cases ($k =$ number of variables), preferably $5*2k$; that is $5 \times 2 (24) = 240$.

1.5.2.2.2 Survey administration – self-completion web-based sample survey

A web-based electronic survey was the main mode of data collection as people who are reluctant to meet face-to-face can easily communicate via the Internet (Wright, 2005). The Internet is also more effective in addressing sensitive issues (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:296), which is of particular importance as this study dealt with sexuality, which could be regarded as a sensitive issue. This might have led to refusal to participate in personal interviews, and removed the possibility of interview bias. In addition, in order to reach a high geographically dispersed sample, the Internet yielded the highest ability (George, 2008:123) to reach international and domestic gay travellers. Furthermore, through adopting a web-based electronic survey, the researcher aimed to avoid biased research findings (i.e. only interviewing openly gay individuals that patronise gay bars/venues), as respondents could opt to remain anonymous on the web, if they wished, which was not the case should data have been collected through personal interviews.

Therefore, a web-based electronic survey was selected to preserve the anonymity and privacy of respondents while obtaining a higher response rate than would have been the case for personal interviews (discussed in detail in Section 5.3.2.5.1).

1.5.2.2.3 Data analysis

The data obtained from the web-based electronic survey were electronically extracted to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and then imported to the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (version 23). Several analyses, with the assistance of SPSS statistics, were used for market segmentation purposes, discussed briefly below:

- Cluster analysis

A 'posthoc' method of segmentation was performed to explain the heterogeneity of gay travellers and to develop a typology of these travellers by applying a hierarchical cluster analysis on the scores of the pull factors (destination attributes) using Ward's procedure with Euclidean distances. With hierarchical clustering, the number of clusters is not defined a priori; instead, clusters are suggested by the data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:672). In other words, members were clustered according to their natural similarity (Johnson & Wichern, 2007:671-673). The destination attributes (pull factors) were used as the main segmentation base for market segmentation without pre-processing the raw data as recommended by Dolnicar (2002a), Weaver and Lawton (2005), Dolnicar and Grün (2008) and Dolnicar and Grün (2011).

- Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

ANOVAs were used to assess how clusters were distinct in terms of pull factors, followed by the Tukey post hoc test of pairwise mean comparison to further explain where the differences lay, as suggested by Weaver and Lawton (2005:217), Prayag (2010:7-8), Sixaba (2013:78) and Kruger et al. (2016:393-394). Chi-squared tests were used to compare the resulting clusters against the push factors to determine the most important push factors of each cluster. In order to identify the four clusters meaningfully for marketing purposes, the clusters were cross-tabulated with socio-demographic and travel behaviour characteristics, and expenditure patterns.

1.6 Significance of the research

From a marketing perspective, it would be useful to investigate the push factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday and to determine the pull factors (destination attributes) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town. Thus, understanding the needs tourists are trying to fulfil through travelling and what destination attributes influence the selection of a particular destination is crucial for tourism marketers as it can increase the accuracy of marketing the destination in the future (Gavcar & Gursoy, 2002:75). No prior research, according to the researcher's knowledge, has examined the motivations of gay leisure travellers in an African context; hence this study attempts to fill this research gap. Furthermore, despite the developing interest in gay tourism, most destinations targeting the gay traveller continue to regard these travellers as a homogeneous group, which may hinder effective marketing. A more in-depth understanding of gay travel behaviour might be achieved by recognising the sub-segments (Carolan, 2007:17-18). Crompton (1979:409), Gavcar and Gursoy (2002:75), Amirtahmaseb (2007:12) and Smith and Costello (2009:46) point to the criticality of investigating motivations in order to understand the different desires of travellers and are of the opinion that these motivations can serve as a basis for segmenting travellers. Therefore, this study aims to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers, from an African perspective, by segmenting gay travellers into homogeneous sub-segments and attempts to contribute to the gap in literature regarding this market's heterogeneity.

Tourist typologies are used by destinations as "... heuristic devices to bring about deeper understanding of tourists so that it is possible to understand, explain and predict their behaviour" (Isaac, 2008:75) and assist in designing and implementing the products and services required to satisfy them (Boekstein, 2012:92). The typology of gay leisure travellers proposed by this study was developed by conducting attribute-based market segmentation. Consequently, the identified sub-segments, each with its own set of motivations, could help destinations refine their target marketing strategies and, as suggested by Tebje and Ozinsky (2004), may assist in understanding the different opportunities each sub-segment presents. The significance of market segmentation is obvious: "... targeting a market segment characterised by expectations or preferences that mirror the destination strengths leads to competitive advantage" (Dolnicar, 2002a:2),

positive experiences, as well as repeat visitations (City of Cape Town, 2002:35). Indeed, as Cook et al. (2010:17) argue, the more tourism professionals know about travellers and how to meet their needs, the more successful the destination will be. In his seminal article, Levitt (1960:50) argued that "... selling focuses on the needs of the seller, marketing on the needs of the buyer". It is therefore, according to Levitt, crucial to have a keen understanding of one's customers in order to offer them the 'right product'. Following Levitt's (1960) line of reasoning, the typology of gay leisure travellers should assist travel planners, destination managers, gay tour operators and travel agents, and Cape Town in particular, in ensuring that products and services, designed for and promoted to gay travellers, actually cater to their needs through developing distinct travel products and packages. The significance of segmenting gay leisure travellers could be profound, as Schewe and Meredith (2006:51) reiterate that "... finding groups of consumers with strong, homogeneous bonds is the 'Holy Grail' of marketing".

1.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences of CPUT (Annexure B), and ratified by the Higher Degrees Committee (HDC). Ethical considerations form the basis of conducting appropriate research and deal with the manner in which the researcher conducts the study – the 'rights' and 'wrongs' (Mouton, 2001:238). The main aspects regarding research ethics are informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, and voluntary participation (Heffernan, 2005:89).

Informed consent was ensured with the web-based electronic survey by providing an introductory statement that:

- i. identified the researcher and the university;
- ii. stated the purpose of the research;
- iii. indicated the estimated time needed to complete the questionnaire;
- iv. provided advice on how to make a complaint to the university if needed;
- v. indicated that participation was voluntary;
- vi. noted that no incentives were offered for taking part in the research – to avoid respondent bias;

- vii. ensured anonymity as respondents had the option to not include their email address (the first question of the electronic questionnaire); and
- viii. confirmed that responses would remain confidential and not passed on to a third party.

1.8 Structure of the study

The thesis is divided into seven chapters, detailed as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

This chapter presents an introduction to the research and clarifies the research problem. It states the research aim, key questions and objectives, and provides an introduction to the research method employed for this study. Furthermore, the significance of the research, and the relevant terms, concepts and abbreviations used throughout the thesis, are discussed.

Chapter 2: The legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa

In order to determine how Cape Town became the gay capital of South Africa, it is necessary to discuss the oppressive history of the country, specifically relating to the gay movement. This chapter, therefore, reviews specific literature on South Africa's gay movement by exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era and gay activism in South Africa post 1996, after the implementation of the new South African Constitution, and analyses the formation of a post-apartheid gay civil society in Cape Town. It explores the development and eventual demise (de-gaying) of 'De Waterkant Village' as well as how this village positioned Cape Town as a leading 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of the 21st century.

Chapter 3: The gay market segment(s) – homosexual not homogeneous

This chapter places the gay traveller in a tourism context in order to develop a better understanding of these travellers as a market segment of the larger LGBT tourism market. This chapter also considers whether one can talk about a homogeneous gay

market segment by unpacking market segmentation theories, as it has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that a gay market segment exists. Furthermore, as one of the objectives of this study is to determine how Cape Town became a popular international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination, the second part of this chapter discusses the past and present initiatives undertaken by the local gay community, specialised organisations, as well as the convention board Cape Town Tourism (CTT), that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's reputation as a leading international 'gay-friendly' destination.

Chapter 4: Gay traveller motivations

There seems to be an increasing trend where destinations promote themselves as 'gay friendly' in an attempt to attract gay travellers. However, the implications of such promotion are underexplored in tourism research. Therefore, this chapter examines what these implications are and identifies some of the more popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting the gay traveller. The chapter's main focus is on investigating the most predominant tourist typologies related to travel motivations as developed over time. As the push-pull framework is used most often to determine tourists' motivations, this chapter reviews literature on studies that have implemented this framework. Furthermore, the chapter draws together the specific push motivations for travel among gay travellers and elaborates on the attributes (pull motivations) that attract these travellers to specific destinations. As pull factors are place specific, the chapter concludes with some of the particular destination attributes of Cape Town for gay travellers, followed by a discussion of the factors that might lead to these travellers not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination.

Chapter 5: Research design and methodology

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology applied in this study. It begins with a discussion of the research and explains why this study employed a conclusive, descriptive and cross-sectional research design. Next, secondary and primary data-collection methods are discussed with a focus on the quantitative instrument used for primary data collection, the design of the research instrument (web-

based electronic survey) and the validity and reliability of the instrument. Included are details of the target population, sampling procedures (probability sampling versus non-probability sampling) and how the chosen non-probability sampling procedure directed the research towards some specific data-collection methods for a study of this nature. As the study employs non-probability sampling, it discusses the sample size chosen in detail followed by an explanation of cluster analysis and the steps that should be followed when segmenting a market. An introduction to the statistical methods (ANOVA and chi-squared tests) used to analyse the data in the study is also provided.

Chapter 6: Empirical research findings

This chapter analyses, discusses and interprets the data obtained from the web-based electronic survey of domestic and international gay leisure travellers. This chapter is presented in five main sections. The first section includes descriptions of travellers' motivations. Section two describes the traveller profile and holiday-related information. The third section addresses the travel patterns of gay leisure travellers, while section four discovers if gay travellers can be segmented meaningfully into different groups by performing attribute-based cluster analysis. The last section of this chapter concludes a discussion of the summary of findings.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter discusses conclusions and recommendations derived from the research. It further discusses the limitations of the research and makes recommendations for future research. Lastly, the chapter provides a summary of the research contribution and presents a typology of gay leisure travellers that may be used to better understand travel by gay individuals.

1.9 Glossary of abbreviations/acronyms and terms used

An explanation of the abbreviations and terms used in the text is included below:

1.9.1 Abbreviations and acronyms

ACDP	African Christian Democratic Party
ANC	African National Congress
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
B&B	Bed-and-breakfast
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CA	Constitutional Assembly
CBD	Central Business District
CC	Constitutional Court
CNN	Cable News Network
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
CTT	Cape Town Tourism
CVB	Convention and Visitor Bureau
DINK	Double-income-no-kids
DMO	Destination Management Organisation
DP	Democratic Party
ECC	End Conscription Campaign
GALACTTIC	Gay and Lesbian Association of Cape Town Tourism Industry and Commerce
GASA	Gay Association of South Africa
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLOW	Gays and Lesbians of the Witwatersrand
HDC	Higher Degrees Committee
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party
IGLTA	International Gay & Lesbian Travel Association
ILGA	International Lesbian and Gay Association
ITB	Internationale Tourismus Börse
KPMG	Klynveld, Peat, Marwick and Goerdeler
LGBT	Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender

MCQP	Mother City Queer Project
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions
MJC	Muslim Judicial Council
NCGLE	National Coalition for Gay and Lesbian Equality
NP	National Party
OIA	Out in Africa
OLGA	Organisation of Lesbian and Gays Activists
PAYCO	Pan Africanist Youth Congress of Azania
SADF	South African Defence Force
SAGLTA	South African Gay and Lesbian Travel Alliance
SAPS	South African Police Services
SARS	South African Revenue Services
SCA	Supreme Court of Appeal
SD	Standard deviation
SMO	Social Movement Organisation
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TCL	Travel Career Ladder
UDF	United Democratic Front
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UN	United Nations
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
US	United States
UWC	University of the Western Cape
WTM	World Travel Market
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

1.9.2 Terms

Apartheid	The official name of a racial segregation policy of the National Party (NP); an Afrikaans word meaning 'separateness' or separate development (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:315).
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Bisexual	Individuals that are attracted, physically or emotionally, to both the same and to the other sex (Hughes, 2006:2).
Black/s	While the author rejects the racial classification terminology of the apartheid era, its relevance to post-apartheid South Africa remains and is consequently used here in reference to a person of African descent.
Coloured	While the researcher rejects the racial classification terminology of the apartheid era, its relevance to post-apartheid South Africa remains and is consequently used here in reference to a person of mixed descent.
Gay	Refers to the people, practices, and culture associated with homosexuality; people attracted romantically to members of the same sex (Menge, 2010:15). 'Gay' is sometimes used to describe both male and female homosexuals, i.e. gay men and women as a 'shorthand' term (Hughes, 2006:2). Therefore, in order to keep the writing style fluid, the term 'gay' is used throughout the study to cover both male and female homosexuals. To denote a specific gender (where required), gay men, gay women or lesbians will be used.
Gaybourhood	The part of a city that is largely populated by gay residents and tourists, and gay and 'gay-friendly' commercial establishments – a gay neighbourhood (Ghaziani, 2010:64).
Gaycation	A slang term for a gay vacation which includes "... a pronounced aspect of LGBT culture" (Smith et al., 2010:80).

Gay friendly	A term used in the marketing and promotion of a destination as an authentic invitation in which the destination welcomes gay travellers in a supportive and non-judgemental environment, and with non-discriminatory policies that prevent penalisation of travellers with a different sexual orientation (Guaracino, 2007:31-32).
Gay space	“A homogeneous, bounded and fixed place in a metropolitan area, more concretely made up by bars, restaurants, cafés, shops and residential areas” (Waitt & Markwell, 2006:178), and legal and medical services (Pritchard et al., 1998:274) that permits “gay identity to be validated by relationships with others, provides social space and support networks, and serves as an expression of sexual and cultural identity” (Hughes, 2005:52).
Gay tourism	A term used to describe the tourism activity for both gay men and lesbians (Apostolopoulou, 2013:2). Although this term has mostly been replaced by ‘LGBT Tourism’, it was deemed appropriate to keep this definition as it was in line with the research focus, i.e. a typology of gay (homosexual) leisure travellers. Gay travellers are still mostly regarded as a homogeneous group, but not necessarily the LGBT traveller. Section 3.2.1 discusses this in more detail.
Gentrification	The process of converting working-class areas into middle-class neighborhoods through the rehabilitation of the neighborhood’s housing stock (Smith, 1979:547).
Heteronormativity	The idea that heterosexuality is the norm and all other sexual orientations are outside of the norm and deviant; a system which privileges heterosexuality at the expense of queer subordination (Beebe, 2012:19).

Heterosexual	A person who is either sexually attracted to or who has sexual relations with persons of the opposite sex, colloquially known as 'straight' (Weiss, 2014). In this thesis, the term 'straight' will be used interchangeably, depending on the context.
Heterosexuality	An enduring pattern of or disposition to experience sexual, affectionate, physical or romantic attractions to persons of the opposite sex (Khan, 2013:6).
Holiday	Although 'tourism' often implies holidaying, the technical use of the term is wider than holiday and includes, for example, business trips (Hughes, 2006:1-2). Therefore, the term 'holiday' is preferred in this thesis as the focus is on gay leisure travel and excludes travel for any other purpose (see Section 5.3.2.3). The term 'tourism' will be used as guided by the literature; however, it will usually refer to holidays, unless otherwise indicated.
Homophobia	An overarching term used to refer to the violent (verbal and physical) and overt abuse of an individual or group because they are classed as gay, lesbian, and/or homosexual (Browne, 2007:1002).
Homosexual	An individual having sexual desire for, or sexual activity with, persons of the same biological sex (Hughes, 2006:15). In this thesis, the term 'gay' will be used interchangeably depending on the context.
Homosexuality	Broadly refers to an emotional and physical attraction to persons of the same sex (Hughes, 2004:60).
LGBT tourism	Broadly defined as any tourism activity, either specifically designed to attract the LGBT market, or one that, by nature

and/or design, appeals to and is ultimately pursued by the LGBT market (Southall & Fallon, 2011:220-221).

Lobola	Translates as bride price or bride wealth – a groom pays his bride-to-be’s family a pre-arranged price in order to wed his fiancée (Williams, 2017:195).
Market segmentation	A strategic analytical tool used by marketers to divide a market into smaller, identifiable segments that share similar characteristics, wants, needs, attitudes (George, 2008:141) and/or behavioural patterns (Weaver & Lawton, 2002:173).
Mother City	Popular nickname for Cape Town as South Africa’s first metropolis (Traveller24, 2015).
Motivation	“A state of tension within an individual which arouses, directs and maintains behaviour toward a goal” (Mullen & Johnson, 1990:91) or incentive (Luthans et al., 1988:136) and drives an individual to act in order to reach personal fulfilment (Beerli & Martín, 2004:626).
Post-apartheid	The period in South Africa after apartheid (Hattingh, 2011:12).
Queer	Originally a derogatory term for gay (Hattingh, 2011:12) but nowadays used to refer to the LGBT community or any sexuality different to heterosexuality, including those individuals who do not want to label themselves (Belge & Bieschke, 2011:17). In this thesis, the use of the term is limited, except when it is used in the literature cited.
Sex tourism	“Travel which occurs with the prime purpose of having sexual encounters whilst away, and this usually on a

commercial basis” (Hughes, 2006:65), while sex and tourism refer to a sexual encounter while on holiday (Hughes, 2006:4).

Sodomy	The unspeakable nature of same-sex love led to its being called ‘sodomy’ after the biblical city of Sodom. But sodomy could also refer to bestiality and other forbidden sex acts (Weems, 2007:95).
Tourist typology	Sub-divides tourists into homogeneous segments based on a variety of criteria (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:8).
Traveller	Someone who moves between different geographic locations, for any purpose and any duration (UNWTO, 2017b).
Wedding tourism	Travelling “... for the purpose of getting married or celebrating a wedding” (Acorn Consulting Partnership Ltd., 2008:80). Comprises “destination wedding couples and their guests, as well as honeymoon tourists” (Major et al., 2010:252).
White	While the researcher rejects the racial classification terminology of the apartheid era, its relevance to post-apartheid South Africa remains and is consequently used here in reference to a person of European descent.

CHAPTER 2

THE LEGALISTIC HISTORY OF THE GAY MOVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa, a country that has transformed from criminalising homosexuality to openly welcoming homosexual travellers. Thus, before considering the role that Cape Town's De Waterkant neighbourhood played in transforming the City into a gay capital and a popular destination among gay travellers, it is necessary to discuss the oppressive history of South Africa, specifically relating to the laws implemented during apartheid to regulate homosexuality. These are often overlooked in the post-apartheid era, as apartheid is mostly known for its policy on racial segregation. This chapter therefore discusses how the new South African Constitution of 1996 contributed to the increasingly visible and accepted gay civil society. It reviews literature on South Africa's gay movement by exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era and gay activism in South Africa post 1996, where gay activists successfully challenged a variety of discriminatory laws to guarantee equal rights for all citizens. The chapter's focus then shifts and explores the development and eventual demise (de-gaying) of 'De Waterkant Village' which, through a process of gentrification, evolved from being a slum into Africa's first (and only) gay village, as well as how this village positioned Cape Town as a leading 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of the 21st century (Visser, 2003a:175).

2.2 Sexuality and the gay liberation struggle: the road to acceptance and recognition in South Africa

The South African gay rights movement originated during the apartheid era (Kennedy, 2006:61). Implemented in 1948, 'apartheid' was the official name of the racial segregation policy of the NP and is an Afrikaans word meaning 'separateness' or separate development (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:315). The apartheid policy of 'separateness' forced racial groups to 'develop' independently of one another, forced each group to live in specific areas, and strictly prohibited inter-racial relationships by criminalising extramarital sexual intercourse between white and black/coloured people (De Vos & Barnard, 2007:797; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:316). The apartheid system also introduced practices such as the controlling of the movement of blacks with

pass laws and preventing them from accessing prestigious jobs and educational opportunities (Currier, 2007:29).

Millions of South African citizens were affected by the apartheid system, but what remains largely unspoken of in the post-apartheid era is the severity of the laws aimed at 'combatting' homosexuality (Brown, 2014:456; Pushparagavan, 2014). The apartheid policy *indeed* included various pieces of legislation to regulate sex and sexuality (Visser, 2002:85; Burns, 2012:11-12; Barnard-Naudé, 2013:311-312), especially aimed at white sexual and gender minorities as the state regarded homosexuality as primarily a white problem (Du Pisani, 2012:189; Reddy, 2014:19), leaving black and coloured homosexuals unaffected (Currier, 2007:29). Based on the Afrikaner understanding of the Christian religion, which reinforces the 'separate development' idea, the apartheid policy was designed to ensure that the white nation remained "sexually and morally pure" (Cage, 2003:14; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:317), hence the state's focus on the white homosexual specifically.

In contrast, some black African societies accepted homosexuality in certain circumstances and under certain conditions during the pre-colonial era (Pushparagavan, 2014). Homosexual relations, for example, commonly occurred on the gold mines of South Africa prior to the 1970s (Moodie, 1987:21; Niehaus, 2009:85; Epprecht, 2010:12; Burns, 2012:9; Du Pisani, 2012:189), as evidence exists that at least some black men in these all-male environments saw little wrong with taking other, younger male workers as 'boy-wives', which Murray and Roscoe (1998a:178) refer to as "age differentiated male homosexuality" which occurred in settings in which women were excluded or absent (Murray & Roscoe, 1998b:269; Niehaus, 2009:85). In these relationships money organised and defined male-male sexual relationships, as young miners desperately needed money to buy cattle and pay lobola (bride price) for their female wives and build their homesteads (Moodie, 1987:9). Thus, in these circumstances, this form of same-sex practice was regarded as non-threatening to the heterosexual hegemony as these arrangements were done on a situational basis (Du Pisani, 2012:189). Those who engaged in such arrangements were not referred to as homosexuals because the concept of homosexuality (as well as heterosexuality) is a Western and therefore a white concept invented in the late nineteenth century to label those who engaged in same-sex activity (De Vos & Barnard, 2007:818).

“There is arguably no worse place in the world to be gay than in Africa” (Dhariwal, 2012), a competitive arena for violation of gay rights (Jonas, 2012:222), where 38 countries on the African continent strictly outlaw homosexuality (Kutsch, 2013; Nguyen, 2013; Tamale, 2014). While homosexuality is not expressly outlawed in some African countries such as Congo, Mali, Rwanda, the Central African Republic, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Chad, Niger, Madagascar, and Gabon (Nguyen, 2013), other laws are often used to ‘combat’ homosexuality including vagrancy or public nuisance laws (Ndashe, 2014:4). The presidents of Uganda, Namibia, and Zimbabwe have been particularly vocal about their anti-homosexual views (BBC News, 2002; Kennedy, 2006:60; South African Tourism, 2014a). Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, and Zambia uphold sodomy laws (Hughes, 2006:76) and in Kenya, a parliamentary committee insisted on applying anti-gay laws more rigorously and warned that homosexuality is “as serious as terrorism” (Duffy, 2014; Ernst, 2014; Macharia, 2014; McConnell, 2014; Nelson, 2014). In the views of such leaders, homosexuality is ‘un-African’ (Kwesi & Webster, 1998:93; Cock, 2002:41; Isaack, 2003:22; De Waal & Manion, 2006:5; Niehaus, 2009:85; Epprecht, 2010:11; Beetar, 2012:49; Kutsch, 2013; McConnell, 2014; Reddy, 2014:19) and a Western colonial import (Altman, 2001:98; Tamale, 2014). These leaders view homosexuality “... as foreign in all respects to indigenous African culture” (Croucher, 2002:316) and believe that it threatens the cultural integrity of their countries (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:314). Although these views are centred around the myth that Africa is a “homogeneous entity”, the argument that homosexuality is ‘un-African’ holds no support as “... Africa is made up of thousands of ethnic groups with rich and diverse cultures and sexualities” (Tamale, 2014). Epprecht (2010:11) argues that Western donors are merely supporting African sexual rights organisations and networks through financial and moral support, and “... are promoting a broad agenda of gender transformation that includes women’s empowerment, children’s rights, and sexuality education”. As with many African leaders, many Afrikaners regard homosexuality as “foreign to true Afrikaner identity” (Croucher, 2002:316) and a threat to the survival and morality of the Afrikaner *volk* (nation) (Retief, 1995:102).

With beliefs like these, how did South Africa, in stark contrast to other African countries, evolve to being one of the most ‘gay-friendly’ countries (Kovac, 2009) in the world? To understand the sexuality and liberation struggle of South Africa’s unique path to the decriminalisation of homosexuality, Gomes da Costa Santos (2013:315) advises that “...

one must look back to the struggle against apartheid and the transition to democracy". Therefore, the next section examines the three historical events that contributed to the gay liberation movement in South Africa: (i) the Forest Town raid of 1966; (ii) the proposed amendment in 1968 to the clauses relating to homosexuality in the Immorality Act, No. 23 of 1957 (renamed the Sexual Offences Act in 1988); and (iii) the formation of the Homosexual Law Reform Fund in 1968 (Mongie, 2013:36).

2.2.1 The Forest Town raid

In January 1966 the South African Police Services (SAPS) raided a private event attended by over 300 white gay men at a residence in Forest Town, Johannesburg (Retief, 1995:101), often referred to as the largest, most organised and most publicised police raid in the history of the South African gay community (Gevisser, 1995:30). This event, and the extent of homosexuality in South Africa, garnered much publicity in the media (Du Pisani, 2012:191). Although, according to a police officer, those in attendance engaged in the "most indecent acts imaginable", none of them could be impeached for public indecency, which was outlawed in the 1957 Immorality Act, as the loophole in the Immorality Act was that revellers could only be arrested if the offences were conducted in public (Gevisser, 1995:101). As this event took place at a private home and not in public, other offences against the law at the time such as gross indecency, selling liquor illegally and masquerading (wearing women's clothes) were used to charge offenders (Du Pisani, 2012:191).

2.2.2 Proposed amendments to the Immorality Act of 1957

The SAPS, after The Forest Town raid, focused more sharply than ever before on the "white homosexual problem" by increasing undercover operations to identify homosexual networks (Du Pisani, 2012:192). The raid led to the then Minister of Justice, PC Pelser, proposing to Parliament in 1967 "... to make male and (for the first time) female homosexuality an offence punishable by compulsory imprisonment for up to three years" (Gevisser, 1995:31) as he compared South Africa to the civilisations of Rome and Greece, claiming that these once-great civilisations were ruined as a result of their tolerance of homosexuality (Retief, 1995:102). Parliament welcomed Pelser's proposal, but the motion was deferred, and proposed again in 1968 (Gevisser, 1995:31) as an

amendment to the Immorality Act, which at this stage only criminalised public homosexual 'acts' (Gevisser, 1995:101). The proposed legislation would make homosexuality itself illegal (Croucher, 2002:317), whereas before only male public homosexual 'acts' were illegal (Isaacs & McKendrick, 1992:155; Currier, 2007:33). The legislation therefore was aimed at introducing harsher punishment (Du Pisani, 2012:193; Wesley, 2012:77). The Bill, if implemented, would automatically incriminate about five percent of the South African population for merely living in a certain way (Du Pisani, 2012:194). The suggested amendments to the Immorality Act in 1968 were the impetus for the beginnings of formal gay organisation in South Africa (Gevisser, 1995:30), the Homosexual Law Reform Fund.

2.2.3 The Homosexual Law Reform Fund of 1968

The Homosexual Law Reform Fund (known as the Law Reform) of 1968 was started to prevent the proposed changes to the Immorality Act (Croucher, 2002:317) and was led by a prominent gay male advocate and consisted of white middle-class homosexuals, who established a fund to pay for the legal fees associated with disputing the suggested anti-homosexual Bill (Gevisser, 1995:32; Butler & Astbury, 2005:811).

The Law Reform group was successful in reaching their goals as the proposed legislation to criminalise homosexuality itself (as opposed to 'public homosexual acts'), as originally suggested, was not turned into law; however three other amendments were made in March 1969 to the Immorality Act of 1957: (i) the age of consent for homosexual acts was raised from 16 to 19 in section 14(1)(b); (ii) sex toys (specifically dildos) were outlawed in section 18A; (iii) the "men at a party clause" was introduced as section 20A which held that "... the SAPS could arrest any male who commits with another male person any act which is calculated to stimulate sexual passion or give sexual satisfaction at a 'party', defined as any occasion with more than two people present" (Gevisser, 1995:35) and enforced a punishment of two years' imprisonment or a R400 fine or both (Du Pisani, 2012:201). These amendments to the Immorality Act of 1957 were implemented to ease SAPS clampdowns in future raids on gay events (Gevisser, 1995:35) where men were brutally forced into police vans, lined up to be photographed (Retief, 1995:103) and their identities leaked and often published in the media (Van der Wal, 2008:30; Pieterse, 2013:625). The calculated amendments to the Immorality Act in

1969 seemed to work as during the decade that followed (the 1970s) close to 4 000 'offenders' were prosecuted and more than 2 000 were convicted for homosexual activities (Du Pisani, 2012:204). The obsessive interest of the state to control and even 'cure' homosexuality in the 1970s is evident in the electroconvulsive aversion therapy programme of the South African Defence Force (SADF) (Du Pisani, 2012:204), as well as the hormone treatments and chemical castrations performed (McGreal, 2000) in the notorious Ward 22 of the then Voortrekkerhoogte Military Hospital (Pieterse, 2013:627).

Although the Law Reform Fund was established for a particular cause, Du Pisani (2012:195,219) is of the opinion that it represented the start of a formal gay movement in South Africa. Gomes da Costa Santos (2013:318), however, maintains that owing to the Law Reform Fund not being a permanent gay rights group and its short-term demand, it did not launch a gay movement in South Africa.

2.2.4 First gay organisations of South Africa

By the 1980s, there was a social and political opening-up of the South African society (Visser, 2003b:127), as attitudes towards homosexuality seemingly started to change and anti-homosexual legislation was irregularly applied; constant SAPS harassment of social gatherings ceased and gay bars operated without attempts to shut them down (Pieterse, 2013:629-630; Pacey, 2014:112). According to Visser (2003b:127), there was "... a tangible sense that the decades of Afrikaner Calvinist rule were coming to an end, and that the strict apartheid categorisation of people could give way to a more liberated and racially integrated society". It was also in the 1980s that literary figures such as Koos Prinsloo, Hennie Aucamp and Johann de Lange, and performing artists such as Pieter-Dirk Uys and Nataniël started writing and performing in a gay milieu (Pieterse, 2013:630).

In April 1982 the Gay Association of South Africa (GASA) was the first national gay organisation to be formed, which was a landmark event in that it was the first official and permanent gay liberation organisation (Gevisser, 1995:48; Kovac, 2009). GASA was primarily a social organisation and, similar to the Homosexual Reform Fund, the members were predominantly male, middle-class and white (Croucher, 2002:318). The apolitical organisation provided counselling and social services (Kovac, 2009). Simon

Nkoli, one of GASAs few black members (Cock, 2002:36), was a young man from Soweto and a youth anti-apartheid activist (Ilyayambwa, 2012:51). He was arrested and among the accused of the “Delmas Treason Trial” (Gevisser, 1995:56) following the anti-apartheid protests in 1983 and 1984 in the Vaal region of the old Transvaal Province (Cock, 2002:36). As he was one of GASA’s few black members, the organisation decided to not support Nkoli (Cock, 2002:36) which exposed the internal contradictions of GASA (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:318) and its inability to recognise racial oppression, a topic often discussed at annual meetings of the International Lesbian and Gay Association (ILGA)¹ (Croucher, 2002:318). In 1987, the Brussels-based ILGA barred GASAs membership as the organisation failed to publicly announce its opposition to the arrest of Nkoli (Gevisser, 1995:56) and for only representing white homosexuals (Croucher, 2002:319). GASA’s decision to remain apolitical during political turmoil eventually led to its demise (Croucher, 2002:318); however, Gevisser (1995:57) asserts that GASA actually began deteriorating in 1985 owing to mismanagement and financial troubles.

2.2.5 The origins of the ‘gay rights clause’

After GASA’s demise, several politicised, militant and racially mixed gay organisations were formed (Kennedy, 2006:63). Of the most significant was the establishment in 1987 of the Organisation of Lesbian and Gay Activists (OLGA), once again consisting of primarily middle-class white activists involved in the anti-apartheid struggle (Croucher, 2002:319; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:319) and in 1988, Gays and Lesbians of the Witwatersrand (GLOW), a new and for the first time predominantly black organisation, was established and led by Simon Nkoli (Croucher, 2002:319; Ilyayambwa, 2012:51). While still segregated along racial lines, OLGA and GLOW proved that the physiognomies of South Africa’s gay movement had changed (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:319), as both organisations aimed at connecting the gay struggle to the larger anti-apartheid struggle (Croucher, 2002:319; Kennedy, 2006:63). It is important to note that, while in prison and discussing prison sex with his comrades, Nkoli admitted to being gay,

¹ ILGA was founded as the International Gay Association (IGA) in 1978 in Coventry, England. It changed its name to the International Lesbian and Gay Association (ILGA) in 1986. ILGA is used consistently in the literature cited; however the organisation’s website, while maintaining the abbreviation ILGA, refers to the organisation as the International Lesbian, Gay, Bixexual, Trans and Intersex Association.

which ultimately prompted his co-defendants Popo Molefe and Patrick Lekota, and also leaders of the United Democratic Front (UDF), to recognise homophobia as a form of oppression (Pettis, 2005) which made it easier for both OLGA and GLOW to become members of the UDF (Pettis, 2005; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:319), formed in 1983, which was South Africa's leading internal anti-apartheid organisation at the time, with over one million members and 600 affiliated bodies (Cock, 1991:32) and aligned to the African National Congress (ANC) (Croucher, 2002:319; Kovac, 2009).

It is well documented how OLGA and GLOW influenced the ANC in prioritising gay rights during constitution negotiations, but few researchers acknowledge the efforts of British anti-apartheid activist, Peter Tatchell. During an interview with Ruth Mompoti, an executive member of the ANC at the time and a women's rights campaigner, Tatchell uncovered homophobia within the ranks of the ANC as Mompoti was of the opinion that homosexuality was a Western import that was unknown to most South Africans. Mompoti stated:

"I cannot even begin to understand why people want gay and lesbian rights. The gays have no problem ... I don't see them suffering. No one is persecuting them ... We don't have a policy on gays and lesbians. We don't have a policy on flower sellers either" (Tatchell, 2008).

Tatchell was uncertain if Mompoti's views were representative of the ANC and proceeded to contact the ANC's chief representative in Britain, Solly Smith. To his disappointment, Smith held similar views:

"We don't have a policy. Gay rights do not arise in the ANC. We cannot be diverted from our struggle by these issues. We believe in the majority being equal. These people (lesbians and gays) are in the minority. The majority must rule" (Tatchell, 2008).

Accordingly, a London newspaper published Tatchell's interviews with Smith and Mompoti in 1987, which resulted in the ANC being inundated with letters of condemnation in which people criticised the liberated ANC movement for bigotry, ignorance, and intolerance (Tatchell, 2008). The uproar and controversy embarrassed the ANC (Tatchell, 1997) as they were fighting the NP government for equality – "... it would seem hypocritical for the ANC government to come out and denounce the rights of gays, while at the same time demanding equal rights for themselves" (Brown, 2014:475).

At the same time, Tatchell wrote to Thabo Mbeki, ANC Director of Information at the time (Cock, 2002:36) in which he argued that "... support for gay liberation was consistent with the principles of the ANC's Freedom Charter" (Tatchell, 1997). When writing to Mbeki, who was one of the ANC leaders in exile, he also included evidence in the form of published articles about the efforts of Simon Nkoli and Ivan Toms, two prominent gay anti-apartheid activists inside South Africa (Mongie, 2013:54). Toms, a former gay white lieutenant in the SADF and medical doctor, was well known for being imprisoned for refusing in 1984 and 1987 to serve in the military campaign of the SADF in the Crossroads township of Cape Town (Croucher, 2002:319). Toms was pressured by the then banned End Conscription Campaign (ECC), of which he had been a founding member, to remain silent about his homosexuality in favour of better furthering their primary cause (Gevisser, 1995:58) which was to encourage thousands of white South African men to oppose conscription into military service (Bleby, 2012). Nevertheless, Toms admitted to being gay to his comrades to acknowledge the presence of white, gay men in the battle against apartheid in much the same way that Nkoli did during the Delmas Treason Trial (Mongie, 2013:54). This news about the involvement of gay activists fighting against apartheid came as a surprise to many members of the exiled ANC leaders, which significantly influenced their perceptions and led to them adopting a pro-gay attitude (Tatchell, 2008). Also, the fact that Nkoli, an openly gay black man, "... held prominent positions in a number of different political groups gave the gay rights movement more legitimacy as well as publicity" (Brown, 2014:464) and ultimately led to Nkoli becoming an internationally acclaimed figure for gay rights (Gevisser, 1995:56).

Tatchell's letter to Mbeki and the adverse publicity from his article in a London newspaper had the desired effect, as ANC leadership in exile developed a more positive attitude towards gay rights (Tatchell, 2008). In 1987, in a publicly stated letter to Tatchell, Mbeki announced a change of policy and wrote that "... the ANC was committed to removing all forms of discrimination and oppression in a liberated South Africa", which included the safeguarding of gay rights (Rydström, 2005:47). In the interim, exiled ANC leaders based in London, who fortunately had greater sensitivity to, and knowledge of the issue of gay liberation (Croucher, 2002:319-320), started preparing a post-apartheid constitution. In 1989, Tatchell made contact with Albie Sachs, also an exiled ANC leader affiliated to this constitutional working party, to reassure Sachs that anti-gay discrimination was feasible and practical, and presented Sachs with excerpts of anti-

discriminatory bills from different countries that banned sexuality-based discrimination (Tatchell, 1997, 2008). Tatchell also arranged for Sachs to meet with Derrick Fine, a gay representative from OLGA, where Fine was able to put OLGA's constitutional proposals to Sachs which led to Sachs's confidence in persuading most of the ANC leadership (Tatchell, 1997) to accept anti-discrimination based on sexual orientation.

In 1990 Nelson Mandela was released from prison and deliberations started for a "transfer of power" from the NP to the now unbanned ANC, resulting in a tremendous opportunity for South Africa's gay movement (Croucher, 2002:319; Kovac, 2009). OLGA held meetings with senior ANC members, Kader Asmal, Frene Ginwala and Albie Sachs, all of whom supported OLGA's constitutional proposals (Tatchell, 2008). Sachs was of the opinion that "... all oppression is related and that it would therefore be unjust to deny rights to gay citizens" and insisted that "... homophobia was the essence of apartheid", whereas the "essence of democracy" was that "... people should be free to be what they are" (Thoreson, 2008:690). Ginwala was of the opinion that the ANC is a "broad church" and that its diverse membership includes gays and lesbians in the fight against discrimination and "... deprivation of gays and lesbians cannot be excluded from that process" (Rydström, 2005:47). OLGA submitted an extensive proposal to the ANC's Constitutional Committee in September 1990, which was responsible for drafting the movement's Bill of Rights in which it proposed a Bill of Rights that would "... protect the fundamental rights of all citizens and guarantee equal rights for all individuals, irrespective of race, colour, gender, creed or 'sexual orientation'" (Tatchell, 2008). OLGA's efforts were successful when, in November 1990, the draft post-apartheid constitution included 'sexual orientation' as protected grounds for non-discrimination (Sinclair, 2004:237).

Towards the end of 1992, the ANC officially adopted the rights of sexual and gender minorities in its Bill of Rights, as did the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and the Democratic Party (DP) (Croucher, 2002:320; Currier, 2007:46). Massoud (2003:303) contends that "... other political parties engaged in the same action because few if any political parties wanted to be seen in the media as promoting any form of animus in light of South Africa's history of brutal racial injustice". With the different political parties campaigning for support, any disagreement with adopting the rights of sexual and gender minorities would probably have been criticised by the media (Kennedy, 2006:65), which was the

case when the African Christian Democratic Party (ACDP) opposed it and "... mobilised 10 000 people to march against the 'secular state' and for a Christian Bill of Rights" (Jara, 1998:31). Nevertheless, in 1993, multiple political parties voted in favour of adopting the interim Constitution, the provisional document that would serve during the transition to a new government (Croucher, 2002:320), which required a Constitutional Assembly (CA) to draft a final constitution by 1996 (Croucher, 2002:323). The CA allowed an inclusive process of constitution making as it

"... held public meetings and workshops throughout the country, aired a weekly television programme and regular newsprint publications dedicated to constitutional issues, and set up a toll-free interactive telephone service as well as a website" (Klug, 1996:56).

This participatory approach made the new Constitution widely representative, so that as many citizens as possible could associate with it and feel protected by it (Mongie, 2013:64).

In 1994, 78 South African gay Social Movement Organisations (SMOs) formed the National Coalition for Gay and Lesbian Equality (NCGLE), an umbrella organisation aiming to ensure that 'sexual orientation' as grounds for non-discrimination be retained in the final Constitution (Jara, 1998:31; Oswin, 2007:649-651; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:322-323), which became known as 'the gay rights clause' (Cock, 2002:37). Although it was expected that the interim Constitution would set the agenda for the final Constitution, it was by no means certain that 'the gay rights clause' would be retained in the final Constitution (De Vos, 2007:439). The NCGLE, in their lobbying efforts to retain 'sexual orientation' in the equality clause of the final Constitution, argued that "... in the same way as African, Coloured and Indian people were excluded from citizenship rights in South Africa, lesbian and gay people are denied citizenship" (Croucher, 2002:324) and warned that "... to implement a Bill of Rights based on Christian principles would be to impose one belief on people with others" (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:325), thus suggesting a constitution that is fundamentally tied to a Bill of Rights and not to the religious guidelines of any faith (Reddy, 2014:18). The NCGLE maintained that this would constitute an unfair and biased constitution favouring the Christian religion (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:325) and argued that "... the religious beliefs of some, cannot determine the constitutional rights of others" (De Vos & Barnard, 2007:819). Cock (2002:37) argues that the NCGLE's success was due to its narrowly defined

single-issue focus, similar to the Law Reform Fund's focus on preventing the criminalisation of homosexuality in the amended Immorality Act.

2.2.6 The liberal Constitution of 1996

The lobbying of the NCGLE was ultimately successful (Jara, 1998:31; Croucher, 2002:320) as the final post-apartheid Constitution of 1996 outlaws anti-gay discrimination and constitutionally protects gay rights (Kennedy, 2006:60), making it one of the most inclusive and liberal constitutions in the world (Isaack, 2003:19; Beetar, 2012:49; Pacey, 2014:113). South Africa is the first country in the world to outlaw unfair discrimination against 'sexual orientation' (Croucher, 2002:315; Butler & Astbury, 2005:811; Kennedy, 2006:60; De Vos & Barnard, 2007:797-798; Ilyayambwa, 2012:51; Barnard-Naudé, 2013:312; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:313; Grove, 2014) and the only country on the African continent that protects the right to 'sexual orientation' in its constitution (Dhariwal, 2012; Jonas, 2012:222; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:332). South Africa's gay movement garnered one of the greatest success stories in the history of gay political organising worldwide (Oswin, 2005a:573) and specifically in Africa, as South Africa remains the only African country to fully recognise gay rights (Dhariwal, 2012) and continues to do so 21 years after their being protected in the post-apartheid Constitution.

After the final Constitution was approved in 1996, South Africa still had a wide variety of laws that discriminated against homosexuality (Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:326). To comply with the post-apartheid Constitution, various anti-discrimination campaigns induced in large measure by the efforts of the NCGLE, have challenged the unconstitutionality of these discriminatory laws, resulting in a number of legal victories (Reddy, 2014:18). The liberal Constitution of 1996 became an effective tool to overturn numerous laws implemented by the apartheid government, as can be seen in Table 2.1.

It is revolutionary that South Africa has managed to repeal the apartheid state's oppressive and discriminatory laws. It is indeed, as argued by De Vos and Barnard (2007:825), remarkable that South Africa achieved this so soon after its emergence from the dark past of apartheid. The biggest challenge remaining in South Africa is the acceptance and tolerance of gay people as equal citizens by a conservative society

(Isaack, 2003:22). Cameron (2013) argues that the gay community, in stark contrast to the liberal constitution, continues to experience discrimination and violence.

Table 2.1: Legal victories as a result of the liberal Constitution of 1996

Date	Case	Judgment
February 4, 1998	Capt. Langemaat v Department of Correctional Services, Safety and Security	The High Court rules that medical aid regulations that do not recognise same-sex relationships are unconstitutional
October 9, 1998	NCGLE and another v Minister of Justice and others	The Constitutional Court (CC) abolishes the crime of sodomy
December 2, 1999	NCGLE and others v Minister of Home Affairs and others	The CC rules that the long-term same-sex partners of South African citizens or permanent residents should be treated as spouses when it comes to immigration regulations
May 13, 2002	Muir v Mutual and Federal Pension Fund	The Pension Fund Adjudicator awards full pension benefits to the surviving same-sex partner of a deceased Mutual and Federal employee
July 25, 2002	Satchwell v President of the Republic of South Africa and another	The CC rules that the long-term same-sex partner of a judge should be entitled to the same pension payout of a judge's spouse
September 10, 2002	Du Toit and another v the Minister of Welfare and Population Development and others	The CC rules that same-sex couples should be allowed to adopt children
October, 2002	J and B v Home Affairs	The CC rules that same-sex couples should be allowed to register as the parents of children born to one of them
September 19, 2003	Du Plessis v Road Accident Fund	The Supreme Court of Appeal (SCA) determines that the heir in a same-sex life relationship has a right to recover funeral expenses expended by him
November 30, 2004	Fourie v Minister of Home Affairs	The SCA declares the common law definition of marriage unconstitutional, following an appeal by Marie Fourie and her partner, Cecelia Bonthuys
December 8, 2005	Minister of Home Affairs and another v Fourie and another	The CC endorses the SCA decision (30/11/04) that confirms the unconstitutionality of (1) common law definition of marriage, (2) current marriage formula. Such declarations are deemed invalid and suspended for 12 months from date of judgment, allowing parliament to correct the defects.

Date	Case	Judgment
November 30, 2006	Civil Union Act 17 of 2006	The Civil Union Act is signed into law by the Deputy President of South Africa, providing for the legal recognition of same-sex partnerships.
December 6, 2006	State v NCGLE	Civil Union Bill signed into law by the then Deputy President.
November 30, 2016	Laubscher v Duplan and another	The CC rules that unmarried partners in a same-sex relationship should inherit each other's estate, even without a will.

Sources: Isaack (2003:20-22), Butler and Astbury (2005:811-812), De Vos and Barnard (2007:798,817), Thoreson (2008:681-682), Reddy (2014:22-23) and Southern African Legal Information Institute (2016).

2.2.7 Tolerant laws versus a conservative society

It must be noted that the protection of gay rights in South Africa's Bill of Rights is a result of a constitutional order by the ANC and a commitment to human rights (Jara, 1998:31) and the lobbying by anti-apartheid campaigners and pro-gay groups that allowed the inclusion of gay rights in the agenda of anti-apartheid groups following the demise of NP rule of South Africa (Brown, 2014:455), but certainly is not due to the country's tolerance of homosexuality. The progressive new government and constitution of South Africa, however, are in contrast with the beliefs of many South Africans, who still overwhelmingly oppose gay rights (Kirchick, 2007; Thoreson, 2008:679; Ilyayambwa, 2012:51), often described as "... a deeply conservative, hetero-normative country in spite of its progressive politics" (Thoreson, 2008:682). In June 2013, over 60% of South Africans said that homosexuality should not be tolerated by society in a Pew Research Center survey (Kutsch, 2013; Grove, 2014). The introduction of a gay plotline in *Generations*, the most popular locally produced soap on South African television, was met with general outrage and threats of violence on social media, with a Facebook group consisting of over 18 000 members threatening to boycott the show if the plotline was not removed (Mamba Online, 2009). The Pan Africanist Youth Congress of Azania (PAYCO) wrote an official letter to the producers of the show requesting them to "stop promoting evil and 'un-African' practices" (Masinga, 2010). The National House of Traditional Leaders, which advises the government on "traditional customs of ethnic groups" (Dhariwal, 2012) has vocally criticised homosexuality and called on parliament

for the removal of 'sexual orientation' protection from the Constitution (Mamba Online, 2012a; Williams, D., 2012).

The gap between South African citizens' conservative social attitudes and the country's liberal laws (Ilyayambwa, 2012:51) can be overcome through vigorous public education and awareness campaigns (Cameron, 2013; Grove, 2014). Ilyayambwa (2012:57) states that "... these challenges cannot be resolved or tackled legislatively since they are within the conscience of an individual" and argues that "... the manner in which the South African Government and its institutions address challenges brought about by 'sexual orientation' will ultimately determine the pace at which the complete integration of societal differences occurs in South Africa". Nevertheless, McConnell (2014) contends that South Africa is a frontrunner when it comes to the Government's efforts to protect gender and sexual minorities. Indeed, in 2005, before the vote in Parliament to pass the Civil Union Act into law, Mosiuoa Lekota, South African Defence Minister at the time, urged Parliament to support gay rights and stated:

"We are bound to fulfil the promises of democracy which we made to the people of our country. Are we going to suppress this so-called minority, or are we going to let these people enjoy the privilege of choosing who will be their life partners? I take this opportunity to remind the House that in the long and arduous struggle for democracy very many men and women of homosexual or lesbian orientation joined the ranks of the liberation and democratic forces. How then can we live with the reality that we should enjoy rights that together we fought for side by side, and deny them that? Today, as we reap the fruits of democracy, it is only right that they must be afforded similar space in the sunshine of our democracy ... this country cannot afford to continue to be a prisoner of the backward, timeworn prejudices that have no basis" (Alexander, 2006).

In 2011, the South African Government established a national task team consisting of members of the Foundation for Human Rights and the South African Human Rights Commission, as well as civil society and government representatives to make determined efforts to deal with 'sexual orientation-based' violence, including so-called 'corrective rape' (Cassell, 2013; South African Tourism, 2014b), where the intent of the perpetrators is to enforce conformity and to 'cure' those who "challenge the dominant heterosexual identity" (Kutsch, 2013; Hennig, 2014). In 2012 the South African government announced that the Department of Arts and Culture had approved the registration of the 'Gay Flag of South Africa' and it was now accepted and protected as South Africa's official gay flag (Mamba Online, 2012b), a combination of the international rainbow gay flag and the South African national flag (Pedro, 2012; Williams, D., 2012).

South Africa is the first country in the world to officially recognise the rainbow flag as the official symbol of the gay community (Pedro, 2012).

Also in 2012, at a celebration of International Human Rights Day at the United Nations (UN) in New York, Yvonne Chaka-Chaka of South Africa voiced her opinion on non-discrimination and tolerance and said that "... living under the apartheid regime in South Africa had made her aware that discrimination, be it on the basis of race, 'sexual orientation', or gender identity, is unacceptable" (Human Rights Watch, 2012). In 2013, The UN launched "Free & Equal" in South Africa, a campaign to advance global gay rights (Cameron, 2013; South African Tourism, 2013b). The campaign, which was launched in Cape Town by UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, Navi Pillay, Archbishop Emeritus Desmond Tutu, and South African CC Justice Edwin Cameron, includes infographics, testimonies and short videos to change negative stereotypes and dismiss misconceptions about gay people and their families (South African Tourism, 2013b).

In 2014, the national task team introduced a programme to counter violence and discrimination against gay people in the country in which Justice Minister Jeff Radebe warned that South Africa's CC would harshly punish any perpetrator of violence or discrimination against the gay community (South African Tourism, 2014b). A further attempt to change the perception and conservative societal attitudes of South Africans included the US-sponsored teacher-training programme implemented in the 2014 curriculum at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), in which teachers' personal homophobic attitudes are challenged; it includes training on teaching about gender and sexual diversity in the classroom (Hennig, 2014; Katz, 2014).

Slow progress in societal attitudes is evident as, for the first time in South African history, government officials took part in one of the many gay pride marches in the country with the mayors of Polokwane and the Capricorn District Municipality, as well as various councillors and members of the SAPS joining activists, gay-rights groups and members of the gay community in the 2015 Limpopo procession (Mamba Online, 2015a). This is in stark contrast to the apartheid era when public homosexual acts were punishable by the SAPS. Also, the South African Minister of Sport, Fikile Mbalula, on his personal Twitter page with 1.2 million followers, publicly supported Caitlyn Jenner, previously Bruce

Jenner, a US Olympic gold medalist who in 2015 announced that she is transgender, when Mbalula stated the following:

“We live in a new progressive world, we learn daily. The story of Bruce Jenner, now Caitlyn, will be educational to all. Live happy, be truly you.”

He later posted the following:

“Yes to a non-sexist world that respects and understands that Human Rights are not merely written but must be practical” (Channel 24, 2015; Mamba Online, 2015b).

Although slow progress is being made regarding societal perceptions, South Africans still face confusion and have limited knowledge when it comes to gay-related issues; hence to accelerate a transformative agenda, Katz (2014) and Hennig (2014) advise vigorously implementing the wisdom of late President Nelson Mandela, namely that "... education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world".

The development of a liberal and historic Constitution inevitably resulted in the development of a free and openly gay South African civil society and the establishment of uniquely 'gay spaces' for the gay community (Visser, 2003a:180) which brought about the emergence of a gay leisure market (Visser, 2002:87). Few South African destinations are taking advantage of gay tourism, despite the increasing growth of this gay leisure market, with Cape Town being the notable exception (Visser, 2003a:168). Today, as Africa's gay capital (Croucher, 2002:316), Cape Town is home to a vibrant 'gaybourhood', De Waterkant, consisting of a concentration of bars, restaurants, entertainment venues, and accommodation establishments targeting the gay community (Cullen, 2010:1).

2.3 Alone in Africa: the case of Cape Town's gay village

The following section examines the development of the 'gaybourhood' in De Waterkant in 1994, which became a drawcard attracting domestic and international gay travellers, and attempts to explain the role it played in establishing Cape Town as a leading international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of the 21st century (Visser, 2003a:175).

2.3.1 Cape Town's De Waterkant: from slum to gay mecca

The area known as De Waterkant is a mixed-use commercial, industrial and residential area of 0.4 square kilometres located between the residential suburb of Green Point and Cape Town's central business district (CBD), commonly referred to as 'De Waterkant Village' (Rink, 2011:3), or the 'Pink Village' (*Cape Town Magazine*, 2014). The specific area, with its concentration of gay bars and restaurants, is often referred to by locals as the 'pink strip' (Saunders, 2012; Buchanan, 2013) or the 'gay strip' (Williams, F., 2012). De Waterkant has become one of the most desirable addresses in Cape Town, with many of the timeworn 19th-century homes having been remodelled to create a village atmosphere during the day, comparable to New York's Greenwich Village and London's Soho (Cape Town Tourism, 2014). At night, however, Cape Town's buzzing 'Pink Village' is described as "... where the hedonists, the diverse, the multi-cultural and the multi-sexual come out to play" (*Cape Town Magazine*, 2014).

De Waterkant was once a racially mixed neighbourhood before being declared a "white group area" (Visser, 2003b:128) implemented through the Group Areas Act of 1950 (Act No. 41 of 1950) (Rink, 2011:4), with the area's racially mixed community removed between 1969 and 1973 to make way for whites (Visser, 2003b:128). Owing to the forced removals, De Waterkant's property values drastically decreased and attracted many young white liberal professionals at that time (Rink, 2011:8). By 1968 an urban renewal process had started in the area when 35 Loader Street, depicted in Figure 2.1, was bought and modernised by Edward Austen (Kotze & Van der Merwe, 2000:40-41). The late Austen, a white Kenyan immigrant (Rink, 2011:10) and the first openly gay resident of the village, restored the 19th-century Georgian house to its original charm, living in luxury in a slum area until many of the other residents followed his example (Rink, 2011:11). Austen has been lauded for securing De Waterkant's architectural heritage, for his role as first chairman of the De Waterkant Civic Association (Rink, 2011:13), as well as for naming the area 'De Waterkant' (Rink, 2011:11).



Figure 2.1: 35 Loader Street

Source: Image captured by the researcher (2017)

From the 1970s, De Waterkant was a 'bohemian' village with many residents involved in the arts (Visser, 2003b:128). The 'bohemian' character of De Waterkant that continued throughout the 1980s and well into the 1990s led to "... a growing gay population of residents which ultimately contributed to symbolically framing De Waterkant as a gay village" (Rink, 2011:12). Russell Shapiro, casually referred to as the "mayor of the gay village", was one of the earliest pioneers and champions of the 'gay village' (Rink, 2011:13) and the gay leisure market of Cape Town (Visser, 2003b:128). The first gay business that opened in De Waterkant was in 1994 in the form of "Russell Shapiro's Café Manhattan" (Cullen, 2010:4; Rink, 2011:12), followed by the opening of Bronx, a gay bar, approximately six weeks later (Shapiro, 2017). A network of gay businesses, as discussed below, opened in succession as the property was inexpensive and the district bordered Green Point and Sea Point (Cullen, 2010:4) which was close to the affluent target market – white gay men (Visser, 2003a:180). To this day, Green Point and Sea Point on the Cape Town Atlantic Seaboard remain areas in which several relatively wealthy white gay men reside (Visser, 2003b:126). De Waterkant, in the mid 1990s, thus shifted from a "... Bohemian urban place to a modern gay village" (Rink, 2011:12).

In 1995 Detour and Angels (two gay clubs at the time) introduced gay party evenings (Visser, 2003b:128). By 1998 Brunswick Tavern, a gay bar located in the CBD, moved to Somerset Road in De Waterkant, and was renamed “55”. Owing to an increasing demand for gay leisure facilities, a variety of other gay businesses opened at approximately the same time. These comprised a “... dedicated leather bar (Bar Code), a poolbar (Rosies) and a steam baths (sauna) complex (Hot House)” (Visser, 2003b:130). Numerous restaurants (e.g. Village Café, Bar Soho and Dutch) (Visser, 2003b:131) and a ‘guest quarter’ (Rink, 2011:19) with nearly three street blocks of short-term tourist accommodation developed in close proximity to the other facilities (Visser, 2003b:131), mostly catering to the gay market (Visser, 2002:90; Rink, 2011:14). Consequently, in a few short years, De Waterkant developed “coincidentally” into a “self-styled” gay village (Rink, 2013:74), a first for both South Africa and the African continent (Visser, 2003a:181). Important to note is that Cape Town’s ‘gaybourhood’ “... doesn’t, wouldn’t, and couldn’t exist in any other country on this continent, the majority of which outlaw homosexuality” (McConnell, 2014). Clubs in De Waterkant have a new performance every night and flamboyance and extravagance are applauded rather than frowned upon (Beebe, 2012:28), a stark contrast to the social attitudes during the apartheid era.

The clustering of gay leisure facilities stimulated and expanded the urban renewal process (Visser, 2003a:186) as the area had previously been rundown and derelict (Cullen, 2010:4; Rink, 2011:11). Indeed, many researchers, including Kotze and Van der Merwe (2000); Visser (2003a; 2003b; 2014); Cullen (2010) and Rink (2011) suggest that a process of gentrification had occurred in De Waterkant. An early definition of gentrification is that it is “... the process of converting working-class areas into middle-class neighborhoods through the rehabilitation of the neighborhood’s housing stock” (Smith, 1979:547). Markusen (1981:32) attributes gentrification to the fact that “... households of gay people, singles and professional couples with central business district jobs increasingly find central locations attractive”. Kotze and Van der Merwe (2000:40) echo a similar sentiment and note that during gentrification, “... people of the middle class with a higher income invade working-class neighbourhoods in the inner city”. Devocht (2004) studied this relationship between the gay community and the city and examined the link between the gay community and the gentrification of inner city neighbourhoods by using San Francisco as a case study to establish what determines

the city to serve as a model for other gay communities throughout the Western world. Devocht (2004:7) concluded that gay residential communities renovate houses and urban spaces, just like other urban groups do, and referred to the process of urban renovation in San Francisco by gay people as 'gaytrification', a variant of gentrification. In similar vein, Udell (2011) investigated how Wilton Manors became the "third most concentrated city of gay people" in Florida in the US. Udell (2011:7) argues that a process of 'gaytrification' resulted in Wilton Manors becoming a "city-sized gay and lesbian enclave", and specifically uncovered its transformation from a "white, heterosexual family bedroom community" to its current status as a "gay mecca".

Most of the properties in De Waterkant have either been demolished or converted, with a variety of trendy developments, as depicted in Figure 2.2, replacing the decaying buildings (Visser, 2003a:182). Bensimon (2011:30-31) warns that the creation of trendy city areas also involves negative consequences for the inhabitants. Indeed, some researchers argue that the 'gaytrification' of De Waterkant has been so successful that the middle- and lower-income gay population cannot afford to live in the area (Cullen, 2010:4), as property prices have increased well beyond the reach of the original occupants (Kotze & Van der Merwe, 2000:40; Visser, 2003b:133). For example, property prices have increased from R300 000 in the early 2000s (Rogerson & Visser, 2007:156) to an average of R2.3 million in 2010, and to R3.9 million in 2012 (*SA Property News*, 2015). This seems to be an international trend as Doan and Higgins (2011:6) argue that many of these once rundown neighbourhoods, such as Chelsea in New York, West Hollywood in Los Angeles, the Castro in San Francisco, Boys Town in Chicago, the 'Gaybourhood' in Philadelphia, the South End in Boston, and Midtown in Atlanta were originally gentrified by gay individuals fleeing discrimination experienced in other areas. Once gentrified, these areas become increasingly attractive to straight individuals in search of a city lifestyle (Doan & Higgins, 2011:6). They reiterate the findings of Lees (2000:402) that "... some recent gentrification is fuelled by the consumption patterns of 'financifiers', that is, 'super-gentrifiers' whose access to capital allows them to invest in previously gentrified areas and reinvent them according to their needs" (Doan & Higgins, 2011:7).



Figure 2.2: An example of a trendy new development in De Waterkant

Source: Image captured by the researcher (2017)

Visser (2014:478) is of the opinion that De Waterkant moved from “near slum to a gentrified area”, a ‘gaybourhood’ and currently a mix of affluent white gay males, heterosexual couples and primarily an area of professional work, tourist consumption and leisure. Rink (2011:1-2) argues in a similar vein that De Waterkant has progressed through four distinct identities, which include a “... mixed-race village with roots in the social history of Cape Town (a site of slavery, a home to the Scottish regiment, the marginalised such as freed slaves, prostitutes and sailors) which was dismantled under apartheid through forced removals; a Bohemian village that changed racial dynamics and improved housing stock; a ‘gay village’ that allowed new, but limited, expressions of sexual citizenship; and most recently a consumer lifestyle shopping and entertainment village” (Rink, 2011:1-2) which seems to have followed the consumption patterns of “financifiers” or “super-gentrifiers” as discussed above, as De Waterkant’s appeal to a broader audience finally became too strong to limit itself simply to a gay audience (Rink, 2011:14). Indeed, in 2007 concerns were raised that the area was being ‘invaded’ by heterosexuals and that professional business developments were replacing the unique

“gay charm” of the village (Bamford, 2007). Sheryl Ozinsky, Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Cape Town Routes Unlimited at the time, said the gay community often gentrified areas such as De Waterkant by moving into them first, but were then displaced when property got too expensive (Bamford, 2007). Bensimon (2011:30) shares these sentiments and argues that these neighbourhoods are originally situated in low-income housing districts, followed by artists and gays moving in and ‘gentrifying’ them, which then leads to the displacement of locals after the property prices increase. He specifically referred to an area in Dallas, as well as Chelsea in New York, as being prime examples.

This displacement is also evident in the research of Doan and Higgins (2011) in which they provide evidence on how the gentrification process impacted the lives of numerous gay community members. In the findings of Doan and Higgins, the interviewees stated a preference for a gay-identified neighbourhood, and note that gentrified housing is increasingly unaffordable to middle-class gay people (Doan & Higgins, 2011:18). They conclude by referring to a “demise of the gaybourhood” and the struggle to maintain those identities (Doan & Higgins, 2011:19-20) as these gay people cannot afford the rising property prices of traditional gay-identified neighbourhoods, and are likely to seek out neighbourhoods described as “diverse” (Doan & Higgins, 2011:18). This seems to be the case in Cape Town’s De Waterkant, as some gay people are considering Observatory, which already has a very ‘bohemian’ community, as well as Woodstock and Salt River as possible alternatives (Bamford, 2007). Visser (2014:480), however, is of the opinion that these areas will not be ‘gaytrified’; instead he predicts that the transition to gentrification will be led by “... heterosexual individuals and small family units, general urban tourism facilities and services, along with institutional and corporate capital”.

2.3.2 De Waterkant: the ‘de-gaying’ of Africa’s ‘gaybourhood’

There has been an increasing interest in the transformation of gay villages (Binnie & Skeggs, 2004; Collins, 2004; Ruting, 2008; Gorman-Murray & Waitt, 2009; Lewis, 2013), partially due to the changing dynamics of sexual and gender identities (Nash, 2013:243) often referred to as the ‘de-gaying’ – or decline of gay enclaves (Casey, 2004; Hekma, 2004), now described as ‘post-gay’ (Gorman-Murray, 2006; Ghaziani, 2011), or ‘post-

mo' (Nash, 2013:243), referring to the 'post-modern homosexual' (Weinraub, 2011) meaning "... to define oneself by more than sexuality, to disentangle gayness from militancy and struggle and to enjoy sexually mixed company" (Warner, 1999:102). In a Western context, and arguably South African context too, the post-modern homosexual has grown up in a country that outlaws anti-gay discrimination and constitutionally protects gay rights, allows same-sex marriage or civil unions, recognises gay families and accepts gay people in military service (Nash, 2013:247).

As far as 20 years ago, Pritchard et al. (1998:279) documented Manchester's concern over the gay village losing its identity, as heterosexual (straight) visitors were increasingly drawn to the city's "excellent bars, restaurants and cafes". They further argued that the Manchester Mardi Gras had become "a victim of its own success", since it had outgrown the gay village's ability to accommodate it and that the festival attracted increasing mainstream media attention, resulting in a growing number of straight attendees and thus becoming 'de-gayed' (Pritchard et al., 1998:279). Visser (2014:473) refers to this as "... processes of homo-normalisation in which middle-class gay men are increasingly absorbed into mainstream heterosexual lifeworlds that are located beyond consolidated gay neighbourhoods". Many researchers argue that 'queerness' has become normalised in the sense that the gay community have achieved greater acceptance in the ambient heterosexual world with a new generation of gays seeing no need to codify exclusionary 'gay spaces' (Nash, 2013:245; Rink, 2013:86; Visser, 2014:477), resulting in heterosexual spaces increasingly attracting a mixed (gay and straight) following in the city's cafes, bars, restaurants and popular nightclubs (Rink, 2013:82). This new generation of gay men in particular is, however, limited to what is referred to as 'acceptable' homosexuals (Nash, 2013:248), regarded as those "... who 'fit' heterosexual views of normality (professionals, middle-class, suburban and coupled)" (Visser, 2013:269). Drawing on a June 2011 article titled 'Dawn of a New Gay' by Paul Aguirre-Livingston, Nash (2013:250) explains that the post-modern homosexual is more 'straight acting' and 'fits' these heterosexual views of normality.

De Waterkant is now constituted within a cosmopolitan context, and is increasingly being marketed towards a mixed crowd. This is evident in recent promotions by South African Tourism as follows: "... while there are many gay-only establishments, gay people are welcome everywhere" (South African Tourism, 2015a) ... "as most establishments

welcome anyone who wants to party the night away” (South African Tourism, 2015b). Other publications, in a similar vein, refer to Cape Town as a city with “... a wide range of offerings, urban and bucolic, from mostly gay to comfortably mixed nightclubs and restaurants” (Capital News, 2012; *The Australian*, 2012). The argument that gay villages are being ‘de-gayed’ and that gay people are increasingly welcomed in other areas and neighbourhoods has resonance in Cape Town where paranoia about the demise of the village has received little academic attention (Rink, 2008a, 2008b; Visser, 2013, 2014) and even less attention in mainstream (Bamford, 2007) and gay press (Frost, 2007; Thomas-Burke, 2007). Visser (2014:470) investigated how De Waterkant developed into a gentrified ‘gaybourhood’ in the 1990s, how it was reconfigured as “gay urban tourism space” and, most recently, transformed into a ‘de-gayed’ area consisting of exclusive leisure tourism spaces for wealthy white gay men and straight couples, as well as mostly mainstream accommodation establishments and professional businesses (Figure 2.3).

Visser (2013:271) argues that although a limited number of gay leisure activities remain in De Waterkant, it can no longer be regarded as a gay village. Some researchers suggest that the area is misrepresented as a gay village compared with gay villages such as New York’s Greenwich Village, San Francisco’s Castro or London’s Soho (Visser, 2003a:184; Tucker, 2009:48; Visser, 2013:272). Rink (2008a:208) also questions whether or not De Waterkant can be classified as a gay village, but argues that “... the extent to which the area is marketed and situated as a site of freedom-seeking performance of transgressive identities and sexualities not freely practiced in hetero-sexualised spaces beyond the gay enclave cannot be denied”.

Just 12 years ago, Elder (2005:580) described De Waterkant as Africa’s and South Africa’s most developed gay village with over 100 gay-dedicated venues. However, just over a decade later the seemingly ‘de-gaying’ of De Waterkant set in (Visser, 2014:473). Visser (2014:477) argues that “... the ratio of heterosexual to homosexual in the larger De Waterkant has changed to be majority heterosexual” and that the “... once mainly gay tourists that resided in the tourism accommodation of De Waterkant have been replaced by heterosexuals from a range of European countries, along with domestic vacationers and local professionals”.



Figure 2.3: An example of a new mainstream accommodation establishment in De Waterkant

Source: The Grey Hotel (2017)

Cape Town's gay leisure and residential spaces thus seem to have followed the example of a global trend of 'homonormalisation' or 'de-gaying' (Visser, 2014:477) brought about through the "... invasion of middle- and upper-middle-class heterosexuals into what was previously a gay district" (Doan & Higgins, 2011:9). Ironically, De Waterkant transformed into a 'gay space' in which the gay community could escape heterosexual space (Visser, 2003b:129). Important to note is that 'gay space' is an area in which heterosexual norms are resisted (Nash, 2013:244), and as a result, provide a sense of order, power and safety (Pritchard et al., 1998:274).

'Gay space' can be defined as "... a homogeneous, bounded and fixed place in a metropolitan area, more concretely made up by bars, restaurants, cafés, shops and

residential areas” (Waitt & Markwell, 2006:178), and legal and medical services (Pritchard et al., 1998:274) that “... permits gay identity to be validated by relationships with others, provides social space and support networks, and serves as an expression of sexual and cultural identity” (Hughes, 2005:52). As the demand for property in De Waterkant grew, some of the smaller gay businesses were "manoeuvred" out (Bamford, 2007).

Many of these original gay businesses have now disappeared, with Café Manhattan (Figure 2.4) being the longest standing and one of the few remaining gay venues of the original De Waterkant Village (Manhattan, 2015; South African Tourism, 2015b).



Figure 2.4: Café Manhattan

Source: Manhattan (2015)

The facades of the many gay bars and nightclubs were incorporated into the modern, up-scale shopping complex, the Cape Quarter Retail Centre (Rink, 2011:19; Visser, 2014:475), depicted in Figure 2.5, populated by mainly straight couples and their children, all very different from the once almost exclusively gay village (Visser, 2014:476).



Figure 2.5: The entrance to the Cape Quarter Retail Centre

Source: Image captured by the researcher (2017)

Some of the gay businesses moved to another area of De Waterkant, specifically lower Napier and Cobern Streets (below Somerset Road) which were related to the flourishing property market and the continuing changing land use of the area (Rink, 2008a:218), evident after the murder of Bronx owner in 2012 when the Bronx building was demolished and replaced with retail and office space (Mamba Online, 2012c). The new developments below Somerset Road continually transform the lower end of De Waterkant with the focus being on mixed-use developments with a strong “live, work, play” ethos (SA Property News, 2015), which Visser (2014:474) calls a “neighbourhood-sized hotel”. An example of one of these mixed-used developments is depicted in Figure 2.6.



Figure 2.6: An example of a mixed-used development below Somerset Road

Source: Image captured by the researcher (2017)

The question is inevitable: What are the reason(s) for the demise of Africa's only 'gay-bourhood'? A theoretical framework is presented, as four key considerations can be suggested to answer the above question. First, many venues outside of De Waterkant now welcome multiple sexualities who are neither exclusively gay nor straight (Visser, 2003b:133) which Brown (2012:1068) refers to as "sexually mixed leisure spaces". It is believed that social groupings form around specific interests such as music genres, recreational drugs, professions and life-style with the individuals' 'sexual orientation' increasingly becoming less significant (Visser, 2003b:133), arguably as a result of Cape Town being an increasingly liberal and welcoming 'gay-friendly' city (South African Tourism, 2015a). Thus, there is less demand for exclusively gay leisure venues (Visser, 2003b:134) when most other venues are more inclusive (Mahdawi, 2016).

Second, the temporary 'gaying' of straight venues is a common occurrence in Cape Town. For example, Hercules Dynamix describes itself as the "transformative event of Cape Town" (Hercules Dynamix, 2015), and is known for transforming "straight/alternative space" which Visser (2003b:136) describes as "transient leisure

spaces". For their winter season event in 2015 the description was as follows:

"... Winter Palace is a wide-open architectural gem of a space turned into a dancehall for the night! We will take what is already a jewel of a space and trick it out with lights, visual projections, props, and performers, and turn it into an icy winter destination circuit event" (Hercules Dynamix, 2015).

The idea behind temporarily transforming "straight/alternative space" is to resist heteronormativity (Visser, 2013:272), the belief that heterosexuality is the norm (Pushparagavan, 2014) and all other 'sexual orientations' are outside of the norm and deviant (Beebe, 2012:19). According to Visser (2003b:134), these transformative events "... are generally built around certain types of music, 'vibe' and can be as specific as people who are into particular types of drugs and trips". The mysterious venue of the event, and its borderline illegality and exclusivity, argues Visser (2003b:134), are perhaps part of the attraction, warning that such events ironically threaten the existence of the formal gay clubs in De Waterkant, thus 'de-gayng' the gay village even further.

Third, dedicated virtual spaces such chatrooms, websites, and social media, including gay dating applications (apps) provide a cyberspace "... in which identity can be built, re-affirmed and developed" (Visser, 2003b:135) which eliminates the need for physical 'gay spaces' (Rink, 2008a:214-215; Ruting, 2008; Sanders, 2008; Mowlabocus, 2010; Usher & Morrison, 2010).

Fourth, some 'gay spaces' are undergoing a process of 'touristification' or 'commercialisation' which seem to indicate a heterosexual acceptance (Pritchard et al., 1998:279; Doan & Higgins, 2011:15), but Hughes (2006:188) warns that there are some negative aspects to it as gays and their lifestyle "... become objects for the tourist gaze". Pritchard et al. (1998:279) argue that "... the blurring of the boundaries between gay and straight culture has been so complete that many gay young men now have far more in common with young straight men than they do with older gay men". Sullivan (2005:16) shares these sentiments when he argues that the world is witnessing "... an inexorable evolution towards the end of gay culture", where "... the distinction between gay and straight culture has become blurred, fractured and intermingled".

Indeed, as argued by Nash (2013:249) and Visser (2014:477), young gay people no longer support dedicated gay leisure venues as in the recent past as they are

increasingly accepted and tolerated in straight leisure spaces. Almost 20 years ago, Pritchard et al. (1998:280-281) reasoned that gay people would increasingly open up about their sexual preferences, which would increase the likelihood of the average person knowing a gay person, and predicted the arrival of a new generation of youth "whose visceral ideas of homosexuality will be completely different". Indeed, as argued by Nash (2013:250) "... a new generation of men, arguably, white, middle class and technologically savvy, are experiencing themselves as sexual and gendered beings in historical and geographical circumstances that are completely different from the gay generations that went before".

This generation grew up in a different social, cultural and political setting where homosexuality is increasingly visible and tolerated by mainstream society (Nash, 2013:250), in part owing to openly gay individuals on radio and television; openly gay athletes, musicians and politicians; celebrities such as Lady Gaga, Madonna and Cher supporting gay rights (Nash, 2013:243); mainstream media often positively portraying gay people; businesses in many industries capitalising on the apparent spending power of gay consumers; and anti-gay discriminatory laws being reversed and replaced by new laws of equality (Brown, 2012:1065). It can be assumed that this is indeed a reality and might be true for De Waterkant as there is, according to Beebe (2012:43), a global effort to normalise 'queerness' as she argues that there is an increasing acceptance of homosexuality among young heterosexual men, evident in her research on the heterosexual bartenders of Cape Town's gay clubs. Rink (2008a:217-218) argues that "... the 'straightening' of the gay village signals a journey to queer adulthood – to an acceptance of indifferences within the multitude of racial, ethnic, gender and sexual identities on Cape Town's urban landscape and the end of a need to socialise in differentiated gay spaces".

It is difficult to predict what will become of Cape Town's 'gaybourhood' given these transformative processes. Although modern, the newly developed mixed area below Somerset Road is still very much a part of De Waterkant and enjoys the same buzz of sidewalk cafés, restaurants, bars and trendy shops for which the suburb is renowned, and retains the village atmosphere that inspired the area's comparison with New York's Greenwich Village (*SA Property News*, 2015). Arguably the Village, at least for now, continues to be the centre of gay life for some segments of the gay community. Although

a limited number of establishments cater exclusively to gays, it remains the location for some gay organisations, including Gentlemen's Health, the first medical practice of its kind in Cape Town, offering medical, counselling and cosmetic healthcare services specifically for men (Gentlemen's Health, 2015); Health4Men, an Anova Health Institute project that provides healthcare to gay men who have contracted the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Health4Men, n.d.); as well as a number of gay leisure facilities such as Backroom Bar, Barcode, Boyzone Lifestyle Shop, Beefcakes, Beulah Bar, Crew Bar, Steelworx, Celtic Cove, Piano Bar, The Village Café, Hothouse, Café Manhattan, Mankind, and a number of annual events, namely, Cape Town Pride festival, Mother City Queer Project (MCQP), Out in Africa (OIA) film festival, New Year's Eve White party, The Village Gay Day Festival, Miss Gay Western Cape and Mr Gay South Africa (*Pink South Africa*, 2015).

2.4 Summary

One of the objectives of this study is to review the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa in order to determine how a country transformed from criminalising homosexuality to openly welcoming homosexual travellers. This chapter therefore discussed the oppressive history of South Africa, specifically relating to the gay movement. A comprehensive literature review has revealed that the sexuality and liberation struggle of South Africa's unique road to the decriminalisation of homosexuality was initiated during the 1980s by a number of gay activists, especially the efforts of Peter Tatchell, Simon Nkoli and Ivan Toms, and gay organisations such GLOW and OLGA that tirelessly campaigned for the inclusion of 'sexual orientation' in the new constitution required for a new South Africa. The campaigns by these organisations and activists were successful when, in November 1990, the draft post-apartheid Constitution included 'sexual orientation' as protected grounds for non-discrimination; however, it was by no means certain that 'sexual orientation' would be retained in the final Constitution which led to the formation of the NCGLE, an organisation aiming to ensure that 'sexual orientation' as grounds for non-discrimination be retained in the final Constitution. The lobbying of the NCGLE was ultimately successful as the final post-apartheid Constitution of 1996 prohibits discrimination on the basis of 'sexual orientation'. South Africa is the first country in the world to outlaw unfair discrimination on the grounds of 'sexual orientation' and the only country on the African continent that fully protects the right to

'sexual orientation' in its constitution, making it unique to the rest of the world, as to this day, South Africa remains the only country on the African continent to recognise gay rights and is also the first country in the world to officially recognise the rainbow flag as the official symbol of the gay community. This chapter further proposed how the new Constitution of 1996 became an effective tool to overturn numerous laws implemented by the apartheid government that resulted in numerous legal victories (Table 2.1.). This chapter also warned that the progressive new government and Constitution of South Africa are in contrast to the beliefs of many South Africans, who still overwhelmingly oppose gay rights and that the biggest challenge remaining in South Africa is the continuing discrimination and violence perpetrated against the gay community, and suggested that the gap between the conservative social attitudes of South Africa's citizens and its liberal laws could be overcome through vigorous public education and awareness.

The chapter considered the role that Cape Town's De Waterkant neighbourhood played in transforming the City into a gay capital and a popular destination among gay travellers. It was argued that the development of a liberal and historic Constitution inevitably resulted in the development of a free and openly gay South African civil society and the establishment of uniquely 'gay spaces' for the gay community. Since the abolishment of apartheid and the ushering-in of new freedoms under South Africa's democratic dispensation, a network of gay businesses opened in the 1990s, as property was inexpensive in the De Waterkant district which borders Sea Point and Green Point, ideally located next to the target market, relatively wealthy white gay men. Consequently, in a few short years, through a process of gentrification, De Waterkant evolved from being a slum into Africa's first (and only) gay village. Thus, De Waterkant developed coincidentally into a self-styled gay village and gained the reputation of a 'gay mecca'. The fact that Cape Town's 'gaybourhood' is the only gay village on the African continent, led to Cape Town's becoming a unique drawcard for domestic and international gay travellers as South Africa was also, at the time, the only country that protected gay rights in its constitution.

This chapter analysed how De Waterkant had developed into a gentrified 'gaybourhood' in the 1990s, how it was reconfigured as a 'gay urban tourism space' and, most recently, transformed into a 'de-gayed' area as De Waterkant's appeal to a broader audience

finally became too strong to limit itself simply to a gay audience. A theoretical framework was presented to determine the reasons for the demise of the 'gaybourhood' and it was concluded that it might be due to many venues outside of De Waterkant now welcoming multiple sexualities, referred to as "sexually mixed leisure spaces". It was also determined that the temporary 'gaying' of straight space is a common occurrence in Cape Town and that these events ironically threaten the existence of the formal gay clubs in De Waterkant, thus 'de-gaying' the gay village even further. Another observation was that dedicated virtual spaces such as chatrooms, websites, and social media, including gay dating applications (apps), provide a cyberspace that eliminates the need for physical 'gay spaces'. Lastly, the framework suggested that some 'gay spaces' are experiencing a process of 'touristification' or 'commercialisation', which seems to indicate a heterosexual acceptance.

Finally, the chapter argued that a new generation of gay youths, the 'post-modern homosexual', has grown up in a different social, cultural and political setting and is increasingly visible and tolerated by mainstream society. This new generation of gays is, however, limited to what is referred to as an 'acceptable' homosexual, understood to be those who are more 'straight acting' and 'fit' heterosexual views of normality. This chapter concludes that the 'gaybourhood', although offering a limited number of exclusively gay establishments, continues, at least for now, to be the centre of gay life for some segments of the gay community, some gay organisations and some gay businesses.

The next chapter will review literature on how Cape Town specifically became the 'gay capital' of South Africa as well as the initiatives undertaken that played a role in contributing to its reputation as an international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination. Furthermore, if Cape Town should continue to target gay travellers and broaden the weakly developed understanding of these travellers, it is crucial to analyse this market segment's profile to successfully meet their specific needs. Thus, in order to develop a better understand of gay travellers, the literature review is extended to the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THE GAY MARKET SEGMENT(S) – HOMOSEXUAL NOT HOMOGENEOUS

3.1 Introduction

Having presented the legalistic history of the South African gay rights movement in Chapter 2 and discussed how the new South African Constitution of 1996 resulted in the development of spaces that cater for the gay community, this chapter places the gay traveller in a tourism context in order to develop a better understanding of these travellers as a market segment of the larger LGBT tourism market. It has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that a gay market segment exists; hence this chapter considers whether one can talk about a homogeneous gay market segment by unpacking market segmentation theories. Furthermore, as much of the literature available on the gay segment depicts these travellers as favourable for the tourism industry, some of the most common perceptions about the US and European gay travellers are explored. According to the UNWTO (2012:23) and South African Tourism (2015c:7), the majority of gay travellers to Cape Town are from these regions. It is argued that these perceptions of the gay segment resulted in a number of tourism destinations actively targeting these travellers (Hughes, 2004:58; Hughes, 2005:51; Southall & Fallon, 2011:230; Coon, 2012:516; Cutting-Miller, 2014). Cape Town, being one of these destinations in particular, has been extremely successful in attracting the domestic and international gay traveller. As one of the objectives of this study is to determine how Cape Town became the gay capital of South Africa and subsequently a popular international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination, the second part of this chapter discusses the past and present initiatives undertaken by the local gay community, specialised organisations, as well as the convention board CTT, that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's reputation as a leading international 'gay-friendly' destination.

3.2 The gay market segment(s)

A quarter of a century ago, Aldrich (1993) wrote of the travels of especially northern European gay men to the Mediterranean during Victorian times. At the time, Greece and

Italy were some of the most popular destinations for the gay male traveller as these societies were much more accepting of homosexuality (Aldrich, 1993:99). In these liberal societies, gay individuals could, to some degree, escape intolerance (Pritchard et al., 1998:273; Hughes, 2006:57) because they did not feel accepted in their own societies (Rosenbloom, 2014) as they are often, to this day, tied to “disasters, misfortunes and general problems” in some societies (Verdugo, 2010:5). Gay men and women have long travelled the world but did so by remaining nearly invisible and by concealing their sexual orientation and relationships (UNWTO, 2012:14). With a growing tolerance towards gay people, as well as the increasingly recognised importance of this segment, many gay travellers have since travelled outside the boundaries of exclusively gay-safe destinations (Herrera, 2003:14; Southall & Fallon, 2011:221).

Up until two decades ago, gay travel remained separate from mainstream travel, as many tourism roleplayers were too sceptical to target these travellers, fearing boycotts from their mainstream markets (Southall & Fallon, 2011:221). The 1990s are often referred to as “... the golden age for gay tourism” after the *Wall Street Journal* announced that gays represented a “dream market” (Rigdon, 1991, as cited in Gudelunas, 2011:54). Since then, amidst potential boycotts, companies increasingly have shown interest in targeting the gay segment as “... the profits to be reaped from treating gays and lesbians as a trend-setting consumer group finally outweigh the financial risks of inflaming right-wing hate” (Gluckman & Reed, 1997:3). Consequently, tourism suppliers including tour operators, travel agents, accommodation establishments and airlines have shown interest in targeting the gay segment (Hughes, 2005:51; Lück, 2005:3) and have considered gay men especially (more so than lesbians, bisexuals and transgender people) to be a worthy market segment (Hughes, 2006:152), largely based on the myth that gay men represent an affluent segment (Coon, 2012:513).

Since the *Wall Street Journal* article, an interest has developed in researching the relationship between tourism and especially gay men in both academic and market research. Although the literature, by its own acknowledgement, lacks in various aspects, some studies have attempted to uncover the dynamics of gay tourism. A variety of dynamics have been explored and include issues of the economic importance (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996; Choong, 2010, Hattingh, 2011), gay traveller destination choices (Hughes, 2002, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010), gay

destination marketing (Månsson & Østrup, 2007; Coon, 2012), gay men's sexual behaviour while on holiday (Clift et al., 2002; Monterrubio et al., 2007), holiday motivations of gay men, and to a much lesser extent gay women (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Pritchard et al., 2000; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Köllen & Lazar, 2012; Khan, 2013; Kauhanen, 2015; Monterrubio & Barrios, 2016), and market segments of gay tourism (Pritchard et al., 1998; Sender, 2002; Hughes, 2005, 2006; Keating & McLoughlin, 2005; Crocco et al., 2006; Albano et al., 2012; Canavan, 2015). Despite gay men especially being considered to be a worthy market segment, it has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds to justify the existence of such a segment (Hughes, 2006:152). The literature review has revealed a multiplicity of views, and thus the following section provides a short market segmentation overview followed by a discussion on gay travellers as a market segment.

3.2.1 Overview of market segmentation

Over the years, the term 'market' has assumed various meanings. In its original meaning, a market was "... a physical place where buyers and sellers gathered to exchange goods and services" (Kotler et al., 1999:239). The term currently refers to "... a group of actual or potential consumers with similar needs or wants" (George, 2008:140). Within a market, a market segment is "... a subgroup of people sharing one or more characteristics that causes them to have similar needs" (Lamb et al., 2008:153), thus, a homogeneous group of consumers that portrays distinctly different characteristics from those in other segments (Dibb & Simkin, 1996:3). Market segmentation, on the other hand, is a strategic analytical tool used by marketers to divide a market into smaller, identifiable segments that share similar characteristics, wants, needs, attitudes (George, 2008:141) and/or behavioural patterns (Weaver & Lawton, 2002:173). By segmenting a market, marketers obtain knowledge of the actual or potential consumers and thus discover particular subgroups whose members will be most profitable to focus their marketing efforts on (Thomsen, 2008:38). There is, however, a variety of ways to segment a market (Kotler et al., 2006:241; George, 2008:142). The literature suggests four main variables or bases used in the tourism industry to segment a market: geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioural bases (Cant et al., 2006; Kotler et al., 2006; George, 2008; Lamb et al., 2008) as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Bases (variables) for segmenting consumer markets

BASES	POSSIBLE VARIABLES
Geographic	
Region	Pacific, Western Cape, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, North-West
City or metro size	Under 10 000, 10 001 to 20 000, 20 001 to 25 000, over 25 000
Climate	Summer rainfall, winter rainfall, tropical, Mediterranean
Demographic	
Age	Under 7, 7 to 13, 14 to 19, 20 to 34, 35 to 49 and so on
Gender	Male or female
Family life cycle	Young, married, without children; young, married with children; older married couples with children; older married couples without children living in (empty-nesters); singles
Income	Under R10 000, R10 001 to R30 000, R30 001 to R45 000, R45 001 to R60 000, R60 001 to R75 000, over R75 000 per annum and so on
Occupation	Technical, professional, managerial, clerical, sales and related services, retired, student, housewife, unemployed
Education	Grade 10, Grade 12 (matric), diploma, degree, postgraduate
Religion	Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, Muslim, Hindu
Race	White, black, Asian, coloured (mixed race)
Nationality	American, French, German, South African
Psychographic	
Social class	Upper class, middle class, lower class
Lifestyle	Swingers, gays, straights, hippie, conservative, liberal
Personality	Impulsive, authoritarian, gregarious, ambitious, outgoing, introverted
Behavioural	
Purchasing occasions	Special occasion, regular occasion
Benefits sought	Quality, service, economy, convenience, speed
User status	Ex-user, first-time user, non-user, potential user, regular user
Usage rate	Heavy user, medium user, light user
Loyalty status	Strong, absolute, medium
Readiness stage	Unaware, aware, interested, desirous, informed
Attitude towards product	Enthusiastic, negative, positive, hostile

Source: Adapted from Kotler et al. (1999:242-243) and Cant et al. (2006:109-110)

Psychographic segmentation, also referred to as lifestyle segmentation (Lamb et al. 2008:159), divides buyers into different segments based on psychological rather than physical dimensions and includes variables such as personality, lifestyle, and social class characteristics (George, 2008:147), highlighted in Table 3.1. The reason for segmenting consumers according to psychological attributes is the belief that consumers

in a particular demographic segment might have very different lifestyles (Kotler et al., 1999:189). It has been suggested that "... lifestyle segments should represent a group of consumers who use products consistent with their activities, interests and opinions" (Wells & Tigert, 1971; Plummer, 1974:33-34; Fugate, 1993:47) as shown in Table 3.2. Activities and interests refer to how consumers spend their money and time and the way they lead their lives, whereas opinions are beliefs that consumers have about a variety of subjects (Plummer, 1974:33; George, 2008:174).

Table 3.2: Lifestyle factors

Activities	Interests	Opinions
Holidays, shopping, sports and recreational activities, entertainment, hobbies, work, social events	Fashion, foods, achievements, family, job, home, media	Culture, education, business, politics, economics, social issues

Source: Adapted from Plummer (1974:34) and George (2008:175)

Targeting the gay segment is often understood to be an example of lifestyle marketing (Fugate, 1993:46; Haslop et al., 1998:318; Hughes, 2004:59) centred on the myth that gay men and women, for example, have a unique lifestyle (Khan, 2013:14; Fimiani, 2014:22). Fugate (1993:47) argues that in an activities, interests and opinions (AIO) context, the gay market segment "... may constitute a definable market segment as long as specific AIO statements deal with their sexuality" and is of the opinion that treating the gay market segment as "... a homogeneous market segment in any other context makes little intuitive sense since sexual orientation is the principal distinguishing characteristic of this population". This statement is, however, problematic. Pritchard et al. (1998:274) argue that sexual orientation, by itself, would be insufficient as a segmentation criterion and state that, for example, seniors and young people are grouped according to their age, whereas gay people are grouped according to their sexual orientation, which is rather simplistic as it conceals many other important variables. Indeed, many researchers have argued that the gay market segment is not homogeneous (Pritchard et al., 1998:280; Herrera, 2003:8; Schofield & Schmidt, 2005:311; Crocco et al., 2006:224; Johnson, 2008; Thomsen, 2008:ii) and is characterised by a variety of sub-segments (Pritchard & Morgan, 1997:16; Hughes, 2005:55; Hughes, 2006:153; Blichfeldt et al.,

2011:22, Hattingh, 2011:50; Wientjens, 2013). Thus, many researchers have raised the question whether gays can be regarded as a viable market segment based on the premise of their sexuality (Hughes, 2006:152). The answer seems to lie in the evaluation of segmentation requirements or segmentation criteria, discussed next.

3.2.1.1 Segmentation requirements/criteria

Segmentation requirements or criteria have developed over the years with a variety of criteria implemented to determine distinct market segments. Plummer (1974:35) identified three questions to ask when segmenting a market: (1) Is the segmentation approach based on objectives of the company? (2) Does the segmentation demonstrate substantial dissimilarities between the identified sub-groups on a purchasing or usage measure? (3) Are these dissimilarities actionable, i.e. are they well understood in order to improve business? Cravens et al. (1987) cited in Fugate (1993:47) state that each market segment must fulfil the requirements of being stable, sufficient, identifiable, and accessible. Kotler et al. (1999:250-251) contend that for a market segment to be useful, it needs characteristics such as measurability, accessibility, substantiality and actionability. The basic criteria for segmentation to be successful, according to Lamb et al. (2008:154), include substantiality, identifiability, measurability, accessibility and responsiveness, while George (2008:157-158) refers to a checklist to follow during segmentation of markets, which includes measurability, accessibility, substantiality, sustainability, implementability and defendability. Regardless of which criteria should be adhered to when conducting market segmentation, all researchers agree that a market segment needs to adhere to certain criteria in order to determine whether a market segment actually exists or not (Kotler et al., 1999:250-251; George, 2008:157-158; Lamb et al., 2008:154). From the literature reviewed, the criteria most often implemented can be summarised as identifiability, sufficiency, stability and accessibility.

Identifiability refers to whether a particular segment can be easily located (Fugate, 1993:47), and whether the segment's needs are distinctive and identifiable (Hughes, 2006:153); sufficiency refers to the size and number of consumers in a particular segment (Lamb et al. 2008:154), their purchasing power (Hughes, 2006:153) and whether the segment justifies the cost of a separate marketing effort (Fugate, 1993:47). Lamb et al. (2008:154) argue that this criterion does not necessarily mean that a

segment must be large enough to target; however, George (2008:158) adds that if the segment does not have large numbers of consumers, the segment must at least have a large enough disposable income to warrant investment. Stability relates to whether the segment will be stable or grow over time (Fugate, 1993:47), as well as whether the segment's unique characteristics will persist long enough to justify 'sufficient' profit (Hughes, 2006:153). The last criterion of accessibility denotes if the segment can be accessed through communication channels (Fugate, 1993:47; Crocco et al., 2006:219; Hughes, 2006:154; George, 2008:158; Lamb et al., 2008:154).

3.2.1.2 Evaluating the gay market segment against segmentation criteria

The identifiability of a gay market segment has proved to be complex. One of the complexities lies in the definition of homosexuality – when exactly is a person homosexual and thus fits into the gay market segment? The common belief is that sexual activity with same-sex partners defines homosexuality; however, Herrera (2003:21) argues that there is a distinction between homosexual activity and homosexual orientation, as some men and women occasionally have same-sex partners, but may not identify as gay, while others identify themselves as gay, but may not be sexually active. In a similar vein, Guaracino (2007:32) and Canavan (2015:6) argue that there are gay travellers who identify as gay but do not travel as gay tourists. In a study by the US Department of Health and Human Services, 9 175 respondents were asked, among other questions, whether they were attracted to the same or opposite sex, the types of sexual experiences they had had and how they labelled their sexual orientation. Results showed that 2.3% of self-identified heterosexual men have had sex with other men and 7.5% of self-identified heterosexual women have had sex with other women (Copen et al., 2016:4) confirming Herrera's (2003) assertion that sexuality can be fluid. Another study on sexual orientation of British residents asked respondents to plot themselves on a 'sexuality scale'. Of the 1 632 respondents, 23% did not consider themselves to be 100% heterosexual, and among 18–24-year-olds the figure increased to 49%. The study concluded that the younger demographic segment is likely to have grown up in a more tolerant society and might indicate an increasingly open-minded approach to sexuality (Duffy, 2015). This implies that the difficulty in identifying this market segment may be due to many gay people not being open about their sexuality (Thomsen, 2008:40), which results in research on sexuality often relying on “anecdotal

evidence, informal interviews and participation observation” (Pritchard et al., 1998:275). Hughes (2006:154) concluded that owing to the problematic nature of this concept, the identifiable aspect of this market segment “... cannot justifiably be applied to all who are homosexual”. Thomsen (2008:40) suggests that a person fits into the gay market segment “... as soon as his/her holiday behaviour is influenced by the person’s sexuality”. This influences the actual size of the segment and according to Thomsen (2008:40), leads to an inaccurate understanding of the needs of the segment as those not open about their sexuality possibly have very different needs than those who openly identify as gay.

The problem of size relates to the segmentation criterion of sufficiency, as the exact size of the gay market segment is not known (Hughes, 2006:154). Although various attempts have been made to estimate the size of this segment, only a few studies are detailed enough to be considered reputable. Travel Gay Canada estimates the North American LGBT market to be approximately 30 million people (Tourism Northern Ontario, 2014:146). The Gay European Tourism Association estimates that the gay market segment comprises 2.6% of the adult European population (approximately 22.6 million) (Gay European Tourism Association, 2012a). A study by Out Now Global, an international specialist-marketing agency, estimates that approximately 35 million potential LGBT consumers live across Latin America and Europe (Greenberg, 2010; World Tourism News, 2010). According to Witeck Communications Inc. (2008), the US Census Bureau estimated in 2008 that the country had approximately 225 million adults (18 years of age and older) of whom between four and ten percent (between nine million and 22 million adults) identified as LGBT. Witeck Communications Inc., however, whose findings were based on more than 100 different online population samples, makes a more conservative estimate in that between six to seven percent (15 to 16 million) of the US adult population self-identify as LGBT (Witeck Communications Inc., 2015). It is thus evident that estimates vary greatly, but it is generally accepted that the percentage of the global LGBT population ranges from one percent to ten percent of the general population (Fugate, 1993:49; Donaldson-Evans, 2004). Regardless of the estimates being accurate and whether they were scientifically proved, there seems to be a sizable gay segment (Fugate, 1993:50) within the larger LGBT market and it can, therefore, be considered significant (Crocco et al., 2006:219), although far less significant than the heterosexual population (Oakenfull & Greenlee, 2005:422). Hughes (2006:154) and

Thomsen (2008:40) also warn that although the size may seem significant, the segment should not be regarded as homogeneous, and thus the proportion of specific sub-segments remains unknown. It is also worth noting that although Cape Town is probably incapable of attracting that many gay travellers from America and Europe, this estimate could provide CTT with a more accurate estimate of the size of the gay population in those markets.

Regarding the segmentation criteria of stability, there is accord that the gay segment is established and will remain stable (Fugate, 1993:52), and is unlikely to change in size (Hughes, 2006:154). However, in contrast, it has also been argued that the possibility of this segment's increasing in size is very likely as many homosexuals may be more open about their sexuality as a consequence of growing tolerance (Thomsen, 2008:40), which, over the past two decades, has grown substantially, especially in the Western world where it is reported that, for example, 38% of North Americans stated that same-sex relationships were morally acceptable in 2002 compared with 63% in 2015; while 35% of Americans supported the legalisation of same-sex marriage in 1999, 60% supported the notion in 2015 (Newport, 2015). Fugate (1993:52) and Hughes (2006:154) make an interesting paradoxical observation in stating that the more accepted homosexuality becomes, the more the gay market segment could disappear through integration with mainstream society.

Lastly, the criterion requirement of accessibility is evaluated. Over the last two decades there has been an increase in the range of media available to the gay market segment (Crocco et al., 2006:219), especially in the form of dedicated electronic and print media such as magazines, newspapers and lifestyle websites targeting this segment (Hughes, 2006:154). The Internet especially has made it more convenient to reach the gay segment as a growing number of the gay population use the Internet as an opportunity to privately search for information on gay-related news and other issues (Thomsen, 2008:40-41). Moreover, the development of a specific gay infrastructure comprising nightclubs, bars and restaurants has made direct marketing to this segment easier, including the distribution of flyers, billboards and point-of-sale promotions (in-venue advertising) (Hughes, 2006:154). The 'rainbow flag' is an international symbol used to show 'gay friendliness' (Oakenfull & Greenlee, 2005:427; Abernethy, 2014; Kinnunen, 2011:22), mostly in the form of a sticker on the door or a flag outside gay businesses

(Pritchard et al., 1998:277), which can assist in identifying which businesses target this segment (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:711). An example is depicted in Figure 3.1.



Figure 3.1: Rainbow flags outside Crew Bar in De Waterkant

Source: Image captured by the researcher (2017)

Based on the above analysis, it can be assumed that a gay market segment exists; however, as Hughes (2006:154) argues, with less precision than might be applied to other segments. Also, as argued earlier in Section 3.2.1, the gay market segment is characterised by sub-segments and should not be treated as a homogeneous segment based on same sexual orientation, as "... sexuality is cross-cut by socioeconomic status, race and gender" (Bell & Binnie, 2000:100). The reality is that the gay population mirrors the rest of society in a wide variety of aspects (Herrera, 2003:21). Hughes (2005:59) supports this view and argues that the gay population is as diverse in their occupations, employment status, incomes, ethnicity and general lifestyles as is the rest of society and, as Herrera (2003:8) argues, do not necessarily hold the same motivations and morals, pursue the same activities and lead the same lifestyle. Therefore, as Schofield and Schmidt (2005:311) and Canavan (2015:1) argue, using sexual orientation as a segmentation criterion may be an inappropriate and ineffective means for segmenting gay consumers.

Furthermore, many researchers refer to gay tourism as a form of niche tourism (Cliff & Forrest, 1999:615; Ivy, 2001:338; Branchik, 2002:87; Puar, 2002:108; Visser, 2003a:174; Jensen-Campbell, 2004:5; Oswin, 2005a:569; Hughes, 2006:8; Guaracino, 2007:32; George, 2008:482; Menge, 2010:10; Bensimon, 2011:9; Bömkes, 2011:187; Köllen & Lazar, 2012:64; Guaracino & Salvato, 2017). However, Kinnunen (2011:20-21) questions this assertion and argues that this reference is perhaps outdated as knowledge of the gay market segment and its size has increased considerably. Traditionally, a niche market is a small market consisting of consumers with similar characteristics (UNWTO, 2007:58) in order for services and products to be tailored directly to them (Kinnunen, 2011:20-21). According to this explanation, gay tourism is perhaps incorrectly regarded as a form of niche tourism as a result of the myth that gay consumers lead similar lifestyles and because they are homosexual, which, as discussed in the preceding paragraph, has proved to be ineffective.

As discussed in Section 3.2.1, a market segment is a homogeneous group of consumers that portrays distinctly different characteristics from those in other segments (Dibb & Simkin, 1996:3) and shares characteristics causing them to have homogeneous needs (Lamb et al., 2008:153). In this light, some researchers have pointed to, for example, the differences within the gay segment regarding gender (Pritchard et al., 2002; Puar, 2002; Hughes, 2006) and age (Pritchard et al., 1998; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010) in that, for example, a gay man in his early 20s might have some very different needs, preferences and travel behaviour in comparison with older gay women and even older gay men. Furthermore, Ian Johnson, Out Now founder and CEO, states that "... you would not expect a Generation X traveller to share the interests of a retiree or a honeymooner in the mainstream market, and nor should you when it comes to gay travellers" (Global Travel Industry News, 2008), suggesting that a single gay market segment does not exist and therefore is not homogeneous. According to Kotler (2000:144-145) and Crocco et al. (2006:218), a niche is identified by dividing a segment into a sub-segment, and thus to equate the gay market segment to a niche market would be incorrect. It would, therefore, make more sense to refer to the sub-segments of the gay segment as niches as it is more likely that individuals within these sub-groups are homogeneous in variables such as demographics, psychographics and behaviours.

Branchik (2002:96) and Jensen-Campbell (2004:5) argue that the larger LGBT market consists of a variety of segments, of which the gay segment is one such segment (or segments); however, as argued by Guaracino (2007:32), research into these segments is extremely limited as the field of LGBT tourism is fairly new in academe. Some segments worth noting though are gay men and lesbian women, rural and urban, senior and young gay and lesbian citizens (Branchik, 2002:96), gay and lesbian sports (Guaracino, 2007:32), as well as same-sex honeymoons (Global Travel Industry News, 2008), same-sex weddings and same-sex families (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:454), which Donaldson-Evans (2004) describes as 'micro-lifestyles' of the larger LGBT market. Same-sex families who are increasingly travelling with their own, or legally adopted children are increasingly being sought as an attractive segment by numerous destinations. It has also been observed that since gay marriage rights have been approved in various countries, the first couples to get married are usually older gay couples in established relationships whose leisure interests are vastly different from those of younger, single gay travellers (UNWTO, 2012:10). Wientjens (2013), however, warns against the assumption that these segments themselves are homogeneous. Hughes and Deutsch (2010:455) argue in a similar vein that apart from "... the life experiences of older and younger gay men differing considerably resulting in an intergenerational gap", there are variations in disposable income, wealth distribution, class, and available leisure time (retired versus employed), suggesting that even the gay male sub-segment is not homogeneous. Hence, it would make little sense to argue that the gay segment is homogeneous, and therefore the older gay sub-segment, known as the 'gay and gray', needs to be distinguished from the younger gay sub-segment, known as the 'gay youth', as both could be legitimate sub-segments of the gay segment (Global Travel Industry News, 2008). Pritchard et al. (1998:274) refer to the gender variable and state that there is a profound difference between, for example, gay women and gay men in that they have different life experiences, behaviours, political issues and tastes.

Sender (2002:36) contends that "... the history of niche market formation shows that segments are not merely natural groups that emerge from the gloom, ready-packaged for sale to corporate advertisers and media producers. Instead, marketing professionals actively work to produce markets desirable enough to warrant corporate attention". Indeed, Shani and Chalasani (1992:35) argue that the marketer begins by exploring the unique needs of a "... few customers and gradually builds up a larger customer base",

suggesting a 'bottom-up' approach. Thus marketers actively created the "ideal gay consumer" (Sender, 2002:36-37), whom Kates (1998:191), Coon (2012:521) and Fimiani (2014:35) describe as the young, white, muscular, attractive, financially stable gay male. At the time, this image of a "... discerning gay man offered the best possible image to sell to nervous advertisers as a potential market" (Sender, 2002:65). Left out of the "ideal gay consumer" market are the "extremes", like "dykes on bikes", "drag queens" and "butch leather boys" (Hughes, 2006:191-192), the "scary homosexuals", historically comprising the stereotypical image of the gay community (Clarke, 2000:35).

Hughes (2005:55) argues that it is this segment, "the ideal gay male consumer" that holiday destinations are primarily targeting and about whom common perceptions exist. The next section will discuss some of the general perceptions about the gay market segment(s) as well as the larger LGBT market.

3.2.2 Perceptions/observations of the LGBT market and the gay segment(s)

Within academic literature there seems to be a prevalent consensus that the LGBT market, and more specifically the gay male sub-segment, feature favourable characteristics for the tourism industry. Financial analysts believe that the LGBT market is the "most profitable" to invest in and has become the "new gold mine" in the tourism sector (UNWTO, 2012:35).

CEO and President of the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), David Scowsill spoke at an International Gay and Lesbian Travel Association (IGLTA) Global Convention in Chicago, and said:

"The LGBT sector is, without doubt, making a dynamic and influential contribution to the global travel industry. The LGBT travel market in the US alone is estimated to be over US\$55 billion. Globally this sector currently has a value of around US\$165 billion; and despite the effects of the worldwide economic financial turmoil of the last four years, the LGBT market is continuing to grow year on year" (Scowsill, 2013).

Academic, various market research, and media reports as well as statements such as these by Scowsill, have widely contributed to the belief that travel by gay men is a particularly profitable market. It has been claimed, for example, that when comparing gay male couples to heterosexual couples, gay male couples have higher levels of

education and higher average incomes as they choose not to have children and, therefore, have unrestricted time for studying and have higher discretionary income (Holcomb & Luongo 1996:711; Haslop et al., 1998:319; Lück, 2005:3; Sweet, 2008; Roth, 2010; UNWTO, 2017a:42), are characterised as a 'dream market' (Haslop et al., 1998:318; Hughes, 2004:62; Oakenfull & Greenlee, 2005:422; Köllen & Lazar, 2012:64) and so-called DINKS (Fugate, 1993:48; Puar, 2002:110; Seymour, 2003; Oswin, 2005a:569; Guaracino, 2007:12; Johnson, 2008; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:1; Choong, 2009:2). It is believed that heterosexual travellers with children may be limited to travel during school holidays, whereas the lack of children for gay travellers allows for flexibility and enables them to travel at any desired time (Hughes, 2006:8). This leads to less seasonal behaviour (Pritchard et al., 1998:277) and is, therefore, particularly advantageous for tourism as tourism is highly dependable on seasons (Kinnunen, 2011:18). It has also been proposed that gay male couples have a high propensity for foreign travel (Tourism Intelligence International, 2001:3), they travel more frequently than their heterosexual counterparts (Roth, 2010), favour more luxurious and gay-oriented places (Pritchard et al., 2000:277; Hughes, 2006:73), spend more money on each trip (Guaracino, 2007:116), represent a recession-proof market (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:711; Melián-González et al., 2011:1027), and are more brand loyal than heterosexual couples (Fugate, 1993:49; Tourism Intelligence International, 2001:3; Hower, 2004; Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004; Guaracino, 2007:34; Thomsen, 2008:2; Witeck Communications Inc., 2008).

Although most literature, as can be seen in the preceding paragraph, suggests that the LGBT market, and the gay male sub-segment in particular, is a highly desirable market to target for tourism owing to, among other factors, the up-scale characteristics, there are a few studies that downplay these beliefs. Sender (2002:6), for example, argues that some studies have circulated overstated market research findings to increase interest in especially gay male consumers, and often present this sub-segment as more affluent than the general population. Badgett (1998:7) investigated the income of the gay male population some years ago and concluded that gay men, in contrast to popular belief, frequently earned less compared with their heterosexual equivalents owing to the high level of discrimination experienced that may at times affect their earning power. Black et al. (2007:64-65) support Badgett's findings and provide their own evidence to support the argument that men in gay relationships have a lower income compared with men in

heterosexual relationships. However, they also provide evidence and argue that the opposite is true for gay women in relationships in that they have significantly higher income than their heterosexual counterparts.

In 2001 Badgett reviewed a number of 'myths' relating to the gay population and how they fit into the economy. By examining a more varied group of studies, she debunked the notion that the gay population live in more affluent households and have higher levels of education than the heterosexual population. She further provided evidence that many indeed have children, although considerably fewer than heterosexuals. Furthermore, only some gay consumers are wealthy, but most are middle class, along with most heterosexual people (Badgett, 2001). Referring to all gay couples as 'DINKS' is therefore inaccurate, as research indicates that some gay households do include children. More recently, in 2015, the ambivalence of gay individuals towards gay tourism was revealed in that not one of the 24 gay interviewees in a study considered themselves to be a gay tourist. Instead, it was found that gay tourism descriptions were unrepresentative, insulting and stereotypical (Canavan, 2015:1). This was perpetuated by depictions of gay sun and beach resorts with hedonistic activities, including partying, promiscuity and sexual encounters (Canavan, 2015:3). One interviewee asked: "Can you be gay and not be a gay tourist?" suggesting that "... sexual identity was not seen as something of importance to determining tourist identity" (Canavan, 2015:4). It was suggested that there is a difference between gay tourism, and mainstream tourism by gay people, as well as that one does not have to identify as gay to pursue gay tourism in that anyone engaging in hedonistic activities while on holiday could then be regarded as a gay tourist (Canavan, 2015:6), which supports the fifth study objective. Similarly, Blichfeldt et al. (2011:17) argue that many gay travellers are not interested in visiting stereotypical gay destinations to experience these hedonistic activities, as they are simply more interested in other experiences. Therefore, they too argue that not all gay travellers are gay tourists and may instead be labelled "heritage tourists", "gastronomy tourists", "culinary tourists", and so forth as their travel motivations are not related to 'gayness'. They maintain that there are however gay travellers that travel for this purpose and those travellers can be regarded as "gay tourists" (Blichfeldt et al., 2011:17).

Information on the gay market segment is mostly obtained from surveys, but the degree to which these represent the entire gay population has been debated for some time, as

they inevitably implement convenience and opportunistic sampling approaches by only including those within the gay population who self-identify as gay, and are often limited to visitors to particular events, readers of particular magazines, and customers at particular bars (Hughes, 2006:180). The fact that much of the gay population remains hidden makes it particularly difficult to find and survey them, resulting in a skewed perspective as data obtained from these biased samples are then incorrectly interpreted and understood to represent the views of the entire gay population (Sender, 2002:43), and often lead to a misleading image of a privileged homogeneous gay market segment (Wientjens, 2013). It is, therefore, important to bear in mind, before embarking on any analysis of data on gay consumers, that low pay, poor job stability and unemployment affect gay people as they do for the rest of society (UNWTO, 2017a:42).

Hughes (2006:185) warns that depicting, for example, gay male consumers as leading prosperous lives can be counterproductive in that some will neglect to acknowledge or recognise the continuing social and legal discrimination by many disapproving societies throughout the world. It is partly to counter this argument that researchers have attempted to show that in fact the gay population lags behind others in earning power (Hower, 2004). Guaracino (2007:34), however, disagrees and states that confirming the buying power of this population serves a useful purpose as it reminds people that the gay population makes measurable contributions to the economy.

Regardless of criticism, Hughes (2004:69-70) remains confident that the “ideal gay tourist” exists but argues that it only applies to a largely unknown segment of the LGBT market. This segment is prepared to spend heavily on discretionary items (Pritchard et al., 1998:280) as these consumers are less likely to have children and will therefore have more discretionary income and time to spend on services and products such as travel and entertainment (UNWTO, 2017a:42) and related industries, including premium television channels, cinema, cruises, resorts and air travel (Buford, 2000). It is for this reason, despite the mostly skewed statistics, that marketers continue to embrace especially the gay male traveller (Coon, 2012:513-514). There remains a wide variety of academic and market research as well as media reports presenting the gay traveller as a major market for tourism.

The next section will analyse some specific studies of the European and US gay traveller, as the majority of these travellers travel to Cape Town from these regions (UNWTO, 2012:23; South African Tourism, 2015c:7).

3.2.2.1 Community Marketing Inc. studies

Community Marketing Inc. has conducted extensive research on LGBT travellers since 1992 and claims to have collected and analysed over 100 000 survey responses for a diverse client base including Convention and Visitor Bureaux (CVBs), Destination Management Organisations (DMOs), tour operators, hospitality groups and real estate developers. Their study titled *Annual LGBT Community Survey* is claimed to be the largest study of this nature and has attracted over 45 000 survey participants, and represented 150 countries (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:51). Based on their findings, Community Marketing Inc. estimated that the economic impact of US LGBT travellers is over US\$75 billion per annum (Community Marketing Inc., 2016a).

In a 2006 research report titled *11th Annual LGBT Travel Survey*, Community Marketing Inc. conducted research among 6 721 respondents in the US. The report introduced to the market what Community Marketing Inc. called the “median gay traveller” and was named Michael as this name appeared most often in the survey feedback. They described him as follows:

“Michael is 45 years old and lives with his partner of eight years. Michael and his partner have a household income of \$115 000 per year and don’t have any children. Michael has a bachelor’s degree and works full time. Michael likes to travel and took three vacations last year (2005), plus two trips to see family and friends, and one business trip. Michael has a passport and has used it for travel in the last twelve months. He spent \$6 575 on travel in the last twelve months, and expects to travel about the same amount the following year. Michael was on an airplane seven days and spent 20 nights in hotels in the last year. Internet services and property location are most important in his selection of a hotel. He also likes having a pool or gym, and a quality restaurant onsite. Michael feels that a good concierge has gay-relevant information at hand. Michael visits destinations and resorts that are gay friendly or gay exclusive, and is very aware of cities and countries that are actively courting LGBT tourism. In fact, he is more likely to visit a destination when its government tourism office markets directly to lesbians and gay men. He also likes to visit places that are restful, and enjoys meeting people from other cultures. He prefers to go on holiday somewhere different every time, and does not like group tours where everything has been pre-organised for him. Michael and his friends almost always use the Internet to plan and book travel” (Community Marketing Inc., 2006:7).

The 2006 study (Community Marketing Inc., 2006) suggested that LGBT tourists travel more than the mainstream with 98% of respondents indicating that they went on at least one overnight trip during the previous twelve months compared with 72% of mainstream Americans. It was also found that US LGBT respondents travelled by plane on 60% of their overnight trips, nearly four times that of mainstream travellers, and spent an average of 15 nights in hotels in the last year, compared with 3.2 nights for the average US traveller. The study further claimed that LGBT tourists travel for longer periods than mainstream travellers and that they are prepared to travel internationally, with 71% of respondents holding a valid passport, compared with approximately 24% of all adult US citizens (Community Marketing Inc., 2006:1). Monterrubio (2008:66) questioned the significance and reliability of these findings and stated that the validity to make direct comparisons with the mainstream American population should be carefully considered, as the size of the LGBT population remains unknown. It was further suggested that the study was biased in respect of the participation of mainly gay men (Monterrubio, 2008:65), as can be seen in their description of the “median gay traveller” called Michael, which also relates to the earlier discussion of marketers continuing to embrace especially the gay male traveller.

In their most recent study, titled the *20th Annual Survey on LGBT Tourism and Hospitality*, Community Marketing Inc.’s approach seems to be entirely different from previous surveys as no comparisons are made with the rest of society, and the sexual identities of respondents are more diverse. The latest study was undertaken online and received 4 662 responses from all 50 US states (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:3-4). From the total number of survey respondents, 57% were gay men; 32% were gay women; bisexual women and bisexual men accounted for 7% and 4% respectively; and 2% identified as transgender (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:4).

The *20th Annual Survey on LGBT Tourism and Hospitality* found that the travellers surveyed were mostly single (34%) or married (31%) and had incomes ranging from US\$50 000 to US\$99 900, with gay and bisexual men describing their economic situation more positively than gay and bisexual women (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:17). It was also found that 20% of the respondents had taken between five and nine leisure trips in 2015 and more than 25% stayed more than 15 nights in hotels for leisure purposes (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:6).

In their 9th *Annual LGBT Community Survey* it was revealed that Generation X gay women (born between 1965 and 1980) are most likely to be a parent with 31% of respondents indicating that they had a child under age 18, compared with only 6% of Generation X gay men indicating their having children. Both millennial (born between 1980 and 2000) (Rainer & Rainer, 2011:2) men, (51%) and millennial women (55%) desired to have children in the future (Community Marketing Inc., 2015b:16). Community Marketing Inc. further indicated that of the respondents that were parents of children of legal age, 56% were also grandparents, of whom 28% had taken their grandchildren on a trip over the previous twelve months. Community Marketing Inc. refers to LGBT grandparents as a “long overlooked” segment of the LGBT market (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:32) and seems to agree with academic researchers that there is no “single gay market”, just as there is no “single Asian market”, adding to the earlier discussion on the diversity within the LGBT market. Community Marketing Inc. emphasises that the LGBT population represents “... a broad and dynamic spectrum of interests, sensitivities, preferences and priorities” and acknowledges the obvious differences in income, relationship status, gender identity, age, geographical location and even lifestyles (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:51; 2015b:45).

The limitations to their research are that the studies are based on samples that do not necessarily represent the larger and often hidden LGBT population as they are derived from those who self-identify as gay, bisexual and transgender, and from those who are members of certain LGBT publications, attend particular LGBT events, and by forming partnerships with media and other organisations mostly across Canada, the US, and the United Kingdom (UK), which distribute Community Marketing Inc.’s survey invitations via social networks, email broadcasts, print advertisements and website banners. Community Marketing Inc. claims that the research, as a result, is highly representative of the LGBT consumer market but acknowledges that the results are based on “... consumers who interact with the LGBT community and media” (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:51). Exactly how representative these studies are remains unknown.

3.2.2.2 Out Now Global studies

Established as Significant Others in Australia in 1992 and now called Out Now Global (Out Now Global, 2016a), this is a specialist marketing consultancy in Amsterdam

(Netherlands) with more than two decades of experience in research studies on the LGBT population for leading companies, organisations and tourism bodies such as Toyota, Citibank (New York), Berlin Tourism Marketing, German National Tourist Office, Vienna Tourist Board, Stockholm Visitors Board, Visit Manchester, Lufthansa and Lloyds Banking Group (UK) (Out Now Global, 2016b). They claim to be the world's most experienced specialists in marketing to the LGBT consumer (Out Now Global, 2016a).

In 2010, Out Now Global launched *Community Values 10*, according to them, the largest global LGBT tourism market research to date. The ten-year-long study was renamed *LGBT2020* in 2011 and aims to establish the travel patterns, lifestyles and consumer habits of the global LGBT population (Out Now Global, 2016c). To date, the study has sampled more than 100 000 respondents online from 24 countries across five continents and in 12 different languages (Out Now Global, 2015:60). In 2010 alone, the study had collected data from more than 30 000 people from 23 countries, and offered valuable and previously unknown information about the global size and characteristics of this market. The preliminary results of 2010 survey estimated the global LGBT travel market to be worth US\$142 billion in 2011, with the highest LGBT travel spending originating from the US amounting to US\$45.1 billion, followed by Brazil (US\$20 billion) and Japan (US\$17.7 billion) (Tore, 2010). In 2012, the on-going *LGBT2020* study projected the global LGBT travel market at nearly US\$165 billion for leisure travel spending. The total sample size then exceeded 40 000 survey respondents from 25 countries (UNWTO, 2012:9). In 2013, the potential value of the global LGBT travel market was estimated to increase to US\$181 billion with the US remaining as the biggest single-country market, at US\$52.3 billion (Cutting-Miller, 2014), but the combined value of the eight leading European markets surpassed the US at US\$58.3 billion (Ring, 2012). Based on 2013 expenditures as calculated by the ongoing *LGBT2020* study, the global LGBT travel market was estimated to be worth US\$202 billion in 2014 (Collett, 2014). Also in 2014, the leading global event for the travel and tourism industry, the World Travel Market (WTM), planned to increase its focus on the LGBT tourism market by reinforcing their strategic partnership with Out Now Global (Collett, 2014). The WTM includes an exhibition space dedicated to LGBT travel called the 'Out Now Business Class', which they predict "... will significantly increase visibility, market access and networking opportunities for exhibitors including airlines, destinations, hotels, tour operators and marketing specialists" (Out Now Global, 2012).

Limitations to Out Now Global's research are similar to those of Community Marketing Inc. in that the samples are self-selecting. Attempts to obtain samples are done through mainstream and LGBT media (including social media channels) and social groups. The research is thus only representative of those using social media and those that are influenced by the media, whether mainstream or LGBT and would thus exclude, for example, non-internet users. According to a 2015 Pew Research Center study, 15% of US adults aged 18 and older do not use the Internet, of whom a third (34%) choose to remain off-line as they feel that the Internet is not relevant to them. A further 32% of these non-internet users state that the Internet is too complex to use, and another 8% of this group feel "too old to learn". The high cost of the Internet also prevents 19% of non-internet users to access the Web (Anderson & Perrin, 2015). Thus, studies by Out Now Global automatically exclude non-internet users, as these users, for example, do not use social media. It can therefore be assumed that other groups, such as older consumers, lower-income consumers and those that do not belong to online 'cyber' social groups, are not adequately represented in these studies.

3.2.2.3 Witeck Communications Inc. studies

Witeck Communications Inc., a strategic communications firm, claims to connect LGBT consumers and corporate America. Since 1993, Bob Witeck, owner and founder of Witeck Communications Inc., has provided Fortune 500 companies with trend reports and specialist knowledge on how to improve their understanding of and connection to the LGBT population (Witeck Communications Inc., 2006).

In 2006, Witeck Communications Inc. projected the total buying power of the US LGBT adult population to be US\$641 billion, in a study titled *The U.S. Gay and Lesbian Market* (Witeck Communications Inc., 2006). Since then, the buying power of the LGBT consumer has apparently increased with a projected estimate of US\$790 billion for 2012 (Witeck Communications Inc., 2012), US\$830 billion for 2013 (Witeck Communications Inc., 2013), and US\$884 billion for 2014 (Witeck Communications Inc., 2015).

The methodology used for these estimates, according to Witeck Communications Inc. (2008), is similar to the methods implemented by the University of Georgia's Selig Center for Economic Growth in calculating the purchasing power of other multicultural

groups, such as African Americans and Hispanics. Witeck Communications Inc. (2008) explains that the specific methodology

“... uses aggregate disposable income data compiled by the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) of the US Department of Commerce, and are therefore considered the most authoritative picture of overall purchasing power in the US”.

They further reiterate that

“... the gay and lesbian purchasing power is calculated by allocating a proportion of aggregate disposable personal income to gay and lesbian consumers that is equivalent to their percentage of the overall population aged 18 years and older, based on the premise that the gay and lesbian population mirrors that of the adult population as a whole” (Witeck Communications Inc., 2008).

They note, however, that the gay and bisexual consumer is not a homogeneous consumer and this segment includes consumers from all races, ethnicities and religions, and could, therefore, overlap with the estimated buying power of other consumer segments, such as Hispanics, African Americans and Asian Americans (Witeck Communications Inc., 2008).

Witeck Communications Inc. also points to the difference between disposable income and discretionary income. Disposable income, often referred to as buying power, “... is the amount of money that individuals (or households) have available to spend and save after paying taxes and pension contributions to the government (roughly 86% of income)” (Witeck Communications Inc., 2015). Discretionary income refers to “... the amount that an individual has available to spend for non-essentials after taking care of necessities and fixed payments such as rent, car payments, and basic food costs” (Witeck Communications Inc., 2008). Witeck Communications Inc. further contends that same-sex households are often assumed to be more affluent than mainstream households as “buying power” is incorrectly affiliated to wealth (Witeck Communications Inc., 2015). However, Bob Witeck is quoted as saying that “...buying power projections may be seen as an accepted business measure for companies and policy decision-makers as estimates offer a reasonable glance of the projected yearly economic contributions of America’s diverse LGBT population” (Witeck Communications Inc., 2012). Therefore, as argued by Thomsen (2008:40), the buying power projections are often used to convince hesitant businesses and organisations interested in targeting the

LGBT population as this group, admittedly smaller in size than most other groups, has high buying power.

3.2.2.4 The Gay European Tourism Association study

The Gay European Tourism Association was established to assist businesses and organisations interested in gay and 'gay-friendly' tourism in Europe by guiding them through effective marketing and networking (Gay European Tourism Association, 2012a).

Although there is long-standing academic as well as market research on the US LGBT community, spending patterns and economic worth, it is acknowledged that limited research has been done across Europe as a whole, with most studies focusing only on cities or countries within Central Europe (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Pritchard et al., 2002; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010; Melián-González et al., 2011; Fimiani, 2014). The Gay European Tourism Association in 2012 conducted the first study that estimated the value and number of LGBT European tourists. The study suggests that the research is useful for businesses and tourism destinations that seek to target the LGBT European tourist (Gay European Tourism Association, 2012a). As stated earlier, South Africa, and particularly Cape Town, attracts many LGBT tourists from Europe and therefore the potential spending value and number of LGBT European tourists need to be considered should Cape Town continue to target the LGBT European tourist in future.

The 2012 Gay European Tourism Association study split the European continent into three areas, namely Eastern Europe, Western Europe and Central Europe, and collated population figures of every country for each of the areas. In an attempt to determine the number of LGBT consumers in each of the three areas, the Gay European Tourism Association (2012b) acknowledges that no country has official statistics regarding the size of their LGBT population, and their efforts to obtain statistics from official surveys have proved to be inaccurate. For example, it was estimated in 2010 by the UK Office of National Statistics that the size of the UK gay population was 1.5% (725 000) of the general population; however, these statistics were, according to the Gay European Tourism Association (2012b), inaccurate as it was determined that over two million

British gay consumers subscribed to a popular gay dating website.

The study argues that most Western countries assume that 10% of their populations represent LGBT citizens but warns that the figure is significantly lower for LGBT citizens that are 'open' about their sexuality (Gay European Tourism Association, 2012b). For the purpose of the study, the Gay European Tourism Association applied a figure of 5% to represent the 'open' LGBT proportion of the Western European countries; 1% for Central European countries; and 0.25% for Eastern European countries. These lower estimates for Central and Eastern Europe were due to social, cultural and religious reason in those countries. With these estimates, the number of European LGBT consumers is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Estimated size of European LGBT population

Western Europe	Central Europe	Eastern Europe	Total
25 countries 413 million inhabitants LGBT population (5%) = 21 million	17 countries 128 million inhabitants LGBT population (1%) = 1.3 million	8 countries 303 million inhabitants LGBT population (0.25%) = 300 000	50 countries 844 million inhabitants LGBT population (2.6%) = 22.6 million

Source: Adapted from the Gay European Tourism Association (2012b)

As seen in Table 3.3, Europe had a total population size of 844 million people in 2012, more than double the size of the US population. The Gay European Tourism Association estimated the total number of 'open' European LGBT citizens to be around 22.6 million (2.6% of the total population) (Gay European Tourism Association, 2012b).

The study presented two scenarios, by using existing research findings of Community Marketing Inc. (scenario 1) and Out Now Global (scenario 2) 2012 statistics. The findings of their projections of the total annual expenditure by the 'open' European LGBT population on tourism can be seen in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Estimated annual expenditure on tourism by LGBT European population

	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Difference
Western Europe	\$60 billion	\$61.3 billion	+ \$1.3 billion
Central Europe	\$2 billion	\$6 billion	+ \$4 billion
Eastern Europe	\$0.9 billion	\$1.1 billion	+ \$0.2 billion
Total	\$62.9 billion	\$68.4 billion	+ \$5.5 billion

Source: Adapted from the Gay European Tourism Association (2012b)

Thus, as seen in Table 3.4, the Gay European Tourism Association projects the total annual expenditure by the ‘open’ European LGBT population on tourism to range between US\$63 –US\$68 billion (€48– €52 billion or £39 –£42 billion based on October 2012 exchange rates). Although it cannot be assumed that Cape Town is capable of attracting 22 million LGBT European tourists, this estimate could certainly provide CTT with an estimate of the economic worth of the LGBT European market.

The findings of this study have to be cautiously considered, though, as much of the data was extrapolated from two existing studies, thus no new research was conducted. Further, the Gay European Tourism Association study made a series of assumptions when calculating its estimates, and thus the data should be regarded as a ‘best guess’ rather than being inviolably accurate. In summary, it is important to analyse how significant and reliable these existing findings are to a researched group whose population is based on assumptions. Therefore, the criticism by researchers such as Badgett (1998; 2001), Sender (2002), and Black et al. (2007) seems to be valid. Furthermore, criticism from Blichfeldt et al. (2011) and Canavan (2015) as discussed in Section 3.2.2 regarding some gay travellers not identifying as gay tourists should also be considered as there seems to be a difference between gay tourism and mainstream tourism by gay people.

The widely projected economic power of the gay segment as well as the larger LGBT market, evident in the studies discussed above, whether accurate or not, resulted in a number of tourism destinations actively targeting gay travellers (Hughes, 2004:58; Hughes, 2005:51; Southall & Fallon, 2011:230; Coon, 2012:516; Cutting-Miller, 2014), many of them towards the turn of the 21st century (Pritchard et al. 1998:276; Lück, 2005:3) and a number of those were 'non-traditional' destinations (Menge, 2010:10). Cape Town, being one of these particular destinations, has been extremely successful in attracting the domestic and international gay traveller. As recently as 2012 it was estimated that 15% of the city's 1.5 million annual visitors were gay (Abbott, 2012; Capital News, 2012; *The Australian*, 2012) with the majority of these visitors coming from Europe and the US (Mulder, 2012; UNWTO, 2012:23).

Consequently, the next section will elaborate on how Cape Town became the "gay capital of South Africa" by discussing the past and present initiatives undertaken that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's popularity and international recognition for being a leading 'gay-friendly' destination.

3.3 The development of South Africa's 'gay capital'

Cape Town is located at the southern tip of the African continent and at an oceanic divide, a point tourism marketers like mythologising as "... the only city in the world where one can watch the sun rise and set over a different ocean" (Pirie, 2007:2). Two centuries ago, Cape Town was marketed as "the health resort of Europe" (Bennett, 2004:39) and became known as "Australia without the jet lag" which refers to South Africa's proximity to the northern hemisphere (Pirie, 2007:7).

No one would have imagined that Cape Town, with her oppressive history, could one day become the 'gay capital' of Africa. When the Cape Colony was under the command of the Dutch East India Company during the 1700s, men engaging in sodomy were imprisoned on Robben Island and often sentenced to death; such was the case of Nicolaas Modde and two slaves who were drowned in Table Bay by loading them with weights (De Waal, 2002). Fast forward to the current century, the story of Nicolaas Modde is now a distant memory and not well known. Instead, Cape Town is now often referred to by South Africans as 'Gay Town' (Beebe, 2012:6), but what exactly led to the

development of this city in particular becoming the 'Gay Town' of South Africa?

The City of Cape Town was one of the main recipients of the "post-apartheid tourist boom" (Rogerson & Visser, 2005:67), resulting in dramatic tourism growth in the mid-1990s (Bennett, 2004:40) after South Africa re-entered the global tourism industry (Pirie, 2007:3), but international arrivals started to decline towards the turn of the 21st century (Visser, 2002:87). As the local tourism industry matured, the City's tourism authority, CTT, responded in an attempt to stimulate visitor growth by diversifying the tourism products on offer (Bennett, 2004:40; Rogerson & Visser, 2005:67) and refined their market segments through identifying various niche elements, including sport; adventure, eco-tourism and backpackers; Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE); cruising and yachting; and medical as well as gay tourism (City of Cape Town, 2002:35; Western Cape Department of Economic Development, Tourism and Agriculture, 2002:5). The gay strategy seemed to be particularly successful when a popular festival, the MCQP, attracted thousands of domestic and international gay travellers in the year 2000 and injected approximately R50 million into the local economy which was almost half of Cape Town's most iconic event, the Cape Argus Cycle Race, that generated R106 million (Visser, 2002:90; Bennett, 2004:41). The MCQP has played a significant role in promoting Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination (Rink, 2013:70) and has furthered the liberal nature of the city (Hattingh, 2011:24). According to Smetherham (2003), Andre Vorster who was the director of the festival at the time, projected that the MCQP could eventually have a similar economic impact as Sydney's R651 million Mardi Gras, a highly successful gay festival in Australia. These predictions led to no other city in South Africa, or on the African continent, to target gay travellers as aggressively as Cape Town did (Capital News, 2012; *The Australian*, 2012), which was made possible as a result of the new freedoms under South Africa's democratic dispensation (Rink, 2013:65). This in turn led to the 'Mother City' of Cape Town gaining the reputation as a 'gay mecca' (Rink, 2013:65).

This reputation is strengthened, in part, by Cape Town's exposure in various publications, some as early as 1998 when the US gay magazine, *Out and About*, featured South Africa, and focused specifically on Cape Town, which was made possible through South African Tourism sponsoring a tour of gay travel writers in 1997 (Elder, 2005:583). In 1999, *The Guardian*, a mainstream British newspaper, reported that "... South Africa is the most

fashionable gay tourist destination, with Cape Town being the 'gay capital' of the country" (*Mail & Guardian*, 1999). *The Times* (UK) national newspaper identified Cape Town in 2000 as "... one of the best holiday destinations in which to spend your pink pound" (Miles, 2000:12, cited in Hughes, 2006:102). *The Observer* (UK) identified Cape Town as "... the place to be for gay travellers in 2002" and described the city as a "... fresh newcomer" (Mellor, 2002). In 2002, the third edition of *The Lonely Planet Guide to Cape Town* had a six-page section dedicated to the gay traveller (in a book of over 200 pages) (Hughes, 2006:96-97). This publicity led to Cape Town being voted in 2005 by *Spartacus International Gay Guide*, a leading gay travel guide, as "one of the top five gay travel destinations in the world" (Oswin, 2005a:583-584). Thus, Cape Town's initial success in garnering a 'gay-friendly' reputation was a result of spontaneous growth from publicity generated, rather than promotion, although the promotional efforts have since increased (Visser, 2002:91). Indeed, in 2002, CTT in a detailed market assessment, undertook a survey of gay tourism demand generators to gain insight into the gay market segment. The first step was to ascertain what the perception of both South Africa and Cape Town was among international tour operators. CTT then investigated the essential resources required in the formation of a 'gay-friendly' destination; the type of product Cape Town could offer to the gay traveller; the travel pattern (seasonality) of this segment; sources of marketing information that influence gay travellers' decisions to visit Cape Town; key destinations competing with the City for this market segment; and established Cape Town's strengths and weaknesses as an emerging 'gay-friendly' destination. Lastly, they studied the success stories and marketing campaigns of established 'gay-friendly' destinations, specifically Quebec (Canada) and Berlin (Germany) (City of Cape Town, 2002).

As stated in the preceding paragraph, Cape Town was classified as "one of the top five gay travel destinations in the world" 15 years ago (Visser, 2003a:175), and although quite difficult to determine given the vast amount of tourism offerings and various segments targeted, it could be said that the destination was emerging for gay travellers, and thus in the introductory phase of its life cycle for this specific segment (Prayag, 2003:44). Two decades ago, Pritchard et al. (1998:277) found that it was relatively uncommon for a tourism destination to target gay travellers and promote itself as 'gay friendly'. Therefore, only a handful of destinations were known as 'gay friendly', Cape Town being the only 'gay-friendly' destination in the world at the time whose country's

constitution protected gay rights (Cock, 2002:35; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:326), a point consistently referred to by the media and promotional material (Elder, 2005:579). As a result, Cape Town has a welcoming attitude, an unrivalled diverse offering of experiences (UNWTO, 2012:21) and a reputation for being liberal in its socio-political views (Visser, 2003a:175). This commitment to gay rights and diversity led to the city being firmly placed on the international gay travel map (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004).

Cox (2001:3) states: "Holidaymaking provides gay men with significant opportunities to experience a range of sexual cultures that may bring important changes in their individual and collective sources of gay identity." Over 20 years ago, in a study by Newton (1993) of the first US 'gay-friendly' destination, Cherry Grove (New York), it was pointed out how resort towns like Key West (Florida), the Grove, and Provincetown (Massachusetts) were the only places where gay people could publicly meet without persistent "fear of hostile straight society" (Newton, 1993:2). This meant that it was only possible to be open about one's sexuality at a 'gay-friendly' destination, and that the desire for a holiday to a 'gay-friendly' destination led to an increase in these travellers where they could be themselves. Today, with the increase of societal tolerance and legislation (Herrera, 2003:14; Thomsen, 2008:40; Southall & Fallon, 2011:221; Coon, 2012:512), competition for the gay traveller is fierce as many destinations attempt to target these tourists (Hughes, 2002:299; Månsson & Østrup, 2007:1; Monterrubio et al., 2007:58). Many gay travellers have now 'discovered' the City of Cape Town in the nearly two decades since the early 2000s. Pirie (2007:18) and Roth and Luongo (2002) warn that competing destinations should not be overconfident of their 'gay-friendly' status as maturity can set in, and ratings will have to be re-earned continually. This implies new challenges to Cape Town concerning the marketing of the destination, as imagination will be needed to refresh, reinvent and re-script a tourism product and experience (Pirie, 2007:18).

How can Cape Town attract first-time gay travellers and retain those new as well as existing gay travellers while facing this fierce competition? According to Khan (2013:23) this "... need for innovation and evolving with the changing needs of the consumer is a very important aspect of growth in any industry". It can, therefore, be argued that the gay traveller that Cape Town attracted from two decades ago might be very different from today's gay travellers. To succeed, the destination will need to explore the continuously

changing trends of the gay segment(s) in order to adapt existing and create new long-term marketing strategies to meet their specific needs (Orlik, 2012:1).

In one of the first academic research studies on gay tourism, that of Holcomb and Luongo (1996:711), it was commented that: "...few localities are exploiting their potential for gay tourism. In most cases it is gays themselves, rather than mainstream visitors and convention boards, who market gay destinations". Hughes (2006:174) supports this view and asserts that most of the well-known gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations acquired their reputations through word-of-mouth rather than targeted marketing on the part of the DMOs. The promotion of destinations as gay or 'gay friendly' is therefore a fairly new phenomenon (Guaracino, 2007:150) and is used by an increasing number of destinations as a way to differentiate their offering (Hughes, 2002:299; Månsson & Østrup, 2007:1; Monterrubio et al., 2007:58). It has already been established that much of the marketing of 'gay Cape Town' was initially not due to CTT's efforts but rather a result of international media publicity. Similarly to Holcomb and Luongo's comment, a mix of private initiatives in the gay community and specialised organisations was responsible for enhancing Cape Town's reputation as the African continent's foremost 'gay-friendly' destination, so this specific section discusses the efforts undertaken to successfully attract the domestic and international gay traveller and provides examples of previous and current initiatives that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's 'gay-friendly' reputation:

(i) Previous initiatives that contributed to Cape Town's success in garnering an international 'gay-friendly' reputation:

- In 1999, the Gay and Lesbian Association of Cape Town Tourism Industry and Commerce (GALACTTIC) – now defunct – was formed to cater for the continuing special interests of the gay market segment (Seymour, 2003; Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004; Oswin, 2005b:80).
- In 2001, CTT bid to host the 2010 Gay Games; however, the bid failed and Cape Town lost to Cologne, Germany (Williams, 2001b) which can be regarded as a massive lost opportunity as the 2014 Gay Games held in Cleveland had a total economic impact of US\$52.1 million and attracted more than 20 000 attendees

and participants (Rohlin & Greenhalgh-Stanley, 2014:2).

- A pink visitor's map (now out of print), an annual publication for gay visitors, listed the city's 'gay-friendly' facilities (Rink, 2013:65-66). Although the Pink Map was not directly responsible for positioning Cape Town as a gay destination, it did increase the visibility of Cape Town's gay community (Cullen, 2010:4) and served as an entry point for gay travellers to Cape Town (Rink, 2013:86).
 - The South African Gay and Lesbian Travel Alliance (SAGLTA) (now defunct) represented a variety of South African 'gay-friendly' tourism organisations to the international gay visitor (Dikobe, 2006). The annual SAGLTA guide was distributed internationally to tour operators, travel agents, a selection of tourism offices, and even gay individuals. SAGLTA, in addition, took part in international gay travel expositions, and exhibited at leading travel shows, including Internationale Tourismus Börse (ITB), WTM and the Tourism Indaba (Mamba Online, 2006).
- (ii) Current initiatives that contribute to Cape Town's success in garnering an international 'gay-friendly' reputation:
- Various informative websites are available for prospective gay travellers to Cape Town. These include, for example, www.capetown.tv; www.gaycapetown4u.com/; www.gaycapetown.co.za; www.gapleisure.com; and www.pinksa.co.za.
 - The *Pink South Africa Guide* lists useful tips on 'gay-friendly' accommodation, restaurants and events, largely focusing on Cape Town. The guide has been published for over 10 years by Cape Info Africa (a private 'gay-friendly' travel agency) and is endorsed and distributed by CTT and Wesgro (the official Destination Marketing, Investment and Trade Promotion Agency for the Western Cape, located in Cape Town) (*Pink South Africa*, 2015).
 - A dedicated gay section is included in the Cape Town official visitor's guide that offers travel advice to prospective gay visitors and cites 'gay-friendly' accommodation, gay tours, gay events and 'gay-friendly' restaurants, bars and nightclubs (*Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, 2015). With roughly 200 000 copies in

circulation and accessed by an estimated 1.2 million visitors in 2016 (Cape Town Tourism, 2016b), the guide assists in positioning the city as a 'gay-friendly destination'.

- CTT provides promotional offers and other material and information to a variety of tourism suppliers targeting the gay segment as well as gay and mainstream media (Seymour, 2003; Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004).
- *Out Africa Magazine*, launched in December 2009, is a gay South African quarterly lifestyle magazine covering a wide range of topics from health, art, books, décor, gay community news, films, food, fashion, motoring, music, property, theatre, travel, politics and celebrity interviews. This Cape Town publication is distributed at 'gay-friendly' shops in various cities in the country (*Out Africa Magazine*, 2016).
- Cape Town's gay community newspaper, *The Pink Tongue*, was launched in August 2007 and covers news stories, travel reviews, profiles and interviews, an events guide, health matters, sport and regular columnists (Lunch Box Media, 2016). The newspaper is accessible to all visitors at CTTs Information Centres (*Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, 2015).
- Cape Town won the bid to host the 2015 Mr Gay World event. Although the Grand Finale was moved from Cape Town to Knysna a month prior to the event, the City still supported the event with R100 000 (Media Update, 2015). The bid was led by the annual celebration of gay culture in Knysna, the Pink Loerie Mardi Gras and Arts Festival (Legg, 2014).
- IGLTA, an international travel trade association founded in 1983, connects the global LGBT tourism industry with education, networking, and business development (Ivy, 2001:338-339; Guaracino, 2007:15; Bömkes, 2011:188) and has over 2 200 member businesses in 80 countries on all six inhabited continents (Kauhanen, 2015:19-20) which includes tour operators, travel agents, hotels, airlines, and tourist boards (Hughes, 2005:56) including CTT (Mulder, 2012). IGLTA became an association partner for "World Travel Market Africa 2015, a key business-to-business exhibition of Africa's leisure travel industry", which took place in Cape Town in April 2015.

Through this partnership, IGLTA brought more visibility, education, and awareness to gay travel in Africa (World Travel Market, 2015).

- Cape Town has won the bid to host IGLTA's 33rd Annual Global Convention in 2016 (Mamba Online, 2013; Tourism Update, 2013a; Grove, 2014; Jordan, 2014). This marked the first time that an African city hosted IGLTA's global networking and educational conference (World Travel Market, 2015) and enhanced the image and reputation of Cape Town as one of the leading global 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations (Mamba Online, 2013). It is hoped that the legacy of the 2016 Convention will be to encourage tourism partners and businesses to lead the change in gay rights across the African continent (Tourism Update, 2013a).
- In 2016, the Cape Town Gay Games XI committee bid to host the 2022 Gay Games. Cape Town was competing against ten other mostly American cities, including Los Angeles, San Francisco, Dallas, Salt Lake City, Austin, Denver, and Washington DC as well as Tel Aviv in Israel, Hong Kong in China and Guadalajara in Mexico (Cronje, 2016; Federation of Gay Games, 2016a; Mamba Online, 2016a). Hong Kong won the bid and was chosen as the winning host city of the 2022 Gay Games with Cape Town, as was the case for the 2010 Gay Games bid, forfeiting the very large sums to be made from the estimated 15 000 athletes and 40 000 spectators expected to attend the event (Collett, 2017).
- The official tourism website for the City of Cape Town (see www.capetown.travel/) has a dedicated gay section and focuses particularly on gay nightlife, gay events, 'gay-friendly' accommodation and gay weddings.
- *Time Out Cape Town* has since its inception in 2004 included a gay and lesbian section, which includes information on bars, nightclubs, restaurants, cafés, spas, saunas, as well as accommodation (*Time Out Cape Town*, 2016).
- CTT sponsors and assists in promoting various gay events in the city, for example, the MCQP (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004). This event has significantly contributed to positioning Cape Town as prominent 'gay-friendly' city since 1994 (Visser, 2002:90), and was officially included in the City's three-year event strategy (2015–2017) where

it was categorised as a signature event owing to the competitive advantage that it brings to the City (City of Cape Town, 2015). Figure 3.2 shows the efforts of CTT to promote the destination to domestic gay travellers as part of its 'Hello Weekend' campaign. The travel date coincides with that of the MCQP and includes a variety of package deals that include flights, accommodation and car hire (Mamba Online, 2015c).

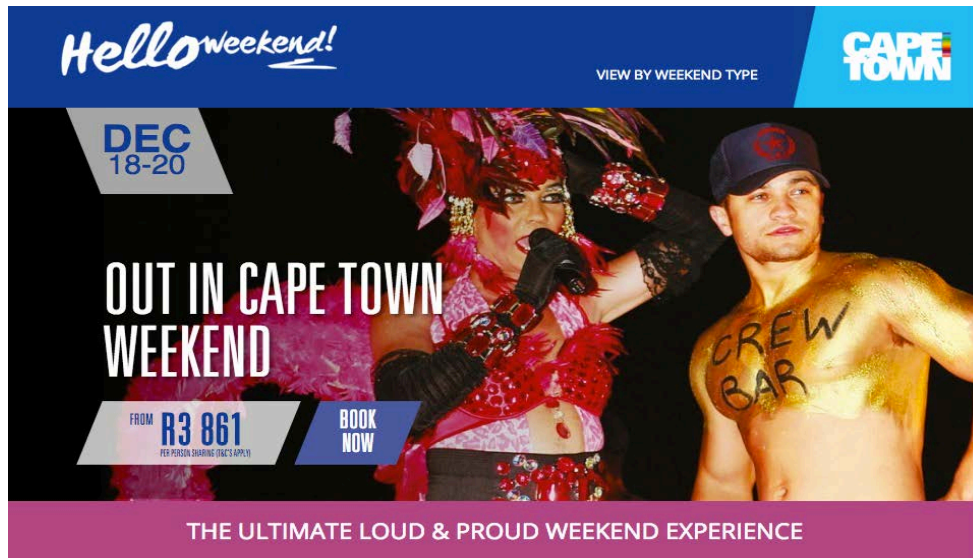


Figure 3.2: CTT's current promotional material to attract gay travellers to the MCQP

Source: Cape Town Tourism (2015a)

Stemming from the above initiatives, there was never an explicit master plan to target gay travellers and present Cape Town as only a 'gay-friendly' destination; everyone in the City does not welcome this type of promotion. This resistance to gay tourism does not appear to be uncommon in the literature. In *Redefining Amsterdam as a Tourist Destination*, Dahles (1998:56) discusses the contentious debates among the city council and the Amsterdam Tourist Office "... as to whether Amsterdam's image should be that of heretics and whores, based upon a 60's youth culture of sexual liberalism and recreational drug use", versus the more "... historical urban town design of the 17th and 18th centuries". The Amsterdam Tourist Office felt that the Netherlands lacked competitive European landmarks such as the Big Ben in London or the Eiffel Tower in Paris (Dahles, 1998:56), and instead aimed to capitalise on the city's red-light district and gay village, as it argued that "... the image of heretics and whores was not

detrimental to tourism". On the contrary, the Amsterdam Tourist Office strongly believed that this image attracted more tourists to the city (Dahles, 1998:55-56). In his book, *Pink Tourism: Holidays of Gay Men and Lesbians*, Hughes (2006) discusses various cases of resistance to gay tourism and posits that promoting a destination as 'gay friendly' can lead to heterosexual disapproval owing to the 'inappropriate' image portrayed (Hughes, 2006:170) and the fact that often, any other lifestyle out of the norm such as homosexuality, is seen as threatening and labelled "aberrant" (Hughes, 2005:52). Månsson and Østrup (2007:2) support this view in their investigation of destination marketing towards the gay traveller, in which they argue that "... societal norms influence the sexuality of destinations as places are automatically perceived as heterosexual ... and since these heterosexual places are taken for granted and seen as the norm, a gay or 'gay-friendly' destination will be seen as against the norm". Thus, they conclude that the values and norms of society significantly influence the implementation of this type of promotion.

The reputation and promotion of Cape Town as Africa's 'gay capital' has been met with similar adverse reactions. Therefore, the next section is a short case study on Cape Town and the negative effects associated with gay destination marketing as related to the second objective of this study.

3.3.1 Trouble in paradise: opposition to Cape Town's gay image

When the first Pink Map was launched in 1998, a local church inundated the local press, condemning the map as it presented Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' and welcoming city (Rink, 2013:71). In a letter to the *Cape Argus*, Michael Swain, from His People Christian Ministries, described the promotional drive as shortsighted and counterproductive and questioned why taxpayers' money was being used to promote tourism to a minority interest group (Bennett, 2004:43). As a result of Swain's letter, Sheryl Ozinsky, CTTs CEO at the time who led the initial campaign to promote Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination (Stoppard, 2001), was flooded with angry letters from anti-gay groups and individuals who opposed the gay tourism marketing drive (Blignaut, 1999). On the other hand, various heterosexual individuals wrote letters supporting the gay tourism marketing drive (Visser, 2003a:184).

Eighteen months later, renewed criticism flared up in February 2001 when enraged religious leaders demanded from the then Cape Town mayor, Peter Marais, to prevent CTT "... from promoting the city as the gay capital of the world" (Joseph, 2001). Furthermore, the leaders called on CTT's information bureau to "... rid itself of vile, disgusting and pornographic brochures" displaying the numerous gay entertainment venues, events and organisations (Williams, 2001a). Speaking on behalf of the religious leaders, Errol Naidoo of His People church, while claiming to be tolerant of homosexuality, felt that promoting the city as a 'gay capital' could result in the majority of international tourists avoiding the destination (Stoppard, 2001). He was quoted as saying:

"... we believe that Ms Ozinsky has grossly abused her position and mandate as manager of CTT by unilaterally promoting her personal sexual preference to the utter dismay of Christians, Muslims and other religious citizens" (Williams, 2001a).

In his response, the mayor sided with the religious leaders and stated that although the Constitution gave people the freedom to choose, he could not support something that was against his Christian beliefs (Bennett, 2004:45).

Naidoo claimed to have the support of members of the Muslim, Jewish and Christian communities in Cape Town. The Muslim Judicial Council (MJC), consisting of the City's 600 000 Muslims at the time, expressed support for Naidoo (Stoppard, 2001) as well as the relatively small African Christian Democratic Party, claiming to voice the concerns of approximately 130 000 local Christians (Lovell, 2001). The MJC, together with some fundamentalist Christian churches, subsequently called for Ozinsky's resignation (Harrison, 2005:39). Ozinsky refused to back down and responded by arguing that she had the support of the Board of CTT and South African Tourism to promote Cape Town as a 'gay capital', one of the many market segments the city targeted (Joseph, 2001). There were concerns that attracting gay travellers to the city could lead to an increase in the HIV infection rate which was strongly rejected by Ozinsky by arguing that "... like racism, prejudice against people with HIV, Aids and homosexuals should remain an embarrassing part of our country's past, not our present ... It's a pity that people like Mr Naidoo seem insistent on continuing this awful legacy" (Williams, 2001a). She was further quoted as saying that "... Mr Naidoo should remember that we live in a secular state where freedom of expression and religion are enshrined in our Constitution and as

such, it is my mandate to promote this city and all its glories to those who wish to visit it" (Joseph, 2001).

Ozinsky received support from various industry professionals and organisations, the most important support coming from the Chairman of the Board of CTT, the national Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, the CEO of the South Africa Chamber of Business, and the Atlantic Tourist Information Office (Bennett, 2004:45). She was of the opinion that the controversy served CTT's purposes better than any marketing they had ever done (Stoppard, 2001). Despite the criticism, Cape Town continued to market itself as a 'gay-friendly' destination and it seemed as if Cape Town had come to terms with its crown as the 'gay capital' of Africa (Bennett, 2004:44), until nine years later when the notoriously homophobic Naidoo again campaigned against Cape Town's efforts to promote itself to gay travellers and, for the first time the MCQP, Sexpo event, and the Pink Loerie Mardi Gras. He was quoted as stating that "... CTT is moonlighting as the marketing arm of the MCQP ... that CTT has no mandate to market Cape Town as a 'leading homosexual city' and that ... the majority of citizens do not agree with the homosexual lifestyle and are horrified the city is being hijacked by gay activists" (Mamba Online, 2010).

Not all opposition came in the form of letters to the press and influential people making homophobic comments. Many of Cape Town's entrepreneurs responsible for developing the gay village (De Waterkant) were of the opinion that the marketing of Cape Town, and more specifically De Waterkant as "the gay capital of Africa", was problematic as it is, arguably, one of the smallest gay villages in the world (Visser, 2003a:184). Cullen (2010:8) concurs the city does not have the infrastructure required to become a major popular international gay destination. As a counter argument, Visser (2003a:175) contends there is a major difference between the marketing of Cape Town as a gay tourism destination and gay stereotypical holidays, which Clift and Forrest (1999:617) describe as involving sun-seeking, alcohol consumption and sexual encounters, frequently observed in the promotional efforts of southern European gay resorts such as Ibiza, Mykonos and Gran Canaria. Cape Town's marketing towards gay travellers is a niche marketing strategy integrated in the overall promotional efforts, offering mainstream experiences and attractions such as shopping, museums, music, art, and parks as well as more specific activities exclusively to gay travellers: specific hotels, bars,

nightclubs and a wide variety of gay events (*Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, 2015:116), rather than a specific focus on the gay village as the primary attraction.

The strongest opposition to CTT's plans to promote gay tourism to the City came when a powerful home-made bomb exploded in the Blah Bar, a popular gay bar along the 'gay strip' in De Waterkant, in November 1999 (Blignaut, 1999). The explosion occurred on the same day that the *Cape Times* reported that foreign gay men were seeking asylum in Cape Town to avoid persecution in their own countries (Bennett, 2004:44). In August 2000, a bomb hidden inside a car exploded outside Bronx, a popular gay bar at the time (Merten, 2003). In January 2003, the massacre of nine gay men in a massage parlour made international headlines and was believed to be an anti-gay hate crime linked to gangsterism (BBC News, 2003; Van Zilla & Schronen, 2003); however, the motives for the murders remain a mystery to this day as the two accused men never testified in court (Barnes, 2008; Mamba Online, 2008). During sentencing, Judge Nathan Erasmus described the murders as the "... worst massacre that Cape Town has experienced" as all victims were tied up, had their throats slit and were shot execution style (Southern African Legal Information Institute, 2004).

These controversies highlight two conflicting trends in our society. On the one hand, gay individuals are continuously sought after as consumers, with the tourism industry serving as a prominent example of how this segment is being courted. On the other hand, the responses of Mayor Marais and the coalition of the MJC and Christian churches, along with the bombings and massacre, remind us that the gay community has yet to achieve equal citizen status in South African society. Indeed, Coon (2012:512) argues that "... while marketers' recent attempts to lure gay and lesbian tourists to specific destinations may seem to suggest increased tolerance and societal inclusion, the specific strategies that they employ actually reveal the second class citizen status experienced by gays and lesbians".

Despite the controversies and backlash from various forces, Cape Town, remains "... one of the most beautiful cities in the world: heaven at the tip of Africa" (*Cape Town City Guide*, 2012) and is recognised by *The Guardian* as "... one of the 10 most popular gay travel destinations in the world", while the US publication *Out and About* cites it as a "world-wide favourite" (UNWTO, 2012:23). In its listing of the "Top Ten Gay Beaches in

the World,” *Gay Cities* placed Cape Town’s Clifton 3rd beach in the number eight spot (Raymundo, 2010), while Cape Town is also ranked in the “top 10 of the best gay honeymoon destinations worldwide” (Graham, 2012). In 2012, *The Advocate* named Cape Town as one of the “Top 20 gay travel destinations of 2013” (Garcia, 2012). The Travel Channel (channel 179 on DSTV) named Cape Town as “... one of the best gay beach destinations in the world” (Mosby, 2014). *Gay Star News* named Cape Town as one of the “top five blockbuster gay hotspots” to travel to in 2016 (Tabberer, 2016). *Scruff*, a leading gay dating and travel app with over 10 million members worldwide, in collaboration with the *New York Times*, surveyed close to 5 000 gay travellers and named Cape Town one of the five most “surprisingly gay-friendly” travel destinations in the world (Isaacs, 2016; Mamba Online, 2016b). These accolades and awards strongly suggest that Cape Town is an international competitor in terms of gay tourism. Various sources point to the growth of the gay segment as a result of greater societal tolerance towards the gay population (Pritchard et al., 1998:275; Tourism Intelligence International, 2001:3; Bömkes, 2011:187; UNWTO, 2012:9), which results in increased competition among destinations (Khan, 2013:1). Thus, as Echtner and Ritchie (1991:2) argue, the “... destination choices available to consumers continue to expand, and as a result, tourism marketers are now faced with influencing consumer decision-making in an increasingly complex and competitive global marketplace”. This suggests new challenges to not only Cape Town, but other new and existing ‘gay-friendly’ destinations, concerning the marketing of their products and services. The destination will have to consider the expectations, needs and wants of more mature and knowledgeable customers (Mulec, 2010:13). Detailed research into the gay segment is therefore crucial if repeat visitations, positive experiences, and competitive positioning should be achieved (City of Cape Town, 2002:35).

3.4 Summary

The 1990s were considered to be the “golden age” of gay tourism after the *Wall Street Journal* announced that gays represented a “dream market”. This article resulted in tremendous interest in researching the relationship between tourism and especially gay men in both academic and market research. A variety of dynamics have been explored and include issues of the economic importance, gay traveller destination choice, gay destination marketing, gay men’s sexual behaviour while on holiday, holiday motivations

of gay men and to a much lesser extent gay women, and market segments of gay tourism. It has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that a gay market segment exists; hence in order to understand whether this segment truly exists, this chapter provides a discussion on market segmentation and suggests that the gay traveller could be segmented according to psychological (rather than physical) dimensions such as personality, lifestyle and social characteristics centred around the myth that gay men and women, for example, have a unique lifestyle. A market segment, in order to be classified as such, needs to adhere to certain criteria. The gay traveller as a market segment of the larger LGBT tourism market is evaluated against the most common segmentation criteria: identifiability, sufficiency, stability and accessibility. The evaluation shows that there is difficulty in identifying this segment owing to many in the segment not being open about their sexuality, which influences the actual size of the segment and is related to the segmentation criterion of sufficiency. Although the exact size of the gay market segment is not known, it is generally understood that the percentage of the global LGBT population ranges from one percent to ten percent of the general population and can, therefore, be considered significant. Regarding the segmentation criterion of stability, there is accord that the gay segment is established and that the segment is likely to increase in stability, as many homosexuals may be more open about their sexuality as a consequence of growing tolerance. Lastly, the gay market segment is evaluated against the criterion requirement of accessibility. It is argued that over the last two decades there has been an increase in the range of media available to access and target the gay segment and gay community in general. Based on the evaluation, it is argued that a gay segment or segments exists; however, with less accuracy than might be applied to other mainstream market segments.

It could be further argued that gay tourism is perhaps incorrectly regarded as a form of niche tourism as a result of the myth that gay men and women lead similar lifestyles and because they are homosexual. Therefore, using only 'sexual orientation' or 'lifestyle' as segmentation criteria would be insufficient as the gay market segment is characterised by sub-segments and should not be treated as a homogeneous segment. This is evident in their diverse occupations, employment status, incomes, ethnicity, and general lifestyles. Instead, it is suggested that the sub-segments of the gay market segment, although the proportion of specific sub-segments remains unknown, be referred to as

niches as it is more likely that individuals within these sub-groups are homogeneous in certain characteristics.

Evidence from the literature review seems to point to a prevalent consensus that the LGBT market, and more specifically the gay male sub-segment, feature favourable characteristics for the tourism industry. It is also this sub-segment about whom common misperceptions exist. This chapter discusses and analyses the most common misperceptions and raises some points for consideration. Referring to all gay couples as 'DINKS', for example, could be an inaccurate representation as research indicates that some gay households do include children. Also, as information on the gay segment is mostly obtained from surveys that implement convenience and opportunistic sampling approaches, results are skewed since data obtained from these biased samples are then incorrectly interpreted and understood to represent the views of the entire gay population, and often lead to a misleading image of a privileged homogeneous gay market segment. It is also argued that the "ideal gay tourist" indeed exists but is limited to a largely unknown segment of the LGBT market. For this reason, a wide variety of academic and market research studies as well as media reports maintain their stance on presenting the gay traveller as a major market for tourism. Specific studies aiming to determine the economic power of the European and US gay traveller are presented as the majority of these travellers travel to Cape Town from these regions. It is argued though that the findings of these studies have to be cautiously considered and it is important to analyse how significant and reliable these findings are to a research group whose population is based on assumptions. What is also clear is that it remains challenging to determine the size and worth of the gay segment because of discrepancies in methods applied. Nevertheless, various research studies reporting on the economic power of the gay traveller, whether accurate or not, resulted in a number of tourism destinations actively targeting this traveller.

Cape Town being one of these destinations has been extremely successful in attracting domestic and international gay travellers. Therefore, the latter part of the chapter elaborates on how Cape Town became the "gay capital of South Africa" by discussing the past and present initiatives that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's popularity and international recognition as a leading 'gay-friendly' destination. It is evident that Cape Town's initial success in garnering a 'gay-friendly' reputation was a

result of international media publicity, and a mix of private initiatives in the gay community and by specialised organisations, rather than promotion on the part of the tourism board, CTT. The fact that Cape Town's 'gaybourhood' is the only gay village on the African continent, further led to Cape Town's becoming a unique drawcard for domestic and international gay travellers as South Africa was also, initially, the only country that protected gay rights in its constitution. Furthermore, the resistance to promoting Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination is discussed and it is concluded that the values and norms of society significantly influence the implementation of this type of promotion.

In conclusion, it was found that various studies focus on the economic importance of the larger LGBT market as well as gay men as a homogeneous sub-segment of this market, but there are some dimensions of gay tourism that remain under explored. The academic discussion of gay destination marketing, specifically the positive and negative effects of marketing a destination as 'gay friendly', the motivations of gay travellers, and their destination choices are a few such under explored topics. The literature review will, therefore be extended to the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

GAY TRAVELLERS' HOLIDAY MOTIVATIONS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter concluded with a short case study on the controversy around Sheryl Ozinsky's campaign to promote Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination. It was further concluded that some dimensions of gay tourism remain under explored – marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly' and the implications thereof is one such under-explored topic. Therefore, one of the objectives of this study is to identify these implications, which are examined in this chapter. Furthermore, the increasing trend of destinations attempting to differentiate themselves by marketing the destination as 'gay friendly' has led to intense competition. This chapter therefore identifies some of the more popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting the gay traveller.

The previous chapter also questioned whether one could talk about a homogeneous gay market segment and concluded by arguing that a homogeneous gay market segment per se does not exist, and that specific sub-segments remain unknown, suggesting a gap in the literature. As the literature suggests, the push-pull framework is widely used for market segmentation purposes, hence this study aims to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers by segmenting gay travellers, and attempts to contribute to the gap in the literature regarding this segment's heterogeneity. This chapter also discusses general travel motivation, followed by a discussion of the most predominant general travel motivation theories.

Tourists have been grouped under a variety of different typologies according to their travel motivations and personal needs, thus the chapter also discusses the most predominant tourist typologies related to travel motivations as developed over time, since the main purpose of this study is to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers. As the push-pull framework is used most often for this purpose, this chapter reviews literature on studies that have implemented this framework. Furthermore, the literature draws together the specific push motivations for travel among gay travellers as well as elaborating on pull motivations (attributes that attract) gay travellers to specific

destinations. As pull factors are place specific, the chapter concludes with some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for gay travellers, followed by a discussion of the factors that might lead to these travellers not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination.

4.2 An introduction to tourism destinations

Tourism destinations are "... places that people travel to and where they choose to stay temporarily in order to experience certain features or characteristics of that place" (Leiper, 1995:87), which can range from countries to continents, to cities, to villages, to man-made resorts, to abandoned islands (Pike, 2008:24-25) and to the sea itself (Hughes, 2006:89). Carter and Fabricius (2007) define a tourism destination as

"... a distinctly recognisable area with geographic or administrative boundaries that tourists visit and stay in during their trip".

This definition however appears to be simplistic, as Buhalis (2000:109) contends that tourism destinations

"... are amalgams of individually produced tourism amenities and services (such as accommodation, transportation, catering, entertainment), and a wide range of public goods (such as landscape, scenery, sea, lakes, socio-cultural surroundings and atmosphere)".

Buhalis (2000:97) further states that

"... a tourism destination can also be a perceptual concept, which can be interpreted subjectively by consumers, based on their cultural background, travel itinerary, purpose of travel, educational level and past experience".

He explains that London, for example, can be a destination for a German business traveller, while Europe may be the destination for a leisure Japanese tourist who travels to six European countries on a tour. He is of the opinion that

"... some travellers will consider a cruise ship to be their destination, while others on the same cruise may perceive the ports visited during the trip as their destination" (Buhalis, 2000:97).

Most tourism destinations comprise core components, as depicted in Table 4.1, characterised as the six A's framework (Buhalis, 2009:97) or the destination mix which can be regarded as a mixture of services and products available to the visitor (Prayag, 2003:38). Destination attributes or pull factors, as discussed throughout this chapter, form a major part of the destination mix and include "... those descriptive features that characterise a tourism product or service" (Prayag, 2003:78) and can include any or all components in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Six A's framework of tourism destinations

Attractions (natural, man-made, artificial, purpose built, heritage, special events)
Accessibility (entire transportation system, comprising routes, terminals and vehicles)
Amenities (accommodation and catering facilities, retailing, other tourist services)
Available packages (pre-arranged packages by intermediaries and principals)
Activities (all activities available at the destination and what consumers will do during their visit)
Ancillary services (services used by tourists such as banks, telecommunications, post, newsagents, hospitals)

Source: Buhalis (2000:98)

The most comprehensive definition of a tourism destination is that of the UNWTO which defines a destination as:

"... a physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day's return travel time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local tourism destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations" (UNWTO, 2002).

As noted in Chapter 1, the tremendous growth of tourism over the last few decades has resulted in this industry becoming a global priority (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). With this growth, and its subsequent benefit on especially economic development and job creation, an increasing number of destinations are competing for a larger market share in the international tourism market, making this market considerably more competitive than ever before (World Economic Forum, 2015:3). Furthermore, the rapid growth of new tourism destinations (Milohnić & Jurdana, 2008:7), especially in developing countries, creates an unparalleled level of competition as these destinations offer inexpensive authentic socio-cultural resources and unspoiled natural landscapes

(Buhalis, 2000:113). With the decrease in the price of international air travel, especially with the introduction of 'low-cost carriers', many developing long-haul destinations (such as South Africa) are becoming more accessible and more affordable (Harrison & Enz, 2005:396; Sarker et al., 2012:162; UNWTO, 2013:3), which leads to an increase in destinations available to explore (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991:2; European Parliament, 2009:13). To be recognised, and to attract their share of this international tourism market, many destinations have also conformed to a differentiating strategy by offering a unique service and experience, different from those alternatives by competitors (Mulec, 2010:14). The marketing of a destination as gay or 'gay friendly' is one such differentiating strategy (Rushbrook, 2002) and a fairly recent phenomenon as most destinations only started developing gay-related marketing campaigns in the mid 2000s (Guaracino, 2007:4).

4.3 'Gay-friendly' destination marketing

'Gay friendly' is increasingly used in the marketing and promotion of a destination as an authentic invitation in which the destination welcomes gay travellers in a supportive and non-judgemental environment, and with non-discriminatory policies that prevent penalisation of travellers with a different sexual orientation (Guaracino, 2007:31-32). It can therefore be expected that gay visitors will be treated like any other visitor and that these visitors will be fully accepted by service providers and local residents (Hughes, 2006:177). A 'gay-friendly' destination can thus be defined as:

“... a social leisure space that affords an opportunity to escape terrains of heteronormativity that are ongoing and constantly becoming through the intersection of sets of heteronormative social relations stretched out over particular spaces and across geographical scales” (Waitt & Markwell, 2006:18).

The implications of this type of marketing have however received very little research attention. Hence, the next section attempts to discuss the positive and negative effects of marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly'.

4.3.1 Negative effects (disadvantages) of marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly'

- Discouragement of other tourism markets

Hughes (2006:190) argues that some of the resistance to this type of marketing is understood to be as a result of its potential negative influence on other tourism markets as prospective tourists could be discouraged from travelling to a destination with a reputation for being 'gay friendly' or which promotes itself as a 'gay-friendly' destination.

- Criticism and violence toward gay village

When a DMO markets gay-related aspects of a destination towards a more mainstream target, the gay traveller is placed in contrast to the mainstream (straight) traveller as 'gay space' transforms from a safe space to an area where the gay community might feel threatened and alienated (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:3) and to some degree, a decrease in privacy and community feeling occurs (Coon, 2012:524). Ivy (2001:343) warns that marketing of a gay village as a tourist attraction could imply "... a need for social isolation at a time when many gays want the rest of the world to realise that they are largely the same as everyone else". He further elaborates that should a city publicly market their 'gay space(s)', anti-gay groups could target the gay community and result in an increase in violence and criticism. Elder (2005:587) questions the 'wholesale marketing' of 'gay spaces' and concurs with Ivy (2001) by arguing that marketing of 'gay spaces' and places as mainstream attractions may result in some giving expression to their homophobia in terms of violence. In the *Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide* (2015:40), the De Waterkant Village is promoted as one of the top visitors' attractions: "... between the Waterfront and the City, the colourful suburb of De Waterkant is the heart of Cape Town's 'gay-friendly' Pink Quarter, with a lively selection of shops, restaurants and nightlife". Cape Town's Gay Village is thus promoted in a similar manner as the Bo-Kaap (predominantly Muslim) community or the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront, and is thus a potential visitor attraction. This increased public visibility might be read as a step towards acceptance and inclusion but can also result in opposition and violence against the gay community, as discussed in Section 3.3.3.

- Exploitation and overuse

Some local gay populations have also had mixed views about the active promotion of their 'gay space' as a tourist attraction as visitation by international gay travellers may generate a sense of exploitation and lead to overuse (Hughes, 2005:58). The support of local government and of local agencies for the development and tourist promotion of 'gay space' may also be negatively regarded, in that 'gay space' is exploited as a symbol of progressiveness and liberalism with little real concern for social equality (Quilley, 1997, cited in Hughes, 2005:58).

4.3.2 Positive effects (advantages) of marketing a destination as gay or 'gay friendly'

- Attraction of various other market segments

It was acknowledged earlier in this chapter that although some tourists could be discouraged from visiting a destination that is marketed as 'gay friendly' (Hughes, 2006:190), it is possible that this type of marketing, in practice, could attract a variety of other market segments to the destination as gay pride parades and festivals attract significant numbers of mainstream tourists because of their celebratory atmosphere (See Section 4.6.5.3) (Hughes, 2006:149). Rushbrook (2002) argues that mainstream tourists are attracted to elements of difference, exoticness and the extraordinary in 'gay space'. Waitt and Markwell (2006:226), in similar vein, note that when mainstream tourists attend gay events (or visit 'gay spaces'), they expect a 'freak show'. Furthermore, some may regard the presence and acceptance of gay tourists as "... an indication of tolerance and diversity, and can have a positive effect on tourist flows as any place that openly welcomes gay visitors may be viewed by more liberal-minded tourists as a potentially attractive destination" (Hughes, 2006:191). Therefore, destinations that promote inclusion and diversity are best placed to attract the widest range of visitors (UNWTO, 2017a:38).

- Urban regeneration

The physical appearance of a destination can be enhanced through urban regeneration (Hughes, 2006:190). The marketing of a destination as 'gay friendly'

may attract households of gay people who might permanently move to these destinations and then renovate houses and urban spaces. In Section 2.3.1 it is argued that De Waterkant, for example, has through a process of regeneration and gentrification evolved from being a slum into Africa's first (and only) gay village, thus supporting Hughes's (2006) statement.

- Strengthens cosmopolitan image of destination

The presence of gay travellers may significantly transform a destination's atmosphere (Hughes, 2006:190), as it is believed that these tourists strengthen the cosmopolitan image of a city and add a certain 'vibe' to the city life (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:5).

- Revive and rejuvenate local economy

In his book, *The Rise of the Creative Class, and how it's Transforming Work, Leisure, Community and Everyday Life*, Florida (2002) cites the gay community as an example of the 'creative class' and argues that economies could be revived and rejuvenated if cities welcome this group of people, as he believes that creative companies increasingly seek to employ the 'creative class'. Bensimon (2011), in his study on the phenomenon of 'gay branding' and its relation to city branding theories, supports the statement by Florida and believes that 'gay branding' goes towards attracting the creative class (Bensimon, 2011:23). He provides a case on how Tel Aviv's tourism council targeted the gay segment, which resulted in many other tourism segments being drawn to the city. Thus, it can be confirmed that branding a city as 'gay friendly' has the power of rejuvenating local economies (Buford, 2005; UNWTO, 2017a:10).

- Increase the economic impact of a destination

A sub-segment of the LGBT market, specifically gay men (as discussed at length in Section 3.2.2) can potentially increase the economic impact of a destination through tourism, given the characteristics of some travellers in this category (Menge, 2010:10). In an economic impact study conducted in 2009, the economic impact of a

single-night gay festival in Cape Town was estimated to have contributed approximately R26 million into the City's economy (Hattingh, 2011:127).

- Differentiating strategy

Roth (2010) states that many cities view the promotion of a 'gay-friendly' city as a differentiating strategy. Bensimon (2011) found that 'gay branding' improved Tel Aviv's image, positioned it among European competitors, and differentiated it from the Middle East region (Bensimon, 2011:32). Likewise, Månsson and Østrup (2007:1) posit that marketing a destination as 'gay friendly' produces borders in relation to destinations that do not market themselves as such, as those destinations are then regarded as 'gay unfriendly', which assists with the differentiating strategy. That is, as they state "... one country's boundaries opening up opportunities for others" (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:6-7).

Owing to the increasing trend of destinations marketing themselves as 'gay friendly' (Fimiani, 2014:24), it becomes imperative for DMOs to be aware of who their current and future competitors are (Butler, 2012:29-30), as some of these destinations have invested in gay tourism, resulting in these newer 'gay-friendly' destinations competing more aggressively with traditional 'gay-friendly' destinations than before (UNWTO, 2012:10). Chapter 3 discussed accolades and awards that strongly suggest that Cape Town is an established international competitor in terms of gay tourism, especially for the European and American gay markets. It is further argued that the growth of these markets is due to a greater societal attitude towards the gay population (Pritchard et al., 1998:275; Tourism Intelligence International, 2001:3; Bömkes, 2011:187; UNWTO, 2012:9), which results in new 'gay-friendly' destinations and tourism services being high in demand (Hughes, 2006:83-84), which in turn increases competition among destinations (Khan, 2013:1). The destination choices available to consumers therefore

"... continue to expand, and as a result tourism marketers are now faced with influencing consumer decision-making in an increasingly complex and competitive global marketplace" (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991:2).

Furthermore, any destination with similar offerings and even destinations offering significantly different opportunities might also be competitors (Butler, 2012:29-30). In

2006, information about where gay travellers tended to go on holiday was underexplored (Hughes, 2006:89); however, the literature on gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations is seemingly increasing (Månsson & Østrup, 2007; Blichfeldt et al., 2011; Coon, 2012; Khan, 2013; Fimiani, 2014).

The next section of this chapter identifies some of the more popular 'gay-friendly' destinations in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting the gay traveller.

4.4 Popular gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations

The findings, and possible limitations of investigations of the most popular gay tourism destinations, are examined in this part of the chapter. This section divides the investigations into two main sections, academic research findings and market research findings, as these are common sources of information that have been used for investigating popular gay tourism destinations (Monterrubio, 2008:66). A selection of other sources, such as gay travel guides, the Internet, and media articles is also investigated.

4.4.1 Academic research findings

The following is a selection of the most important academic case studies relevant to this research:

4.4.1.1 Clift and Forrest's (1999) study

One of the earliest academic studies on gay tourism destinations was that undertaken by Clift and Forrest (1999). The study presented findings on the travel patterns as well as the holiday experiences and travel motivations of 562 British gay men. The questionnaire, among other aspects, included a list of 16 tourism destinations to determine the most common destinations that gay men visit (Clift & Forrest, 1999:618). Respondents were requested to reflect on their travel patterns over the last five years by indicating whether they had visited each of the destinations. According to the findings, short-haul destinations within Europe, including London, Amsterdam, Paris, Gran

Canaria, Ibiza, Sitges, Berlin, Mykonos and Prague were the most popular destinations that British gay men travelled to. The study further found that minorities of British gay men had travelled to long-haul destinations such as the US, North Africa (more so than sub-Saharan Africa), Australia, Southeast Asia, and Central and South America (Clift & Forrest, 1999:619).

The findings of this study have certain limitations. First, the destinations were pre-selected and biased as the questionnaire included only traditional and the most-popular international gay traveller cities and resorts, and did not make allowance for emerging destinations to be included by the respondents. Second, the total number of destinations travelled to was used to determine the extent of gay men's travel patterns as opposed to the frequency with which respondents had travelled to those destinations. Third, two-thirds of the respondents originated from Brighton (UK), which is known for its large gay community and numerous gay leisure facilities (Clift & Forrest, 1999:623), and therefore the findings are biased toward those men. Instead, as the authors suggest, information on gay traveller flows from a mixture of different nationalities at given times in a season might be more useful and representative of the gay segment (Clift & Forrest, 1999:623-624). Fourth, specific regions within the popular long-haul destinations were not given. Furthermore, individual cities, countries and whole continents were included, which, according to Hughes (2006:90), make for a difficult comparison.

4.4.1.2 Hughes's (2002) study

Building on the work of Clift and Forrest (1999), Hughes studied what influenced the popularity and avoidance of holiday destinations by gay men (Hughes, 2002:304). In contrast to the quantitative study by Clift and Forrest (1999), Hughes (2002) conducted qualitative research by interviewing 40 gay men in five different gay bars in Manchester (UK). Informants were invited to reflect on their most recent holiday, in particular the factors that influenced the selection and rejection of holiday destinations. Additionally, they were asked about their behaviour while on holiday and their experiences of destinations visited.

The results showed that the range of destinations visited during their most recent holiday included a range of places generally regarded as gay destinations, such as Gran

Canaria, Amsterdam and Sitges, which supported Cliff and Forrest's (1999) findings. Interestingly, countries that are not generally considered to be 'gay friendly' featured in the interviews and these included Egypt, Sri Lanka, Ireland, Antigua, Kenya and France. A further finding was that many informants travelled to destinations that offer culture, heritage, adventure and sport as well as to rural areas and city destinations (Hughes, 2002:305), as opposed to the stereotypical 'sun and beach destinations'.

The study had similar limitations to that of Cliff and Forrest (1999), although to a much lesser extent. Hughes (2002:304) acknowledged that the sample selection was opportunistic and convenient, and not representative of the gay population, and like that of Cliff and Forrest (1999), was based on British gay men living in Manchester (UK), which is known for having the largest gay community after London, with a well-established gay infrastructure (Reynolds, 1999:93; Hughes, 2002:304; Williamson, 2014). Therefore, the findings are biased and representative of British gay men that frequent gay bars only.

4.4.1.3 Lück's (2005) study

In 2005, Lück investigated the destination choices and travel behaviour of largely Canadian and North American gay men. In contrast to Cliff and Forrest's quantitative study (1999) and Hughes's qualitative study (2002), Lück implemented a mixed-methods approach. To limit predetermined responses elicited by quantitative research, Lück interviewed a convenience sample of 13 gay men. This was done to have an in-depth discussion on a variety of topics, which served as themes for the online quantitative survey, completed by 85 respondents through gay chatlines on the Internet, Internet discussion groups, and gay interest groups (Lück, 2005:5).

Large cities in North America and Europe seemed to be particularly popular as a majority of respondents indicated to have travelled to a gay or 'gay-friendly' destination in these regions. The most popular destination in Europe was Amsterdam. Other popular European countries and cities included France, the UK, Greece, Germany, Spain, and Austria, and London, Berlin, Barcelona, and Madrid. Destinations like San Francisco, Miami, Key West, New York City, Hawaii, Palm Beach and Seattle were most popular in North America. Long-haul 'gay-friendly' destinations included Thailand, Sydney, Buenos

Aires and Auckland (Lück, 2005:6). Respondents were also asked to indicate their dream destination if money and time were of no concern. The results indicated particularly exotic places, like South Africa, Rio de Janeiro, China, Bali, United Arab Emirates, Singapore, Russia, India, Australia, Tahiti, Vietnam, Cambodia, and India (Lück, 2005:6), confirming Buhalis's (2000:102) argument that exotic and new long-haul destinations, often in developing countries, are increasingly attractive.

This study had its own limitations. Internet-based surveys only represent internet users and automatically exclude non-internet users. The respondents were largely Canadian and North American gay men, and are thus not representative of the gay population. Similar to the limitations of Clift and Forrest (1999), cities together with whole countries were included which, as stated earlier, makes for a difficult comparison (Hughes, 2006:90).

4.4.2 Market research findings

The following are relevant organisation-based studies:

4.4.2.1 Community Marketing Inc. studies

The most recent online study conducted by Community Marketing Inc. was in 2015 with a sample of 4 662 gay men and women from all 50 US states (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:3-4). The most popular gay US destination, based on gay travel to a US destination and staying for at least one night in a hotel, was New York City, followed by Las Vegas, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Chicago respectively (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:25). The most popular countries were reported to be England, followed by France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the Netherlands (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:28). In a previous survey done in 2014, respondents had to indicate the one country in the world they would like to travel to that they had not visited before if cost was not an issue. Australia was the number one destination (15%) followed by Italy (7%), New Zealand (6%) and Japan (5%). European countries scored lower, primarily as many had already visited these countries (Ireland, Germany, Greece, France, Spain and the UK all ranged between 3 and 4%) (Community Marketing Inc., 2014:28). South Africa and Cape Town did not feature, which is important to note as Cape Town

specifically aims to attract the US gay traveller (UNWTO, 2012:23). In the 2014 survey respondents were also asked about perceived safety in countries such as Jamaica, Turkey, Dubai, Kenya, Russia and South Africa. Only 21% of respondents felt 'very safe' to travel to South Africa, followed by 47% indicating 'somewhat safe' and an alarming 31% stating that they would not feel safe to travel to South Africa (Community Marketing Inc., 2014:29). Thus, the targeting of the US gay traveller by Cape Town might be restricted as South Africa continues to suffer from negative perceptions regarding crime in the country. A further interesting observation is made when respondents (those who got married or engaged in the past year) did not indicate South Africa or Cape Town as a destination of choice for their honeymoon as most chose Hawaii (most popular), Florida and Mexico (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:7).

The limitations to the Community Marketing Inc.'s overall research methodology, as discussed in Section 3.2.2.1, are that although the studies are based on large samples, they do not represent the entire gay population as they are derived from primarily North American men who self-identify as gay, as well as from those who are members of certain gay publications, attend gay events, and those that respond to online survey invitations.

4.4.2.2 Out Now Global studies

As discussed in Section 3.2.2.2, Out Now Global is currently conducting an ongoing global LGBT tourism market research study with a sample size of over 100 000 respondents from 25 different countries and five continents (Out Now Global, 2012). It is acknowledged that this is the first attempt at researching the global LGBT population and is thus unique in comparison with other studies discussed above. The findings from the 2013 *Out Now Global LGBT2020 Tourism Report* (part of the ongoing LGBT2020 research study as discussed in Section 3.2.2.2), indicates that France is currently reported to be most desired travel destination for more than 6% of the total global LGBT tourism market, followed by the UK, apparently as a result of the 2012 London Olympic Games, with the US ranking in third place (Out Now Global, 2012). With regard to the most popular 'gay-friendly' global cities, New York City is the most popular, followed by Rio de Janeiro in second place and Sydney in third place. Cape Town, in contrast to the studies by Community Marketing Inc. where the city did not feature, ranked in 19th

position globally and in fifth position among cities in Latin America, the Caribbean and Africa, after Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, São Paulo and Mexico City (Out Now Global, 2012). In the latest release of the 2015 *Out Now Global LGBT2020 Tourism Report*, the findings of the 2015 travel plans of key global LGBT markets indicate that New York City remains as the most popular global 'gay-friendly' city, with Sydney replacing Rio de Janeiro in second place, followed by Amsterdam in third place. Cape Town is now ranked in 16th position globally (moving up two positions) and in fourth position among cities in Latin America, the Caribbean and Africa, after Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires and the Bahamas (World Travel Market, 2014).

Although findings by Out Now Global are more representative of the global LGBT market than Community Marketing Inc., research limitations are nevertheless similar in that the samples are self-selecting and representative of those influenced by the media (social media and print advertisements), whether mainstream or gay, and could thus exclude, for example, non-internet users. It is therefore assumed that other groups, such as older LGBT consumers, lower-income LGBT consumers and those that do not belong to online 'cyber' social groups are not adequately represented in these studies (also discussed in Section 3.2.2.2).

4.4.3 Other studies

Gay travellers, as with any other travellers, obtain their initial information about possible destinations from both internal and external sources. An internal source, for example, is word-of-mouth, used within the gay community to share both positive and negative experiences, whereas external sources are, for example, gay travel guides, the Internet, gay magazines and news articles (Kauhanen, 2015:16), which all attempt to state what holiday destinations are popular among gay travellers. A selection of these external sources follows:

In an attempt to examine the "spatial distribution of gay tourism" and gay leisure facilities around the world, Ivy (2001) used the gay travel guide *Spartacus International Gay Guide*, a highly popular international travel guide specifically for gay male travellers (Ivy, 2001:344; Fimiani, 2014:26), to focus on the distribution of gay-oriented tourist infrastructure ('gay space') as opposed to tourists themselves. The methodology

implemented for the study was content analysis, and data were obtained by calculating the total number of gay infrastructures, i.e. nightclubs and bars, restaurants, hotels and other recreational and entertainment facilities listed in the guide, targeted at gay travellers in the area in question. Equal weights were applied to each country listed in the guide, which comprised most countries of the world except a few developing countries and “conservative religious countries in the Middle East” with especially low international arrivals (Ivy, 2001:345).

The “top 10 countries for gay recreation and tourism”, according to this method, were the US, Germany, France, UK, Netherlands, Italy, Spain, Brazil, Japan and Belgium (Ivy, 2001:346). Furthermore, the top 10 countries accounted for 74.1% of the global gay recreation and tourism establishments (Ivy, 2001:346), which indicated a clustering of gay infrastructure in the US and Western Europe (except for Japan and Brazil) (Ivy, 2001:351). Furthermore, Africa and the Near East represented only 1.4% of the global gay recreation and tourism establishments, with South Africa dominating Africa’s share of gay recreation establishments (55%), followed by Morocco (23%). Combined, these countries represented 78% of Africa’s ‘gay-friendly’ recreation establishments, whereas Israel dominated the Near East’s ‘gay-friendly’ recreation establishments with 65% (Ivy, 2001:347).

As a German publication, the *Spartacus International Gay Guide* (written mainly by local gays in Western Europe and North America for the same gay audience) (Ivy, 2001:344), could be biased towards destinations within those regions. Therefore, although Ivy’s (2001) findings partly concur with the findings of Clift and Forrest (1999), Hughes (2002), and Lück (2005) with regard to popular destinations among gay travellers, they should be regarded as only partial. Furthermore, the existence of gay infrastructure does not necessarily indicate the existence of gay travellers (Monterrubio, 2008:70).

In a report by the Pew Research Center, 37 653 respondents in 39 different countries were asked if society should accept homosexuality (Pew Research Center, 2013). The survey found that countries where religion plays a less significant role in people’s lives are more tolerant towards homosexuality, and homosexuality appears to be more accepted in the European Union, North America, and most regions of Latin America, thus confirming, to some degree, Ivy’s (2001) findings that these regions have a

clustering of gay infrastructure and tourism establishments. The countries that are most tolerant towards homosexuality, according to the Pew Research Center (2013), are Spain (88%), Germany (87%), the Czech Republic (80%), Canada (80%), Australia (79%), France (77%), Britain (76%), Italy (74%), Argentina (74%), and the Philippines (73%), and could therefore be regarded as 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations.

In 2002, *The Guardian* referred to Miami, Manchester and Mykonos as "well worn gay ghettos" and introduced newer destinations welcoming gay travellers. Top of the list was Cape Town, followed by Russian River (California, US), Fort Lauderdale (Florida, US), Costa Rica, Budapest (Hungary), the Algarve (Portugal), Vieques (Puerto Rico), Vancouver and Salt Spring Island (British Columbia, Canada), Queensland (Australia), Phuket (Thailand), Tel Aviv (Israel), and Mumbai (Bombay, India) (Mellor, 2002). In 2010, *GayCities* published a list of the top 10 global gay beaches. According to them, the number one gay beach in the world is Sebastian Street Gay Beach (Fort Lauderdale), followed by Black's Beach in San Diego. North Bondi Beach in Sydney is listed as the third best gay beach, followed by Little Beach in Maui, Farme de Amoedo in Rio de Janeiro, Poodle Beach in Rehoboth, Playa de la Bassa Rodona in Sitges, Playa Los Muertos in Puerto Vallarta, and Pines Beach in Fire Island. Cape Town's Clifton 3rd Beach is listed in 10th place (Raymundo, 2010).

GayCities, together with American Airlines, according to the article, conducted a worldwide survey in 2012 to determine the top destinations for gay travellers. The article makes no mention of the demographics and sample size, only that readers of their websites were asked to submit votes for their favourite destinations. Tel Aviv was the most popular destination with 43% of the votes, followed by New York City (14%), Toronto (7%), São Paulo (6%), London and Madrid (5% each), and Mexico City and New Orleans with 4% each (Haaretz, 2012; Smith, 2012). In 2014, the Cable News Network (CNN) reported that gay couples can legally marry in 18 countries, and subsequently identified, according to them, the top gay honeymoon destinations. Cape Town, again in the number one position, was followed by Lesbos and Mykonos (Greece), Miami and the Florida Keys (US), Tel Aviv (Israel), Brighton (England), Phuket (Thailand), Puerto Vallarta (Mexico), Sydney (Australia), and Sitges (Spain) (Rubin, 2014). Also in 2014, the Travel Channel named the top beach destinations for gay travellers, and in first position was Sydney followed by Cancun (Mexico), Maui (Hawaii,

US), Fire Island (New York, US), Tel Aviv, Fort Lauderdale, Vancouver, Manuel Antonio (Costa Rica), Miami, Brighton, Ibiza (Spain), Provincetown (US), Sitges (Spain), Cape Town, San Diego (US), Mykonos, Rio de Janeiro (Brazil), Puerto Vallarta, Nice (France) and Rehoboth Beach (US) (Mosby, 2014). In 2016, *Gay Star Travel* published a list of 'non-stereotypical gay destinations' and at the top of their list was Rio De Janeiro, followed by São Paulo, Cape Town, Stockholm and Amsterdam (Tabberer, 2016).

From the above analysis there appears to be a mismatch between academic findings, market research findings and media articles regarding Cape Town's popularity as a 'gay-friendly' tourism destination. A cursory glance at the media articles strongly suggests that Cape Town is among the most popular 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations. This, however, does not seem to be supported by more scholarly research findings. Hughes (2006:92) argues that "... articles in the media can be about promoting 'new' destinations" and should therefore not be regarded as places that gay travellers actually visit, as these articles express individual, personal experiences and observations of journalists. It can be argued that while destinations for gay travellers appear to be varied, there is a "... prevalent consensus about the most popular" (Hughes, 2006:90), as most of the preceding analysis suggests that particularly US cities, islands and beaches are popular destinations among gay travellers. In addition, some specific European cities and Mediterranean beach resorts seem to be popular 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations. Thus, popular tourism destinations among gay travellers include both long-haul as well as short-haul destinations.

While there are many popular tourism destinations among gay travellers, there are also destinations that are 'unpopular' or 'gay unfriendly' where gay-related activities are widely disapproved of, and in some cases considered as criminal acts which, according to Hughes (2006:73), leads to strong perceptions of certain places that are hostile to homosexuals and therefore considered to be 'gay unfriendly'. Hughes (2002:307) found that informants' sexuality often influenced their choice of destinations as certain countries and regions of the world were avoided as informants felt that local communities would be hostile towards gay travellers, either for religious reasons or because of anti-gay laws. As a consequence, this study also attempts to determine if there have been any advances in gay travellers' attitudes towards destinations with anti-gay legislation and whether or not they avoid travelling to certain destinations for

reasons related to their sexualities or whether they would be willing to conceal these sexualities in order to experience certain destinations. It has also been argued earlier that the legal boundaries of one country open up opportunities for others (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:6-7), hence the following section underscores South Africa and Cape Town's uniqueness, in that the country remains the only one on the African continent, despite high levels of religious conviction, that constitutionally protects gay rights and where gay marriage is legal, which might be some of the specific attributes that attract (pull) the gay traveller to Cape Town (see Section 4.7) and not to the 'gay-unfriendly' destinations discussed below.

4.5 'Gay-unfriendly' destinations

In the same Pew Research Center report that identified the most tolerant countries towards homosexuality, the countries most resistant to homosexuality were identified as Nigeria with 98% of the votes, followed by Jordan (97%), Ghana (96%), Senegal (96%), Uganda (96%), Egypt (95%), Tunisia (94%), Palestinian Territories (93%), Indonesia (93%), Kenya (90%), Pakistan (87%), Malaysia (86%), Lebanon (80%), Turkey (78%) and Russia (74%) (Pew Research Center, 2013). These destinations are predominantly in poorer African countries and Muslim nations with high levels of religious conviction. There appear to be some exceptions as Russia has lower levels of religious conviction, suggesting higher levels of tolerance for homosexuality. However, just 16% of Russian respondents felt that homosexuality should be accepted by society. In contrast, Filipinos (73%) and Brazilians (60%) are significantly more accepting of homosexuality, considering these countries' comparatively high levels of religious conviction (Pew Research Center, 2013). The Spartacus Gay Travel Index rates countries according to 14 categories ranging from same-sex marriage to the death penalty, with higher ratings reflecting homosexual tolerance and lower ratings reflecting less tolerance. Somalia scored the lowest rating of all 188 countries, followed by Iran, United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Russia, Jamaica, Afghanistan, Libya, Guyana, Cameroon, Algeria, Jordan, and Tanzania, primarily because of these countries' anti-homosexual legislation, the hostility of locals towards homosexuality, religious influence, prosecution of homosexuals, high murder rates, and the death sentence (*Spartacus International Gay Guide*, 2015:6).

A content analysis of various media articles produced similar results as those by the Spartacus Gay Travel Index and the Pew Research Center. Some of the least ‘gay-friendly’ destinations and regions, in no particular order, as reported in the media are Uganda, Russia, Malaysia, Jamaica, India, Nigeria, Kenya, Ukraine, Turkey, India, Egypt, Honduras, Zimbabwe, Senegal, Lithuania, Sudan, and Morocco (Tjolle, 2014; Bianco, 2015; Francis, 2015; Wilson, 2015). In addition, ILGA conducted a “world survey of sexual orientation laws” in 2016 that criminalise homosexuality. Homosexuality remains illegal in 72 countries, and these countries can therefore be regarded as ‘gay unfriendly’, as revealed in Table 4.2.

In Hughes’s (2002) study on what influences the popularity and avoidance of holiday destinations by gay men (see Section 4.4.1.2), some destinations were avoided for conventional reasons, such as Italy, as it is believed that the destination is too expensive. The Middle East as a whole was perceived to be too dangerous. Some of the informants particularly avoided popular destinations such as the Spanish islands of Ibiza and Tenerife, and Benidorm (mainland Spain), primarily to “... avoid other British holidaymakers”, and to enjoy a more relaxing and quiet holiday. This was not related to sexuality issues (Hughes, 2002:306).

Table 4.2: Countries in which same-sex sexual acts are illegal

Africa	Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Comoros, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Libya, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
Asia	Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei Darussalam, Gaza (in the Occupied Palestinian Territory), India, South Sumatra and Aceh Province (in Indonesia), Iraq, Iran, Kuwait, Lebanon, Malaysia, Maldives, Myanmar, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Syria, Turkmenistan, United Arab Emirates, Uzbekistan, Yemen.
Latin America and Caribbean	Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, St Kitts & Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago.
Oceania	Cook Islands (associates to New Zealand), Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu.

Source: ILGA (2016:36-37)

Even some known 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations, such as Gran Canaria and Manchester were avoided by some as it was believed that these destinations offered similar tourism offerings to their local environments or that they might be too youth orientated, especially significant among older gay informants. Some destinations perceived as predominantly heterosexual family destinations and those characterised by "... rowdy and unruly behavior of young straight people" were also avoided with many of the informants wishing to be in a gay environment with similar gay lifestyles to relate to (Hughes, 2002:307).

Hughes (2002:307) found that informants' sexuality often influenced their choice of destinations as certain countries and regions of the world were avoided. Places such as Turkey, Jamaica, China, Germany, Greece, Portugal, "all Muslim countries", "all Arab countries" and "all African countries" were discarded, as informants felt that local communities would be hostile towards gay travellers, either for religious reasons or legal issues. Lück's (2005) findings somewhat contradict this earlier study done by Hughes (2002), as Germany and Greece were found to be particularly popular 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations.

While the findings of the selected academic, market and media articles certainly do not represent the world's most and least 'gay-friendly' destinations, a trend does surface within the data. Overall, destinations in the more secular and affluent countries, especially in the US and Western Europe, seem to be more 'gay friendly', whereas destinations in predominantly Muslim countries, and especially on the larger African continent (except for South Africa), appear to be 'gay unfriendly'. As a consequence, as Hughes (2006:73) argues, gay travellers will avoid travelling to certain places, including urban and beach resorts, individual towns, and even entire countries.

As previously discussed in Section 4.3.2, the purpose of identifying the most popular destinations is to determine some of Cape Town's most important competitors. Kozak (1999:16) and Dolnicar (2008:2) argue that few destinations compete with one another for all market segments. As discussed throughout Chapter 3, the LGBT travel market consists of various segments and even sub-segments; therefore an assumption can be made regarding the above-mentioned gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations in that not all will compete with one another or with Cape Town in particular, and will, therefore, not

necessarily appeal to all gay travellers. For example, some of the destinations are beach or urban destinations, which might only be popular for certain segments and sub-segments of the LGBT travel market, while some destinations are more popular for gay honeymoons, which is why Kozak (1999:16) argues that it is not reasonable to compare a summer and a winter destination or a beach/island and an urban destination. He further states that owing to the wide variety of tourism destinations, one should be cautious not to place all destinations in a 'single basket', or rank them from the highest (or most popular) through to the lowest (or least competitive). Evident from the content analysis of the more popular gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations is that there was no clear separation between urban, island or beach break destinations as most of the research and articles refer to specific resorts, specific countries, and even continents as popular gay or 'gay-friendly' destinations. Furthermore, inconsistent and often unavailable sample sizes, the sample origin, and the fact that most media articles represent individual observations and personal experiences of journalists, make comparisons impossible, and therefore conclusions about destinations competing with Cape Town for the gay traveller should be reached cautiously.

From a marketing perspective, it would be useful to investigate the motivations that influence gay travellers to go on holiday and to determine the pull factors (destination attributes) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town. Little research to date has examined the motivations of gay leisure travellers from an African perspective; hence this study attempts to fill this gap. Furthermore, the literature on gay tourism treats gay travellers as homogeneous (as argued throughout Chapter 3) and does not divide these travellers into recognised sub-segments. A more in-depth understanding of gay travellers' behaviour might be achieved by recognising these sub-segments (Carolan, 2007:17-18). A clear understanding of the target market's needs, wants and perceptions is critical (Psarros, 2012) if repeat visitations, positive experiences, and competitive positioning should be achieved (City of Cape Town, 2002:35). The needs and motivations of gay travellers could be categorised according to sub-segments of the gay segment, and can assist in understanding the different opportunities that are presented by the different sub-segments that would also be key to a detailed marketing strategy for the destination (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004) by using a technique known as market segmentation (Boekstein, 2012:90). Indeed, as Cook et al. (2010:17) argue, the more knowledge tourism professionals have of

travellers' behaviour and desires, and how to best meet these desires, the more successful the destination will be. Crompton (1979:409), Goossens (2000:302), Amirtahmaseb (2007:12) and Khuong and Ha (2014:490) point to the criticality of investigating motivations in order to identify the diverse desires of travellers. The push-pull framework (discussed in Section 4.6.1.2) suggests motivations fall into two categories, namely, push factors and pull factors (Klenosky, 2002:386) and is one of the most widely implemented frameworks used for market segmentation purposes (Prayag, 2010:2; Cohen et al., 2014:882). This study aims to build on this foundation and develop a typology of gay leisure travellers by segmenting gay travellers, and attempts to reduce the gap in literature regarding this segment's heterogeneity.

Thus, the available academic and market research on gay travellers' holiday motivations is examined next.

4.6 Travel motivations: understanding tourist behaviour through theories and typologies

This section of the chapter starts by introducing general travel motivations, followed by a discussion of the most widely accepted general theoretical frameworks and tourist typologies related to travel motivation. This is followed by more gay-specific tourist typologies as developed over time, and specific push and pull factors in relation to gay tourism are discussed.

4.6.1 General travel motivation theories

Motivation is classically defined as "... a state of tension within the individual which arouses, directs and maintains behaviour toward a goal" (Mullen & Johnson, 1990:91) or incentive (Luthans et al., 1988:136) and drives an individual to act in order to reach personal fulfilment (Beerli & Martín, 2004:626). Goossens (2000:302) is of the opinion that in order to reach personal fulfilment, an individual must be aware of a service or product and perceive the purchase of that service or product will assist in attaining personal fulfilment and satisfying a need (Goossens, 2000:302). Tourism services and products can be developed and promoted as a solution to an individual's needs (Fodness, 1994:555). Therefore, needs are seen as the "... forces which arouse motivated behaviour" (Boekstein, 2012:85).

As Jago (1997:104) contends, in order to fully comprehend consumer motivation, it is crucial to have in-depth knowledge of the needs that consumers strive to fulfil and how these needs can be fulfilled. Hughes (1997:5), however, argues that "... the needs satisfied by going on holiday are many and varied and any one tourist is likely to be motivated by a complex set of needs ... and that tourists themselves are not always aware of or are unable to articulate what motivates them".

There is an increasingly important body of research regarding the study of motivation in the travel and tourism industry specifically (Bansal & Eiselt, 2004:388), with numerous motivation theories and typologies having developed over time to help explain the complexity of tourists' behaviour and motivations (Isaac, 2008:80). Some of the most predominant tourist motivation theories and typologies are discussed in the following section, including Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) as adapted to tourism by Mill and Morrison (1992:20), Dann's (1977) Push-Pull Theory, Crompton's (1979) conceptual framework of the role and relationships of motivation, Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (1982), and Pearce's (1988) Travel Career Ladder. Tourist typologies include Gray's (1970) sunlust and wanderlust typology of tourists, Cohen's (1972) institutionalised, and non-institutionalised typology of tourists, and Plog's (1974) allocentric and psychocentric typology of tourists.

4.6.1.1 Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943)

Tourism-related literature has confirmed that Maslow's hierarchy of needs provides one of the earliest attempts to understand general human behaviour (Sixaba, 2013:13-14) and has subsequently become the most widely known motivation theory (Jago, 1997:103; Hudson, 1999:8). Maslow (1943) classified motivation into a hierarchy of human needs to include, in order of decreasing importance, basic physiological needs; the need for safety and security; love, belonging and affection needs; self-esteem needs; and the need for self-actualisation, as depicted in Table 4.3. According to Maslow (1943), once a "lower-level need" is fulfilled, it ceases to serve as a basis for motivation and the individual's needs shift to the next level in the hierarchy. He argued, for example, if the lower physiological needs (sleep, hunger, sex), safety and security needs, love and belonging needs are met, the individual is motivated by needs of the next level in the hierarchy, esteem (self-respect, achievement, self-confidence).

Table 4.3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Basic physiological needs	Thirst, hunger, air, sleep, sex
Safety and security needs	Freedom from danger or threat
Love (belonging and affection) needs	Friendship, affection, feeling of belonging
Self-esteem needs	Self-confidence, recognition, prestige, reputation, achievement, self-respect
Self-actualisation needs	Self-fulfilment, realising one's potential

Source: Hudson (1999:8) adapted from Maslow (1943)

Once these are satisfied, self-actualisation needs (self-fulfilment) follows. Maslow is further of the opinion that the hierarchy is not a fixed order and most individuals will follow the hierarchy as previously explained; however, there are individuals to whom, for instance, "... self-esteem appears to be more important than love" (Maslow, 1943:386), and Maslow ascribes this reversal in the hierarchy to "... a strong or powerful person, one who inspires respect or fear, and who is self-confident or aggressive".

Maslow's theory has been widely used in tourism research, albeit in adapted form, as the model is too limited in terms of fully explaining travel motivation (Hummel, 2010:19). For example, Mill and Morrison (1992) argued that travel could satisfy a need or a want, and adapted Maslow's theory into three categories, physical, psychological and intellectual, by linking the associations between wants and motives according to the tourism literature, and as depicted in Table 4.4.

Pike (2016:209) argues that the physical category comprises physiological and safety needs, the psychological category includes belonging, esteem and self-actualisation needs, and the intellectual category includes knowing and understanding as well as aesthetic needs.

Table 4.4: Needs and tourism motives

Need	Want/motive	Tourism literature
Physiological	Relaxation	Relief of tension, escape, 'sunlust', mental, physical, relaxation of tension
Safety	Security	Recreation, health, keep oneself healthy and active
Belonging	Love	Companionship, family togetherness, facilitation of social interaction, enhancement of kinship relationships, interpersonal relations, maintenance of personal ties, show one's affection for family, ethnic, roots, maintain social contacts
Esteem	Achievement, status	Show one's importance to others, convince oneself of one's achievements, ego-enhancement, prestige, social recognition, personal development, professional business, status
Self-actualisation	Be true to one's own nature	Satisfaction of inner desires, self-discovery, exploration and evaluation of self
To know and understand	Knowledge	Education, cultural, 'wanderlust', interest in foreign areas
Aesthetics	Appreciation of beauty	Environmental, scenery

Source: Pike (2016:210) adapted from Mill and Morrison (1992:20).

4.6.1.2 Dann's Push-Pull Theory (1977)

Undoubtedly, one of the most important contributions to the development of tourism motivation theories is the one proposed by Dann (1977): the push-pull framework suggests motivations fall into two categories, namely, push factors and pull factors. The push factors "... determine tourists' decisions of whether to travel", while the pull factors "... determine tourists' decisions of where to travel" (Klenosky, 2002:386).

Thus, pull factors are attributes that pull travellers towards a specific destination (e.g. sea and sunshine), while push factors include those factors that motivate the individual to travel (e.g. nostalgia and escape) (Dann, 1977:186). According to Dann (1977:186), the decision to travel to any destination is a result of a prior need for travel. He argues that "... once the trip has been decided upon, where to go, what to see or what to do

(relating to the specific destinations) can be tackled ... analytically, and often both logically and temporally, push factors precede pull factors” (Dann, 1981:207), and should therefore, as argued by Klenosky (2002:385-386), “... not be viewed as operating entirely independent of each other”. The question posed by Dann, “what makes tourists travel?” relates to push factors only “... as it is devoid of destination or value content, the requirements of the pull factors” (Dann, 1977:186). Dann proposed two push factors for travel, ‘anomie’ in which the individual desires to escape from feelings of isolation, and ‘ego-enhancement’ in which the individual seeks recognition and status through travelling (Dann, 1977:187). Furthermore, ‘anomie’ refers to a fantasy world of travel where the individual wants to overcome the repetitive and unexciting routine of everyday life, while ‘ego-enhancement’ refers to the opportunity to boost one’s ego by taking on an entirely different personality to that at home (Dann, 1977:188). Findings of studies that have implemented Dann’s (1977) push-pull framework are discussed later in Table 4.5.

4.6.1.3 Crompton’s (1979) conceptual framework of the role and relationships of motivation

Crompton (1979), in his study on identifying the motives of pleasure holidaymakers, agreed with Dann’s (1977) push-pull theory. He identified seven push (socio-psychological) and two pull (cultural) motives. The push motives include: enhancement of kinship relationships, exploration and evaluation of self, escape from daily routine, prestige, regression, relaxation, and social interaction. The pull motives include education and novelty (Crompton, 1979:408). Supporting Dann’s (1977) notion, Crompton argued that the socio-psychological (push) motives emerge exclusively from within the individuals themselves, and the cultural (pull) motives reflect the particular attributes that arouse an individual as offered by a given destination (Crompton, 1979:408). Furthermore, he supports Dann’s (1977) notion of the interdependence of the push and pull motives by stating that “... push factors may be useful not only in explaining the initial arousal, energising, or push to take a vacation, but may also have directive potential to direct the tourist toward a particular destination” (Crompton, 1979:412).

The rationale behind Crompton’s theory is that “... before the travel experience or the long-awaited vacation there is disequilibrium in the individual’s cultural-social-psychological needs” (Uysal & Hagan, 1993:803). An equilibrium theory proposes that

“... there exists a stable set of conditions that an individual will approach or maintain in the face of circumstances that perturb or challenge these conditions” (Timberlake, 1980:9). The idea of a “stable equilibrium state” is assumed in most motivation theories (McNeal, 1973, cited by Crompton, 1979:409). Once a need arises, an imbalance or disequilibrium in the motivational system occurs while disturbance of equilibrium motivates the individual to “... choose a course of action which is expected to satisfy the need, and to restore equilibrium” (Crompton, 1979:409). Crompton proposed a “two-tier system of disequilibrium” emanating from a break in routine: short-term and long-term disequilibrium. Short-term disequilibrium reflects pressures, tensions or imbalances, which disrupt homeostasis in which a break from routine is necessary in order to restore homeostasis (Crompton, 1979:414). Long-term disequilibrium, Crompton (1979:414) argues, can only be satisfied through continuous pleasure holidays. A “... break from routine did not necessarily mean a change to doing different kinds of things or a change in lifestyle” but rather a “... continuation of doing the same kinds of things but in a different physical, or social context” (Crompton, 1979:415).

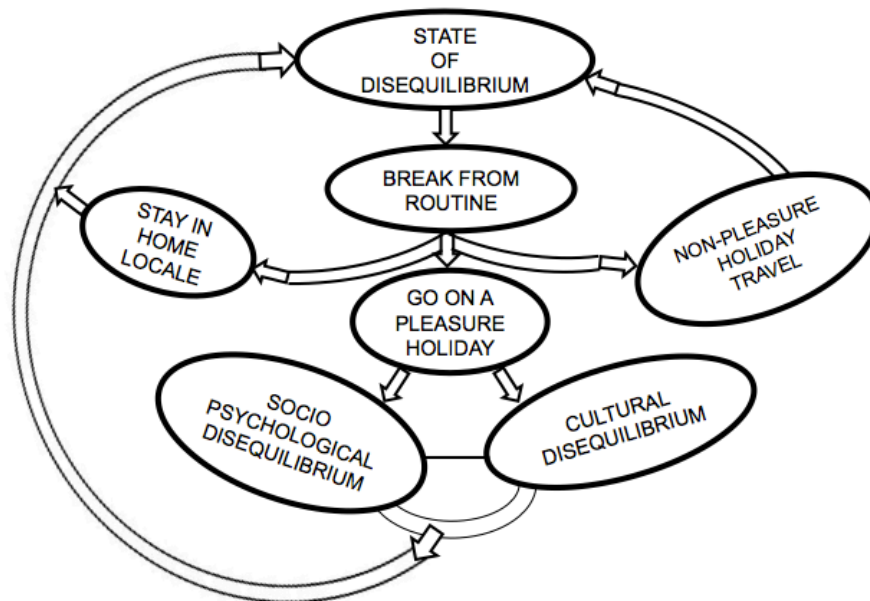


Figure 4.1: A conceptualisation of the role and relationships of motivation

Source: Adapted from Crompton (1979:414)

Figure 4.1 shows how an individual experiences a state of disequilibrium that leads to a desire to break from routine, resulting in three alternative behavioural patterns which may meet this desire to break away from routine: stay in home locale, go on a pleasure holiday, or go on a non-pleasure holiday (travel for other purposes). Should a pleasure holiday be chosen, the motives are aligned along a “cultural-socio-psychological disequilibrium continuum” which could help determine the type of holiday as well as the destination of the pleasure holiday (Crompton, 1979:413). Crompton (1979:415) found that the destination itself was relatively unimportant as travellers are pushed towards destinations owing to socio-psychological needs unassociated with any particular destination, and argued that the destination merely functions “... as a medium through which these motives could be satisfied”. Although his model made a significant contribution towards understanding tourist motivation in the second half of the 20th century, it fails to explain why people have different predispositions for travel (Jamal & Lee, 2003, cited in Hummel, 2010:20).

4.6.1.4 Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (1982)

In an attempt to define tourist motivation, Dann (1981:205) proposed that it refers to “... a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel”. However, Iso-Ahola (1982) pointed to the limitation of this definition and argued that the definition lacks physiological and psychological processes and that “... motivation is purely a psychological concept, not a sociological one” (Iso-Ahola, 1982:257). From a socio-psychological standpoint, Iso-Ahola (1982:258) argues that motivations are “... aroused when individuals think of certain activities they could, should, or might do in the future, activities that are potentially satisfaction-producing” (such as lying on the beach in a favourite destination). According to Iso-Ahola (1982:258), the satisfaction that a person expects from leisure activities is connected to two motivational forces: (1) avoidance (escape) and (2) approach (seeking), which support Dann's (1977:187) two push factors, namely ‘anomie’ (escaping from feeling of isolation) and ‘ego-enhancement’ (seeking recognition and status through travelling) and led to the development of the Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (Figure 4.2).

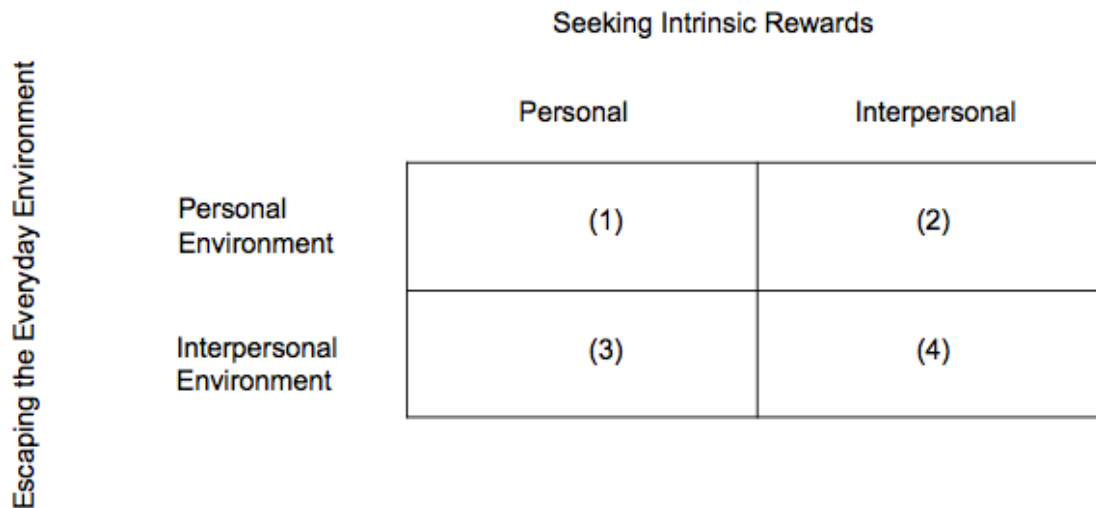


Figure 4.2: Iso-Ahola’s Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation

Source: Iso-Ahola (1982:259)

The potential satisfaction that a person expects from travel results in individuals developing reasons or goals for travelling (i.e. seeking or escaping) which further leads to the selection of appropriate travel plans and behaviours that will satisfy these goals, where Iso-Ahola (1982:259) believes that two motivational forces specifically influence tourism behaviour: (1) the desire to escape daily routine (extrinsic) and (2) the desire to obtain “psychological rewards” through exploring a new or exciting destination (intrinsic). The theory aims to explain that both forces play a role in selecting the reason and goal for travelling as the individual, in deciding the relative importance of the two forces, will consider his/her personal and/or interpersonal dimensions, i.e. the goal could be to escape the personal environment because of personal issues, and/or interpersonal environment such as family and friends, neighbours and colleagues. The same individual might simultaneously seek “personal rewards” from leisure activities, such as an opportunity to rest and relax, gaining knowledge about other cultures and traditions or social recognition and/or “interpersonal rewards”, such as interacting with locals and making new friends (Iso-Ahola, 1982:260).

Iso-Ahola (1982:260) further proposed that an individual could fit in any one of the four quadrants, at different points in time and depending on particular conditions. For instance, an individual may be motivated to travel as a means to escape his/her personal environment and to seek personal rewards (quadrant 1), while the motivational

characteristics of the other quadrants may be useful in identifying other travellers. A different traveller might travel for a variety of other reasons every time he/she travels, depending on his or her goal and travel experience. Lastly, it is also possible that an individual goes through each of the four quadrants in the course of one holiday, supporting Maslow's (1943) theory in that motivations are not static and can shift "... from one trip to another and even within a single trip" (Clift & Forrest, 1999:617). Pearce (1988) adapted Maslow's Theory to develop what is known today as the Travel Career Ladder, discussed in the next section.

4.6.1.5 Pearce's Travel Career Ladder (1988)

The theory of the "Travel Career Ladder" (TCL) was created over a period of a decade by Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), Pearce (1988, 1993), and Moscardo and Pearce (1986), and originated from Maslow's (1943) fundamental theory of basic human needs. The TCL theory proposes that tourism behaviour mirrors a hierarchy of travel motivations (González & Bello, 2002:54) and suggests that less experienced travellers are more likely to fulfil lower-level needs in Maslow's hierarchy, and vice versa (Amirtahmaseb, 2007:25; Hummel, 2010:19-20) and that these lower-level needs typically have to be met before the individual is motivated by the higher-level needs of the ladder (González & Bello, 2002:54). Similar to Maslow's and Iso-Ahola's theories, the TCL emphasises that an individual's travel motivations and travel decisions are dynamic rather than fixed. Pearce and Lee (2005:227) explain that "... people may be said to have a travel career, that is, patterns of travel motives that change according to their life span and/or accumulated travel experiences".

According to the TCL, tourist motivation involves five levels: physiological needs, safety and security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and fulfilment (self-actualisation) needs (Figure 4.3). González and Bello (2002:54) argue that "... by expanding and extending the range of specific needs at each ladder level, a comprehensive and rich catalogue of the many different psychological needs and motives can be realised".

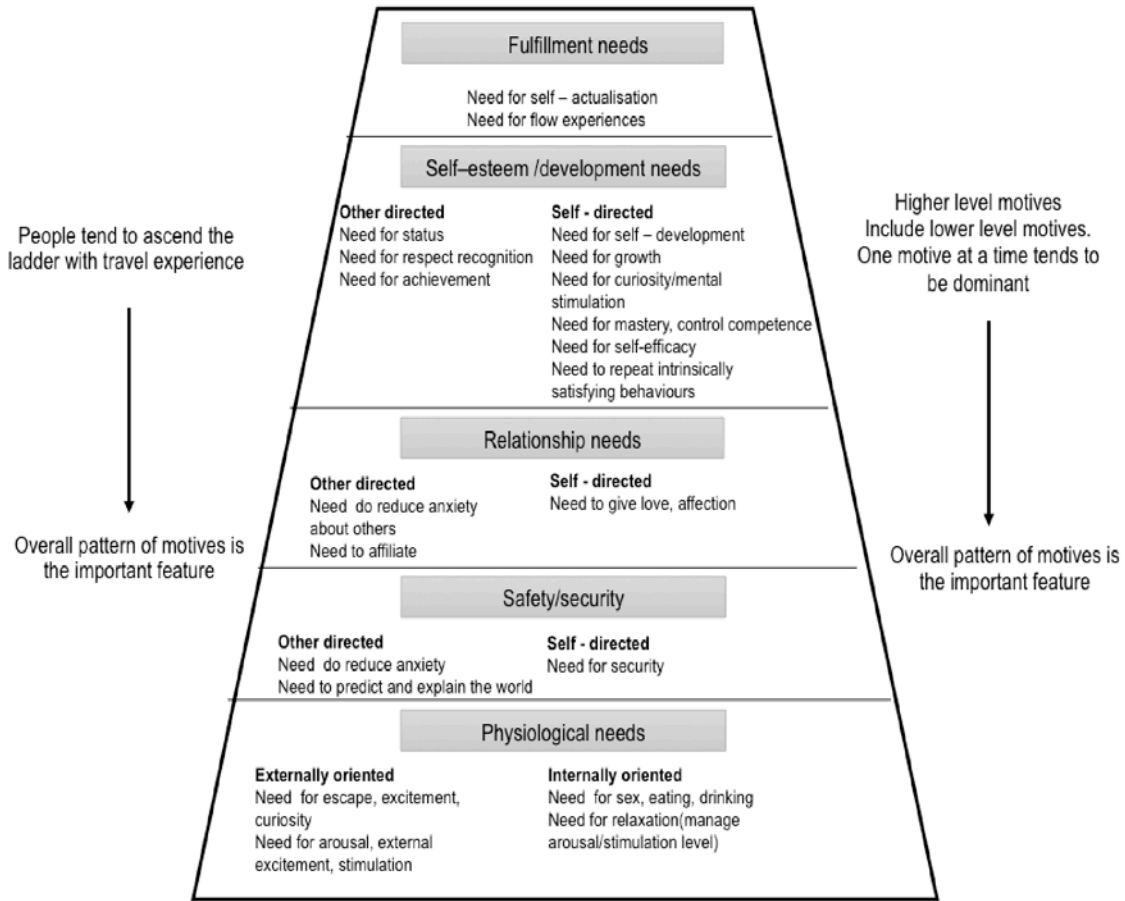


Figure 4.3: Pearce's Travel Career Ladder

Source: González and Bello (2002:54) adapted from Pearce (1991)

Whichever of the above approaches/theoretical frameworks is used, the outcome seems always to be a classification of typologies or ideal tourist types (Dann, 1981:194) for the prediction of tourist behaviour (Prayag, 2010:2), as motivations may serve as a basis for segmenting or sub-dividing travellers (Crompton, 1979:409) with the push-pull framework being the most implemented model for this purpose (Prayag, 2010:2; Cohen et al., 2014:882). It thus appears that tourists can be grouped under a variety of different typologies according to their travel motivations and personal needs.

The next section discusses the most predominant general tourist typologies as developed.

4.6.2 General tourist typologies

Gray (1970), classified pleasure travellers according to two basic motivations, the 'wanderlust' and the 'sunlust'. 'Sunlust' involves the pull of a novel environment to experience different amenities than those accustomed to and "... literally occurs with the search for the sun" (Crompton, 1979:410). Essentially, as Isaac (2008:80) states "... tourism that is resort based and motivated by the desire for rest, relaxation and the three S's – Sun, Sea, and Sand". The 'wanderlust' involves the push to escape the everyday environment in order to discover and explore new places, and to develop new friendships, as well as to visit existing cultures and the remains of those past (Crompton, 1979:410-411).

Cohen's (1972) typology of tourists identifies two travel categories: 'institutionalised' travellers, and 'non-institutionalised' travellers. The typology is based on the tourist's connection with the destination and the tourism industry, which runs along a continuum with novelty at the one end and familiarity at the other (Heitmann, 2011:34) (Figure 4.4). Cohen (1972:167) contends that the degree to which familiarity and novelty are experienced during a leisure trip varies and is not only subject to the desires and personal preferences of the tourist, but also the institutional setting of the particular leisure trip, which he suggests are the "... basic underlying variables for the analysis of modern tourism". The splitting of the continuum suggests typologies of four unique tourist roles and experiences, namely: the 'drifter', the 'explorer', the 'individual mass tourist', and the 'organised mass tourist' (Cohen, 1972:167-168).

'Institutionalised tourism' is primarily mass tourism characterised by pre-planned trips, the use of tour operators and travel agents, multi-corporate hotels and transport operators, and tends to pull travellers towards familiar environments in mid- and long-haul destinations (Heitmann, 2011:35). Two types of tourists are proposed within this category, the 'organised mass tourist' and 'individual mass tourist'. The former is described as being unadventurous and prefers all-inclusive package tours in familiar surroundings, travels in his/her country of residence on a pre-planned itinerary that provides the familiar, thus novelty is at an absolute minimum and familiarity at a maximum level (Cohen, 1972:167). The 'individual mass tourist' is more independent than the 'organised mass tourist' in that the tourist has some control over the itinerary,

albeit visiting the same sights as mass tourists and still relying on the travel industry for most travel arrangements, including scheduled flights, pre-bookings and transfers (Heitmann, 2011:35). This tourist also prefers familiar surroundings, although to a lesser extent, as novelty is somewhat greater (Cohen, 1972:167).


<p>The organised mass tourist:</p> <p>Low on adventure maintains 'environmental bubble'. Purchases of ready – made packaged tours, is guided through the destination, has little contact with the local people.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Familiarity</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">— —</p> 
<p>The individual mass tourist:</p> <p>Similar to the above but more flexible. Has scope for personal choices. The tour is still organised by the tourism industry and the 'environmental bubble' still shields the real experience of the destination.</p>	
<p>The explorer:</p> <p>An independent traveller who prefers to travel off the beaten track. Although comfortable accommodation and reliable transport are required, the environmental bubble is abandoned occasionally.</p>	<p><i>Non-institutionalised tourism:</i></p> <p>Individual travel, minimal contact with the tourism industry, except when absolutely necessary.</p>
<p>The drifter:</p> <p>All connections with the tourism industry are rejected and trip avoids familiar spaces. Has no fixed itinerary, lives with local people by immersing with the local culture.</p>	

Figure 4.4: Cohen’s (1972) typology of tourists

Source: Cooper et al. (2005:61) adapted from Cohen (1972)

‘Non-institutionalised tourism’ relates to the independent nature of travelling and trip planning (Heitmann, 2011:35). A further two types of tourists were proposed within this category, the ‘explorer’ and ‘drifter’. The former is described as an independent traveller who desires to experience the unknown, and engages with the locals. Though novelty dominates, the tourist will return to his familiar environment if the experience becomes too rough (Cohen, 1972:167), as comfort and security remain a requirement (Heitmann, 2011:35). Finally, the drifter is completely independent and “... ventures furthest away from the ‘beaten track’ and from the accustomed ways of life of his home country” (Cohen, 1972:168). This tourist is the complete opposite of the mass tourist in that there

is no fixed itinerary and the individual immerses himself in local culture by taking on a local identity through living and working with the locals (Heitmann, 2011:36). Furthermore, novelty is at a maximum with familiarity at absolute minimal levels (Cohen, 1972:168) as the tourist seeks excitement, possibly danger and even discomfort (Heitmann, 2011:36).

Plog (1974) researched motivations for over 40 years and suggested a link between the motivation for choosing a particular destination and the personality of a tourist. Plog (1974) proposed a typology of tourist types, which too runs along a continuum with the 'psychocentric' person at the one end and the 'allocentric' at the other end. The 'allocentric' traveller is adventurous, seeks a variety of new experiences (Prentice, 2004:263), and sees travelling as a prospect for discovering new and unusual destinations as well as foreign cultures (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:14), whereas the 'psychocentric' traveller is unadventurous and inhibited (Prentice, 2004:263) and "... only travels because it is a social norm and prefers familiar destinations" (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:14).

Smith (1990), in a validation study on a sample of international tourists, criticised Plog's typology as too simplistic and failing to support his hypothesis of the personality types and destination preferences. Similarly, Plog's typology is said not to make provision for dynamic tourists that choose alternative types of holidays (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:58; Blichfeldt et al., 2011:12) over their travel career, as with Pearce's TCL theory. Despite criticism, this framework is still widely used in tourism literature. Plog (2001) adapted the original model and renamed 'allocentrics' as 'venturers', while 'psychocentrics' are now known as 'dependables' (Heitmann, 2011:33). In the adapted model, Plog identified five personality types ranging from 'venturers' at the one end of the travel continuum through 'near-venturers', 'mid-centrics', and 'near-dependables', to 'dependables' at the extreme end (Lui et al., 2010:44) (Figure 4.5).

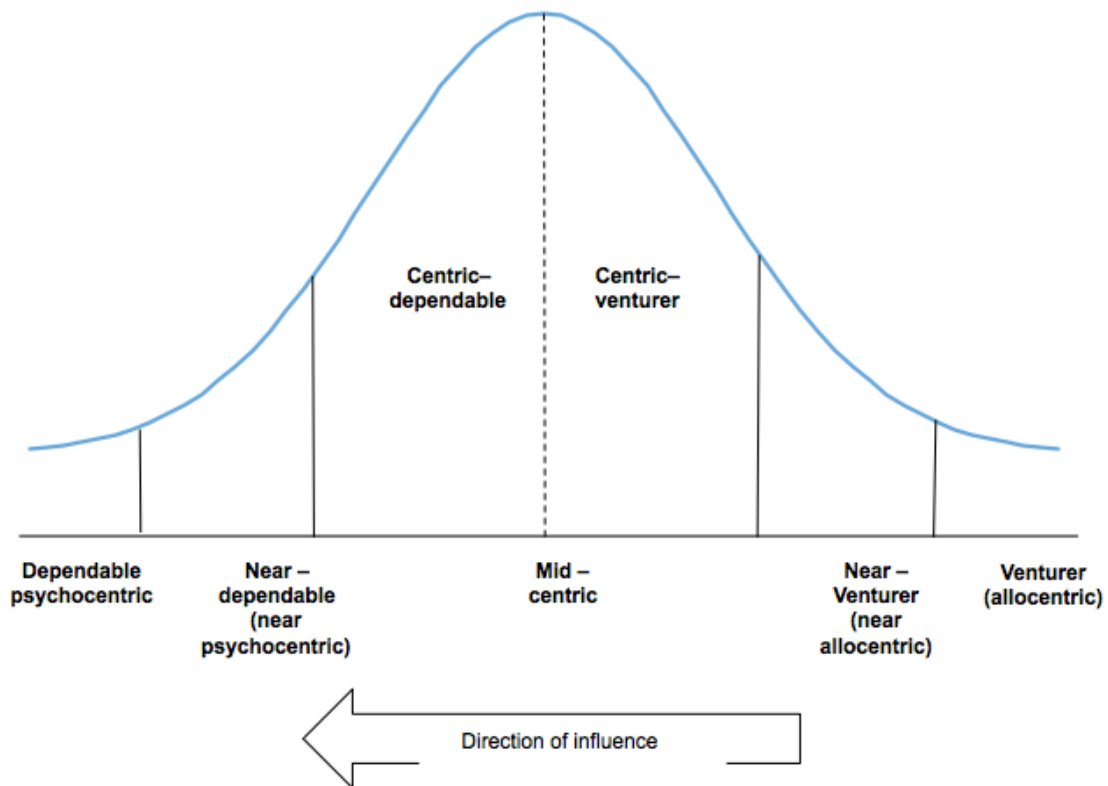


Figure 4.5: Psychographic personality types

Source: Lui et al. (2010:44) adapted from Plog (2001)

According to Heitmann (2011:33-34), 'venturers' are self-assured, risk-taking, energetic and adventurous travellers seeking novel environments, who are sharp-witted and independent decision makers. They are avid and independent travellers to unusual off the beaten track destinations or long-haul destinations who are keen on spending their disposable income and have a particular desire to experience local customs and cultures. 'Dependables', at the furthest extreme as Heitmann (2011:34) argues, are unadventurous, prefer known environments, travel less frequently and for shorter durations, seeking a 'home-from-home' holiday in popular domestic resorts and international mass tourism destinations where they feel safe, and prefer being surrounded by friends, family or other travellers. The 'dependable' is more price-sensitive and prefers an all-inclusive package holiday. Furthermore, as the framework presents primarily two main types of traveller personalities, it is suggested that it will be too limited to place most travellers in either of the categories, as most tourists can be plotted somewhere in between the two extremes, and hence more travellers would

identify as 'near-venturer', 'centric-venturer', 'centric-dependable', and 'near-dependable' (Heitmann, 2011:34).

As evident from multiple motivation theories (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982), and typologies (Gray, 1970) as discussed in the preceding paragraphs, motivation is a complex phenomenon and is often described by means of push or pull or both forces. According to Goossens (2000:303), most researchers "... do not consider both factors as a single integrated concept", while Phau et al. (2013:272) suggest that push factors "... drive the tourist to travel, leading to an external search for an appropriate destination ... pull factors then come into effect by convincing the tourist that a particular destination is appropriate for them". Therefore, several researchers have contended to market a destination effectively, it is crucial to understand both push and pull motivations and the relationship between them (Oh et al., 1995:124; Goossens, 2000:302; Eftichiadou, 2001:9). It seems that "... knowledge about the interaction of these forces can aid marketers and developers of tourism destination areas determine the most successful coupling of push and pull factors" (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994:844). The interaction of these forces may then provide a basis for segmenting travellers (Oh et al., 1995:124) and may "... allow a destination to fine-tune its product offering for the different segments identified" (Prayag, 2010:3). For example, a destination could be promoted by emphasising its different attributes (pull factors) to different market segments with different travel needs (push factors) (Eftichiadou, 2001:9).

Several empirical investigations have made use of push and pull factors (Table 4.5). Although push and pull factors are interdependent as discussed in the preceding paragraph, the investigations applied different research approaches resulting in some identifying push factors only (Dann, 1977; Fodness, 1994; Cha et al., 1995), pull factors only (Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997; Gavcar & Gursoy, 2002; Zhou, 2005; Prayag, 2010), or a combination of push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Oh et al., 1995; Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Hughes, 2002; Klenosky, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Khuong & Ha, 2014).

From Table 4.5 it can be deduced that the push-pull framework has a proven success rate and, as Goossens (2000:302), Klenosky (2002:388), Prayag (2010:2) and Khuong

and Ha (2014:490) argue, is one of the most useful frameworks for measuring tourist motivation. Goossens (2000:302) states that the push and pull factors of tourist behaviour are "... two sides of the same motivational coin" and explains that the "concept of emotion" is a psychological factor that connects these factors, i.e. tourists are pushed by their emotional needs and pulled by the emotional benefits of a leisure holiday. Therefore, Goossens (2000:302) and Khuong and Ha (2014:490) reiterate the importance of investigating both psychological (push forces) and destination attributes (pull forces) to explain the travelling behaviour of tourists. As the push-pull framework is one of the most widely implemented frameworks used for market segmentation purposes (Prayag, 2010:2; Cohen et al., 2014:882), and considering the importance of investigating both push and pull factors as argued by Goossens (2000:302) and Khuong and Ha (2014:490), this study will use the push-pull framework to segment gay travellers in order to develop a typology of these travellers.

Table 4.5 identifies some of the most common destination attributes (pull factors) and motivational (push) factors included in previous studies and emphasises the limited research that implemented the push-pull framework when studying gay tourism motivations specifically. The findings presented in this table were also used in designing the questionnaire (see Section 5.3.2.1) and selecting variables for cluster analysis (see Section 5.4.2.2).

Push factors, as introduced in Section 4.6.1.2, can be viewed as relating to tourism demand and help to understand tourists' decision-making processes (Kim & Lee, 2002:258). Push factors refer to the "... specific forces that influence a person's decision to take a vacation" and have been theorised as "... motivational factors or needs that arise due to a disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system" (Kim et al., 2003:170). Push factors include, for example, rest and relaxation, self-actualisation, adventure/nature, status/prestige, novelty, escape, social interaction, nostalgia, or romance/sex and are confirmed by the theories and typologies developed by Gray (1970); Dann (1977); Crompton (1979) and Iso-Ahola (1982). Pull factors can be viewed as relating to the supply dimension and are characterised by the attributes, features or natural attractions that pull travellers towards a specific destination and include, for example, festivals or special events, recreational activities, cultural resources (Kim & Lee, 2002:258), sunshine, beaches, sports facilities, inexpensive airfares (Klenosky,

2002:387), quality of service and favourable location (Awaritefe, 2004:313), friendliness of local people, population density, urban layout, currency exchange, pricing structures (Prayag, 2003:42-43) or any potential activity offered to the traveller (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:5-6).

Of the prior research that investigated gay tourism, only Hughes (2002) implemented the push-pull theory. Some studies on gay tourism make reference to some push and some pull factors, but none (with the exception of Hughes, 2002) included the push-pull framework as a means to determine motivations of gay travellers, and Table 4.5 emphasises the limited studies that implemented this framework for researching the gay segment specifically. Studies noted in Table 4.5 all vary in their focus, research design, and target groups and each seems to suggest different push and pull factors. Indeed, the multiple motivation theories of Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Iso-Ahola (1982) and Pearce (1988) point to the heterogeneity of tourist motivations. It is argued that tourists' motivations for travel are not homogeneous as different market segments have different motivations (Klenosky, 2002:388). Furthermore, it has been argued that "... motivations behind travel are constructed out of the social realities of the lives of those who participate in tourism-related activity" (Kinnaird & Hall, 1994:212), suggesting that the gay traveller may have different travel motivations from those of the mainstream traveller and even among gay travellers themselves, as there is "... no more reason to believe that gay women's holiday profiles are the same as those of gay men's than there is to believe males and females generally have the same motivations and behaviours" (Hughes, 2006:58).

Table 4.5: Previous empirical research investigating push and pull factors

Researcher(s)	Research approach used	Push factors identified	Pull Factors identified
Dann (1977)	Scale/survey development and analysis	Ego-enhancement, anomie	N/A
Crompton (1979)	Unstructured in-depth interviews	Self-exploration and evaluation, regression, escape, relaxation, prestige, social interaction, enhancement of kinship relationships	Education, novelty
Yuan and McDonald (1990)	Factor analysis of 29 motivational/push items and 53 destination/pull items	Enhancement of kinship relationships, novelty, escape, prestige, hobbies/relaxation	History and culture, budget, wilderness, cosmopolitan environment, hunting, ease of travel, facilities
Fodness (1994)	Scale development	Reward maximisation, ego-defence, knowledge, social adjustive, value expression, punishment avoidance	N/A
Uysal and Jurowski (1994)	Factor analysis of 26 motivational/push items and 29 destination/pull items	Escape, sports, cultural experience, re-experiencing family togetherness	Culture/heritage, entertainment, outdoors/nature, rural/inexpensive, resort
Turnbull and Uysal (1995)	Factor analysis of 30 motivation/push items and 53 destination/pull items	Prestige, escape, re-experiencing family, cultural experiences, sports	Comfort/relaxation, city enclave, culture/heritage, outdoor resources, rural/inexpensive, beach resort
Oh, Uysal and Weaver (1995)	Canonical correlation analysis of 30 motivational/push items and 52 destination/pull items	Novelty, prestige/entertainment, adventure, knowledge/intellectual, sports, kinship/social interaction, rest/escape	Outdoor/nature, upscale/safety, historical/cultural, budget/inexpensive, sports/activity
Cha et al. (1995)	Factor analysis of 30 motivation/push items	Travel bragging, relaxation, family, adventure, knowledge, sports	N/A

Researcher(s)	Research approach used	Push factors identified	Pull Factors identified
Baloglu and Uysal (1996)	Canonical correlation analysis of 30 motivation/push items and 53 destination/pull items	Four canonical variate pairs of push and pull items were identified but were not labelled. These variates were used to identify four market segments labelled: urban-life seekers, sports/activity seekers, beach/resort seekers, and novelty seekers	N/A
Sirakaya and McLellan (1997)	Factor analysis of 56 destination/pull items	N/A	Change in daily life environment, local hospitality and services, perceptions of a secure/safe environment, unusual and distant vacation spot, trip cost and convenience, personal and historical link, cultural and shopping services, recreation and sporting activities, entertainment and drinking opportunities
Gavcar and Gursoy (2002)	Multiple regression analysis of 16 destination/pull items	N/A	Quality of food, the perception of the cost of accommodations, cost of others such as souvenirs, historical and cultural attractions, type of accommodations offered, environmental concerns at the lodging facilities
Hughes (2002)	Semi-structured in-depth interviews	Desire to be anonymous, desire to relate to others, desire to be self, social censure, disapproval, abuse, discrimination, criminalisation	Gay space, gay friendliness, toleration

Researcher(s)	Research approach used	Push factors identified	Pull Factors identified
Klenosky (2002)	Means-end theory, laddering interviews	New/novel experience, relax/rest, enjoy nature, socialise/meet people, get refreshed/renewed, outdoor recreation, get sun/tan, escape, look good/healthy, know more, date more, fun and enjoyment, be more productive, self-esteem, accomplishment, excitement, learn more, challenge/thrill	Warm climate, beaches, new/unique location, party atmosphere, scenic/natural resources, cultural/historical attractions, skiing
Kim et al. (2003)	Factor analysis of 12 motivation/push items and 12 destination/pull items	Family togetherness and study, appreciating health and natural resources, escaping from everyday routine, adventure and building friendship	Accessibility and transportation, information and convenience of facilities, key tourist resources
Zhou (2005)	Multiple regression analysis of 10 pull items	N/A	Price, landscape, service, safety, entertainment, culture
Kassean and Gassita (2013)	Factor analysis of 74 motivation/push items and destination/pull items	Social interaction, prestige/recognition, rest and relaxation, self-actualisation, novelty, escape, nostalgia	Unique flora and fauna, authentic Mauritian culture, exotic ambience and atmosphere, special climate and weather, exquisite landscape and scenery, exotic beaches, Mauritian hospitality
Khuong and Ha (2014)	Factor analysis of 17 motivation/push items and destination/pull items	To fulfil my dream of visiting a foreign land/country, to learn something new and interesting, to socialise with local community and meet new people, to visit a place that I have not visited before, to escape from daily routine	Warm and sunny weather, good physical amenities (recreational facilities, transportation, accommodation), cultural, historical, religious and art attractions, special events/festivals and activities, variety of food, safe and easy access destination, beautiful landscape and natural scenery (forests, mountains, beaches)

Sources: Gavcar and Gursoy (2002), Hughes (2002), Klenosky (2002), Kim et al. (2003), Zhou (2005), Kassean and Gassita (2013), and Khuong and Ha (2014)

The next section discusses particular factors influencing gay tourism and gay traveller typologies as adapted from general tourist motivation theories. Much of the published research on gay tourism rarely distinguishes between the travel experiences of gay men and those of gay women and only very few studies have been specific to gay women (Hughes, 2006:58; Teoh, 2009:18; Apostolopoulou, 2013; Fimiani, 2014:7). It is therefore worth noting that because of this lack of research on gay female travellers, much of the literature discussed next deals with the gay male traveller; however where a distinction could be made, it was indicated as such. Hughes warns to not assume that the conclusions of studies on gay male travellers apply equally to gay female travellers, albeit regarded as a market segment, but argues that these studies have the potential to contribute to an understanding of gay female travel (Hughes, 2006:58).

4.6.3 Factors influencing gay travellers' holiday motivations

The Clift and Forrest study (1999), discussed in Section 4.4.1.1, is one of the first empirical investigations on gay tourism destinations. In addition to investigating gay men's holiday patterns, the study also identified the holiday motivations of gay men and proposed three dimensions of gay travel: "gay social life and sex", "culture and sights", and "comfort and relaxation" (Clift & Forrest, 1999:620). The majority of gay men sampled were motivated to travel by factors comparable to those of mainstream tourists: guaranteed sunshine, good food, comfort and relaxation (Clift & Forrest, 1999:622). According to the study, a third of the gay men regarded the social dimensions of a holiday, and more specifically the gay environment of the destination, to be important. The findings further show that 29.3% of the sample went on holiday to engage in sexual activity and a further 35.3% regarded this aspect as 'fairly important'. However, other more mainstream motivational factors for holidaying such as "comfort and good food" (70.9%), "opportunities for rest and relaxation" (70.2%), "guaranteed sunshine" (51.4%), and "good nightlife" (47.9%) were significantly more important than "opportunities for having sex" while holidaying (Clift & Forrest, 1999:620). Other conventional 'touristic' motivations, such as visiting well-known tourist sites, experiencing local customs and cultures, and visiting art galleries yielded a wider range of responses as 40% were interested in local customs and cultures, and fewer than 20% were drawn to art galleries (Clift & Forrest, 1999:622). Furthermore, an insignificant proportion appeared to be 'venturers' or 'allocentrics' (according to Plog's typology of tourist types), as only a few

gay men, according to Clift and Forrest (1999:622), sought an adventurous holiday in unusual, off the beaten track destinations with nature and wildlife offerings, or opportunities to participate in sport and exercise.

The authors argue that the need for social interaction with other gay individuals and the need to have sex with new partners will be more evident among gay men on a 'gay-centric' holiday and therefore will score higher on the "gay social life and sex" scale. Equally, they argue that men visiting destinations that do not have a gay reputation will tend to be motivated by the "culture and sights" dimension (Clift & Forrest, 1999:615), for instance, specific destination attributes, such as experiencing the local culture and visiting local attractions (Clift & Forrest, 1999:622). The authors tentatively conclude that the most important travel motivations for gay travellers are largely similar to those of mainstream travellers, although the motivations may vary substantially from one holiday to the next for the same man (Clift & Forrest, 1999:622).

Pritchard et al. (2000) conducted a qualitative, exploratory investigation of the holiday motivations of gay travellers, and focused on the interrelationships between tourism spaces, tourism behaviour and sexuality. The study confirmed Clift and Forrest's (1999) idea that gay travellers travel for similar reasons as mainstream travellers, but found that sexual identity plays a significant role for many gay travellers in their travel decisions. The need for a safe environment, to escape from heterosexism and to interact comfortably with like-minded people were found to be key factors influencing their destination choice (Pritchard et al., 2000:267) and directly connected to the respondents' sexuality, especially regarding the need for safety and escape. In these authors' opinion, the most important motivating factor for leisure travel was the need to escape a heterosexual world, often to specifically 'gay spaces', particularly for those who hid their sexuality at home (Pritchard et al., 2000:274-275), essentially answering Clift and Forrest's (1999:622) concluding question: "What do gay tourists wish to get away from in the home environment?" Holidays "... offer the opportunity of liberation over and above the traditional escapism experienced by heterosexuals" (Pritchard et al., 2000:278) and "... an opportunity to enter a world where they can feel comfortable with their sexuality" (Pritchard et al., 2000:279).

Expanding on the studies of Clift and Forrest (1999) and Pritchard et al. (2000), Hughes's (2002) study as discussed in Section 4.4.1.2 examined the factors that influence gay men to choose and reject holiday destinations, with specific focus on risk, by interviewing 40 gay men. Hughes (2002:304) found that his study was consistent with the two previously discussed studies in that "... the 'types' of holidays that gay men go on are identical to those of the rest of society". They are attracted (pulled) by holidays that offer heritage, culture, scenery, sun and sea, entertainment and sport. It was also found that push factors such as ego-enhancement, regeneration, prestige, escape, evaluation of self, social interaction, self-realisation and freedom apply equally to gay men (Hughes, 2002:310).

There are, however, specific push and pull factors related to gay travellers. Based on the original push-pull motivation framework by Dann (1977), Hughes (2002:299) applied it to gay travellers, stating that "... gay space is targeted at, and used primarily by, gay people and is predominantly associated with leisure activities ... [and] ... acts as the pull factor that meets the needs caused by push factors of censure, disapproval, abuse, discrimination and criminalisation, with a consequent desire to relate to others, be oneself" (as depicted in Figure 4.6).

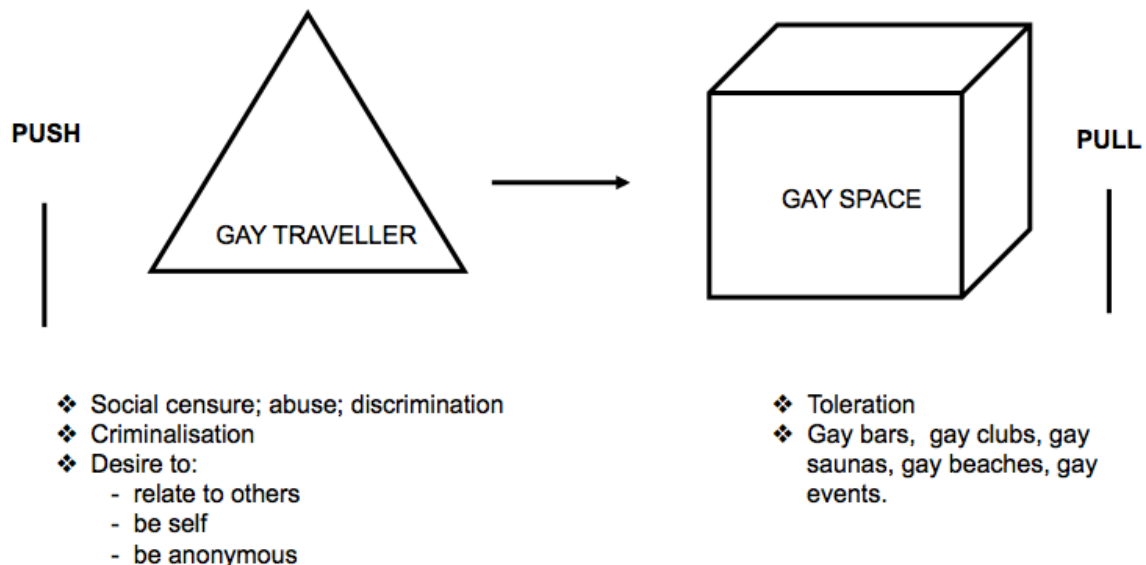


Figure 4.6: Push and pull factors related to gay tourism

Source: Adapted from Hughes (2002:300)

Hughes (2002:300) supports the Pritchard et al. (2000) argument that the continuous social disapproval in a heterosexist world leads to the holiday being particularly significant for gay men. He argues that "... the factors that push a gay man to seek out 'gay space' or a 'gay-friendly' space, will be important in choosing a holiday destination" and "... he will wish to ensure that negative push factors (i.e. social censure, abuse, discrimination, criminalisation) are not present, and that positive pull factors (i.e. toleration and 'gay space') are present" (Hughes, 2002:300). In conclusion, Hughes (2002) proposed a typology of gay men's holidays: 'gay-centric', 'gay-related' and 'non-gay' as depicted in Figure 4.7. A 'non-gay' holiday is no different from that taken by mainstream tourists (Hughes, 2006:58). A 'gay-related' holiday fulfils the desire for a safe and comfortable destination (where 'gay space' or 'gay friendliness' and tolerance are somewhat important but do not outweigh other requirements) (Hughes, 2002:301). 'Gay space' and experience, on the other hand, are the key attributes looked for in a 'gay-centric' holiday (Hughes, 2006:58), implying usually, although not always, sun-and-sea holidays in which gay bars, gay clubs, gay saunas, gay beaches, casual sex contact and socialising with other gay men feature predominantly in the tourists' holiday activities (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:456).

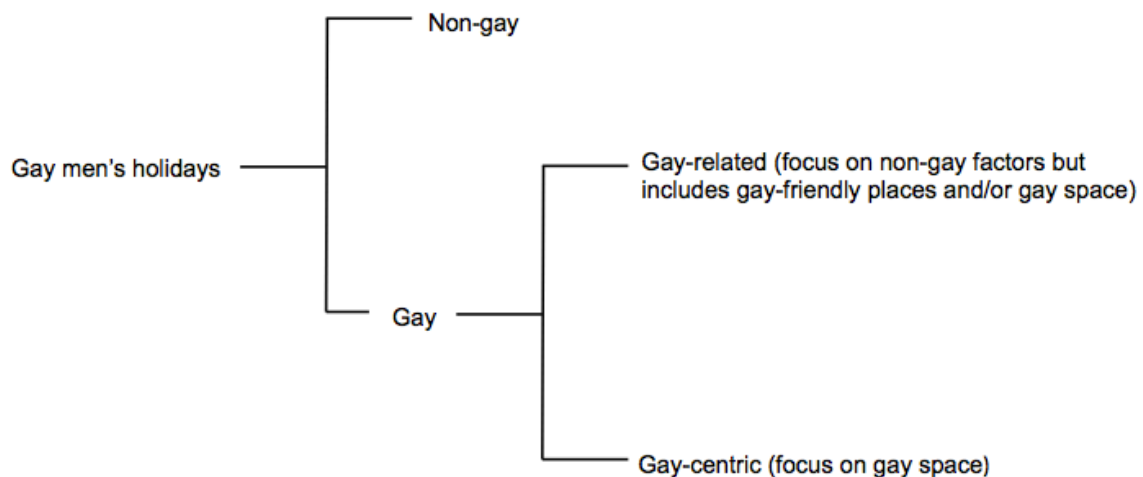


Figure 4.7: Typology of gay men's holidays

Source: Hughes (2002:301)

In the same year as Hughes's (2002) study, one of the most influential professional services firms in the world, Klynveld, Peat, Marwick and Goerdeler (KPMG), proposed

two specific segments or gay traveller typologies (City of Cape Town, 2002:49), outlined below.

- 'Pink Raver' – a young, easygoing traveller who is mostly single or in a young relationship, who enjoys travelling to popular and well-known 'gay-friendly' destinations. Strong pull factors for this traveller include well-established gay leisure facilities, a bustling nightlife, cultural attractions, gay festivals/events, hot sunny climate, gay nudist beaches, and value-for-money offerings.
- 'Mature Explorer' – an older, financially stable professional. This traveller is in an established relationship and less price-sensitive than the 'pink raver'. A large gay scene and bustling nightlife do not influence the choice of travel destination as this traveller is attracted to undiscovered and less well-known 'gay-friendly' destinations. Strong pull factors for this traveller include wildlife and natural scenery, good quality food and dining options, high standard mainstream facilities, a unique experience, outdoor activities, and cultural and historical attractions. An established local gay community and gay leisure facilities serve as an added bonus and are therefore considered to be less important.

This observation could be linked to Plog's (1970 and 2001) typologies of tourist types, Clift and Forrest's (1999) study and Hughes's (2002) typology of gay men's holidays. First, gay men that travel to well-known 'gay-friendly' destinations appear to be 'psychocentric' or 'dependables' in the way that they seek a relaxing environment in these well-known destinations and thus 'pink ravers'. The gay men that holiday in undiscovered and less well-known 'gay-friendly' destinations appear to be interested in adventure offerings and experiencing foreign cultures, and are classified, according to Plog's typology, as 'allocentric' (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:14) or 'venturers' and, therefore, are 'mature explorers.' Second, 'pink ravers' seem to fit Clift and Forrest's (1999) 'gay social life and sex' dimension and 'mature explorers' lean towards the 'culture and sights' dimension. Third, 'pink ravers' and 'mature explorers' can relate to Hughes's (2000) typology of gay men's holidays in that 'pink ravers' seem to be interested in a 'gay-centric' holiday in which the 'gay space', nightlife, gay events and gay beaches are considered crucial to a satisfactory holiday experience; in contrast, 'mature explorers' seem to be interested in a 'gay-related' holiday in that they are

attracted to a 'gay-friendly' and tolerant destination with an established local gay community and 'gay space', albeit of less importance and not crucial factors for selecting a holiday destination.

Blichfeldt et al. (2011:7-8) argue that the gay identity and lifestyle are fluid and as a result, gay individuals may, at different points in their travel career, choose different types of holidays. They suggest that the claim of merely two types of gay travellers is too simplistic. If a gay individual travels to a 'gay-friendly' destination on one holiday, and goes to a non-gay destination on his next holiday, it simply means that some holidays are more gay-related than others. They claim that current tourist typologies cannot sufficiently explain the behavioural patterns of these tourists.

In contrast, Khan (2013) proposes a Gay-Identity Travel Motivation Model based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This model can also be related to Pearce's (1988) TCL, and charts the maturation of sexual identity of gay travellers. Similar to the Blichfeldt et al. (2011) notion that gay travellers, at different points in their travel careers, choose different types of holidays, Khan (2013) suggests a four-stage gay-identity formation model which he argues could influence travel motivations for the gay traveller (Khan, 2013:38). Similar to Pearce's (1988) TCL, this model proposes that gay travel reflects a hierarchy of travel motivations and includes patterns of travel motivations that change according to the gay traveller's sexual identity maturation over time. According to the Gay-Identity Travel Motivation Model, gay traveller's motivations consist of the following four stages: "need for safety", "escapism through anonymity", "gay-identity acceptance", and "gay-identity affirmation" (Figure 4.8).

The model suggests that the most important motivational factor regarding travel decisions is the 'need for safety' (safe environment) in which the gay traveller chooses a 'gay-friendly' or exclusively gay destination with a reputation for tolerance and may or may not identify as gay yet (Khan, 2013:39). The next level motivator is 'escapism through anonymity', an intrinsic need to discover gay identity through travel in which the gay traveller is more experienced, and in search of gay space and sexual encounters, a "... purely hedonistic stage" that is "... pleasurable, uninhibited and exciting" (Khan, 2013:39-40).

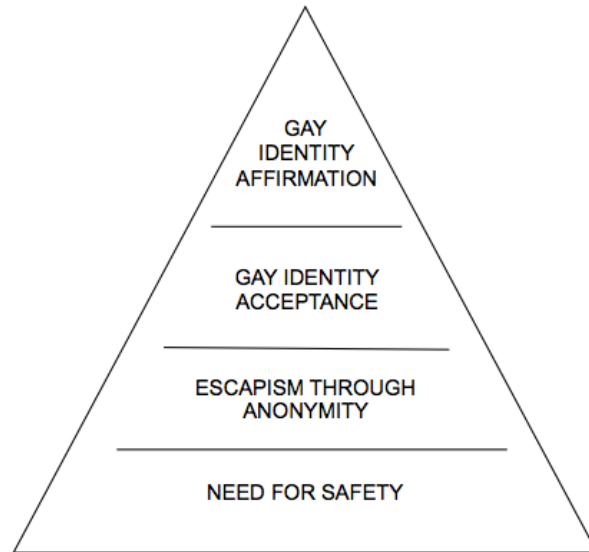


Figure 4.8: Gay-Identity Travel Motivation Model

Source: Khan (2013:38)

This motivator seems to be related to the ‘pink ravers’ typology of travellers and Clift and Forrest’s (1999) ‘gay social life and sex’ dimension as well as Hughes’s (2002) notion of a ‘gay-centric’ holiday. During the ‘gay-identity acceptance’ stage, gay travellers have accepted their sexual identity and are embracing it. The gay traveller is now an experienced traveller and is most probably older and more mature, and will likely choose a destination for historical and cultural exploration; he will only be attracted to the ‘gayness’ of a destination to some degree, as it will not be the sole purpose of the holiday (Khan, 2013:40-41). This motivator seems to be related to the ‘mature explorer’ typology of gay travellers, Clift and Forrest’s (1999) ‘culture and sights’ dimension, and Hughes’s (2002) depiction of a ‘gay-related’ holiday. Lastly, the ‘gay-identity affirmation’ stage is reached when the gay traveller is most mature emotionally in which “... professional success and self-identity will take precedence over ... sexual identity”. The gay traveller will desire to travel for a learning experience and the choice of destination will be less dependent on a ‘home-away-from-home’ environment (Khan, 2013:41). This model seems to correlate with Ballegaard and Chor’s (2009:62) argument that the gay identity will be more significant at different stages of one’s life, or in this case, the travel career (refer to 4.6.4.2 for more information on ‘gay identity’).

According to the literature examined in the preceding paragraphs, it is understood that gay male travellers go primarily on two 'types' of holidays, a 'gay-related' holiday or a 'gay-centric' holiday, and that there appear to be some particular push and pull factors related to these tourists. As this study uses the push-pull framework to segment and profile gay travellers, the following section of the chapter discusses the specific push and pull factors related to gay tourism as found in the literature, some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for the gay segment, as well as the factors that might lead these visitors not to choose Cape Town as a holiday destination.

4.6.4 Push motivations of the gay traveller

This section presents the main themes of gay tourism motivation, i.e. particular push motivations related to gay tourism as found in the literature. The specific motivations for travel among gay individuals appear to include escaping heteronormativity, constructing and validating gay identity through travel, and pursuing sex/romance, which is discussed next.

4.6.4.1 Escaping heteronormativity

Various sources in the literature (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996; Pritchard et al., 1998; Philipp, 1999; Hughes, 1997, 2005, 2006, 2007; Pritchard, et al., 2000; Apostolopoulou, 2013) emphasise that some gay individuals go on holiday to escape a heteronormative world as a result of anti-gay discrimination and social disapproval, commonly experienced in the home environment (Herrera, 2003:22). Ballegaard and Chor (2009:48) argue that some gay individuals feel a need or push to escape their usual environment to express their gay identities freely while on holiday. This need is, however, not linked to Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (cf. Figure 4.2) in which escaping is proposed as a motivator to escape the everyday environment.

In the context of gay tourism, as Lucena et al. (2015:275) argue, it refers to a specific need to escape the burdens of being gay in a largely heterosexual world. Pritchard et al. (2000:274) found this to be the most important push factor for gay travellers to take a holiday. Hughes (2006:56), however, argues that this need to escape heteronormativity

depends on the extent to which the individual lives an openly gay lifestyle, as those not open to others about their sexuality have a greater need to escape the tension and burdens brought about by the heteronormative world, than those who are open about their sexuality. Ballegaard and Chor (2009:48) support this notion in more recent literature: gay travellers "... feel that they can be open about their sexuality in their everyday environment and, therefore, they do not necessarily seek freedom from social condemnation while on vacation". Thus, many gay travellers, especially those that live an openly gay lifestyle, do not necessarily go on holiday to escape heteronormativity.

Similarly, Köllen and Lazar (2012:66) found that anonymity and escapism did not appear to be important factors in their study of the travel motivations of gay men visiting Budapest. However, with Köllen and Lazar's (2012) and Ballegaard and Chor's (2009) studies, the sample demographics should be taken into consideration when making conclusions as much of the research on gay tourism is based on Westernised perspectives, and as argued throughout this thesis, the Western world is considered increasingly 'gay friendly' (Kauhanen, 2015:13) and as a result, some gay travellers may not be motivated to escape as a heteronormative environment may not exist. Furthermore, Clift and Forrest (1999:623) argue that this need for escape may also arise for gay individuals who live in village or rural areas or closed-minded small cities and towns, which have a limited or no obvious gay community or 'gay space'. Herrera and Scott (2005:249) concur that leisure travel to larger cities with a variety of 'gay spaces' is a common occurrence in an attempt to escape the oppressive heteronormative home environments.

4.6.4.2 Constructing and validating 'gay identity' through travel

Frale (1997:139) states that "... identities are fluid, multidimensional, personalised social constructions". More specifically, sexual identity is described as a "... fluid set of meanings hinging on notions of sexuality and gender" (Howe, 2001:50). It has been widely reported in the literature that holidays to 'gay-friendly' destinations are likely to significantly contribute to constructing and validating a 'gay identity' for some individuals (Hughes, 1997:5, 2002:311; Clift & Forrest, 1999:616; Herrera & Scott, 2005:251; Waitt & Markwell, 2006:6; Monterrubio, 2008:74; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:459; Khan, 2013:37; Fimiani, 2014:6; Lucena et al., 2015:275) with some scholars referring to this

type of tourism as 'identity tourism' (Hughes, 1997:5; Howe, 2001:35; Herrera & Scott, 2005:260).

Owing to the social disapproval, discrimination and possible intolerance experienced in their usual environments, the construction and validation of a 'gay identity' often depends on being a tourist (Hughes, 1997:5; Monterrubio, 2008:74) as the holiday away from this environment "... can provide a further opportunity to be gay and provide the only, or an extra, opportunity to validate identity by living and playing, over a continuous period of time, in gay space or at least a place that is gay-friendly" (Hughes, 2002:299). Herrera and Scott (2005:260) support this view and argue that these 'gay-friendly' environments allow gay individuals to experiment with gay identities that are constrained in the heteronormative home environment which push them to travel. They further argue that the holiday will provide gay travellers with a "... more positive conception of self" as they gain new insights about themselves (Herrera & Scott, 2005:260), pointing to the self-actualisation need of travel motivation (Hughes, 1997:6; Carolan, 2007:3). Identity also has relevance to the 'need for belonging' as referred to in the literature on travel motivation, and identity can be explained as the feeling of belonging to a certain community (Hughes, 2006:17). Cox (2002:164) observes that

"... the desire and ability of gay people to be able to reinvent themselves on holiday raises questions about the formation of a person's identity, suggesting that identity can be formed and then reformed, thereby supporting notions that sexual identity is fluid and ever-changing".

In contrast to scholars arguing that the holiday significantly contributes to the construction and validation of a 'gay identity' for some gay individuals, Carolan (2007:36) found little evidence in his study on Irish gay men's travel motivations to support the notion that gay men travel as a means of constructing or strengthening a 'gay identity'. It is worthwhile to note that the study sample, similar to that of Ballegaard and Chor's (2009) study discussed in section 4.6.4.1, is based on Westernised perspectives and could explain why these gay men did not feel a need to travel to construct and validate a 'gay identity'. Similarly to Carolan (2007), Köllen and Lazar (2012:66) did not find this motive to be of significance for the majority of the interviewees in their study; however, it was found to be especially relevant to those that did not live an openly gay lifestyle and those from smaller cities without a significant gay community/space, thereby supporting Clift and Forrest's (1999:623) and Herrera and Scott's (2005:249) findings in that gay

individuals who live in village or rural areas or closed-minded small cities and towns, which have a limited or no obvious gay community or 'gay space', might be more prone to social censure and thus have a need to travel to 'gay-friendly' environments in which they can express their 'true' identities. It has also been suggested that the significance of 'gay-identity' formation might vary from one person to the next (Blichfeldt et al., 2013:474), consequently, many gay individuals will not travel for the purpose of validating their sexual identities (Carolan, 2007:17). Savin-Williams (2005) argues that "... young people with same-sex attractions are now freer than ever to be themselves, comfortable with their sexuality, because they live in a youth culture that is increasingly nonchalant about diverse sexualities", hence it can be assumed that the need for constructing and validating a 'gay identity' during a holiday may have little significance for this generation in future.

4.6.4.3 Pursuing sex/romance

It has been argued that travelling permits the traveller to indulge in sexually permissive behaviour that is often socially constrained in the home environment (Dann, 1977:188; Hughes, 2002:307; Monterrubio & Bello, 2011:17). Sex is a predominant feature in many gay tourism studies (Hughes, 1997, 2002; Clift & Wilkins, 1995; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Luongo, 2000; Clift et al., 2002; Want, 2002; Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Mendoza, 2013; Fimiani, 2014), so too is the phenomenon evident in mainstream tourism studies (Elliott et al., 1998; Oppermann, 1999; Herold et al., 2001; Bauer, 2007; Hesse & Tutenges, 2011; Johnson, 2012). Therefore, casual sex should not be considered as exclusive to gay travel as it is evident in heterosexual travel behaviour too (Ryan & Hall, 2001:103). The difference, however, is that some gay men, more so than gay women, especially those men who conceal their sexuality and those living in small cities or heteronormative communities (which enhance the limited opportunities for social interaction with other gay men), tend to travel in pursuit of anonymous sex and/or romance (Clift & Forrest, 1999:616; Carolan, 2007:36; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:456). They may also be subject to some laws in places that strictly outlaw same-sex sexual activity (Hughes, 2002:304), resulting in the push to escape those environments, even if only temporarily.

Clift and Forrest (1999) found that 29.3% of their study sample of gay men went on holiday to engage in sexual activity and a further 35.3% regarded this aspect as 'fairly important'. Thus it can be argued that nearly two-thirds of the sample placed some emphasis on the importance of sexual activity in their holiday motivations. However, other more mainstream motivational factors for holidaying were significantly more important than "opportunities for having sex" (Clift & Forrest, 1999:620), as discussed in Section 4.4.1.1. Clift et al. (2002:246) state that "... it is reasonable to expect that men who visit 'gay' destinations for a holiday are likely to be seeking social and sexual contact with other gay men".

Waitt and Markwell (2006:249) argue that

"... undoubtedly, transitory sexual relationships are an important travel motivation for many gay men. Gay sex as travel motivation is particularly important for the sexually adventurous and for single gay men who choose to visit destinations with a gay reputation".

It is presumed that the holiday offers a liminal environment for many of these young and unattached travellers, which might lead to reduced inhibitions and increase the opportunity for sexual activity (Clift & Forrest, 1999:616; Thomsen, 2008:61), hence sex can also be a pull factor. Sexual activity therefore appears to be more likely during a 'gay-centric' holiday where hedonic activities are available in abundance (Clift & Forrest, 1999:622; Hughes, 2006:69; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:88). Ballegaard and Chor (2009:92) add that sexual behaviour on holidays is influenced by the type of holiday, travel companions, and relationship status, and the significance of sexual activity can vary from one holiday to the next as some interviewees in their study argued that their sexual encounters were purely coincidental. This strongly supports Oppermann's (1999:256) argument that "... many tourists experience sexual encounters simply because the opportunity arises or because they meet like-minded individuals".

Monterrubio et al. (2007:60) support the above argument from a study aimed at identifying the sexual behaviour of gay male travellers on an isolated beach located in Mexico in which they found that many of the unattached gay men sought casual sexual encounters with other men. Retnam (2012:43) in her study on the travel behaviour of Malaysian gay men found that 50% of the respondents engaged in sexual activities while on holiday. Because homosexuality is illegal in Malaysia, many Malaysian gay men seek

freedom while on an international holiday (Retnam, 2012:44), which could explain the high percentage of respondents regarding sexual activities as an important motivator. These studies seem to suggest to some degree that gay tourism is sex tourism; however, care must be taken to not equate gay tourism to sex tourism (Smith et al., 2010:154). Sex tourism can be explained as "... travel which occurs with the prime purpose of having sexual encounters whilst away, and this usually on a commercial basis" (Hughes, 2006:65), while sex and tourism refer to a sexual encounter while on holiday (Hughes, 2006:4). It can therefore be argued that gay tourism is not synonymous with sex tourism, unless the main motivation for the holiday is that of pursuing sexual encounters; however, it could rather be termed 'gay sex tourism', as Horner and Swarbrooke (2004:306) suggest.

More recent studies as discussed below, with the exception of Retnam (2012), contradict some earlier empirical research and provide evidence that suggests that casual sexual encounters while on holiday are not necessarily regarded as an important motivational factor for gay male travellers. Ballegaard and Chor (2009:108-109) found that only some gay men enjoy pursuing sexual encounters while on holiday, whereas the majority of their sample did not regard sex as an important motivation for travel. In their investigation of the holiday motivations of specifically older gay men, Hughes and Deutsch (2010:459) found that sexual activity did not appear to be an important motivation for travelling. Köllen and Lazar (2012:66) also found that sexual encounters were not important for the majority of their study sample. However, both Hughes and Deutsch (2010:459) and Köllen and Lazar (2012:66) argue in similar vein to Monterrubio et al. (2007:60) that the phenomenon is more important to especially gay men travelling alone or with a friend and not popular among those in relationships.

Pritchard et al. (2000:275) contend that casual sex encounters while on holiday do not seem to be a motivational factor for gay women as "... they lacked the strong associations with sex and the body" which characterised gay male holidays. Hughes (2006:61) adds that sex does not play a role in gay women's identity to the same extent as it does in gay men's identity. More recently, however, a gay female writer and brand strategist from New York wrote an article which was published by *The Guardian*, about her experience at the Dinah Shore Festival In Palm Springs, California. Described as the largest women-only festival in the world, the festival attracts over 20 000 attendees over

a five-day period and is known as a party "... where gay women celebrate each other with pool parties, dancing and debauchery" and "... random girls pulling you into their hotel rooms are also pretty standard" (Mahdawi, 2016). Furthermore, the writer of the article refers to the 'Dinah' as a scantily clad celebration because nobody's wearing much, which contradicts the arguments of Pritchard et al. (2000:275) and Hughes (2006:61), as some lesbian holidays seem to be associated with sex and the body. She feels that gay women are misrepresented in that "... people think we just sit at home in sensible shoes reading feminist theory to our cats", while many in fact prefer being able to strip off at the Dinah, an empowering experience for many of those in attendance and a chance to "... embrace and celebrate their sexuality in a safe space" (Mahdawi, 2016).

4.6.5 Popular pull motivations (destination attributes) attracting gay travellers

Although it can be assumed that gay travellers will be attracted to a particular destination for similar reasons as mainstream tourists, Hughes (2006:56) and Monterrubio (2008:81) suggest that there may be specific attributes that attract (pull) the gay traveller to certain places. The purpose of this section is therefore to draw together the most popular pull factors (attributes) among gay travellers as found in the literature, inter alia, 'gay friendliness', gay marriage or civil partnerships, gay events/festivals, and 'gay space'/infrastructure.

4.6.5.1 'Gay friendliness' as a popular pull attribute

It has been argued that the escape from a heteronormative environment, as discussed in Section 4.6.4.1, can be a significant push motive for some gay individuals. This escape however can only be realised in a 'gay-friendly' or gay-exclusive social setting during a holiday, more so than a heteronormative social setting, as a heteronormative social setting on holiday could subject gay travellers to the same prejudices and discrimination which exist in their home environment (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:712; Hughes, 1997:6, 2005:57), and thus not offer an escape (Pritchard et al., 2000:278). The attribute of 'gay friendliness' therefore appears to be an important aspect during the decision-making process of some gay travellers when selecting a destination for holidaying (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:712; Hughes, 1997:5; 2002:305; 2004:60; 2006:87-88; Pritchard et al., 1998:277; Pritchard et al., 2000:278; Ivy, 2001:343-344; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:454;

Community Marketing Inc., 2011:6; Khan, 2013:70) as their safety and approval, and acceptance of their sexuality is more likely in a 'gay-friendly' destination (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:108). Although travelling may present obvious risks for all tourists, gay travellers are particularly vulnerable in unfamiliar places because of the threat of harassment, disapproval, verbal or physical abuse, discrimination and even criminalisation brought on by those who oppose homosexuality (Hughes, 2005:57), and particularly evident in the countries in which homosexuality is illegal, as presented in Table 4.2. For many gay individuals, the choice of where one will visit is limited to 'gay-friendly' places where gays are tolerated (Herrera, 2003:24-25).

However, some authors also argue that as people are becoming more tolerant towards homosexuality, the need for 'gay friendliness' appears to be diminishing, as gay people are increasingly welcomed by a variety of destinations around the world (Guaracino, 2007:157; Fimiani, 2014:33). Furthermore, the literature may soon find itself obsolete as fewer gay individuals, as the studies below show, base their travel decisions solely on gay-related issues (Herrera, 2003:15).

Blichfeldt et al. (2011:9) found that 'gay friendliness' was not an important consideration in their study, as many of the respondents felt that their sexual orientation had no relevance to their holiday decision-making process. Similarly, Community Marketing Inc. (2011:6) found that only a third of gay individuals are inclined to not travel to destinations with an anti-gay bias. Lazar (2011:58) found that the 'gay friendliness' of Budapest was only of medium importance to the sample, and thus not a main motivational factor for travel. Retnam (2012:41) supports the argument that 'gay friendliness' is becoming less important to many gay travellers as most men in her study sample did not even consider this factor when planning their holiday. It was however stated that this could be due to roughly half of the study sample not being open about their sexuality and as a result did not wish to show their sexuality while on holiday (Retnam, 2012:41), supporting Ballegaard and Chor's (2009:81) argument that those not influenced by their sexuality on holidays, are not motivated by the 'gay friendliness' of a destination. Ballegaard and Chor (2009:109) found that many of their interviewees had even holidayed in destinations that are hostile towards homosexuality. They found that gay travellers are "... willing to suppress their sexuality when holidaying ... if a destination facilitates sights or cultural experiences of major interest" and concluded that many gay travellers find the

general attractions of a destination of greater importance than the gay-related attributes. This, however, is limited to certain gay individuals depending on the situation that they are in (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:109) and is related to Khan's (2013) 'Gay-Identity Travel Motivation Model' (Figure 4.8) which suggests that gay travel includes patterns of travel motivations that change according to the gay travellers' sexual identity maturation over time.

4.6.5.2 Gay marriage and civil partnerships as a popular pull attribute

The ongoing legalisation of gay marriage and/or civil partnerships in certain destinations throughout the world is encouraging visits for the purpose of marriage and has subsequently resulted in a new market in wedding tourism (Hughes, 2006:137-138; Bömkes, 2011:188; UNWTO, 2012:9; Rosenbloom, 2014; Luongo, 2015; Sanders, 2016). Wedding tourism can be explained as travelling "... for the purpose of getting married or celebrating a wedding" (Acorn Consulting Partnership Ltd., 2008:80) and comprises "... destination wedding couples and their guests, as well as honeymoon tourists" (Major et al., 2010:252). As gay marriages and/or civil partnerships are only possible at a few destinations, it may be an increasingly important pull factor (Hughes, 2006:135), meaning that some gay individuals travel to destinations for the sole purpose of getting married or celebrating a honeymoon (Luongo, 2015). Simultaneously, it can also function as a push factor as gay marriages and/or civil partnerships might be illegal in the home environment (Thomsen, 2008:43), resulting in a push to get away from this environment, as discussed in Section 4.6.4.1. This specific attribute had no relevance to the holiday decision-making process of Danish homosexual men, as found by Thomsen (2008:60), but it should be noted that this particular attribute has only been empirically tested in a limited number of studies, with Thomsen's (2008) study assumed to be the only study testing this attribute to date.

4.6.5.3 Gay events/festivals as a popular pull attribute

Events/festivals are increasingly staged to draw visitors to a particular destination as tourism traditionally depends on natural attractions (Markwell & Waitt, 2009:163). Although events attract various market segments to a destination, there appears to be an opportunity for the gay community to create an awareness of homosexuality through

the staging of gay events (Ghaziani, 2005:21; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:108-109). Furthermore, when gay individuals attend gay events, a perception of being part of a majority is created (Waitt & Markwell, 2006:216), which might not be the case in their home environments, thus providing an opportunity to escape heteronormativity.

Gay events/festivals seem to be an important pull factor for many gay travellers and are commonly cited attributes in much of the gay tourism literature (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Philipp, 1999; Pitts, 1999; Markwell, 2002; Jensen-Campbell, 2004; Picard & Robinson, 2006; Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Guaracino, 2007; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Verdugo, 2010; Southall & Fallon, 2011; Gay European Tourism Association, 2015). Events/festivals are often the main motivation for travel to a destination and other times incidental to the main purpose (Hughes, 2006:135). These events also range in type and include, but are not limited to, sport events (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996; Philipp, 1999; Pitts, 1999; Guaracino, 2007), circuit parties (Mansergh et al., 2001; Ghaziani, 2005; Hughes, 2006, 2007; Weems, 2007), pride parades (Howe, 2001; Johnston, 2007; Markwell & Waitt, 2009; Kinnunen, 2011; Stella, 2013; Adams, 2014), and conventions and conferences (UNWTO, 2012:29).

- Sport events

Gay sport events such as the Gay Games (Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:712; Williams, 2001b; Stevenson et al., 2005:449; Van Noort, 2005; Hughes, 2006:135; Verdugo, 2010:9; Kauhanen, 2015:23-24; Federation of Gay Games, 2016b) and EuroGames (Pritchard et al., 1998:278; Monterrubio, 2008:84; Köllen & Lazar, 2012:67) are considered to be significant pull factors attracting the gay traveller.

The Federation of Gay Games describes the purpose of the Games as being "... to foster and augment the self-respect of lesbians and gay men throughout the world and to engender respect and understanding from the non-gay world" (Federation of Gay Games, 2016b) and is "... the gay equivalent of the Olympic Games" (Pritchard et al., 1998:278). In 1982 the inaugural Games were held in San Francisco (Williams, 2001b) and have since then developed into a major international sport event comparable with mainstream sport events (Stevenson et al., 2005:453). In 1994 and 1995 the number of participants surpassed that of the Olympic Games (Stevenson

et al., 2005:450) by welcoming more than 20 000 attendees and participants (Rohlin & Greenhalgh-Stanley, 2014:2) from over 50 countries (Reid, 2014), and the event generates substantial economic benefits for the host city, which subsequently leads to numerous 'gay-friendly' cities around the globe bidding to host the event (Van Noort, 2005) as it is also believed to have massive tourism potential (Hughes, 2006:140).

The EuroGames, inspired by the Gay Games, have also contributed to gay travel, although mostly within Europe (Monterrubio, 2008:84). The event is considered to be the "... largest multi-sport event for athletes, regardless of their gender identity or sexual orientation in Europe" (European Gay and Lesbian Sport Federation, 2016a) and first took place in the Netherlands in 1992 with 300 athletes from five European countries competing in four sports (Hughes, 2006:141). The latest EuroGames were held in Stockholm in 2015 and attracted 4 450 participants and 254 905 spectators (European Gay and Lesbian Sport Federation, 2016b).

- Circuit parties

The circuit is a "... transnational, nomadic, and carnivalesque community that gathers by the thousands to dance together for a weekend in various large cities" (Weems, 2007:ii) from around the world and is considered to be a significant tourist attraction (Hughes, 2006:142). These events attract up to 25 000 gay people to a destination (Ghaziani, 2005:21), are normally held in major cities or resort towns (Mansergh et al., 2001:953), and typically include "... events of discos, parties, pool parties, club nights, dinners, concerts and entertainment" (Hughes, 2006:141-142) with at least 75 of these events taking place per year in the US and Canada alone (Mattison et al., 2001:120). The attendees attend a number of these events in a yearly cycle – hence the 'circuit' (Hughes, 2006:141-142) and the events include, for example, "South Beach's White Party", "New York's Black Party", "Montreal's Black and Blue Party" (Ghaziani, 2005:21), "Palm Spring's Dinah Shore Weekend" for women, "Orlando's Gay Days" and "Sydney's Mardi Gras" (Hughes, 2006:141-142).

- Pride parades and festivals

According to InterPride (2013:4), the International Association of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex pride organisers, a pride event is

“... a parade, march, rally, festival, arts festival, cultural activity or other event/activity organised for people identifying as lesbians and/or gay men and/or bisexuals and/or transgender persons and/or other emerging sexual identities, and promoting the visibility and/or validating the existence of those persons and commemorating the Stonewall Riots or a similar historic event/annual/periodic festival as organised by a pride organisation”.

Pride parades originated in the US as protest marches in the 1970s but have “... evolved into colorful street parties intended to celebrate sexual cosmopolitanism” (Stella, 2013:462). There are over 190 pride events worldwide, which are continuously developing owing to increased societal acceptance (InterPride, 2013:5), and have become major tourist attractions in recent years (Hughes, 2006:145). São Paulo Gay Pride Parade in Brazil, for example, attracts over four million people including 650 000 tourists, of whom roughly 15 000 travel from abroad to attend the event (UNWTO, 2012:19) and is the largest international gay pride event in the world (UNWTO, 2017a:15).

Madrid Pride in Spain attracts more than two million participants and has won the “World’s Best Gay Event” award for two consecutive years in the “Tripout Gay Travel Awards” (UNWTO, 2012:29). The annual Europride is the largest gay festival in Europe; the Europride in Cologne, Germany in 2002 attracted an estimated 1.3 million visitors (Zarra & Ward, 2003) and in 2007, the festival was held in Madrid, Spain which was the biggest Europride festival to date attracting 2.3 million visitors over a 10-day period, with 200 000 visitors coming from outside the city and foreign countries (Euro Pride, 2007). WorldPride festivals have been held in Rome (2000), Jerusalem (2004), London (2012) and in Toronto (2014) (InterPride, 2016), and the next WorldPride festival will be held in Madrid in 2017 (Littauer, 2012) and is expected to attract three million attendees, associations, and visitors from around the world (WorldPride Madrid, 2015), followed by New York City in 2019 (Morgan, 2015; Neese, 2015).

- Conventions and conferences

A wide variety of LGBT conventions and conferences are held that encourage business and conference trips throughout the world. The most recent and significant include the 33rd IGLTA's Annual Global Convention held in Cape Town, South Africa in 2016 (Mamba Online, 2013; Tourism Update, 2013a; Grove, 2014; Jordan, 2014; IGLTA, 2016), InterPride AGM and World Conference in Las Vegas 2015 (InterPride, 2015), the LGBT International Leadership Conference held in Las Vegas in 2015 (Gay and Lesbian Victory Institute, 2015), and Community Marketing Inc.'s 17th Conference on LGBT Tourism and Hospitality in Las Vegas in 2016 (Community Marketing Inc., 2016b).

Although it can be deduced from the above discussion that gay events are particularly significant for a tourism destination, the numbers of attendees, participants and spectators have to be treated with caution (Monterrubio, 2008:91). Hughes (2006:149) argues that attendance statistics are often inaccurate, especially where there are no ticket sales involved, and is of the opinion that event organisers inflate participant/attendance numbers for sponsor and government support. Furthermore, in contrast to much of the above literature, some studies have found that some gay travellers are not attracted to gay events/festivals (Thomsen, 2008:59; Köllen & Lazar, 2012:66; Retnam, 2012:40).

4.6.5.4 'Gay space'/infrastructure as a popular pull attribute

It has already been argued that the escape from a heteronormative environment (Section 4.6.4.1), validating gay identity (Section 4.6.4.2) and pursuing sex/romance (Section 4.6.4.3.) could be significant push motivations for some gay men and to a much lesser extent for gay women, and these needs can be fulfilled in a 'gay-friendly' or gay-exclusive social setting during a holiday (Hughes, 1997:6; Haslop et al., 1998:318; Herrera & Scott, 2005:251; Fimiani, 2014:38), also referred to as gay-related infrastructure, services and facilities, the gay scene or 'gay space' (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:459) in which homosexuality is the majority and the norm (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:70) with no risk of rejection and homophobia (Fimiani, 2014:38). This appears to be another unique attribute gay travellers search for when choosing a holiday destination

(Holcomb & Luongo, 1996:712; Hughes, 1997:6, 2002:306, 2005:57, 2006:56; Haslop et al., 1998:321; Clift & Forrest, 1999:620; Ivy, 2001:339; Pritchard et al., 2000:275-276; Cox, 2002:161; Zielinski, 2003:17; Herrera & Scott, 2005:251; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:459; Melián-González et al., 2011:1034; Retnam, 2012:41; Apostolopoulou, 2013:2; Khan, 2013:10; Mendoza, 2013:126; Fimiani, 2014:31). As defined in Section 2.3.2, 'gay space' is "... a homogenous, bounded and fixed place in a metropolitan area, more specifically made up by bars, restaurants, cafés, shops and residential areas" (Waitt & Markwell, 2006:178), and legal and medical services (Pritchard et al., 1998:274) that permits "... gay identity to be validated by relationships with others, provides social space and support networks, and serves as an expression of sexual and cultural identity" (Hughes, 2005:52).

Clift and Forrest (1999:620) found in their study that a third of the gay men regarded the opportunities to socialise, and more specifically the gay nightlife of a destination, to be important motivators. The authors argue that the need for social and sexual contact on holiday will be more evident among gay men on a 'gay-centric' holiday, as discussed in Section 4.6.3, which is no different from straight persons also interested in sex while on holiday. Hughes (2002:306) supports these findings as nearly all informants in his study felt that gay nightlife was an important aspect that they considered during their holiday decision-making process, although not always critical, and therefore one of the most important resources, as Melián-González et al. (2011:1034) argue, for a gay sun and beach tourism destination. Fimiani (2014:38) researched the role of 'gay spaces' in Gran Canaria, and supports the above argument in that the gay scene is a critical requirement in order to attract successfully especially gay male travellers. In a study by Pritchard et al. (2000:274-275), 'gay space' was found to be a critical requirement when choosing a holiday destination, particularly for those who hid their sexuality at home. Holidays, as Pritchard et al. (2000:279) argue, offer "... an opportunity to enter a world where they can feel comfortable with their sexuality" (as discussed in Section 4.6.3). Retnam (2012:41-42) found that 'gay space' and particularly nightlife entertainment was one of the most popular activities engaged in by Malaysian gay men while holidaying, and was believed to be a result of Malaysia's not having adequate 'gay space' which might provide these travellers with an ideal opportunity to socialise with other gay men, thus supporting Clift and Forrest's (1999:615) and Hughes's (2004:60-61) findings that socialising with other gay men in a gay social setting is of particular importance for many

gay men, especially as Hughes and Deutsch (2010:456) argue, if companionship is limited at home.

Some studies, however, contradict some of these earlier investigations. Hughes and Deutsch (2010:459) found that the need for frequenting 'gay space' rarely featured among older gay men, as they showed more interest in the cultural offering of a destination. Blichfeldt et al. (2013) interviewed 53 gay travellers to determine the roles that 'gay spaces' play during the holidays and found that these spaces "... play different roles to different gay people at different times and in different situations" (Blichfeldt et al., 2013:473). 'Gay spaces' served as 'sanctuaries' for some of the interviewees where they could be themselves and free from prejudice and discrimination. Other interviewees felt that 'gay spaces' reminded them of "zoos" in that heterosexuals stared at gays (Blichfeldt et al., 2013:473). Furthermore, they claim that the literature may be over-emphasising the significance of 'gay space' for gay holidays (Blichfeldt et al., 2013:479), although the authors acknowledge the fact that their study sample is based on a "... group of Western gays, who travel much, are confident speaking about their sexuality and have experienced gay places in a variety of situations" (Blichfeldt et al., 2013:477). Similar to the argument made in Section 4.6.5.1 regarding the diminishing need for 'gay friendliness' due to increasing societal acceptance, so too has it been argued in Section 2.3.2 that the post-modern gay generation see no need to codify exclusionary 'gay spaces' (Nash, 2013:249; Visser, 2014:477), as heterosexual spaces increasingly welcome a comfortably mixed following (Rink, 2013:82). Consequently, 'gay space' will only be a pull factor for some gay travellers, and furthermore, as Hughes (1997:6) argues, those who regularly socialise in the 'gay spaces' in their home environments may have a lesser need to experience these spaces on holiday.

It is clear from the preceding paragraphs that although gay travellers have similar travel motivations to those of mainstream tourists, it appears that some particular push factors motivate gay individuals to travel. So too has it been argued that, in addition to general destination attributes, some specific attributes (pull factors) are attractive to the gay traveller.

4.7 Possible attractive attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for gay travellers

As each destination is visited for its own set of attributes (Zhou, 2005:33), the next section of this chapter discusses some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town that might attract gay travellers, followed by a discussion of the factors that might lead to these travellers not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination.

4.7.1 Location and climate

Cape Town is a scenic seaside resort town (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004) with a dry summer Mediterranean climate and pristine sand beaches, and is known as the 'African Riviera' (Pirie, 2007:4). As mentioned in Section 4.4.3, Cape Town's Clifton 3rd Beach has been named as one of the top ten global gay beaches (Raymundo, 2010). Sandy Bay Beach, Cape Town's only nudist beach (Murphy, 2007:426), has been rated one of the most beautiful nudist beaches in the world (Harrison, 2005:44). Although Sandy Bay is popular with 'naturists of all sorts', it is said to be particularly popular among the local gay population and gay travellers (Richmond, 2004:68; Harrison, 2005:44; Fitzpatrick & Armstrong, 2006:118; Bradley et al., 2011:78). Thus, Cape Town's location, climate and these two particular beaches as discussed above could serve as specific attributes that attract some gay travellers, as Melián-González et al. (2011:1030) argue that the most popular gay and 'gay-friendly' places are sun-and-beach resorts or coastal cities.

4.7.2 Variety of mainstream tourist attractions

Cape Town offers numerous cultural, historical and natural attractions in and around South Africa's oldest city, with its fascinating history dating back to the 17th century (Biggs, 2000:7). Natural attractions include, for example, the wide variety of pristine blue-flag beaches, Cape Point and Table Mountain, which in 2012 became one of the new seven global wonders of nature (South African Tourism, 2012; Times Live, 2012). Historical and cultural attractions include, for example, Robben Island, the Castle of Good Hope, the Bo-Kaap, the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront, the winelands, and a wide variety of museums (Shackley, 2001:358). Access to other attractions in the country such as the Kruger National Park and regional attractions such as the Victoria Falls, is

fairly easy (City of Cape Town, 2002:52), which could serve as viable add-ons to travel itineraries. Cape Town is also a creative city and won the World Design Capital award in 2014 (*Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, 2015:40), which could lead to an increase in the 'creative class' traveller, a significant number of these being gay travellers (Florida, 2002).

4.7.3 Established 'gay space'/infrastructure

Cape Town has well established facilities and services for gay travellers (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004), specifically a concentration of gay leisure facilities in De Waterkant gay village (Visser, 2003a:181). The gay tourism infrastructure includes a variety of bars, restaurants, retail businesses and nightclubs, which creates an eclectic atmosphere that appeals to a variety of different gay travellers within this segment (see Section 2.3.2) and serves as an important 'drawcard' for the gay traveller (Clift & Forrest, 1999:620; Bömkes, 2011:195) and could therefore be a specific attribute that attracts these travellers to Cape Town. Furthermore, a diversity of accommodation establishments in Cape Town targets the gay traveller and these establishments make provision for all interests and budgets (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004). In 2016, there were approximately 80 accommodation establishments marketing themselves as 'gay friendly' (*Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, 2015:40; *Pink South Africa*, 2015; Gap Leisure, 2016).

4.7.4 Cosmopolitan reputation

Cape Town is known to be a cosmopolitan city (UNWTO, 2012:23) with a diverse ethnic mosaic comprising various cultural traditions and lifestyles (Zhou, 2005:35). It has been proposed that policies supportive of multiculturalism and a cosmopolitan outlook, understood as a "... receptive and open attitude toward the other", are key characteristics of a successful global city (Stella, 2013:458). Cape Town is therefore an ideal destination for the gay traveller not only because of its liberal atmosphere, but also for its reputation as a culturally diverse coastal city with a cosmopolitan lifestyle. Hughes (2006:176) argues that "... cosmopolitanism is associated with acceptance of difference, whether that is of ethnicity or sexuality", and could therefore be one of the attributes attracting gay travellers to Cape Town.

4.7.5 Uniquely African

Although Cape Town is easily comparable with Western gay capitals like Sydney, its 'African-ness' is unique (Oswin, 2005a:577) and a major attraction for the gay traveller (UNWTO, 2012:21). Pirie (2007:7) argues that Cape Town is a "... nostalgic trip into the European past" and only marginally 'African' as it is the only city in South Africa where black South Africans are in a demographic minority; hence many domestic and international travellers are attracted to Cape Town as it is the most unusual city in the country. Whether this statement is true or not, the 'African-ness' of Cape Town may be a unique attribute that attracts gay travellers to Cape Town, when potential gay visitors compare Cape Town with other 'gay-friendly' destinations.

4.7.6 Progressive democracy, 'gay friendliness' and tolerance

The final post-apartheid constitution of South Africa outlaws anti-gay discrimination and constitutionally protects gay rights (Kennedy, 2006:60), thereby making it one of the most inclusive and liberal constitutions in the world (Isaack, 2003:19; Beetar, 2012:49; Pacey, 2014:113). According to Månsson and Østrup (2007:6), legal issues can be regarded as a 'physical barrier' to entry which gay travellers consider when choosing a holiday destination, because in many countries it is still illegal to be gay, thus restricting the range of holiday options (Table 4.2). Revised legislation has been identified by Goodall (1990), as cited by Kozak (1999:12), as an effective differentiating strategy for destinations, which is evident in CTT's marketing to gay travellers: "In South Africa it is illegal to discriminate against gay people because of their gender or sexual orientation, and it is therefore commonplace to see openly gay people in Cape Town" (Cape Town Tourism, 2015b). Furthermore, Cape Town is located in a country that has a progressive democracy that acts with sensitivity and tolerance towards diversity (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004). The UNWTO (2012:21) singled out South Africa's progressive attitudes in its Global Report on gay tourism and argued that these attitudes attract gay travellers to the country.

The liberal attitude of many South Africans (though not all) is due to the majority of people having recent memories of racial oppression and being immensely sensitive to discrimination of any sort, resulting in a national commitment to diversity and equality

(Hoad, 1998:41; Burns, 2012:8; Gomes da Costa Santos, 2013:314). Cape Town in particular has an international reputation among the gay community for being 'gay friendly' with a gay-tolerant society (Cock, 2002:35), which is a crucial requirement of gay travellers (Pritchard et al., 1998:278), as they choose an environment in which they can be comfortable and not have to experience intolerance and negative attitudes while vacationing (Tourism Intelligence International, 2001:3), as discussed in Section 4.6.5.1. Therefore, 'gay friendliness' and tolerance might serve as an attribute attracting gay travellers to Cape Town.

4.7.7 Favourable exchange rate

South Africa currently (2017) has a favourable exchange rate providing value for money (Tourism Update, 2013b; Smith, 2014; Ellis, 2015; Smith, 2015; Cohen, 2016), which Zhou (2005:24) argues to be an important attribute tourists consider during the holiday decision-making process, thus adding to Cape Town (and South Africa's) appeal. This could therefore be a specific attribute attracting mainstream as well as gay travellers to Cape Town.

4.7.8 Gay wedding and honeymoon destination

South Africa is the first and only country on the African continent, and the fifth country in the world to legalise same-sex marriage (Abbott, 2012; Burns, 2012:22) and could therefore be an attribute that attracts gay travellers to Cape Town.

The legalisation of same-sex marriages resulted in South Africa's becoming a global leader in same-sex weddings (UNWTO, 2012:21), thus Cape Town has a tremendous opportunity to promote and develop itself as a popular gay wedding and honeymoon destination given that, according to the latest statistics by Statistics South Africa, there has been a decline in heterosexual civil marriages in 2015, citing a decrease of 8.1% from the previous year while civil partnerships registered in South Africa increased by 3.6% in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2015:5). Furthermore, to highlight the potential economic impact of wedding tourism, Breg (2013:5-6) investigated the spending patterns of wedding tourists in the Western Cape province and found that visitors spent between R850 and R1000 per day during their stay. In addition, every wedding couple invited

between 30 and 50 guests, resulting in revenues generated per wedding ranging between R600 000 and R1 million.

4.7.9 National and international gay events/festivals

The literature points to events/festivals being a crucial component for a successful gay or 'gay-friendly' destination (Pritchard et al., 1998:277; Visser, 2003a:176; Tourism Northern Ontario, 2014:147) and such events influence the development of these destinations and their popularity among gay travellers (Verdugo, 2010:9). Gay events/festivals are increasingly popular reasons to travel to a destination (Hughes, 2006:137; Guaracino, 2007:2) and draw considerable numbers of visitors (Visser, 2003a:176), as discussed at length in Section 4.6.5.3. South Africa has numerous gay events/festivals with most of them taking place in Cape Town. Gay events/festivals that took place in Cape Town in 2015 include the Cape Town Pride Festival, the Out in Africa (OIA) Film Festival, the MCQP, Mr Gay South Africa (Dhariwal, 2012; UNWTO, 2012:21) and Mr Gay World (Legg, 2014; Media Update, 2015). These events/festivals play a significant role in placing Cape Town on the international gay travel map (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004) and could thus be potential attributes attracting gay travellers to Cape Town.

4.7.10 Strong local gay population

The local gay population of Cape Town strengthens its high appeal among gay travellers (UNWTO, 2012:23) and is often a crucial requirement for the development of a 'gay-friendly' tourism destination (Pritchard et al., 1998:278) as it is likely to attract gay travellers from around the world (UNWTO, 2012:10). The literature, as discussed in Section 4.6.5.4 points to the importance of socialising with other gay people on holiday (Clift & Forrest, 1999:615; Clift et al., 2002:246; Hughes, 2004:60-61; Monterrubio et al., 2007:58; Retnam, 2012:41-42), especially if companionship is limited at home (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:456), which would only be possible if the holiday destination has other gay people to socialise with. Although no official statistics confirming the gay population size in Cape Town could be found, it is worth noting that the gay population of South Africa is estimated around five million people (The Strategy Department, 2016). With this lack of statistics, it can nevertheless be argued that in addition to the permanent gay

residents of Cape Town, a temporary gay population will continue to exist as it was estimated in 2012 that 15% of the city's 1.5 million annual visitors were gay (Abbott, 2012; Capital News, 2012; *The Australian*, 2012) as discussed in Section 3.2.2.4. This attribute could thus meet this need for socialisation and should therefore be considered as a possible attribute that attracts gay travellers to Cape Town.

4.8 Possible factors leading to non-visits by gay travellers to Cape Town

Although Cape Town, from the preceding paragraphs, appears to be an ideal 'gay-friendly' tourism destination offering a variety of attributes for gay travellers, a few factors might deter these visitors from choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination. This is discussed next.

4.8.1 Insufficient marketing of Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination

CTT's support for the *Pink South Africa Guide*, sponsorship of the MCQP and Cape Town Gay Pride, the gay-specific section on their website as well as their sponsorship of the Mr Gay World event, held in Knysna in 2015, are some of the marketing initiatives done by the destination towards the gay traveller (see Section 3.3 for current initiatives that contribute to Cape Town's reputation as 'gay friendly'). However, through the literature search it is evident that the City does not actively market the destination to gay travellers, which suggests that the destination might not be well known as a 'gay-friendly' destination, and could therefore lead to potential gay travellers not visiting Cape Town.

4.8.2 Port restrictions

Cape Town could potentially become a popular boutique cruise stopover (Hattingh, 2011:134), as gay-oriented cruises are increasingly popular and companies such as Atlantis, Olivia and RSVP offer all-gay or all-lesbian cruises by contracting ships from well-known cruise lines (Gay European Tourism Association, 2015). Cruise itineraries incorporate stopovers at popular 'gay-friendly' destinations such as Mykonos, Ibiza, and Puerto Vallarta, and include as many as 3 200 passengers (Hughes, 2006:99). Gay consumers, especially in the US (one of Cape Town's important source markets as discussed in Section 3.2.2), seem to be particularly interested in cruise holidays: 16% of

the American gay population has been on at least one cruise in 2015 (Community Marketing Inc., 2015a:9). Cape Town is not, however, a popular cruise port due to infrastructural and port size restrictions (Pirie, 2007:6). This is a missed opportunity for Cape Town as cruise tourism has been recognised as a fast-growing sector in two large source markets for the city, the UK and North America (Kohler, 2003:1).

4.8.3 Limited entertainment

Although it is argued in Sections 2.3.2 and 4.7.3 that Cape Town has well-established facilities and services for gay travellers, increased investment might be required to improve entertainment facilities. As argued in Section 3.3.3, many of Cape Town's entrepreneurs responsible for developing the gay village are of the opinion that it is the smallest gay village in the world (Visser, 2003a:184) and does not have the infrastructure required to become a popular international gay destination (Cullen, 2010:8). This implies that Cape Town might not be able to attract some gay travellers (those that regard this attribute as important), given that there are many other well-known and established gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations that offer superior gay space/infrastructure.

4.8.4 Occasional discrimination

Although largely a cosmopolitan, open-minded and tolerant city, homophobic acts and discrimination towards the gay population occasionally do occur in Cape Town. The Martin Prosperity Institute (2012) scores Cape Town above average regarding its progressiveness towards the gay community but makes reference to the increasing lack of diversity in the city's local residents. The attitude of local residents, as argued by Hughes et al. (2010:774), can be an important factor to ensure return visits by tourists and plays a significant role in determining future tourism development for a destination.

4.8.5 High crime rate

Cape Town (and South Africa) suffers from deep socio-economic and spatial inequalities as a result of apartheid (Pirie, 2007:4), which leads to negative perceptions of the destination. Furthermore, as argued in Section 4.4.2.1, the targeting of gay travellers by

Cape Town might be restricted as South Africa continues to suffer from negative perceptions, especially regarding high crime rates in the country. Various media articles claim that Cape Town is one of the “murder capitals of the world” (Berlinger, 2012; Van Mead & Blason, 2014; ABC News, 2015; *World Atlas*, 2015; Business Tech, 2016), which contributes to these perceptions. As discussed in Section 4.2.3, The Spartacus Gay Travel Index ranks countries according to 14 categories, ranging from same-sex marriage to the death penalty. South Africa scored fairly positively in most categories apart from the murder rate and the hostility of locals (*Spartacus International Gay Guide*, 2013:2). Furthermore, Community Marketing Inc. (2014:29) states that 78% of gay Americans feel “somewhat safe” or “not safe” to travel to South Africa.

4.8.6 Long-haul destination

Cape Town is a long-haul destination (in relation to Europe and North America), which may affect Cape Town’s ability to compete with the many European and American ‘gay-friendly’ destinations, as gay travellers from these regions may opt to travel to short-haul destinations instead. Buhalis (2000:102), Prayag (2003:11), Harrison and Enz (2005:396), Lück (2005:6), Sarker et al. (2012:162) and the UNWTO (2013:3) however argue that the product in traditional tourism destinations is increasingly maturing, making exotic, non-traditional and new long-haul destinations, often in developing countries, more attractive. Nevertheless, this might be a factor that deters gay travellers from visiting Cape Town.

As this study uses the push-pull framework to segment and profile gay travellers, it was necessary to identify some of the most common destination attributes (pull factors) and motivational (push) factors included in previous studies (Table 4.5) in order to design the questionnaire (see Section 5.3.2.1) and to select variables for cluster analysis (see Section 5.4.2.2). From Table 4.5 it is evident that very few studies implemented the push-pull framework when studying gay tourism motivations. In addition, as argued in Section 4.6.4, there appear to be some specific motivations (push factors) for travel among gay individuals. Furthermore, as argued in Section 4.6.5, the study findings in Table 4.5 on the most important attributes will not necessarily all apply or be equally important to gay travellers, as some specific attributes (pull factors) are attractive to gay travellers; hence the literature review was expanded to identify the specific push and pull

factors related to gay tourism, some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town (Section 4.7) for the gay traveller, as well as the factors that might lead to these visitors not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination (Section 4.8).

4.9 Summary

This chapter argues that there is an increasing trend in destinations attempting to differentiate themselves by marketing the destination as 'gay friendly', possibly without knowledge of the implications of this type of marketing. Therefore, some advantages and disadvantages of this type of marketing are analysed, followed by a discussion of the most popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting gay travellers. It is argued that there seems to be a mismatch between academic findings, market research findings and media articles regarding Cape Town's popularity as a 'gay-friendly' destination, as the media articles strongly suggest that Cape Town is among the most popular 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations. This, however, does not seem to be supported by academic discussions. The analysis suggests that some particular US cities, islands and beaches are popular destinations among gay travellers as well as some specific European cities and Mediterranean beach resorts, which suggests that gay travellers travel to both long-haul as well as short-haul tourism destinations. Furthermore, in contrast to the most popular destinations for gay travellers, there are also destinations that are 'unpopular' or 'gay unfriendly' where gay-related activities are widely disapproved of, and in some considered criminal acts.

An argument is then made that the gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations do not necessarily compete with one another or Cape Town in particular, and will, therefore, not appeal to all gay travellers, as some of the destinations are beach or urban destinations, which might only be popular for certain segments and sub-segments of the LGBT travel market. It is argued that it is not reasonable to compare a summer and a winter destination or a beach/island and an urban destination. Evidence from the content analysis of the more popular gay and 'gay-friendly' destinations is that there was no clear separation between urban, island or beach-break destinations as most of the literature reviewed refers to specific resorts, specific countries and even continents as popular gay or 'gay-friendly' destinations. Furthermore, it is argued that because of

inconsistent and frequently unavailable sample sizes, the sample origin, and the fact that most media articles represent individual observations and personal experiences of journalists, comparisons are impossible, thus cautionary conclusions should be made about destinations competing with Cape Town for the gay traveller.

It is suggested that it would be useful to investigate the push factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday and to determine the pull factors (destination attributes) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town, as no prior research, according to the researcher's knowledge, has examined the motivations of gay leisure travellers in an African context. The chapter then explores the available academic and market research on gay travellers' holiday motivations. It specifically introduces the reader to general travel motivations, followed by a discussion of the most widely accepted general theoretical frameworks and tourist typologies related to travel motivation. From Table 4.5 it can be deduced that the push-pull framework has a proven success rate and is one of the most useful frameworks for measuring tourist motivations. In order to comprehensively explain the travelling behaviour of tourists, this framework assists in investigating both psychological (push forces) and destination attributes (pull forces), and is widely implemented for market segmentation purposes; hence this study uses the push-pull framework to segment and profile gay travellers. From the multiple motivational theories discussed, it is argued that tourist motivations are heterogeneous and that different market segments seem to have different travel motivations, suggesting that gay travellers might have different motivations to travel than the mainstream traveller and that motivations might even differ among gay men and women themselves.

Specific factors influencing gay tourism are analysed and gay traveller typologies as adapted from general tourist motivational theories are reviewed. This led to a conclusion that gay male travellers especially go primarily on two 'types' of holidays, that of a 'gay-related' holiday or a 'gay-centric' holiday, and that there appear to be some particular push and pull factors related to gay travellers. The next section of the chapter then discusses the specific push factors related to gay tourism which include escaping heteronormativity; constructing and validating 'gay identity' through travel; and pursuing sex/romance; as well as pull factors related to gay tourism which include gay friendliness; gay marriage or civil partnerships; gay events/festivals; and 'gay space'/infrastructure. As pull factors are place/destination specific, the chapter

concludes by discussing some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for gay travellers, which include an appealing location and climate; a wide variety of mainstream tourist attractions; an established 'gay space'/infrastructure; a cosmopolitan reputation; Cape Town being uniquely African in relation to competing 'gay-friendly' tourism destinations; a progressive democracy, 'gay friendliness' and tolerance; a favourable exchange rate; gay weddings and honeymoons; a wide variety of national and international gay events/festivals; and a strong local gay population.

Next is a discussion of the factors that might lead to gay travellers not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination. These factors include insufficient marketing of Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination; port restrictions; limited entertainment; occasional discrimination; perceptions of a high crime rate; and Cape Town being a long-haul destination in relation to Europe and the US. One of the main findings in reviewing the literature on gay tourism is that much of the literature could soon be outdated as fewer gay individuals base their travel decisions solely on gay-related issues owing to an increasing societal acceptance of homosexuality and the insignificance of a 'gay identity' to many of the post-modern gay generation.

The next chapter discusses the research design and methodology adopted for this study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology applied in this study. It begins with a discussion on the research and explains why this study employed a descriptive research design. Next, secondary and primary data-collection methods are discussed with a focus on the quantitative instrument used for primary data collection, the design of the research instrument (questionnaire) and the validity and reliability of the instrument. Included are details of the target population, sampling procedures (probability sampling versus non-probability sampling) and how the chosen non-probability sampling procedure directed the research towards a specific data-collection method for a study of this nature. As the study follows non-probability sampling, it was crucial to discuss the sample size chosen in detail followed by an introduction to data analysis. An explanation of cluster analysis and the steps that should be followed when segmenting a market is provided. Statistical methods (ANOVA and chi-squared tests) that were used to treat the data in the study are also discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of research ethics and how these were adhered to for this study.

5.2 Research design

A research design is a "... general strategy for solving a research problem" and "... provides the overall structure for the procedures the researcher follows, the data the researcher collects, and the data analyses the researcher conducts" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:85). Saunders et al. (2009:88) add that a research design is the blueprint of how research question(s) will be answered, and contains specific objectives, derived from the research question(s). A typical research design involves the following components (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:64):

- Identifying the information needed to answer the research questions(s).
- Deciding if the general design is to be descriptive, causal or exploratory, or a combination of designs.
- Planning the structure of techniques of measurement and/or understanding.

- Developing and pretesting a data-collection tool.
- Considering sampling issues and deciding on a qualitative and/or quantitative sampling process.
- Designing a data analysis plan.

Research designs are generally classified as either exploratory research (which aims to yield insights into and a broad understanding of certain phenomena that are difficult to measure) or conclusive research (which aims to test specific relationships and to explain specific phenomena) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:70). The present study clearly belongs to a conclusive research design as it aims to describe the gay tourism phenomenon.

A conclusive research design can be sub-divided into two groups: (i) causal research designs in which evidence of cause-and-effect or causal relationships between variables is sought, and descriptive research designs which usually aim to explain something, usually market functions or characteristics relevant to the research questions (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:73). Robson (2002:59) argues that descriptive research is used "... to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations". George (2008:108) elaborates further that in tourism, descriptive research contributes to the development of tourist profiles, tourist flows and patterns, descriptions of travel experiences, and consumer behaviour (i.e. tourist typologies). This research can therefore be described as descriptive research as it seeks to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers.

Descriptive research can be further sub-divided into two research designs: (i) cross-sectional design (also known as sample survey research design); and (ii) longitudinal research (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:74). Cross-sectional research collects "... information from any given sample of population elements only once" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:74), whereas longitudinal research collects "... information from a fixed sample of population elements repeatedly" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:76). The present study adopts a cross-sectional research design, as feedback and input from a large group of gay travellers were required, with time and financial resource constraints.

5.3 Data collection

Walliman (2006:51) distinguishes between two types of data – primary data and secondary data. He argues that distinguishing between different data types is crucial as their nature implicates the reliability and type of analysis to which they can be subjected.

5.3.1 Secondary data: the literature review

Secondary data refers to data previously collected for other purposes (Mouton, 2001:105; Saunders et al., 2009:600) and are used to conduct the literature review. That is, secondary resources that have already been interpreted and recorded, including, for example, academic journals and published books, tourism bodies, commercial sources of data, the Internet and other miscellaneous sources of data (magazine articles and newspapers) (George, 2008:113-117). A successful research design usually includes secondary data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:93); indeed, many descriptive studies use secondary data to identify a research problem, to develop/improve the sampling strategies, and even as a data-collection technique in its own right (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:88). Secondary data in the current study included the *Cape Town Official Visitors' Guide*, local gay travel guides, academic journals, government publications, tourism reports, magazine and newspaper articles, conference proceedings, books and the Internet. The secondary data used for the literature review was useful in identifying the research problem and related research questions and objectives, provided clarity on the research methodology, specifically the data collection, analysis methods to use and the sampling plans. It further assisted in identifying the variables (push and pull factors) to include in the research instrument (questionnaire), and assisted the researcher in articulating the results.

The study consists of three theoretical chapters constructed through investigating and analysing secondary data sources as discussed above. One chapter reviews the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa by exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era and considers how the new South African Constitution of 1996 contributed to the increasingly visible and accepted gay civil society in Cape Town, specifically a part of the city now known as 'De Waterkant Village', as well as how this village positioned Cape Town as a leading 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of

the 21st century.

A second chapter places the gay traveller in a tourism context in order to develop a better understanding of the gay traveller as a market segment as it has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that such a segment exists. Consequently, this chapter considers whether one can talk about a homogeneous gay market segment by unpacking market segmentation theories. Furthermore, some of the most common perceptions about the US and European gay markets are explored as the majority of international gay travellers to Cape Town are from these regions (UNWTO, 2012:23; South African Tourism, 2015c:7). It is argued that these perceptions of the gay segment have resulted in a number of tourism destinations actively targeting gay travellers (Hughes, 2004:58; Hughes, 2005:51; Southall & Fallon, 2011:230; Coon, 2012:516; Cutting-Miller, 2014). Cape Town, being one of these destinations in particular, has been extremely successful in accessing domestic and international gay travellers; therefore this chapter concludes by discussing how Cape Town became the 'gay capital' of South Africa by investigating the past and present initiatives that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's reputation as an international 'gay-friendly' destination.

The third theoretical chapter discusses the implications for marketing a tourism destination as gay or 'gay friendly' and identifies some of the more popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting gay travellers. This chapter's focus is on travel motivation theories and tourist typologies related to travel motivations as developed over time, as the main purpose of this study is to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers. As the push-pull framework is used most often for this purpose, this chapter also reviews literature on studies that have implemented this framework and draws together the specific push motivations for travel among gay individuals as well as elaborating on specific pull motivations that attract gay travellers to certain destinations. As pull factors are place specific, the chapter concludes with some of the particular destination attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for gay travellers, followed by a discussion of the factors that might lead to these visitors not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination. Naturally, locating and analysing secondary data precedes the collection of primary data, discussed next.

5.3.2 Primary data

Primary data are first-hand data that have been recorded, observed or experienced by the researcher (Walliman, 2006:51) to address the research problem (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:94). Careful consideration must be given to the best methodological procedure to collect data in order to guarantee the reliability and validity of the study (Awuah & Reinert, 2011:139). Two methodologies using different tools for collecting and analysing data are widely used in the social sciences: quantitative methodology and qualitative methodology (Bryman, 2004:19).

A qualitative methodology adopts "... an unstructured, primarily exploratory design based on small samples, intended to provide insight and understanding" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:152) and relies more on the interpretation of language, rather than statistical testing, through close human interactions and theory building (Walliman, 2006:36). A quantitative methodology "... seeks to quantify data and, typically, apply some form of statistical analysis" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:152). Vicol (2010:3) adds that it allows standardised and objective comparison, and the analysis of a phenomenon in a systematic and comparable way.

"... Conclusive research is typically more formal and structured than exploratory research, and the data obtained are subjected to quantitative analysis" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:76). As this research adopts a conclusive, descriptive and cross-sectional research design, a quantitative methodology is recommended to explain the heterogeneity of the gay segment, by sub-dividing (sub-segmenting) this segment into distinct sub-groups (sub-segments) according to their holiday motivations as a means of developing a typology of gay leisure travellers. It is suggested that the use of quantitative techniques and multivariate analytic methods could significantly assist with the segmentation process (Eftichiadou, 2001:7) by categorising data sets into similar behavioural groupings derived mainly through these quantitative techniques (Dolnicar, 2002a:3; Weaver & Lawton, 2005:211; Isaac, 2008:75), thus a questionnaire survey was deemed to be the most appropriate method of primary data collection for this study.

5.3.2.1 Questionnaire design

Conducting research using a quantitative methodology requires the careful design of a questionnaire – a series of easily understandable questions or statements put to respondents that attempts to solve the research problem and answer the research questions (George, 2008:123). A structured questionnaire was developed for this study and included mostly closed-ended questions (fixed-response questions) with some open-ended ones. Where appropriate, an ‘other’ option was included at the end of each closed-ended question to allow respondents to answer in their own words if their response did not fit any of the categories provided. A structured questionnaire, according to Malhotra and Birks (2007:266) is a “... formal questionnaire that presents questions in a prearranged order” and is the preferred data-collection method when a large number of responses are required. They recommend using predetermined or fixed response type questions to simplify the coding, analysis and interpretation of the data.

The structured questionnaire for this study covers four sections: a section covering holiday-related information, a section on travel motivations and destination attributes, a traveller profile section, and a section on travel patterns. Section 1 of the questionnaire contains holiday-related questions, such as the travel cohort (whom respondents travelled with), how many times respondents have visited Cape Town, duration of visit, types of accommodation preferred, spending patterns, type of trip, booking mechanism, how long it took to plan the trip, whether they will return to Cape Town and if they would recommend Cape Town as a ‘gay-friendly’ tourism destination. Section 2 of the questionnaire includes a list of 13 motivational (push) factors and another list of 24 attributes (pull factors). As discussed in Section 5.3.1, secondary data was used to identify the most important attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town that were used in similar studies (Gavcar & Gursoy, 2002; Hughes, 2002; Klenosky, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Zhou, 2005; Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Khuong & Ha, 2014). Table 4.5 identified some of the most common destination attributes included in previous studies; however, as discussed in Section 4.1, although some destinations share general attributes, they are mostly destination specific as destinations often have particular attributes that are associated with them (Zhou, 2005:38-39). Therefore, this study borrowed from previous studies specifically conducted on attractive attributes of African sun and beach destinations, such as Prayag (2003) and Zhou (2005) who researched the attractive

attributes of Cape Town. It is understood that these research findings on the most important attributes will not necessarily all apply, or be equally important to gay travellers visiting Cape Town, as some specific attributes (pull factors) are attractive to gay travellers (discussed in detail in Section 4.6.5).

Although the studies of Prayag (2003) and Zhou (2005) both aimed to establish what Cape Town's most attractive and important attributes were, these study samples focused on mainstream (heterosexual) travellers and thus no study thus far has specifically determined the important attributes for gay travellers to an African sun and beach destination or to Cape Town specifically. Furthermore, as argued in Section 4.6.5, gay travellers may be attracted to specific attributes of a destination, hence the literature review was expanded to identify a list of possible attributes (pull motivations) of Cape Town for gay travellers, as discussed in detail in Section 4.7, and this was also included in this section of the questionnaire. The push motivations included in the questionnaire were adapted from studies discussed in Table 4.5, specifically Kim and Lee (2002), Correia et al. (2007), and Kassean and Gassita (2013). Furthermore, as argued in Section 4.6.4, there appear to be some specific push motivations for travel among gay individuals, which were also included in this section of the questionnaire.

As suggested by Prayag (2010:5), participants were requested to rate the importance level of the push factors in their decision to take a holiday as well as rate the importance level of the pull factors that attracted them to Cape Town on a five-point Likert scale (1 = not at all important, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neither important nor unimportant, 4 = important, 5 = very important). This section was included in the questionnaire to provide the study with the information required to sub-segment the gay segment through cluster analysis (see data analysis Section 5.4.2.1). Section 3 of the questionnaire deals with traveller profiles and includes questions on gender, age, relationship status, level of education, occupation, country of origin, classification of respondent's home environment, monthly income, sexual identity, openness of sexuality, and family planning. The reason for including Sections 1 and 3 of the questionnaire was to develop gay traveller profiles and to compare the findings with the existing literature on gay travellers. Furthermore, these questions will add to the development of a typology of gay leisure travellers, linked to the push and pull factors through cross-tabulation (see data analysis Section 5.4.2.2). The literature suggests that gay travellers have

heterogeneous travel motivations and are attracted by different destination attributes; hence it can be assumed that gay travellers travel for various reasons. This section of the questionnaire, the visitor profile, aims to determine whether there are, for example, significantly different travel motivations among younger and older gay travellers (age descriptor). There may also be a difference between what single gay men and women seek from a holiday in comparison with those in a relationship or a marriage, those with children, and those without.

Furthermore, this section will determine if there are differences between gay men and women that are open about their sexuality and those who are not, as well as if the place in which they reside at home (i.e. conservative versus liberal environment) has a significant influence on their travel motivations and activities while on holiday. Lastly, as argued throughout the literature chapters, it cannot be assumed that lesbians' and gay men's holiday profiles are similar just because they are homosexual. Hence, this study, as part of the visitor profile, could determine if there are significant differences among gay male and female travellers' motivations as there is an increasing interest in the influence of gender in tourism (Hughes, 2007:17-20). While this research is not specific to gay women, it may, to some degree provide insight into travel by these women as well.

Section 4 of the questionnaire deals with the respondents' travel patterns and includes questions on 'gay-friendly' destinations respondents visited, 'gay-friendly' destinations respondents were planning on travelling to, whether respondents would avoid travelling to certain destinations related to their sexuality, and, how often respondents take an international leisure trip. The inclusion of the last section was two-fold, first to assist in determining which destinations Cape Town competes with for the gay traveller, and second, to determine destination preferences of the sub-segments of the gay segment, which will also add to the development of a typology of gay leisure travellers. The questionnaire concludes by asking respondents to provide any additional comments regarding the study as a way of identifying problems and information not covered by the questionnaire.

5.3.2.2 Validity and reliability of the research instrument (questionnaire)

The validity of a research instrument "... is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure" and reliability refers to "... the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured hasn't changed" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:28-29).

The reliability of the instrument was improved, as suggested by Zhou (2005:59-60), by identifying the push and pull factors prior to collecting the primary data, in order for respondents to easily evaluate the importance level of these factors as opposed to asking the respondents to list their travel motivations, which might decrease the reliability of the data by leading to inconsistent responses as "... interviewees will not think about a question systematically and are seldom willing to make much effort to think about an interview question" (Zhou, 2005:59-60).

Furthermore, as a holiday normally provides a relaxing environment, travellers often respond negatively to especially long questionnaires and interviews that take up too much of their holiday time, so a list of all likely push and pull motivations may therefore be too lengthy, and may lead to confusion on the part of respondents, cause denial, or even prompt respondents to provide false information to save time, consequently reducing the reliability of the study (Suh & Gartner, 2004:131). It was therefore decided to keep the questionnaire as short and succinct as possible, especially the list of motivations as suggested above. The questionnaire's reliability and validity were assured, as most of the variables were borrowed, and adapted where necessary, from previously validated studies, specifically Kim and Lee (2002), Prayag (2003), Zhou (2005), Correia et al. (2007), and Kassean and Gassita (2013). Self-developed variables were developed from secondary data acquired through authorised research companies and reputable scholars and therefore the methods used in the studies should be considered trustworthy.

5.3.2.2.1 Pilot study

The questionnaire's reliability and validity was further enhanced through a three-stage pilot study – a small-scale replica of the main study (Sarantakos, 1988:293). This is

performed prior to a "... complete survey to test the efficiency of the research methodology" (Ricafort, 2011:66-67). First, the researcher requested a registered statistician from CPUTs Centre for Postgraduate Studies to review the questionnaire design. Secondly, the questionnaire was pilot tested by eight tourism stakeholders (travel agents and tour operators targeting gay travellers, managers of gay accommodation establishments and other stakeholders marketing their product offerings to the these travellers) in Cape Town, including managers from the various DMOs. These stakeholders were identified through a judgemental sampling technique in which the researcher judgementally selected, according to his practical travel industry knowledge, the key stakeholders in Cape Town who target gay travellers. An additional attempt to further identify these stakeholders was done by consulting guidebooks and brochures, specifically *Pink South Africa* (2015) and the *Pink Map* (2015). The stakeholders' inputs and recommendations were requested as it may be possible that some attributes, which could not be identified during the literature search, are important to their clients (gay travellers) in Cape Town.

If a stakeholder felt that there were other attributes of Cape Town that were presumed to be of importance to gay travellers but not included in the questionnaire, he/she was requested to add these attributes to the questionnaire. Stakeholders were used during the pilot phase (opposed to gay travellers) because they "... often have a better understanding of the variables that best discriminate among visitors" (Prayag, 2010:5). Melián-González et al. (2011:1034) support this argument and suggest the involvement of "sector professionals and experts" in gay tourism as they hold valuable knowledge of the attributes that attract their clients. Thirdly, the questionnaire was examined by a convenience sample of 11 academics of the School of Sport, Events, Tourism and Hospitality at CPUT as well as academics at the University of the Western Cape (UWC) regarding the feasibility, structure and their understanding of the questionnaire.

The academics were asked to edit and improve the items to enhance the clarity, sequence, readability and content validity and to measure whether the questionnaire could be completed within a reasonable period of time (about 15 minutes). Furthermore, to eliminate ambiguity and to identify errors and possible problem areas, feedback from the reviewers was used to restructure the final questionnaire. Minor edits regarding the wording were made based on suggestions by the stakeholders and academics. No

major errors, problem areas or ambiguities were reported except from one tour guide who was of the opinion that the questionnaire was too long. The researcher, however, felt that for all research objectives to be met and all research questions to be solved, all questions in the questionnaire were necessary and could not be omitted. The final questionnaire survey appears as Annexure A.

5.3.2.3 Target population and sampling

The first step of sampling involves defining a target population (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:82; Zikmund et al., 2013:387), which can be explained as the "... full set of cases from which a sample is taken" (Saunders et al., 2009:212). Given that the aim of the current study is to develop a typology of gay leisure travellers, the population of this study included all domestic and international gay individuals that had travelled to Cape Town for a minimum of three nights for leisure purposes. A minimum number of three nights was chosen to ensure that the respondents had adequate exposure to various attributes of Cape Town to complete the questionnaire meaningfully. Leisure refers to "... discretionary time available when obligations are at a minimum" (Cooper et al., 2008:15). Ballegaard and Chor (2009:5) suggest that leisure tourism is "... blocks of leisure time that are spent away from home". This study therefore focused on the gay leisure traveller only and excluded gay travellers on business trips as it is understood that a business trip would be seen as the motivator for travel and not necessarily any other attribute of the destination (Eftichiadou, 2001:3). Once the population had been identified, a sampling method needed to be decided on.

Sampling can be defined as "... the act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population" (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:72) which will only be possible if the selected sample truly represents the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:101). There are two broad types of sampling methods for the social sciences: (i) probability sampling and (ii) non-probability sampling (Browne, 2005:119; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:199; Walliman, 2006:76; Teddlie & Yu, 2007:77).

With probability sampling, the researcher randomly selects cases from a population, and the probability of selecting cases for inclusion in the sample can be determined

(Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:713; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:199). With non-probability sampling, the researcher deliberately (non-randomly) selects specific cases in an attempt to solve a research study's questions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007:77). As the probability of selecting cases for inclusion in the sample cannot be determined, generalisations to that population are based on "... leaps of faith rather than established statistical principles" (Couper, 2000:476-477). This sampling method therefore "... relies on the personal judgement of the researcher rather than on chance to select sample elements" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:410) as the researcher, using his/her expert knowledge, selects a 'typical' sample based on certain criteria (Walliman, 2006:78-79).

It was impossible to determine the number of travellers who make up the current study's target population (domestic and international gay travellers that had stayed in Cape Town for a minimum of three nights for leisure purposes). It has been recognised that researching issues related to homosexuality is complex and one particular complexity when investigating gay tourism is locating informants (Monterrubio, 2008:146). The gay traveller can be regarded as a 'hidden population' (Hughes, 2004:72) as it is "... difficult to randomly confront people for an interview because homosexuality is a sensitive sexual identity, which is not visible unless people want to express it themselves" (Månsson & Østrup, 2007:5). The object of analysis being strictly personal and confidential does not allow the use of traditional sampling techniques. It is stated that particular complexities exist with sexuality-focused studies such as this one as the area of human behaviour has a certain 'sensitivity'. In addition, the practicality of obtaining data about marginalised activities (Hughes, 1997:3) often complicates the sampling process, which was the case for the current study as there were very limited *scientific* statistics regarding the number of gay travellers to Cape Town resulting in a useful sampling framework – a list of elements from which the sample is taken (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:73; Zikmund et al., 2013:388) – not being available to inform the sampling process.

Owing to the lack of a sampling framework, all probability-sampling techniques were inappropriate. This necessitates the use of a non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability samples "... may yield good estimates of the population characteristics" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:410), but the researcher cannot guarantee that each case of the sample is representative of the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:2016). Therefore, the

estimates obtained cannot be generalised to the whole population (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:410). The non-probability sampling methods employed for the current study were judgemental sampling, supplemented by convenience sampling and snowball sampling.

i) Judgemental sampling

Judgemental sampling involves the researcher using his/her personal judgment when selecting cases to be included in the sample (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:81; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:412). The researcher, exercising judgement or expertise, "... selects the most productive sample to answer the research question" (Marshall, 1996:522) and believes that the selected cases will represent the population being investigated (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:412). See Section 5.3.2.5.1 for a discussion on how this sampling method was applied to this study.

ii) Snowball sampling

The snowball sampling technique involves identifying cases of interest from members of the desired population who recommend other members who could serve as good examples for study (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:81). As the number of cases grows (snowballs), sufficient data is collected to provide useful information and is often used in studies with 'hidden populations' (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:414; Saunders et al., 2009:240-241; Albano et al., 2012:102; Ersoy et al., 2012:399).

This sampling technique is prone to bias "... as respondents are most likely to identify other potential respondents who are similar to themselves, resulting in a homogeneous sample" (Saunders et al., 2009:240-241). For this type of research, this sampling technique worked well as the researcher aimed to find a homogeneous sample, at least in terms of their sexuality, that is, gay travellers leading the researcher to other gay travellers. Indeed, this sampling method works well when researchers aim to target a "... few individuals who are known to possess the desired characteristics of the target population" and "... substantially increases the likelihood of locating the desired characteristic in the population" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:414). See Section 5.3.2.5.1 for a discussion on how this sampling method was applied for this study.

iii) Convenience sampling

With convenience sampling, the researcher conveniently selects sampling cases (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:411). This form of sampling has a serious limitation as respondents self-select whether they want to take part in the study resulting in samples not necessarily being representative of any definable population (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:412). See Section 5.3.2.5.1 for a discussion on how this sampling method was applied for this study.

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the use of any non-probability sampling technique will have implications as it may not be representative of the population. Hughes and Deutsch (2010:462) argue that owing to high levels of homophobia and the fact that many gay people remain secretive about their sexual preferences, it is difficult, if not impossible, to guarantee that any study in this research area is representative. Respondents often self-select to participate in a study biased towards gay individuals that self-identify, resulting in those who 'hide' their sexual orientation being under represented. Thus, findings from studies of the gay population all face similar problems with sampling (Clift & Forrest, 1999:618). Despite their limitations, non-probability sampling techniques such as those discussed in the preceding paragraphs, are nevertheless considered to be the most effective means of reaching socially marginalised groups (Hughes, 2004:72; Doan & Higgins, 2011:9). When a researcher deliberately selects specific sampling cases, the sample size needs to be examined more closely (Thompson, 2003:160-161), which is discussed next.

5.3.2.4 Sample size

Unlike probability sampling, determining the sample size for non-probability sampling techniques is ambiguous as there is no agreed minimum sample size (Thompson, 2003:175). Malhotra and Birks (2007:409) recommend that the sample size be guided by the average size of samples in similar studies. A selection of previous studies is given in Table 5.1. These studies implemented non-probability sampling techniques and can serve as rough guidelines to determine the current study's sample size.

Table 5.1: Previous studies implementing non-probability sampling techniques

Author	Type of study	Year	Sample size
Jonsson and Sievinen	Master of Tourism and Hospitality Management	2003	342
Thompson	Doctor of Philosophy	2003	279
Zhou	Master of Commerce	2005	350
Haarhoff	Doctor of Technology	2007	250
Ndlovu	Doctor of Philosophy	2009	152
Jotikasthira	Doctor of Business Administration	2010	336
Sixaba	Master of Arts	2013	202
Ntonzima	Doctor of Technology	2014	449

Source: Researcher construct from secondary data

In addition to the above, Malhotra and Birks (2007:409) provide average sample sizes to guide researchers when non-probability sampling techniques are selected, as is the case in the current study, which can be categorised as ‘problem-solving research’ in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Usual sample sizes used in marketing research studies

Type of study	Minimum size	Typical range
Problem identification research	500	1000–2500
Problem-solving research	200	300–500
Product tests	200	300–500
Test-marketing studies	200	300–500
TV, radio or print advertisement (per commercial/ad tested)	150	200–300
Test market audits	10 stores	10–20 stores
Focus group	6 groups	10–12 groups

Source: Malhotra and Birks (2007:409)

Furthermore, as this study implemented cluster analysis (see Section 5.4.2.1) to segment gay travellers, Dolnicar (2002b:4) argues that although there is no heuristic technique for selecting the sample size required for cluster analysis, it is however important that "... the sample size to variable number relation should be critically evaluated before cluster analysis is calculated (by e.g. calculating the number of theoretically possible answer patterns as indicator)". Dolnicar (2002a, 2002b) reviewed tourism segmentation studies that implemented cluster analysis and found that 40 percent of the sample sizes varied in the range of 200 and 500 cases (respondents) (Dolnicar, 2002a:5) and had a median sample size of 293 (Dolnicar, 2002b:4).

Therefore, taking into consideration the examples of sample sizes of previous studies shown in Table 5.1, the guidelines on average sample size in Table 5.2, and the suggestions by Dolnicar (2002a, 2002b) it appears that a sample of 300–500 respondents, with a minimum of 200 cases, is sufficient. As discussed in section 1.5.2.2.1, this study attempted to more than double the suggested minimum sample size ($n = 200$) required for non-probability sampling by aiming for a sample of 500. The final sample size was 506 respondents, much larger than the suggested minimum sample size required for cluster analyses as suggested by Formann (1984) and cited by Dolnicar (2002b:4) in which the minimal sample size should be no less than $2k$ cases ($k =$ number of variables), preferably $5*2k$; that is $5 \times 2 (24) = 240$. De Vaus (1996:79) concludes that "... decision about samples will be a compromise between cost, accuracy, the nature of the research problem and the art of the possible".

5.3.2.5 Questionnaire administration

Malhotra and Birks (2007:267) cite four common modes of survey administration: mail (postal) survey, telephone survey, personal interviews (face-to-face), and electronic (web-based) survey (Table 5.3).

A variety of factors influences the choice of survey methods, including: (i) the availability of time and money; (ii) access to respondents and/or facilities (George, 2008:123), (iii) type of population, (iv) question form, (v) question content, (vi) response rate required, and (vii) duration of data collection (Prayag, 2003:187).

Table 5.3: Different modes of survey administration

Criteria	Mail (postal) survey	Telephone survey	Personal interviews (face-to-face)	Electronic (web-based)
Cost	Low	Moderate	High	Low
Response time	Slow	Fast	Very fast	Fast
Ability to reach geographically dispersed segments	High	Medium	Very low	Very high
Length of questionnaire	Long (4–12 pages)	Short (5–10 min.)	Medium (10–30 min.)	Long (4–12 pages)
Questionnaire complexity	Simple to moderate	Simple only	Simple to complex	Simple to moderate
Respondent anonymity	Possible	Not possible	Not possible	Possible
Rapport with respondents	None	Moderate	High	None
Interviewer bias	None	Moderate	High	None
Need for trained interviewer	None	High	Very high	None
Response rate	Low	Moderate	High	Moderate

Source: Adapted from George (2008:123)

Considering the above factors, it was decided to use a web-based electronic survey as the main mode of data collection for the following reasons:

- Virtual (online) communities provide access to specific populations who share special interests and have common attitudes, opinions and values regarding an activity, issue or problem (Wright, 2005; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:426), which makes it ideal for surveying the gay population.
- People who are reluctant to meet face-to-face can easily communicate via the Internet (Wright, 2005). The Internet is therefore more effective in addressing sensitive issues (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:296), which is of particular importance as this study deals with sexuality which can be regarded as a sensitive issue, and which may lead to refusal to participate in personal interviews.

- To reach a high geographically dispersed sample, the Internet (Table 5.3) yields the highest ability to reach international and domestic gay travellers.

Furthermore, through adopting a web-based electronic survey, the researcher aimed to avoid biased research findings (i.e. only surveying openly gay individuals who patronise gay bars/venues), as respondents could opt to remain anonymous on the web, if they wished, which is not the case for personal interviews (Table 5.3). Therefore, a web-based electronic survey was selected to preserve the anonymity and privacy of respondents while obtaining a higher response rate than could have been the case for personal interviews. Naturally, telephone and mail (postal) surveys were not viable options, given the lack of a sampling framework.

5.3.2.5.1 Self-administered web-based electronic questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, a self-administered web-based electronic questionnaire was the major mode of data collection. Couper (2000:475) suggests that a questionnaire should be easy to complete and understand, and must maintain respondents' interest in order to provide the best possible answers as well as minimise respondent error. The questionnaire was designed in a program called SurveyPlanet™, discussed next.

One of the reasons the Internet is chosen over other modes of self-administered surveys is the possibility of incorporating audiovisual stimuli (Couper, 2000:474). A striking image of Cape Town was used as the cover of the electronic questionnaire to attract potential respondents' attention. SurveyPlanet allows for the electronic questionnaire to be designed for a variety of devices including desktop computers, smartphones (mobiles) and handheld tablets (SurveyPlanet, 2016), and it could therefore be completed by respondents on the move or in the comfort of their homes. Web-based electronic questionnaires are posted on a website and use hypertext markup language (HTML), the language of the Internet. Respondents are requested to click on a hyperlink to complete the questionnaire, which is considered to be a form of convenience sampling (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:273) in which respondents themselves select whether they want to take part in the research either by advertising through appropriate media that will most likely reach the targeted population or by asking them to take part through postings on relevant internet newsgroups and discussion groups, feature articles, and/or email

invitations to friends and colleagues (Saunders et al., 2009:241).

For this study, gay travellers were initially targeted through contacting a judgement sample of 25 domestic and international gay travel agencies and tour operators, to mirror the main tourism source markets for the Western Cape province as identified by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2014), and included the UK, Germany, the US, the Netherlands, France, Australia, Brazil, and Canada. By targeting these specific countries, the likelihood that the majority of respondents would originate from the same source markets as the Western Cape's mainstream (heterosexual) source markets was increased. Some of these travel agencies and tour operators agreed to distribute the questionnaire hyperlink to customers on their databases who had previously travelled to Cape Town by introducing the research project via email, and inviting travellers to follow the hyperlink which redirected them to the questionnaire on the SurveyPlanet website. Based on the researcher's judgement, certain screening questions can be introduced to pre-screen the respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:426), hence the introductory paragraph prior to starting the survey read:

"A doctoral study is being conducted to investigate the motivational factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday as well as to determine the destination attributes that attract these travellers to Cape Town. Your input in answering the questions that follow would be greatly appreciated. All responses will be treated as confidential and your privacy and anonymity will be preserved. The survey will take on average about 15 minutes to complete. In order to take part in the survey, you need to have visited Cape Town for longer than three nights for holiday purposes and identify as gay."

In a second attempt to obtain relevant data, a judgement sample of 194 gay travel-related groups and virtual (online) communities on the social networking sites Facebook.com, Twitter.com and Tumblr.com was contacted and requested to share the hyperlink to the questionnaire with a short message that read:

"Been on holiday in Cape Town? A study wants to find out why gay travellers go on holiday and what about the city attracted you to it. Click on the link to start the survey."

Once respondents clicked on the link, they were redirected to the same introduction as quoted in the preceding paragraph to ensure that respondents were screened according to the population criteria (domestic and international gay individuals who had travelled to Cape Town for a minimum of three nights for leisure purposes). As a third attempt to get information, the researcher advertised the study. Owing to the high costs associated with

international advertising, it was decided to only advertise in the UK and the US, the top two tourism source countries for South Africa (South African Tourism, 2015c:7). Therefore, because of budgetary constraints, the hyperlink was advertised through banner ads, as well as email blasts to the databases of *Gay Times Magazine* (UK) and Edge Media Network (US).

A crucial aspect of online questionnaires is to ensure that the respondents do not respond more than once (Couper, 2000:479; Wright, 2005; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:426). To overcome multiple completions, SurveyPlanet codes and numbers each questionnaire response allowing the researcher to easily spot questionnaires submitted more than once. Each survey response had detailed respondent analytics including a survey number, email address (if provided), location (country and city) in which the survey was taken, browser type used, and the date the survey had been taken, and indicated the hyperlink referral site which allowed the researcher to easily determine from which source the questionnaire originated. Finally, prior to submitting the electronic survey, the final question asked participants to recommend and forward the hyperlink to other potential participants; thus the study also implemented snowball sampling.

It is acknowledged that web-based electronic questionnaires do have disadvantages. Self-selection bias is of particular concern (Wright, 2005) and only respondents who are internet-users can be reached (Lück, 2005:5). As argued throughout this chapter, it is very difficult to access gay travellers who are not open about their sexuality, i.e. those not visiting gay venues (bars and nightclubs), which reinforces the use of web-based electronic questionnaires as respondents could be more easily accessed in virtual (online) communities (Lück, 2005:5). Furthermore, concerns of representativeness and replicability (Couper, 2000:476-477) prevent researchers from making generalisations about their research findings (Wright, 2005). Oversampling is often implemented as a technique to enhance the credibility of a non-probability web-based electronic survey (Kehoe & Pitkow, 1996; Uys, 2016). Oversampling was expected to overcompensate for the weaknesses of the non-probability sampling methods employed for this study. As discussed in Section 5.3.2.4, Table 5.2 suggested a minimum sample size of 200 cases (respondents). This study attempted to more than double the suggested minimum sample size ($n = 200$) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:409) required for non-probability sampling by aiming for a sample of 500.

The questionnaire hyperlink went live on 26 May 2016 and ran until the end of January 2017 when the desired sample size was reached.

5.4 Data analysis

Following the data-collection process, the raw data from each questionnaire must be prepared for statistical analysis (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:475) as the quality of results obtained from performing statistical analysis is dependent on how well the data was prepared (Prayag, 2003:188).

5.4.1 Data preparation

The data preparation process involves (i) reviewing all questionnaires for completion quality; (ii) editing of partially incomplete questionnaires; (iii) coding of data; and (iv) cleaning of data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:476), which is discussed next.

Regarding the review of questionnaires for completion, some were excluded from the sample. Those questionnaires with responses showing little variance (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:476) were discarded. For example, in cases where the respondent only ticked 5's in the Likert scales were not considered to be valid and were thus discarded. Editing the questionnaires, for example, assigning appropriate missing (null) values, was not necessary as SurveyPlanet has a built-in function that prevents respondents skipping questions or advancing to the next question without completing the current question. Coding was simplified as SurveyPlanet automatically codes the data. The researcher, when designing the electronic questionnaire in the SurveyPlanet software, assigned values to each possible response. Codes were assigned according to the order of the response alternatives in the questionnaire, for example, the first response alternative for the first question received code one, the second alternative code two, and so on (Jonsson & Sievinen, 2003:52). This procedure of coding was applied to all closed-ended questions and for the Likert scales responses were coded from 1 to 5, where 1 equalled 'not at all important' and 5 'very important'.

The next step of data preparation, the cleaning of data, was done after exporting the electronic questionnaire data to an Excel spreadsheet, a function offered by

SurveyPlanet. The spreadsheet did not require an inspection of minimum and maximum error values as the survey was electronically coded. The spreadsheet was then imported to the IBM SPSS (version 23).

5.4.2 Selection of data analysis technique(s)

As this study attempts to identify sub-segments of the gay segment, the approaches to market segmentation should be deliberated on to guide the methods of data analysis. The literature refers to two principal market segmentation approaches, namely the 'a priori' approach and the 'post hoc' approach (Bigné et al., 2008:154; Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012:3), also referred to as 'a posteriori' or data-driven methods of segmentation (Dasgupta, 2011:122; Dolnicar & Grün, 2011:2). The a priori segmentation approach involves selecting the base to be used for segmentation in advance (Dolnicar & Grün, 2011:2; Boekstein, 2012:93; Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012:3). The population is therefore divided according to prior knowledge to identify tourist segments, and is also referred to as 'commonsense segmentation' (Dolnicar, 2004:244). The most popular bases to segment a market using the a priori approach in tourism include: purpose of travel, use of package tours, destination preference, distance travelled, duration of trip, mode of travel, use of travel agents, accommodation types, length of time spent planning the trip (Smith, 1995:102), and geographic variables or demographic variables (Boekstein, 2012:93), which are then used to identify similarities and differences in the variables of interest between/among the resulting segments (Prayag, 2010:4-5).

A limitation with the a priori segmentation approach is that the most appropriate segmentation base may not be chosen resulting in ineffective tourist segments (Jago, 1997:100). Furthermore, Dolnicar (2004:244) argues that this approach does not provide a competitive advantage as it is widely used in tourism segmentation studies. The post hoc segmentation approach overcome these limitations (Jago, 1997:100), and is increasingly used by tourism researchers (Bigné et al., 2008:156), where a set of variables (data) is first used as the base to cluster the respondents in homogeneous groups (Prayag, 2010:4-5) based on similar responses to the variables in the segmentation base (Jago, 1997:100; UNWTO, 2007:6; Dolnicar & Grün, 2011:2). For example, tourists can be segmented according to the attributes (pull factors) that attract them to a destination. Some travellers may wish to visit cultural and historical sites, while

others may prefer activities including sunbathing, swimming, adventure (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling) or wildlife (special animals). Some travellers may be attracted to the destination because of the cost of the trip or value for money received, while others may focus on the local food and beverages and uniqueness of accommodation available (Boekstein, 2012:92). Furthermore, attributes are perceived differently by different types of travellers (Zhou, 2005:12-13), suggesting that different market segments seek different attributes in a destination.

These destination attributes (pull factors) would become the data according to which the tourists are segmented, based on the relative importance attached to each attribute and this is often referred to as 'attribute-based benefit segmentation', a form of benefit segmentation in which the destinations' attributes are used as benefits (Frochot & Morrison, 2000:24). Prayag (2010:4) suggests using the importance levels of attributes for segmentation purposes as attributes that are important to current travellers are likely to be important for future travellers, thereby enabling the identification of attributes that are likely to influence future travel behaviour. This should result in homogeneous sub-segments of gay leisure travellers who are seeking similar benefits from their holidays. Essentially, for this study, a priori or 'commonsense' segmentation is conducted first as the "... starting point is already a sub-grouping of the population of tourists" (Dolnicar, 2004:244-245), i.e. gay leisure travellers. A post hoc method of segmentation is then performed for the selected sub-segment. The sub-segmentation of tourism segments appears to be popular as various examples of such studies can be found in the literature (Silverberg et al., 1996; Dodd & Bigotte, 1997; Formica & Uysal, 1998; Kastenholtz et al., 1999; Moscardo et al., 2000; Dolnicar, 2002c; Hsu & Lee, 2002; Boekstein & Spencer, 2013; Sixaba, 2013; Kruger et al., 2016).

5.4.2.1 Factor-cluster segmentation

One of the most popular statistical methods to conduct post hoc (data-driven) segmentation is factor-cluster segmentation, which, unlike a priori segmentation, produces segments analytically by means of a two-step procedure, a factor analysis followed by a cluster analysis (Smith, 1995:13; Dasgupta, 2011:122). Factor-cluster segmentation "... involves first factor analysing the full set of variables included in the segmentation base and then using the resulting factor scores in the cluster analysis"

(Dolnicar & Grün, 2011:2). A major consideration when conducting factor-cluster segmentation is the identification of the most appropriate variables to use as these variables should explain and predict tourist behaviour (Jago, 1997:100). Thus, a potential limitation with data-driven segmentation is that the researcher has to make a judgement about the characteristics (variables or data) to use (Prayag, 2010:5) for factor-cluster analysis.

By applying factor-cluster analysis, 'automatic' or 'natural' homogeneous segments are identified and techniques such as psychographics and demographics can be applied to profile the members of the segments and assist in explaining the buying behaviour of each segment (Jago, 1997:100). Andereck and Caldwell (1994) noted that demographics rarely varied among market segments and concluded that they provide too little information to base marketing strategies on. Johns and Gyimóthy (2002:316) support this view and argue that although socio-economic and demographic characteristics such as income, gender and age have traditionally been used for segmentation purposes and to predict purchasing behaviour, these characteristics offer indirect indications of buyer intentions and may therefore "... be more useful as supplementary rather than as primary bases for defining tourist market segments". Loker and Perdue (1992:35) add that "... benefit segmentation has the advantage of being based upon predictive, causal factors, and when combined with key descriptive variables, provides clear insight into marketing and communication strategy formulation". Therefore, tourism segmentation studies increasingly use benefit segmentation as this method offers a variety of applications in contrast with traditional segmentation methods, since it has the ability to provide marketers with "... a more complete picture of customers, from their motivational profiles to behavioural and socio-economic characteristics, which may be useful in a positioning or promotional strategy" (Boekstein, 2012:94).

The application of a factor-cluster segmentation approach, where factor analysis reduces the number of variables before clustering (pre-processing of data), has been questioned by some researchers (Dolnicar, 2002a; Weaver & Lawton, 2005; Dolnicar & Grün, 2008; Dolnicar & Grün, 2011). Dolnicar (2002a:8) argues that "... by running factor analysis, part of the structure (dependence between variables and thus distance information) that should be mirrored by conducting cluster analysis is eliminated".

Dolnicar and Grün (2008) conducted a simulation study by means of a factor-cluster analysis and clustering without pre-processing (raw data) to provide empirical evidence that factor-cluster analysis is not the most appropriate approach for market segmentation. Dolnicar and Grün (2008:70) concluded that the factor-cluster segmentation approach "... significantly reduced the success of segment recovery". Dolnicar (2002a:15; 2002b:7). Furthermore, Dolnicar and Grün (2011:3) are of the strong opinion that data pre-processing, when possible, should be avoided. Dolnicar (2002a:15) argued that "... if either standardisation or dimension reduction is conducted, the motivation for doing so should be very strong, as both kinds of pre-processing either transform the data space, or lead to substantial loss of information".

Owing to criticism, an increasing number of studies conduct cluster analysis without pre-processing the data when segmenting tourism markets (Boekstein, 2012:95), with some studies referring to cluster analysis as 'classification analysis' or 'numerical taxonomy' (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:671). For example, Morrison et al. (1994) conducted cluster analysis to segment Australian domestic travellers according to holiday activities. Weaver and Lawton (2005) conducted cluster analysis on a sub-segment of Australian ecotourists. Pesonen et al. (2011) conducted cluster analysis to segment tourists visiting Finland based on benefits sought. Boekstein and Spencer (2013) conducted cluster analysis to segment visitors to thermal springs in the Western Cape province of South Africa based on activity participation. Cluster analysis is "... a toolbox of highly interdisciplinary techniques of multivariate data analysis" (Dolnicar, 2002a:4) that uses a "... specified set of variables to classify a specified set of objects or subjects into relatively uniform clusters" (Weaver & Lawton, 2005:211) and is "... mostly an exploratory technique" (Hair et al., 2000:594) that does not follow a specific formula since it relies heavily on the data being explored (Dolnicar, 2002a:2).

The resulting segments house cases (respondents) that are fairly similar in terms of these variables and different from cases in other segments (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:671). Wedel and Kamakura (1998:19), Dolnicar (2002b:3) and the UNWTO (2007:6) contend that clustering is a highly popular tool for data-driven (post hoc) market segmentation, and it was therefore used for this study to categorise gay travellers (cases) into different sub-segments based on the relative importance attached to each of the destination's attributes (pull factors) (the specified set of variables). In addition, but entirely

independent of the cluster analysis, contrasts between sub-segments can be tested through background variables (Dolnicar, 2002a:4) such as gender, age and other relevant variables (Weaver & Lawton, 2005:212) and were used as supplementary segmentation bases as suggested by Johns and Gyimóthy (2002:316). Thus, the identified sub-clusters or sub-segments were cross-tabulated with travel motivation (push factor) characteristics (see Section 5.4.2.2), socio-demographic characteristics, travel behaviour characteristics, travel pattern characteristics, and expenditure patterns to statistically test for any significant differences between/among the sub-segments. The outcome of cluster analysis was used to compile profiles, or a typology of gay leisure travellers.

Typologies significantly assist with tourism planning and development (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:19-20), therefore the processes of developing a typology and the methodology applied are critical as the success of future marketing actions based on a suggested typology depends on the quality of the segments produced (Dolnicar, 2002b:3). Therefore, the next part of the chapter explains the processes (steps) that were followed in cluster analysis for this study and the related statistical methods applied for this purpose.

5.4.2.2 Conducting cluster analysis

The suggested steps involved in conducting cluster analysis include: (i) formulating the problem; (ii) selecting a distance measure; (iii) selecting a clustering procedure; (iv) deciding on the number of clusters; (v) interpretation and profiling of clusters; and (vi) assessing the reliability and validity (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:674).

i) Step one: Formulating the problem

Malhotra and Birks (2007:674) state that this step involves the selection of the variables on which the cluster analysis will be performed and suggest that the variables be obtained from secondary data (previous research), theory or "... a consideration of the hypotheses being developed or tested". As discussed in Section 5.3.2.1 on questionnaire design, a literature review was conducted to establish what Cape Town's most attractive and important attributes (pull factors) were that were used in similar

studies. Thus, the variables for cluster analysis were borrowed from previous studies, specifically those of Prayag (2003) and Zhou (2005), who researched the attractive attributes of Cape Town among mainstream travellers. To date, no study has specifically determined the important attributes for gay travellers to an African sun and beach destination, or Cape Town specifically, hence the literature review was expanded to identify a list of possible attributes (pull factors) of Cape Town for the gay traveller. The resulting number of destination attributes (variables) was 24 pull factors. Respondents were requested to rate the relative importance of each of following attributes (pull factors) that attracted them to Cape Town on a five-point Likert scale (1 = not at all important, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neither important nor unimportant, 4 = important, 5 = very important):

- V₁ Culture & history (monuments, heritage, arts, local customs)
- V₂ Dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery
- V₃ Relaxing atmosphere
- V₄ Gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays
- V₅ Beaches
- V₆ Gay/nude beach
- V₇ Climate/weather
- V₈ Local gay culture/gay venues (gay village)
- V₉ Local food and wine including restaurants
- V₁₀ Safe and secure destination related to personal safety
- V₁₁ General tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites
- V₁₂ Cost/Value for money (inexpensive holiday)
- V₁₃ Mainstream event
- V₁₄ Gay event
- V₁₅ Ease of access into destination
- V₁₆ Wildlife, special animals
- V₁₇ Unique accommodation
- V₁₈ Nightlife (bars, clubs and other entertainment)
- V₁₉ Sport/exercise and wellness facilities
- V₂₀ Shopping facilities
- V₂₁ Nature, adventure offering (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling, etc.)
- V₂₂ Same-sex marriage laws
- V₂₃ Diversity and cosmopolitan reputation
- V₂₄ Unique 'African' city

ii) Step two: Selecting a distance measure

Clustering aims to group similar variables together, and as a result, some measure of similarity is required to determine how similar or dissimilar the clustered variables are (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:675). According to Dolnicar (2002a:10), the measure of

similarity "... underlying any kind of cluster analytic procedure plays a central role and strongly influences the outcome of analysis". The most popular measurement approach is to measure the distance between pairs of variables with smaller distances indicating similarities and larger distances indicating dissimilarities (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:675). It is therefore important to ensure that within a cluster (segment) there should be high similarity in behaviour between members and low similarity between members of different clusters (Smith, 1989:39; Morrison et al., 1994:44; Jago, 1997:99; Coccossis & Constantoglou, 2006:18). Although there are several ways of computing the distance between two variables, a commonly used measure of similarity in the social sciences is the Euclidean distance – "... the square root of the sum of the squared differences in values for each variable" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:675).

iii) Step three: Selecting a clustering procedure

There are two main types of clustering procedures: hierarchical and non-hierarchical. Hierarchical clustering "... is characterised by the development of a hierarchy or treelike structure" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:676) in which members are clustered according to their natural similarity (Johnson & Wichern, 2007:671-673).

Hierarchical clustering, the most commonly applied type of cluster analysis (Weaver & Lawton, 2005:211), can be further subdivided into divisive or agglomerative clustering (Baggio & Klobas, 2011:79). Divisive clustering starts "... by placing all cases into a single, large cluster and progressively sub-dividing one cluster at a time into two clusters, according to the rules that focus on maximising the differences between the clusters obtained from each division", whereas agglomerative clustering "... works by characterising each case as a single cluster and step by step joining the most similar pairs of clusters until all clusters are joined together in a single large cluster" (Baggio & Klobas, 2011:79). Agglomerative methods comprise variance methods, linkage methods, and centroid methods, of which Ward's procedure is the most frequently used variance method when conducting hierarchical cluster analysis (Dolnicar, 2002b:7; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:676). Variance methods attempt to generate clusters to minimise the within-cluster variance. Ward's procedure, as a variance method, calculates the means for all variables for each cluster and is explained by Malhotra and Birks (2007:678) as involving the measurement of the squared Euclidean distance to the cluster means for each

variable, and then calculating the distances for all variables to arrive at a total. Malhotra and Birks (2007:678) further explain that "... at each stage, the two clusters with the smallest increase in the overall sum of squares within cluster distances are combined".

In selecting the clustering procedure for this study, it was decided to rely on literature precedence. It appears that Ward's procedure is favoured in the social sciences and is a particular technique used in tourism segmentation studies based on the frequency with which it is encountered in the literature (Dolnicar, 2002a; Weaver & Lawton, 2005; Dolnicar, 2008; Smith & Costello, 2009; Perera et al., 2011; Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Kruger et al., 2016). Furthermore, Dolnicar (2008:138) argues that although a number of clustering procedures are available, Ward's procedure is particularly used in data-driven segmentation studies, such as this one. According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:678), the choice of a distance measure (step two) and the choice of a clustering procedure (step three) are interrelated. They suggest using the squared Euclidean distances with Ward's procedure. Therefore, a cluster analysis, by means of Ward's procedure with Euclidean distances, was performed on the scores of the pull attributes.

iv) Step four: Deciding on the number of clusters

Unlike non-hierarchical clustering in which researchers decide on the number of clusters, the cluster structure or the number of clusters is not defined a priori when performing hierarchical clustering (Johnson & Wichern, 2007:671-673): instead, clusters are suggested by the data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:672). To calculate the number of clusters, it is suggested to use the distances at which clusters are joined as criteria (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:681). A dendrogram or tree graph – "... a graphical device for displaying clustering results" (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:673) can be used for this purpose to graphically determine the number of clusters (Dolnicar, 2002a:9) by deciding which branches describe meaningful and useful clusters (Baggio & Klobas, 2011:79). Therefore, by applying Ward's hierarchical clustering procedure, the number of clusters can be identified in a heuristic manner by visually analysing the dendrogram (Dolnicar, 2002a:17). Malhotra and Birks (2007:681) suggest that the relative size of the clusters should be appropriate, meaning a relatively balanced number of cases (respondents) are required in the identified clusters. Frochot and Morrison (2000:35) advise running "... several cluster analyses, each with different numbers of clusters, and then [determining]

which solution provides the most meaningful and practical definition of segments”, in an attempt to ensure cluster validity.

v) Step five: Interpreting and profiling clusters

When interpreting and profiling clusters, the cluster centroids – the mean values of the variables for all the cases (respondents) in a particular cluster – need to be examined (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:673; Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014:301). The variables that best discriminate among clusters can be verified by comparing the means of the clustering variables across the clusters with ANOVA (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014:301), a statistical technique for analysing the variance within and between means for groups (categories) of data, represented by the *F* ratio or *F* statistic (Saunders et al., 2009:458). A large *F* statistic with a probability of less than 0.05 indicates that the variance is statistically significant (Saunders et al., 2009:458). Therefore, for this study, ANOVA was used to assess how clusters are distinct in terms of destination attributes sought followed by the Tukey post hoc test of pairwise mean comparison to further explain where the differences lie, as suggested by Weaver and Lawton (2005:217), Prayag (2010:7-8), Sixaba (2013:78) and Kruger et al. (2016:393-394).

Furthermore, it was most meaningful to profile the clusters based on background variables that did not form part of the cluster analysis (Dolnicar, 2002a:11; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:682). Therefore, descriptive statistics were used to profile the clusters, and to ultimately develop the typology of gay leisure travellers. Clusters were compared through cross-tabulation with chi-squared analysis with regard to travel motivation (push factor) characteristics; socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, relationship status, occupation, income, openness of sexuality, family planning and home environment classification); travel pattern characteristics (destinations visited in the last five years, and how often respondents take international leisure trips); travel behaviour characteristics (travel cohort, loyalty, length of stay, accommodation preference, booking method, holiday/trip type, holiday planning); and expenditure patterns. Cross tabulations are used to identify relationships between pairs of variables (Prayag, 2003:188) by subdividing “... the frequency distribution of one variable according to the values or categories of the other variables” (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:516). The statistical significance of these relationships can be determined by the

chi-squared statistic (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:521) – “... a statistical test to determine the probability (likelihood) that two categorical data variables are associated” and “... commonly used to discover whether there are statistically significant differences between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies of two variables presented in a cross-tabulation” (Saunders et al., 2009:588).

vi) Step six: assessing the reliability and validity

As discussed earlier, cluster analysis is mostly an exploratory technique (Hair et al., 2000:594) and has been described as “... much more of an art than a science” (Hair et al., 1995:428) as the researcher makes several judgements (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:682) and “... highly subjective decisions that underlie the veneer of objective output generated by the computer” (Weaver & Lawton, 2005:214). For these reasons, Malhotra and Birks (2007:682) warn that “... no clustering solution should be accepted without some assessment of its reliability and validity”. The following procedures have been implemented to improve the overall quality of the resulting clusters:

- Frochot and Morrison (2000:35) suggest running multiple cluster analyses with different numbers of clusters, and then “... determine which solution provides the most meaningful and practical definition of segments”. Solutions with two, three, four, and five clusters were explored (see Table 6.13). A four-cluster solution was selected as the most balanced and discriminatory, i.e. common pull factors within clusters, yet different pull factors across clusters after analysing the dendrogram and comparing cluster sizes. To ensure the stability and the quality of the cluster analysis results, several statistical analyses were performed. ANOVAs were used to assess how clusters are distinct in terms of pull factors followed by the Tukey post hoc test of pairwise mean comparisons to further explain where the differences lie, as suggested by Weaver and Lawton (2005:217), Prayag (2010:7-8), Sixaba (2013:78) and Kruger et al. (2016:393-394). Section 6.5.1 discusses this process in more detail.
- Dolnicar (2002a:11) suggests comparing the clusters based on background variables that did not form part of the cluster analysis. Significant differences among the clusters constructed in the clustering process indicate the clusters represent a useful split into market segments (Dolnicar, 2002a:17) and will thus significantly add to the

segments' validity and reliability. This study compared the clusters to background variables by using chi-squared tests. Clusters were compared against the push factors to determine the most important push factors of each cluster. In order to identify the four clusters meaningfully for marketing purposes, the clusters were cross-tabulated with other background variables including socio-demographic and travel behaviour characteristics, as well as expenditure patterns. Section 6.5.1 discusses this process in more detail.

5.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences of CPUT (Annexure B) and ratified by the HDC. Ethical considerations form the basis of conducting appropriate research and deal with the manner in which the researcher conducts the study – the 'rights' and 'wrongs' (Mouton, 2001:238). The main aspects regarding research ethics are informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, and voluntary participation (Heffernan, 2005:89).

Informed consent was ensured with the web-based electronic survey by providing an introductory statement that:

- i. identified the researcher and the university;
- ii. stated the purpose of the research;
- iii. indicated the estimated time needed to complete the questionnaire;
- iv. provided advice on how to make a complaint to the university if needed;
- v. indicated that participation was voluntary;
- vi. noted that no incentives were offered for taking part in the research – to avoid respondent bias;
- vii. ensured anonymity as respondents had the option to not include their email address (the first question of the electronic questionnaire); and
- viii. confirmed that responses would remain confidential and not passed on to a third party.

5.6 Summary

The research adopts a conclusive, cross-sectional descriptive research design for the purpose of developing a typology of gay leisure travellers. Typically, the development of typologies involves a quantitative research methodology, and was thus employed for this study to explain the heterogeneity of the gay segment, by means of sub-segmenting gay travellers into different sub-groups (sub-segments) according to the holiday motivations (push factors) and attributes (pull factors) that attract these travellers to a sun and beach destination, specifically Cape Town. The target population of the study comprised the domestic and international gay travellers that visited Cape Town for longer than three nights and for leisure purposes. The method of survey administration used was a self-administered web-based electronic survey. The study employed a mixture of non-probability sampling methods, specifically judgemental, snowball and convenience sampling, hence it was crucial to discuss the sample size chosen in detail.

Furthermore, for this study, a priori or 'commonsense' segmentation was conducted first as gay leisure travellers are a sub-group of the population of tourists. A post hoc method of segmentation was performed for the selected sub-segment by applying a hierarchical cluster analysis on the scores of the pull attributes using Ward's procedure with Euclidean distances.

In the next chapter the acquired data is analysed and descriptive statistics are used to profile and interpret the resulting clusters, and to ultimately develop the typology of gay leisure travellers. The chapter discusses how the clusters were compared through a cross-tabulation analytic technique with chi-squared analysis with regard to socio-demographic characteristics; travel behaviour characteristics; travel pattern characteristics; expenditure patterns; and travel motivation (push factor) characteristics, as well as how ANOVAs were used to determine the variables that differentiate between the clusters (sub-segments).

CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the results obtained from the online electronic questionnaire of domestic and international gay leisure travellers. This chapter is presented in five main sections. The first section includes the descriptions of the traveller's motivations. The descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviations used to determine the ranking of the most important push and pull motivations are discussed in this section. The second section describes the traveller profile and holiday-related information. Cross-tabulations using Pearson chi-squared values were used to identify relationships between pairs of variables. Comparisons of push and pull motivations for different age groups, sexual identities, relationship statuses, return visitors versus first-time visitors, domestic versus international travellers, and those with children and those without, were made. In addition, it was necessary to determine if the place in which respondents resided at home (i.e. conservative versus liberal environment) and whether they were open or not open about their sexuality had a significant influence on their travel motivations.

The third section addresses the travel patterns of gay leisure travellers by comparing the frequencies and percentages of the most common 'gay-friendly' urban, beach and island destinations for male and female travellers respectively. After evaluating the overall motivations of the respondents, and discussing the traveller profiles, holiday-related information and travel patterns, the fourth section reveals whether these travellers can be segmented meaningfully into different groups by performing attribute-based cluster analysis. Several statistical analyses, including ANOVAs and cross-tabulations with chi-squared tests were used to identify, interpret and profile each cluster regarding socio-demographic characteristics; travel behaviour characteristics; travel pattern characteristics; and expenditure patterns. The last section of this chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

6.2 Travel motivations

The push-pull framework (discussed in Section 4.6.1.2) suggests motivations fall into two categories: push factors and pull factors (Klenosky, 2002:386) and is one of the most widely implemented frameworks used for market segmentation purposes (Prayag, 2010:2; Cohen et al., 2014:882). As mentioned in Section 5.3.2.5.1, a self-administered web-based electronic questionnaire was the major mode of data collection. Owing to the questionnaire's being online, it was difficult to prevent sexual identities other than gay from participating in the study. It was therefore decided to open the questionnaire to anyone within the LGBT community who wished to provide input; however, as the study aimed to develop a typology of homosexual (gay men and women) leisure travellers, sexual identities such as bisexual and transgender were excluded for market segmentation (see Section 6.5) but included for descriptive statistics, discussed below.

6.2.1 Push motivations

Respondents were required to rate the importance level of the push factors in their decision to take a holiday on a five-point Likert scale. The standard deviation (SD) describes the extent to which data values differ from the mean (Saunders et al., 2009:445) and provides a reflection of how homogeneous or heterogeneous a sample is (Ramchander, 2004:121-122). All push factors received ratings from the lowest (1) to the highest (5), with comparatively high standard deviations (SDs) suggesting a relatively heterogeneous sample. The means of each push factor were calculated to determine the importance scores. The mean importance scores were used to rank the individual push factors, and are presented in Table 6.1. The higher the mean, the more important the push factor, and the lower the mean the less important the push factor.

Table 6.2 provides a more detailed analysis of each push factor, categorised under the following headings: physiological, knowledge, belonging, self-actualisation, esteem and personal needs. The percentage of respondents regarding these push factors as 'Important' or 'Very important' is categorised under the heading 'Strong push factor', the percentage regarding them as 'Neither important nor unimportant' under the heading 'Neutral push factor' and the percentage regarding them as 'Unimportant' or 'Not important at all' under the heading 'Weak push factor'.

Table 6.1: Push factors' mean scores (n = 506)

Rank	Push factor	Mean Score	Std. deviation
1.	Opportunities for rest and relaxation	4.14	1.051
2.	Escape from everyday life/daily routine	4.03	1.090
3.	Novelty (discovering/exploring a new or exciting place)	3.88	1.197
4.	Enriching myself intellectually (learn something new)	3.61	1.205
5.	Enhancement of kinship relationships (family/friends)	3.47	1.372
6.	Social interaction with other gay people	3.13	1.370
7.	Exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)	3.10	1.366
8.	Opportunity to develop close friendships/romance	3.04	1.402
9.	Nostalgia	2.66	1.364
10.	Opportunity to have a sexual adventure	2.55	1.471
11.	Social recognition/ego enhancement	2.46	1.368
12.	Escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity	2.42	1.455
13.	To get married/go on honeymoon	1.71	1.224

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

The average for 'Strong push factor' in each category of push factors is given. This illustrates the relative importance of specific push factors within the respective categories, and the relative importance of the categories in relation to one another.

Only two push factor groups (categories) had a 'Strong push factor' average of 50% or more, namely 'physiological' needs and 'knowledge' needs.

6.2.1.1 Physiological needs category

The first group, 'physiological' needs category, had two 'Strong push factors' with more than 50% of respondents regarding these as important. A large majority of respondents (78%) were motivated by opportunities for rest and relaxation which ranked as the most important overall push factor, followed by 74% of respondents travelling to escape their everyday life/daily routine, which was ranked as the second most important overall push factor (Table 6.1). Although opportunities for rest and relaxation and to escape from everyday life/daily routine were important push factors found in most general tourism studies (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Cha et al., 1995; Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Klenosky, 2002; Kassean & Gassita, 2013), so too did these push factors appear in gay tourism studies (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Pritchard et al., 2000; Hughes, 2006; Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009;

Hughes & Deutsch, 2010; Fimiani, 2014), which suggested that the most important factors that push LGBT individuals to travel were in fact comparable with those of mainstream travellers.

Table 6.2: Push factors grouped into categories (n = 506 in %)

Category	Push factors	Weak push factor	Neutral push factor	Strong push factor	Average (Strong push factor)
Physiological	Opportunities for rest and relaxation	7	15	78	52
	Escape from everyday life/daily routine	9	17	74	
	Opportunity to have a sexual adventure	52	18	30	
	Escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity	56	19	25	
Knowledge	Novelty (discovering/exploring a new or exciting place)	13	16	71	67
	Enriching myself intellectually (learn something new)	18	23	59	
Self-actualisation	Exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)	32	25	43	43
Belonging	Enhancement of kinship relationships (family/friends)	23	21	56	37
	Social interaction with other gay people	31	30	39	
	Opportunity to develop close friendships/romance	35	24	41	
	To get married/go on honeymoon	78	11	11	
Personal	Nostalgia	44	27	29	29
Esteem	Social recognition/ego enhancement	52	25	23	23

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

This study, therefore, supports the findings of Clift and Forrest (1999), Pritchard et al. (2000) and Hughes (2006) in that the most important push factors for LGBT travellers to go on holiday are not related to sexuality and are therefore common among all travellers. This finding is reinforced by one respondent who stated: “I travel for my interests not my sexual orientation”, while another stated that “... much travel is done for the sake of travelling, with being gay having nothing to do with it”. This could indicate that much of the literature on LGBT travel is becoming outdated, evident in these responses, or at

least that not all LGBT travellers are motivated to travel for the same reasons, which became even more evident when segmenting these travellers. Therefore, to avoid making conclusions based on Westernised perspectives only as a majority of respondents to this study originated from the Western world, chi-squared tests were used to compare the push factors (see Section 6.5.1) with the sub-segments identified by the cluster analysis as it may very well be that some of these 'sexuality-related' push factors were important to some respondents.

The 'physiological' push factors that were less important were opportunities to have a sexual adventure and to escape their disapproving societies to freely express their gay identities. In Section 4.6.4.3 it was proposed that travelling permits the traveller to indulge in sexually permissive behaviour that is often socially constrained in the home environment (Dann, 1977:18; Hughes, 2002:307; Monterrubio & Bello, 2011:17). An argument was based around sex as a predominant feature in many gay tourism studies; however the phenomenon was found to be evident in mainstream tourism studies too. Clift and Forrest (1999) found that nearly two-thirds of gay men placed some emphasis on the importance of sexual activity in their holiday motivations. It does seem that this need, according to the 30% of respondents who attached importance to travelling for sex, is becoming less important, and therefore the finding supports Ballegaard and Chor (2009), Hughes and Deutsch (2010) and Köllen and Lazar (2012) in that travelling for sex is only important to some, but by far not the most important push factor for LGBT travellers, as 52% of respondents attached no importance to this factor and it is, therefore, a 'Weak push factor'.

In Section 4.6.4.1 it was found that various sources emphasised the need for some gay individuals to go on holiday to escape a heteronormative world to express their gay identities as a result of anti-gay discrimination and social disapproval commonly experienced in the home environment. This need is, however, not linked to Iso-Ahola's (1982) "Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation" (presented in Figure 4.2) in which escape is proposed as a motivator to flee the everyday environment. In this study it refers to a specific need to escape the burdens of being gay in a largely heterosexual world, hence it was included as an additional push factor. One quarter (25%) of respondents travelled for this purpose and it appeared to be a 'Weak push factor', which

contradicts the findings of Pritchard et al. (2000:274) who identified this as the most important push factor for gay travellers to go on holiday.

6.2.1.2 Knowledge needs category

The second group, the 'Knowledge' needs category, had two 'Strong push factors', novelty and to learn something new. More than two-thirds (71%) of respondents were motivated by novelty, i.e. to discover and explore a new or exciting place. Novelty, one of many psychological needs that play a significant role in causing a person to feel a disequilibrium that can be corrected through a tourism experience (Kim & Lee, 2002:257), seemed to be one of the major push factors for mainstream travel. Both Klenosky (2002) and Prayag (2010) developed market segments and found that the largest segments of their samples belonged to the 'novelty seeker' segment. Yuan and McDonald (1990) argued that novelty was the most influential push factor in their study, and although not the most important factor pushing LGBT travellers to travel in this study, it is the third most important push factor overall (Table 6.1). More than half (59%) of respondents were motivated to travel to learn something new or to enrich themselves intellectually. This finding correlates with previously conducted mainstream studies identifying the most important push factors for travel that found 'learning-related' push factors to be important (Klenosky, 2002; Correia et al., 2007; Khuong & Ha, 2014). In addition, Yen and Yu (2012:42-43) developed market segments and found that almost a quarter of their study sample belonged to the 'excited learner' segment. Therefore, the 'Knowledge' needs category suggested that LGBT travellers go on holiday to discover and explore new and exciting places and to enrich themselves intellectually, as do most other travellers.

6.2.1.3 Self-actualisation needs category

Less than half of the respondents (43%) were motivated to travel to gain insight about themselves. As discussed in Section 4.6.4.2, Hughes (2002:304) and Herrera and Scott (2005:260) argued that some gay individuals experiment with gay identities that are constrained in the heteronormative home environment which push them to travel. Herrera and Scott (2005:260) further argued that the holiday provides gay travellers with a "... more positive conception of self" as they gain new insights about themselves,

pointing to the self-actualisation need of general travel motivation (Mill & Morrison, 1992:20; Hughes, 1997:6; Carolan, 2007:3; Pike, 2016:210).

6.2.1.4 Belonging needs category

While slightly more than a third of the respondents (37%) were motivated to travel related to the 'Belonging' needs category, some 56% regarded the enhancement of kinship relationships (family and friends) as an important factor to go on holiday. This push factor was another classical socio-psychological motive first identified by Crompton (1979). Oh et al. (1995), Yuan and McDonald (1990), Formica (2000), Yoon and Uysal (2005), and Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) all point to the importance of this push factor in that many travellers develop the need for visiting family and/or friends in a different destination.

Of the less important push factors in the 'Belonging' needs category appeared to be for opportunities to develop close friendships/romance, which 41% of respondents regarded as important, while 39% attached importance to social interaction with other gay people. Clift and Forrest (1999:615), Hughes (2002:299), Melián-González et al. (2011:1032), Köllen and Lazar (2012:64), and Khan (2013:33) propose that some gay travellers have a specific need to socialise with likeminded gay people. According to the findings of this study, it could be suggested that some LGBT travellers travel to 'gay-friendly' destinations where they can meet and develop close friendships and/or romance and interact with other LGBT people, possibly because of a lack of LGBT friends in the heteronormative home environment. Friendships and relationships play an important role in people's psychological wellbeing in general, and their recreation and leisure experiences in particular (Hummel, 2010:79). It should however be noted that owing to the lower importance levels attached to these push factors, developing close friendships and being with other LGBT people while on holiday are not important to all LGBT travellers as this heteronormative environment may not exist, and therefore, they may have ample LGBT individuals to socialise and develop close friendships with at home, evident in the feedback of one respondent: "A gay-safe environment or destination is more important to us than a gay-scene destination. When we travel, we are not looking to interact with gay people only. We want a standard mix of everyone, and feel safe among them". In addition, the need to develop new friendships is not restricted to gay

travel, as this push factor is evident in some mainstream tourism studies too (Crompton, 1979; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Correia et al., 2007).

The least important push factor in the 'Belonging' needs category is also the overall least important push factor (Table 6.1). To get married or go on honeymoon was important to only 11% of respondents while an overwhelming majority (78%) regarded this factor as unimportant. Gay marriages and/or civil partnerships may be a specific push factor for LGBT travellers owing to gay marriages and/or civil partnerships being illegal in the home environment (Thomsen, 2008:43), resulting in a push to get away from these environments, as discussed in Section 4.6.4.1. This push factor, as tested by Thomsen (2008:60), had no relevance to the holiday decision-making process of Danish homosexual men, possibly since gay marriages are legal in Denmark. The current study, although the sample of respondents included individuals from 38 countries, found this to be a 'Weak push factor' and therefore supports Thomsen's (2008) findings. Of note, however, is that gay marriages and/or civil partnerships are only possible at a few destinations, and therefore may be an increasingly important pull factor (Hughes, 2006:135). Indeed, as discussed later in Section 6.2.2.3, same-sex marriage laws seemed to be an important pull factor for more than a third of respondents.

6.2.1.5 Personal needs category

A significantly less important push factor was nostalgia, i.e. longing for the "good old days" (Dann, 1977:190) or visiting places for "old times' sake" (Bansal & Eiselt, 2004:390) which appeared to be a 'Weak push factor', as only 29% of respondents attached importance to this factor. Nostalgia is a classic push factor for travel first suggested by Dann (1977:186), but surprisingly, it is not commonly found in the tourism literature. Kassean and Gassita (2013) found that nostalgia was the second most important push factor among international tourists in Mauritius, while Zhou (2005) found it to be one of the least important push factors among international tourists in Cape Town. In addition, Fairley and Gammon (2006) found nostalgia to be particularly important for sport tourists. As 44% of the respondents of this study regarded nostalgia to be unimportant, it is suggested that it is not a significant push factor for LGBT travellers.

6.2.1.6 Esteem needs category

As discussed in Section 4.6.1.2, Dann proposed two push factors for travel, 'anomie' in which individuals desire to escape from feelings of isolation, and 'ego-enhancement' in which individuals seek recognition and status through travelling (Dann, 1977:187) and hope to boost their ego by taking on an entirely different personality to that at home (Dann, 1977:188). In addition, Dann (1977:187) argued that just as there is a need for social interaction, so too there is a need to be recognised, often described in terms of 'status'. Crompton (1979) named this specific push factor 'prestige'. Regardless of the different descriptions used, this particular push factor stems from Maslow's 'esteem' needs. Prayag (2003:52-53) argued that a potential tourist who has a strong need for recognition in his social environment may travel to a destination simply because 'everyone else' has been to that destination. This particular push factor was important to 23% of the respondents in this study, while more than half (52%) attached no importance to this need. Therefore, social recognition/ego enhancement appeared to be a 'Weak push factor' for LGBT travellers.

6.2.2 Pull motivations

Respondents were required to rate the importance level of the pull factors on a five-point Likert scale that attracted them to Cape Town. All pull factors received ratings from the lowest (1) to the highest (5), with comparatively high SDs, suggesting, as with the push factors, a relatively heterogeneous sample. The means of each pull factor were calculated to determine the importance scores. The mean importance scores were used to rank the individual pull factors, and are presented in Table 6.3. The higher the mean, the more important the pull factor, and the lower the mean, the less important the pull factor.

Table 6.4 provides a more detailed analysis of each pull factor, categorised under the following headings: Culture and sights attributes, Comfort and relaxation attributes, and Gay-related attributes. The percentage of respondents regarding these attributes as 'Important' or 'Very important' is categorised under the heading 'Strong pull factor', the percentage regarding them as 'Neither important nor unimportant' under the heading 'Neutral pull factor', and the percentage regarding them as 'Unimportant' or 'Not

important at all' under the heading 'Weak pull factor'.

Table 6.3: Pull factors' mean scores (n = 506)

Rank	Pull factor (destination attribute)	Mean score	Std. deviation
1.	Dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery	4.47	0.860
2.	Relaxing atmosphere	4.29	0.937
3.	Local food and wine including restaurants	4.19	1.014
4.	Climate/weather	3.90	1.140
5.	Gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays	3.87	1.190
6.	General tourist attractions/well known tourist sites	3.86	1.126
7.	Safe and secure destination related to personal safety	3.83	1.208
8.	Beaches	3.80	1.251
9.	Diversity and cosmopolitan reputation	3.75	1.226
10.	Culture and history (monument, heritage, arts, local customs)	3.56	1.208
11.	Unique 'African' city	3.53	1.413
12.	Cost/value for money (inexpensive holiday)	3.51	1.219
13.	Ease of access into destination	3.49	1.230
14.	Local gay culture/gay venues (gay village)	3.43	1.327
15.	Nature, adventure offering (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling)	3.33	1.421
16.	Nightlife (bars, clubs and other entertainment)	3.22	1.325
17.	Shopping facilities	3.15	1.281
18.	Unique accommodation	3.10	1.338
19.	Wildlife, special animals	3.08	1.404
20.	Same-sex marriage laws	2.88	1.562
21.	Gay/nude beach	2.66	1.518
22.	Gay event	2.62	1.499
23.	Sport/exercise & wellness facilities	2.58	1.336
24.	Mainstream event	2.53	1.309

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

The average for 'Strong pull factor' in each category of attribute is given. This illustrates the relative importance of specific attributes within the respective categories, and the relative importance of the categories in relation to one another.

All three pull factor groups (categories) had a 'Strong pull factor' average of 50% or more.

Table 6.4: Pull factors grouped into categories (n = 506 in %)

Category	Pull factor (destination attribute)	Weak pull factor	Neutral pull factor	Strong pull factor	Average (Strong pull factor)
Culture and sights attributes	Dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery	4	7	89	56
	General tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites	12	20	68	
	Beaches	15	20	65	
	Unique 'African' city	23	19	58	
	Culture and history (monuments, heritage, arts, local customs)	18	25	57	
	Nature, adventure offering (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling)	29	21	50	
	Wildlife, special animals	32	27	41	
	Mainstream event	46	32	22	
Comfort and relaxation attributes	Relaxing atmosphere	5	10	85	56
	Local food and wine including restaurants	7	13	80	
	Climate/weather	10	22	68	
	Ease of access into destination	18	29	53	
	Cost/value for money (inexpensive holiday)	18	30	52	
	Shopping facilities	28	29	43	
	Unique accommodation	31	29	40	
	Sport/exercise & wellness facilities	49	25	26	
Gay-related attributes	Gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays	11	21	68	50
	Safe and secure destination related to personal safety	15	19	66	
	Diversity and cosmopolitan reputation	14	20	66	
	Local gay culture/gay venues (gay village)	23	25	52	
	Nightlife (bars, clubs and other entertainment)	27	29	44	
	Same-sex marriage laws	41	21	38	
	Gay/nude beach	50	17	33	
	Gay event	49	20	31	

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

6.2.2.1 Culture and sights attributes

The first group, 'Culture and sights attributes', had six 'Strong pull factors' with more than 50% of respondents regarding these as important. Almost all respondents (89%) were attracted to Cape Town for its dramatic and beautiful landscape/scenery. This is of

course Cape Town's number one selling point and together with one of the new seven global wonders of nature, Table Mountain (South African Tourism, 2012; Times Live, 2012) as its backdrop, the destination offers the tourist a world of experiences, set in some of the most dramatic scenery to be seen anywhere in the world (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004). In addition, Hu and Ritchie (1993:32) and Formica (2000:39) concluded several years ago that landscape, scenery and climate were universally important destination attributes. Furthermore, as argued by Formica (2000:2), tourism has been defined as a "landscape industry". Therefore, the importance attached to this attribute by respondents comes as no surprise.

Some two-thirds of respondents attached importance to the general tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites (68%) and beaches (65%). Despite classically being of the most important attributes in tourism literature on destination attributes (Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Klenosky, 2002; Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Khuong & Ha, 2014) and Cape Town known as the 'African Riviera' (Pirie, 2007:4), it is surprising that these two attributes were not among the top five overall strongest pull factors (Table 6.3). In contrast, in a study done by Kassean and Gassita (2013), the beach was found to be the most important attribute that pulled travellers to Mauritius. More than half of respondents (58%) were attracted to Cape Town as a unique African city and half (50%) of respondents were attracted to the nature and adventure offerings of the destination, including special interests such as hiking, shark-cage diving and abseiling. In Section 4.7.5 it was argued that although Cape Town is easily comparable to Western gay capitals, its 'African-ness' is unique (Oswin, 2005a:577). Pirie (2007:7) argued that Cape Town is a "... nostalgic trip into the European past" and only marginally 'African', as the city is the only one in South Africa where black South Africans are in a demographic minority, thus offering a Westernised experience completely different from the rest of South Africa (Prayag, 2003:252). This was confirmed by one respondent who stated: "Cape Town is mentioned as a 'unique' African city – most will agree – it's not really representative of South Africa or Africa, it's more of a Eurocentric city in Africa". Therefore, it seems that this unique attribute of Cape Town attracts LGBT travellers.

According to Hughes and Deutsch (2010:457), the interests of gay men may turn from a 'gay-centric' holiday to, for example, adventure holidays – as an inevitable part of the travel career pattern, suggesting that adventure travel is more popular among older gay

men. The findings of the current study contradict those of Community Marketing Inc. (2011:5) which argued that LGBT individuals are much more likely to identify as “urban core travellers” than “outdoor adventure travellers”. As one respondent stated: “Cape Town dramatically outperformed Joburg and Pretoria in its adventure offering which was my main reason for visiting the Cape”. Therefore it is unlikely that more LGBT travellers could regard themselves as urban travellers, at least for the sample of this study, as 50% regarded the adventure attribute to be important.

Of slightly less importance in this category was to see wildlife and special animals, referring to the attraction of the Big Five safaris near Cape Town, as 41% attached importance to this attribute while 32% had no interest in seeing wildlife or special animals. This finding correlates with that of Clift and Forrest (1999) who found that 52% of gay men attached importance to this attribute when planning a holiday. The least important pull factor in the ‘Culture and sights attributes’ category is also the overall least important pull factor (Table 6.3). Mainstream (general) events, such as the Cape Town Cycle Tour and the Two Ocean Marathon, seem to be the least sought-after attribute, with only 22% of respondents attaching importance to this attribute compared with 46% that attached no importance to mainstream events. Although events can create high levels of interest and involvement on the part of both visitors and residents, and some destinations pursue the development of events as a cornerstone of their competitive strategy (Crouch, 2007:27), this attribute does not seem to attract LGBT travellers to Cape Town and can therefore be regarded to be a ‘Weak pull factor’.

6.2.2.2 Comfort and relaxation attributes

The second group, ‘Comfort and relaxation attributes’, has five ‘Strong pull factors’ with more than 50% of respondents regarding these as important. Almost all (85%) respondents viewed a holiday in Cape Town as an opportunity to relax as they were attracted by the destination’s relaxing atmosphere, and a further 80% regarded the culinary offerings (local food, wine and restaurants) to be important. These findings are supported by Clift and Forrest (1999), Ersoy et al. (2012), and Apostolopoulou (2013) who all found that comfort/relaxation and good food are among the most popular pull factors for gay leisure travel. Although a relaxing atmosphere is an important attribute found in most mainstream tourism studies (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Yuan &

McDonald, 1990; Cha et al., 1995; Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Pritchard et al., 2000; Klenosky, 2002; Hughes, 2006; Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010; Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Fimiani, 2014), hospitality services (e.g. food, beverages and restaurants) have traditionally only served a supporting role within the larger tourism industry, and despite being an essential component of the product mix, were not regarded as a strong enough pull factor to attract travellers (Smith, 2007:1).

Smith and Costello (2009:46-47) argued that food is increasingly an important pull factor that attracts travellers to visit a particular destination for the unique culinary experience offered. Interestingly, Correia et al. (2007:77-78) found that food was the 11th most important pull factor among a sample of Portuguese tourists flying to exotic destinations such as Brazil, Morocco, Egypt, Mexico, São Tomé, and Príncipe. In contrast, it would appear that the findings of the current study support Smith's (2007:1) notion regarding the increasing importance of food, as the culinary offerings of Cape Town is one of the most important attributes (third overall important pull factor – Table 6.3) that attracted LGBT travellers, an attribute they regarded more important than, for example, the climate/weather, supposedly a universally important destination attribute (Hu & Ritchie, 1993:32; Formica, 2000:39) to which 68% of respondents attached importance. This could be attributed to the fact that Cape Town was voted third in the Condé Nast Traveller World's Best Food Cities Readers' Choice Awards in 2015 (*Condé Nast Traveller*, 2015). This accolade, therefore, appears to draw many special interest groups, increasingly the culinary traveller (Hattingh & Swart, 2016:1) and evident from the above finding, the LGBT leisure traveller.

Accessibility refers to the overall ease involved in getting to and into the destination and includes factors, among others, such as entry visas, route connections and airport capacities (Crouch, 2007:28). As more than half (53%) of the respondents regarded Cape Town's ease of access to be important, it can be regarded as another 'Strong pull factor'. Section 4.2 argued that owing to the decrease in the price of international air travel, especially with the introduction of low-cost carriers, many developing long-haul destinations (such as South Africa) are becoming more accessible and more affordable (Harrison & Enz, 2005:396; Sarker et al., 2012:162; UNWTO, 2013:3). In addition, McKercher (1998:39) suggested that accessibility could be measured by the time

differences, effort required to access the destination, cost, and travel distance. This notion, particularly relating to cost/affordability and time differences, appeared to be popular among especially European travellers, given South Africa's proximity to the north, as one respondent explained:

"To me, Cape Town's unique inclusiveness, warm welcome, extraordinary natural setting, activities, accessibility, cleanliness, safety and favourable pricing contribute majorly to its attractiveness, paired with no major Europe time difference/jet lag, and frequent air connections".

In comparison, this attribute does not seem significantly more or less important to mainstream travellers travelling to Cape Town, as Prayag (2003:135) found that 61% of mainstream travellers regarded Cape Town's accessibility to be an important attribute of the destination.

In Section 4.7.7 it was argued that South Africa has a favourable exchange rate providing value for money (Tourism Update, 2013b; Smith, 2014; Ellis, 2015; Smith, 2015; Cohen, 2016), which Prayag (2003), Tebje and Ozinsky (2004), and Zhou (2005) found to be one of the most important attributes international travellers considered when choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination. The current study supports this notion in that more than half (52%) of the respondents regarded the 'inexpensive' offering of Cape Town attractive and it would therefore appear to be an equally important attribute for LGBT travellers. Some domestic travellers, however, did not regard Cape Town to be an 'inexpensive' destination offering value for money. One domestic traveller noted: "Cape Town is now considered as very expensive for locals and more aggressive than Jhb", while another stated: "Cape Town is extremely expensive. I feel you get ripped off wherever you travel in the Western Cape".

The 'Comfort and relaxation attributes' that were less important were common attributes easily accessible in the travellers' home environments such as shopping, which was important to 43% of respondents, while 28% did not regard this attribute to be important. This finding is comparable to that of Prayag (2003:198) who found that 43% of mainstream travellers to Cape Town regarded shopping as an important attribute when selecting Cape Town as a holiday destination. Therefore, it would appear that LGBT travellers attached the same level of importance to shopping as mainstream travellers.

Accommodation is one of the most basic requirements for making a traveller's stay a pleasant one (Gie, 2011:7), and is part of the built environment of a destination designed primarily to serve tourists. It can be an important element of the destination's attractiveness (Crouch, 2007:27-28). Prayag (2003:253) found that Cape Town's accommodation offering is one attribute that exceeded travellers' expectations and rated most favourably against competitors (Prayag, 2003:253). While 40% of the respondents of the current study were attracted to the destination's unique accommodation offering, a third (31%) did not regard this to be an important attribute.

The least important attribute in the 'Comfort and relaxation' category was another common attribute easily accessible in the travellers' home environment. Only 26% of respondents viewed sport/exercise and wellness facilities as important, while half (49%) regarded them as unimportant; this can therefore be considered a 'Weak pull factor'. This particular attribute's importance differs across various studies. Oh et al. (1995), Sirakaya and McLellan (1997) and Klenosky (2002) found this pull factor to be an important destination attribute for mainstream travellers; Clift and Forrest (1999) found that 34% of gay men attached importance to this attribute, while 66% attached no importance to it. Therefore, the findings of this study support those of Clift and Forrest (1999), but it would be inaccurate to confirm that sport/exercise and wellness facilities are unimportant to all LGBT travellers as Thinley (2008) and Kassean and Gassita (2013) found that sport, fitness and wellness facilities were not important destination attributes for mainstream travellers visiting Bhutan and Mauritius respectively. Therefore, it can be assumed that this attribute might be important for *some* LGBT travellers and might even be more important depending on the destination.

6.2.2.3 Gay-related attributes

The third category, 'Gay-related attributes', had four 'Strong pull factors' with more than 50% of respondents regarding these as important. It was argued in Sections 4.6.5.1 and 4.7.6 that 'gay friendliness' and tolerance (friendliness of locals towards gays) might serve as an attribute attracting LGBT travellers to Cape Town given the destination's 'gay-friendly' reputation and gay-tolerant society (Cock, 2002:35). More than two-thirds (68%) were attracted to Cape Town's 'gay-friendly' environment and friendliness of locals towards gays, while only 11% attached no importance to this attribute. This finding

correlates with that of Melián-González et al. (2011:1032), who found that 70% of their study sample attached importance to the 'gay-friendly' environment of Gran Canaria. Blichfeldt et al. (2011:9) and Retnam (2012:41) found that 'gay friendliness' was not an important consideration for their study samples, as many of the respondents felt that their sexual orientation had no relevance to their holiday decision-making process. Retnam (2012:41), however, stated that this could be due to roughly half of the study sample not being open about their sexuality and as a result did not wish to show their sexuality while on holiday. Surprisingly, despite a large majority (87%) of the current study's respondents being open about their sexuality in their home environments (see Section 6.3.10), the majority regarded the 'gay-friendly' environment of the destination to be important, suggesting that LGBT travellers' travel behaviour and decision-making processes are influenced by their sexuality. This study, therefore, seems to contradict Ballegaard and Chor's (2009:81) argument that LGBT travellers were not influenced by their sexuality on holidays, and were not motivated by the 'gay friendliness' of a destination. The attribute of 'gay friendliness' appeared to be an important aspect during the holiday decision-making process for a majority of LGBT travellers, despite their being open about their sexuality or not, as it was among the top five most important pull factors – Table 6.3.

The need for safety, as argued throughout Chapter 4, represents a primary motivational force behind human behaviour (Crouch, 2007:32) and is another universally important pull factor in destination selection (Hu & Ritchie, 1993:32) and evident in most mainstream studies on tourism destination attributes (Oh et al., 1995; Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997; Prayag, 2003; Zhou, 2005; Khuong & Ha, 2014). Although travelling may present obvious risks for all travellers, LGBT travellers are particularly vulnerable in unfamiliar places owing to the threat of harassment, disapproval, verbal or physical abuse, discrimination and even criminalisation initiated by those who oppose homosexuality (Hughes, 2005:57), particularly evident in countries in which homosexuality is illegal (presented in Table 4.2). Therefore, LGBT travellers' safety, and approval and acceptance of their sexuality are more likely in a 'gay-friendly' destination (Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:108), which significantly reduces the likelihood of these additional risks (Hughes, 2002:310). Two-thirds (66%) of respondents attached importance to Cape Town's safety and security related to their personal safety, which was surprisingly lower than the importance attached to this attribute by mainstream

travellers to Cape Town. Prayag (2003:198) found that 86% of respondents regarded 'personal safety' as an important factor when choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination. Nevertheless, given the additional risks discussed above, this attribute can be considered a 'Strong pull factor', also evident in the feedback received from two respondents. One respondent stated "Cape Town is a beautiful, very gay-friendly city, and it was the city in South Africa we felt most safe when out and about. The local people, Afrikaners, black, and coloured were all wonderful, especially the gay boys", while another respondent felt "Cape Town is the safest place for the LGBT community which makes it such a relaxing place to spend your holiday in".

Equally important as the attribute of safety was Cape Town's diversity and cosmopolitan reputation, as 66% of respondents attached importance to this attribute. In Section 4.7.4 it was argued that Cape Town is known to be a cosmopolitan city (UNWTO, 2012:23) with a diverse ethnic mosaic comprising various cultural traditions and lifestyles (Zhou, 2005:35) and located in a country that has a progressive democracy that acts with sensitivity and tolerance towards diversity (Tebje & Ozinsky, 2004). It has been proposed that policies supportive of multiculturalism and a cosmopolitan outlook are key characteristics of a successful global city (Stella, 2013:458). Hughes (2006:176) argues that "... cosmopolitanism is associated with acceptance of difference, whether that is of ethnicity or sexuality", and is therefore one of the 'Strong pull factors' attracting LGBT travellers to Cape Town.

In Section 4.6.5.4 it was argued that many of the particular needs of LGBT travellers can be fulfilled in 'gay space' during a holiday (Hughes, 1997:6; Haslop et al., 1998:318; Herrera & Scott, 2005:251; Fimiani, 2014:38); this 'gay space' is a unique attribute LGBT travellers search for when choosing a holiday destination, evident in most literature on gay travel. Some studies (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010; Blichfeldt et al., 2013), however, contradict some of these earlier findings and claim that the literature may be over-emphasising the significance of 'gay space' for gay holidays, although these authors acknowledged the fact that their study samples were drawn from Western gays who could regularly socialise in the ample 'gay spaces' in their home environments, and therefore might have a lesser need to experience these spaces on holiday. In addition, it has been suggested in Section 2.3.2 that the post-modern gay generation see no need to codify exclusionary 'gay spaces' (Nash, 2013:249; Visser, 2014:477), yet it is clear

from the findings of this study that the local gay culture and gay venues of Cape Town were important to more than half (52%) of the respondents, regardless of the fact that most respondents travelled from the Western world. In addition, Clift and Forrest (1999:620) and Melián-González et al. (2011:1034) found that more than 80% of their study samples attached importance to this attribute, which could suggest a decrease in the overall importance of this attribute for gay travel. This study therefore supports Ballegaard and Chor's (2009) finding in that this attribute is not important to all LGBT travellers, as 23% of the respondents attached no importance to this attribute. Nevertheless, in Section 6.3.19, the lack of Cape Town's 'gay scene' was often cited as one of the reasons travellers would not return to Cape Town.

The 'Gay-related attributes' category had four 'Weak pull factors' with less than 50% of respondents regarding these as important and therefore appear to be unimportant in varying degrees. Although it could be argued that 'gay space' or 'gay venues' include the nightlife offerings, these two attributes were separated as 'gay space' or 'gay venues', as discussed in this study in the previous paragraph relating to daytime gay leisure facilities, including bars, restaurants, cafés and shops that are mostly situated in the residential area of De Waterkant; the nightlife refers specifically to night-time activities including bars, nightclubs and other entertainment. Clift and Forrest (1999:620) found that a third of the gay men in their study regarded nightlife at a destination to be an important pull factor. Hughes (2002:306) found that nearly all informants in his study felt that nightlife was an important aspect that they considered during their holiday decision-making process, although not always critical. Melián-González et al. (2011:1034) argued in contrast that nightlife was a critical success factor for gay sun and beach tourism destinations. Retnam (2012) found that nightlife entertainment was one of the most popular activities engaged in by Malaysian gay men while holidaying, and was believed to be the result of Malaysia's not having adequate gay nightlife entertainment. The current study contradicts the findings of Melián-González et al. (2011:1034) and Retnam (2012) as it was found that less than half (44%) of respondents attached importance to Cape Town's nightlife, while 27% did not regard this attribute to be important. This attribute is not exclusive to LGBT travellers and the importance level varies across mainstream tourism studies (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Oh et al., 1995; Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997; Formica, 2000; Prayag, 2003; Zhou, 2005; Kassean & Gassita, 2013). When comparing this finding with that of Prayag (2003:197) who found that the nightlife

and entertainment attributes of Cape Town were only important to 30% of mainstream travellers, it can be argued that LGBT travellers, at least for this study, attached more importance to this attribute.

Section 4.7.8 argued that same-sex marriage laws could be an attribute attracting LGBT travellers to Cape Town, as South Africa is the only country on the African continent in which same-sex marriages are legal (Abbott, 2012; Burns, 2012:22). This attribute was important to 38% of respondents, while 41% attached no importance to it. Although lower in importance when compared with the other pull factors, and being categorised as a 'Weak pull factor', it has to be noted that this was an important attribute to more than a third of the study sample. Therefore, this study supports Hughes's (2006:135) argument that owing to gay marriages and/or civil partnerships being possible in only a few destinations, same-sex marriage laws may still be regarded as an important pull factor, although not one of the most important attributes that pull LGBT travellers to Cape Town.

As discussed in Section 4.4.3, Cape Town's Clifton 3rd Beach has specifically been named as one of the top ten global gay beaches (Raymundo, 2010), while Sandy Bay Beach, Cape Town's only nudist beach (Murphy, 2007:426), has been rated one of the most beautiful nudist beaches in the world (Harrison, 2005:44). The gay/nude beach was an important pull factor for about a third (33%) of respondents and ranked significantly lower than the mainstream beaches (Table 6.3). Therefore, it can be confirmed that these two particular beaches serve as a specific attribute that attract *some* LGBT travellers, although not all, as half of respondents (50%) attached no importance to this attribute.

Much of the literature on gay travel points to events/festivals being a crucial component for a successful gay or 'gay-friendly' destination (Pritchard et al., 1998:277; Visser, 2003a:176; Tourism Northern Ontario, 2014:147) and influence the development of these destinations and their popularity among LGBT travellers (Verdugo, 2010:9). Hughes (2006:135) argued that events/festivals were often the main pull factor for travel to a destination and at other times incidental to the main purpose, as discussed at length in Section 4.6.5.3. Despite Cape Town's numerous gay events/festivals, this pull factor seems to be the least important (31%) in attracting LGBT travellers in the 'gay-related attribute' category. In addition, this pull factor was unimportant to almost half (49%) of

respondents. However, given that almost a third of respondents were attracted to the gay events/festivals, it could be argued that this pull factor is important to *some* LGBT travellers.

Although the nightlife, same-sex marriage laws, the gay/nude beach and gay events/festivals appeared to be less important pull factors, these attributes were important to approximately a third to almost half of all respondents respectively, as discussed in the preceding paragraphs. Therefore, upon closer analysis, it appeared that *some* LGBT travellers were attracted to gay-related features of the destination, also evident in the 'Strong pull factor' average of 50%. For this reason, the pull factors were used as the data according to which travellers were segmented by conducting attribute-based cluster analysis, based on the relative importance attached to each pull factor. This resulted in homogeneous sub-segments of gay (men and women) leisure travellers, which made it clear which sub-segment was interested in the gay-related attributes of the destination (see Section 6.5).

As discussed in Section 6.2, the push-pull framework suggests motivations fall into two categories, namely, push factors and pull factors (Klenosky, 2002:386). When considering which motivations seemed to be important to LGBT leisure travellers, four of Pike's (2016:210) 'needs and tourism motives' as shown in Table 4.4 seem to be particularly important. Physiological (relaxation), safety (security), to know and understand (knowledge) and aesthetics (appreciation of beauty) needs dominate, with self-actualisation, belonging, and esteem needs playing a lesser role.

6.3 Traveller profile and holiday-related information

The traveller profile information regarding the questionnaire respondents is summarised in Table 6.5. ANOVAs and chi-squared tests were used to identify relationships between pairs of variables. ANOVA is a statistical technique used to analyse the variance within and between means for groups (categories) of data and is represented by the *F* ratio or *F* statistic (Saunders et al., 2009:458). A large *F* statistic with a probability of less than 0.05 indicates that the variance is statistically significant (Saunders et al., 2009:458). Similarly, the Pearson chi-squared value is used to test whether there is a significant relationship between two categorical variables at a 5% level of significance. If an

association between two variables exists, the p -value would be less than 0.05 (Prayag, 2003:188).

Table 6.5: Traveller profile ($n = 506$ in %)

Origin	International	53
	South African	47
Country (if international)	UK	13
	Germany	5
	US	11
	Netherlands	4
	France	2
	Australia	2
	Brazil	1
	Canada	5
	Other	10
Gender	Male	91
	Female	8
	Other	1
Age	18 – 20	1
	21 – 30	22
	31 – 40	29
	41 – 50	28
	51 – 60	15
	61 and older	5
Level of education	No formal education	<1
	Primary completed (7 years of schooling)	<1
	Secondary completed (more than 7 years of schooling)	7
	Certificate/diploma	27
	Undergraduate degree	24
	Postgraduate degree	41
Occupation	Student	3
	Education	5
	Admin/sales	6
	Manager/executive	22
	Business professional	20
	Technical	4
	Government employee	5
	Self-employed	17
	Unemployed	2
	Retired	5
	Homemaker	<1
	Medical professional	6
	Other	5
Sexual identity	Gay	87
	Lesbian	6
	Bisexual	4
	Transgender	0.2

	Unlabelled	0.8
	Other	1.2
	Confidential	0.8
Relationship status	Single	36
	In a relationship	38
	Married/Civil Union	25
	Divorced, widow/widower	1
Family planning	Yes, I have a child(ren)	11
	No, I do not want children	56
	No, but I plan on having children in the future	17
	Maybe/undecided	16
Classification of home environment	Closed-minded small city with limited/no gay life and venues	19
	Open-minded large city with a variety of gay life and venues	72
	Village/rural area with limited/no gay life and venues	9
Openness of sexuality in home environment	Yes	87
	No	4
	Somewhat/partially	9

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

6.3.1 Respondent origin

The majority of respondents (53%) were international travellers, while domestic travellers represented 47% of the respondents. The reason for including domestic travellers in this study rather than focusing on international travellers only, is that the domestic travel market was identified in 2014 as one of the “... most critical and tactical markets for Cape Town” (PwC, 2014:29); hence it was vital to also obtain data on domestic LGBT travellers in addition to international LGBT travellers.

The sample of international travellers included individuals from 38 countries, the vast majority (13%) originating from the UK. The next largest group of respondents comprised international travellers from the US (11%), followed by 5% originating from Germany. These countries are the top three leading international source markets for the Western Cape and yield the largest numbers of international tourist arrivals (PwC, 2014:15). A further 5% originated from Canada and 4% from the Netherlands. Furthermore, Australia and France are represented by 2% respectively, followed by 1% of respondents originating from Brazil. Ten percent of international travellers originated

from other countries than those mentioned above. The most frequently mentioned European countries include Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Norway, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland. The most frequently mentioned African countries (other than South Africa as discussed above) include Botswana, Kenya, Madagascar, Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. The most frequently mentioned South American countries (other than Brazil as discussed above) include Chile and Costa Rica. Respondents originating from countries on the continent of Asia include Bangladesh, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand.

As discussed in Section 5.3.2.5.1, the main tourism source markets for the Western Cape province as identified by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2014) are the UK, Germany, the US, Netherlands, France, Australia, Brazil, and Canada. By targeting these specific countries, the likelihood that the majority of respondents would originate from the same source markets as the Western Cape's mainstream (heterosexual) source markets was increased.

To test if there were significant differences among domestic and international travellers' travel motives, chi-squared tests were conducted and revealed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among six of the push factors and eight of the pull factors. An inspection of the importance scores across domestic and international travellers indicated that International travellers regarded the push factors 'nostalgia' ($p = 0.000$), 'to learn something new' ($p = 0.002$), 'novelty' ($p = 0.006$) and the pull factors 'climate/weather' ($p = 0.000$), 'cost/value for money' ($p = 0.000$), 'wildlife and special animals' ($p = 0.000$) and 'unique African city' ($p = 0.000$) significantly more important when compared with domestic travellers. Domestic travellers, on the other hand, attached significantly higher importance to push factors 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity' ($p = 0.017$), 'enhancement of kinship relationships' ($p = 0.005$) and the pull factors 'local gay culture/gay venues' ($p = 0.045$), 'mainstream events' ($p = 0.013$), 'ease of access into destination' ($p = 0.018$) and 'nightlife' ($p = 0.035$) when compared with international travellers.

6.3.2 Gender of respondents

An overwhelming majority of respondents (91%) were male, 8% were female and 1% did not identify as either male or female. It has been well documented that market and academic studies rarely distinguish between gay and bisexual men, and gay and bisexual women, mostly as the number of women participating in these surveys is small (Hughes, 2006:58; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009:24-25). In addition, some studies focus particularly on the gay male traveller, owing to a widespread lack of interest by researchers in general in gay women, and their perception of gay women as a market segment less worth pursuing than that of gay men (Sender, 2002). Although this possible limitation was known to the researcher prior to conducting the research, particular efforts were made to avoid the research findings being biased towards gay and bisexual men. The limited feedback from gay and bisexual women is purely based on the lack of interest among women to participate in the study rather than some subconscious misogyny, as the researcher made various attempts to increase the number of female responses. Nevertheless, the feedback received from gay and bisexual females, although limited, might to some degree provide insight into travel by gay and bisexual women as well.

6.3.3 Age

Most of the respondents (29%) were between the ages of 31 and 40, closely followed by 28% in the category 41 to 50, which indicates that more than half of all respondents were older, while 21% were between 21 and 30 years old. A further 15% of respondents were between 51 and 60 years of age and 5% were 61 and older. Only very few (1%) of respondents were between the ages of 18 and 20.

Retnam (2012:55-56) suggested that it could be worthwhile to explore any significant differences that exist between generations of LGBT travellers or if they tend to cluster within the group in respect of their holiday preferences. Chi-squared tests revealed statistically significant differences for six of the push factors and five of the pull factors ($p < 0.05$) among the different age groups. An inspection of the importance scores across age groups indicated that 'nostalgia' ($p = 0.011$), 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity' ($p = 0.002$), 'social recognition/ego enhancement' ($p =$

0.015), 'novelty (discovering and exploring a new or exciting place)' ($p = 0.026$), 'exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)' ($p = 0.000$), and 'to get married/go on honeymoon' ($p = 0.003$) were significantly more important push factors among younger travellers (between the ages of 18 and 30) compared with older travellers (31 years of age and older). No significant differences were found among push factors for the other age groups. Younger travellers seemed to regard 'safe and secure destination related to personal safety' ($p = 0.012$), 'mainstream events' ($p = 0.008$), 'sport, exercise and wellness facilities' ($p = 0.045$) and 'shopping facilities' ($p = 0.000$) as significantly more important pull factors when compared with older travellers, while 'local food and wine including restaurants' ($p = 0.042$) were more important among older travellers (31 – 50 years of age). The behaviours of gay travellers of different age groups therefore appear to be varied. This study supports Bansal and Eiselt's (2004:395) argument that it may be a cliché that older travellers are mostly interested in cultural and heritage sites, whereas younger travellers are more interested in the outdoors and adventure activities, as no significant differences were found among these specific pull factors, suggesting that these pull factors are not more or less important to specific age groups.

6.3.4 Level of education

An overwhelming majority of the respondents were highly educated with all but 8% having some college/university qualification. In particular, most respondents (41%) held postgraduate degrees, 27% held a diploma/certificate, while 24% held undergraduate degrees. A significantly lower percentage of respondents (7%) completed secondary school (more than seven years of schooling) and less than 1% completed primary school or had no formal education.

As previously discussed in Section 3.2.2, it is widely believed that LGBT individuals have high levels of education as many do not have children and, therefore, have unrestricted time for studying. This study therefore cautiously supports the findings of Holcomb and Luongo (1996:711), Haslop et al. (1998:319), Lück (2005:3), Sweet (2008), and Roth (2010), in that LGBT's appeared to be a highly educated market.

6.3.5 Occupation

Most respondents were either in a management/executive position (22%) or a business professional (20%). A further 17% were entrepreneurs (self-employed), while 6% worked in admin/sales. A further 6% were medical professionals, followed by those who worked in education (5%), were retired (5%), government employee (4%), technical (4%), student (3%), unemployed (2%) and homemakers (<1%). Five percent of respondents had an occupation not mentioned above. The 'other' occupations mainly comprised jobs such as airline cabin crew, hospitality industry workers, researchers, social workers, travel journalists, and travel planners. It is thus clear that LGBT travellers are as diverse in their occupations as is the rest of society, with many of them being business professionals or in management/executive positions.

6.3.6 Sexual identity

A majority of respondents (87%) identified as gay men, followed by 6% identifying as lesbian (gay women). A further 4% of respondents identified as bisexual and 1.2% could not identify with any of the sexual identities provided, i.e. 'other'. Those who did not wish to label themselves and those who felt that their sexual identity was confidential represented 0.8% respectively, while only very few (0.2%) identified as transgender. For the purpose of conducting meaningful statistics, only three sexual identities were included for the below analysis (gay, lesbian and bisexual).

The travel motivations of gay, lesbian and bisexual travellers appear to differ according to their sexual identity. ANOVAs revealed statistically significant differences for the three sexual identities ($p < 0.05$). Gay women attached significantly higher importance to push factors of 'escape from everyday life/daily routine' ($F = 3.020$; $p = 0.050$), while a 'dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery' ($F = 4.970$; $p = 0.007$), and 'gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays' ($F = 3.632$; $p = 0.027$), appear to be significantly more important pull attributes attracting gay women. Gay men attached significantly higher importance to the 'gay/nude beach' ($F = 12.241$; $p = 0.000$), 'nightlife' ($F = 5.029$; $p = 0.007$), 'general tourist attractions/well known tourist sites' ($F = 4.411$; $p = 0.013$), 'climate/weather' ($F = 3.035$; $p = 0.049$), 'local gay culture/gay venues' ($F = 3.880$; $p = 0.021$) as well as 'culture and history' ($F = 6.922$; $p = 0.001$) when compared

with gay women and bisexual men and women. Bisexual men and women regarded 'shopping facilities' ($F = 3.430$; $p = 0.033$), 'mainstream events' ($F = 4.293$; $p = 0.014$), 'unique accommodation' ($F = 3.460$; $p = 0.032$) and 'sport/exercise and wellness facilities' ($F = 7.257$; $p = 0.001$) significantly more important than gay men and women. The gay tourism studies that have included women show that there are substantial differences in the travel motivations of gay women and gay men (Pritchard et al., 2000, 2002; Puar, 2002; Hughes, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009). This study therefore supports these previously conducted studies, but what is less well known is how bisexual travellers differ from gay travellers in terms of holiday motivations. Results of Community Marketing Inc.'s *10th Annual LGBT Community Survey* showed no significant differences between gay vs bisexual men, or lesbian vs bisexual women (UNWTO, 2017a:44). As evident from the above discussion, the current study contradicts Community Marketing Inc.'s findings in that bisexual travellers indeed have different, although not entirely, motivations to travel when compared with gay men and women.

6.3.7 Relationship status

The relationship distribution was almost equal among respondents that were in a relationship (38%) and those that were single (36%). A fairly high percentage (25%) of respondents were married or in a civil union partnership, while 1% were divorced or a widow/widower.

In order to test whether there were differences among push and pull factors for different relationship statuses, chi-squared tests were conducted and revealed statistically significant differences for three of the push factors and four of the pull factors ($p < 0.05$). An inspection of the importance scores indicated that 'to learn something new' ($p = 0.032$), 'exploration and evaluation of self' ($p = 0.014$), and the 'opportunity to have a sexual adventure' ($p = 0.005$) were significantly more important push factors for single travellers, while 'same-sex marriage laws' ($p = 0.003$) was a significantly more important pull factor for married travellers. A possible reason why single LGBT travellers are motivated by a sexual adventure while on holiday might be due to their being "... unattached and because holidays might reduce inhibitions and thus increase the opportunity for sex" (Thomsen, 2008:61). A 'relaxing atmosphere' ($p = 0.028$) was more important to partnered (whether in a relationship, marriage or civil union) travellers, while

'mainstream events' ($p = 0.009$) and 'nightlife' ($p = 0.009$) were more important pull factors for single travellers.

6.3.8 Family planning

An overwhelming majority of respondents (56%) did not want children. This research therefore supports Buford's (2000) findings that LGBT travellers are less likely to have children. In Section 3.2.2 an argument was advanced that heterosexual travellers with children may be limited to travel during school holidays, whereas the lack of children for LGBT travellers allows for flexibility and enables them to travel at any desired time (Hughes, 2006:8). This leads to less seasonal behaviour (Pritchard et al., 1998:277) and is, therefore, particularly advantageous for tourism as tourism is highly dependable on seasons (Kinnunen, 2011:18). However, important to note is that 17% of respondents were planning on having children in the future and a further 16% were undecided. Surprisingly, 11% had one or more children and therefore, referring to all LGBT travellers as 'DINKS' is inaccurate as some LGBT households did include children. Furthermore, Wientjens (2013) argued that children have a considerable influence on the travel motivations and behaviours of LGBT travellers, resulting in their having some particular needs that differentiate them from mainstream travellers, such as a need for 'gay-friendly' accommodation.

In order to test whether there were significant differences between push and pull factors for those respondents with children, those who did not want children, those that were undecided and those that were planning on having children, chi-squared tests were conducted and revealed statistically significant differences for two of the push factors ($p < 0.05$) among the different groups, while none of the pull factors revealed significant differences ($p > 0.05$). 'Enhancement of kinship relationship (family/friends)' ($p = 0.037$) was significantly more important to those respondents with children, possibly owing to the need to visit their children that live in a different destination, while 'to get married /go on honeymoon' ($p = 0.000$) was significantly less important to those without children when compared with the other groups.

6.3.9 Classification of home environment

A majority of respondents (72%) classified their home environments as open-minded large cities (i.e. a liberal environment). Fewer (19%) respondents classified their home environments as closed-minded small cities and a further 9% regarded their home environments to be village or rural areas, suggesting that more than a quarter (28%) of the study sample originated from conservative environments with very few if any gay life and venues, and could therefore be regarded as 'gay unfriendly' which might increase the desire to escape a heteronormative environment. It was important not to make conclusions based on Westernised perspectives only, as a majority of respondents to this study originated from the open-minded large cities in the Western world. It was therefore necessary to determine if the place in which respondents resided at home (i.e. conservative versus liberal environment) had a significant influence on their push and pull motivations as some LGBT travellers might have very different travel motivations depending on the situation and circumstances in their home environments.

Chi-squared tests were conducted and revealed a statistically significant difference for one of the push factors ($p < 0.05$) among respondents travelling from a conservative environment and those travelling from a liberal environment, while none of the pull factors revealed significant differences ($p > 0.05$). To 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity' ($p = 0.001$) was significantly less important to those travelling from a liberal home environment compared with those that travelled from a conservative environment.

6.3.10 Openness of sexuality in home environment

Most respondents (87%) indicated that they were open about their sexuality in their home environments and 9% were somewhat or partially open about their sexuality. Only a very few (4%) respondents concealed their sexuality.

Similar to the data analysed in Section 6.3.9, it was necessary to determine if there were significant differences between travellers' motivations who were open about their sexuality and those that were not. Chi-squared tests revealed statistically significant differences among those that were open and those that concealed their sexuality

($p < 0.05$). These differences, apart from one push factor, had surprisingly little relevance to sexuality. Travellers who concealed their sexuality attached significantly more importance to push factors 'to enrich myself intellectually/learn something new' ($p = 0.009$), 'nostalgia' ($p = 0.007$) and 'to escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity' ($p = 0.025$). Furthermore, the pull factors 'mainstream event' ($p = 0.000$) and 'cost/value for money' ($p = 0.019$) were also significantly more important to those who concealed their sexuality when compared with those who were open about their sexuality, while travellers who were open about their sexuality attached more importance to Cape Town's 'dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery' ($p = 0.005$).

This study therefore supports Hughes's (2006:56), Ballegaard and Chor's (2009:48) and Köllen and Lazar's (2012:66) argument that this need to escape heteronormativity depends on the extent to which the individual lives an openly gay lifestyle, as those concealing their sexuality have a particular need to escape the tension and burdens brought about by their conservative home environments. This study further supports Clift and Forrest's (1999:623) and Herrera and Scott's (2005:249) findings in that this need for escape applied to LGBT individuals who lived in conservative environments that had a limited or no obvious gay community or 'gay space'. In addition, this study does not support Clift and Forrest's (1999:616), Carolan's (2007:36) or Hughes and Deutsch's (2010:456) argument that those living in conservative environments (Section 6.3.9) and those concealing their sexuality (Section 6.3.10) travel in pursuit of sex. No statistically significant differences were found between the need to travel for sex and those concealing their sexuality or those travelling from conservative environments.

6.3.11 Average monthly income

Given the fact that respondents were allowed to indicate their monthly income in the currency of their origin, this study obtained exchange rates on 13 December 2016 for comparisons for a number of countries. The same exchange rates were used throughout the study in order to ensure consistency when comparing average monthly incomes (Table 6.6) and average spending per person per category (Tables 6.8 and 6.17). The actual rates were obtained from the official website of the South African Revenue Services (SARS) (2016). Annexure C provides a list of exchange rates used to convert the foreign currencies to South African rands.

Table 6.6 lists the average disposable monthly income (after deduction of taxes and social security) of male travellers versus female travellers originating from Cape Town’s main international source markets, including domestic travellers. The average incomes should be treated as estimates only rather than being inviolably accurate, as the figures are subject to under and over estimation. Gay and bisexual men described their average monthly disposable income (R64 368) to be higher than that of gay and bisexual women (R42 076). US travellers overall earned the most (R102 693), while Brazilian travellers had the lowest average income (R41 490) followed by domestic travellers (R45 950). Gay and bisexual men earned more than gay and bisexual women in the UK (R96 634), France (R62 542) and South Africa (R47 901), while gay and bisexual women earned more than gay and bisexual men in Germany (R82 980) and the US (R109 488). The total average monthly income (R62 695) appears to be relatively high. This may be due to most respondents being business professionals or in management/executive positions (see Section 6.3.5).

Table 6.6: Average disposable monthly income in rands (*n* = 453)

Country of origin	Male travellers (<i>n</i> = 419)	Female travellers (<i>n</i> = 34)	All travellers (<i>n</i> = 453)
UK	96 634	83 143	95 960
Germany	56 278	82 980	57 391
US	102 171	109 488	102 693
Netherlands	72 042	-	72 042
Brazil	-	41 490	41 490
France	62 542	53 136	61 687
Australia	81 220	-	81 220
Canada	93 746	-	93 746
South Africa	47 901	27 004	45 950
Total (average)	64 368	42 076	62 695

***Rounded off to the nearest whole number**

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Holiday-related information regarding the questionnaire respondents is summarised in Table 6.7.

6.3.12 Travel companion

Half (50%) of the respondents travelled with their partners, alone (27%), or with friends (18%), and only 4% travelled with their families.

Table 6.7: Holiday-related information (n = 506 in %)

Travel companion	Partner	50
	Family	4
	Friends	18
	Alone	27
	Other	<1
Number of visits to Cape Town	First time	24
	Second time	12
	Third time	12
	More than three times	52
Duration of visit	Less than a week	18
	A week	27
	1 to 2 weeks	33
	Between 2 weeks and a month	15
	More than a month	7
Accommodation type used during visit	Gay-friendly guesthouse or B&B	12
	Mainstream guesthouse or B&B	10
	Rent full house/apartment	19
	Gay-friendly hotel	10
	Mainstream hotel	22
	Hostel	2
	Family or friends	21
	Other	4
Holiday type	Independent (self-planned)	94
	Package holiday	5
	Other	<1
Booking method	Internet	76
	Mainstream travel agent	4
	Gay travel agent	4
	Telephone	13
	Other	3
Time spent on planning holiday	Spontaneous decision	18
	Less than 1 month	42
	1 to 3 months	23
	4 to 6 months	10
	7 to 12 months	6
	Other	1
Revisit intention	Yes, definitely	95
	No, definitely not	5
Recommendation intention	Yes, definitely	94
	No, definitely not	6

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Very few respondents (<1%) indicated to have travelled with 'other' companions. The 'other' companions were mainly individuals participating in package group tours.

6.3.13 Number of visits to Cape Town

An overwhelming majority (76%) of respondents were return visitors to Cape Town of whom more than half (52%) had visited Cape Town more than three times, 12% had visited Cape Town for the third time and a further 12% had visited for the second time. First-time visitors accounted for 24% of the responses.

Chi-squared tests revealed statistically significant differences among first-time and return visitors for six of the push factors and eight of the pull factors ($p < 0.05$). An inspection of the important scores indicated that 'nostalgia' ($p = 0.000$), 'enhancement of kinship relationships' ($p = 0.000$), 'opportunities to develop close friendships/romance' ($p = 0.026$) and 'opportunity to have a sexual adventure' ($p = 0.037$) were significantly more important push factors for return visitors, while 'novelty' ($p = 0.000$) and 'to learn something new' ($p = 0.000$) were significantly more important push factors for first-time visitors. Furthermore, pull factors such as 'shopping facilities' ($p = 0.005$), 'ease of access into destination' ($p = 0.004$), 'local food and wine including restaurants' ($p = 0.007$), the 'local gay culture/gay venues' ($p = 0.024$) and 'relaxing atmosphere' ($p = 0.006$) were significantly more important to return visitors, while 'wildlife and special animals' ($p = 0.000$), 'cost/value for money' ($p = 0.040$) and 'culture & history' ($p = 0.006$) were significantly more important to first-time visitors.

6.3.14 Duration of visit

A third (33%) of respondents were visiting between one and two weeks, with 27% visiting for a week and a further 18% visiting for less than a week. Respondents visiting between two weeks and a month accounted for 15%, while 7% visited for more than a month.

6.3.15 Accommodation type used during visit

Most respondents (22%) stayed in mainstream hotels, with family or friends (21%), or rented a house or apartment (19%), while fewer respondents (12%) preferred 'gay-friendly' guesthouses or B&Bs. Ten percent stayed in mainstream guesthouses or B&Bs, and a further 10% in 'gay-friendly' hotels, while only 2% stayed in hostels. Furthermore, some respondents (4%) indicated to have stayed in 'other' accommodation types. The main 'other' accommodation type was that of individuals indicating their ownership of property in Cape Town. Although a wide variety of accommodation was preferred, the hotel industry seemed to be the most popular among LGBT travellers. An interesting observation is made when combining 'gay-friendly' accommodation types (22%) and mainstream accommodation types (32%). Surprisingly, it appeared that almost a third of respondents were more than comfortable staying in mainstream accommodation, which may indicate that fewer LGBT travellers opt for 'gay-friendly' or 'gay-exclusive' accommodation options, contradicting the findings of Melián-González et al. (2011:1032) who found that 100% of their sample attached importance to 'gay-friendly' or 'gay exclusive' accommodation, perhaps as a result of sampling travellers that stayed in exclusively gay accommodation only. However, to avoid downplaying the importance of 'gay-friendly' accommodation, it appeared to be important to a minority of respondents, evident in the feedback below:

"LGBT specific/exclusive accommodation is of great importance as in my personal experience with my partner – we just feel much more safe and comfortable around guests/patrons with the same orientation or a liberal open mind towards the LGBT community".

6.3.16 Holiday type

Most respondents (94%) planned their holidays themselves, while fewer (5%) preferred package holidays. A few respondents (<1%) chose the 'other' option but did not specify the type of holiday they preferred.

6.3.17 Booking method

The Internet seemed to be the most popular method used to book a holiday as 76% of respondents used this method, 13% booked their holiday via telephone, while fewer

booked through a mainstream travel agent or a gay travel agent (4%) respectively. Some of the 'other' (3%) booking methods specified included respondents who did not require making a booking as they either stayed with friends and family or owned property in Cape Town.

6.3.18 Time spent on planning holiday

A majority of respondents (42%) spent less than one month planning their holiday. As discussed in Section 6.3.13, most respondents were return visitors; hence it can be assumed that less planning time was required for those visitors. Roughly one quarter of the respondents (23%) took one to three months to plan their holiday, while 18% made a spontaneous decision. Those that took between four to six months (10%) and seven to 12 months (6%) are assumed to be first-time visitors as much more planning is required. Some respondents (1%) chose the 'other' option and indicated that they took longer than 12 months to plan their holiday as they were planning their wedding and/or honeymoon, while others indicated that there was no planning required as they visit Cape Town often.

6.3.19 Revisit and recommendation intention

Almost all respondents seemed to have been satisfied with their holiday experience, as 95% indicated that they would return to Cape Town in the future. Very few respondents (5%) did not wish to return to Cape Town. These reasons are discussed at the end of this section. Furthermore, an overwhelming majority of respondents (94%) indicated that they would recommend Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination, while fewer respondents (6%) would not recommend it to others.

Oom do Valle et al. (2006:32) proposed a structured equations model of the tourist loyalty intention and suggested that once tourists are generally satisfied (i.e. their expectations have been met and they were satisfied with the destination attributes), they could be regarded as loyal destination visitors depending on their intention to return and willingness to recommend the destination to others. Although this study did not measure visitor satisfaction per se, it can be argued that LGBT travellers are loyal to the destination, evident in the very high rates of future revisit and recommendation intentions. Revisit and recommendation intention has been highlighted as an

increasingly important factor in a saturated marketplace (Puad Mat Som et al., 2012:39) in which competitive destinations attempt to adjust their marketing strategies to increase visitor loyalty and build long-term relationships with these visitors (Baloglu, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Return visitors not only provide a constant source of income and revenue for the tourism destination, increase market share, and generate positive word-of-mouth, but also minimise the costs of destination marketing and operation (Khuong & Ha, 2014:491). The LGBT traveller, therefore, seems to be the ideal target market for Cape Town. Where respondents indicated that they would not return, nor recommend the destination as 'gay friendly', they were asked to explain why in an open-ended question. Of the responses and comments received, four themes emerged: crime and safety concerns, a lack of gay facilities (social scene), racism, and a lack of 'gay friendliness', discussed below.

Crime and safety: A minority of respondents indicated that they had concerns regarding their safety while travelling in Cape Town, and would therefore neither revisit nor recommend the destination. One respondent felt that it was "... not fun having to be extra careful in the murder capital of Africa", referring to the negative perceptions of Cape Town as discussed in Section 4.8.5 regarding the various media articles claiming Cape Town to be one of the "murder capitals of the world" (Berlinger, 2012; Van Mead & Blason, 2014; ABC News, 2015; *World Atlas*, 2015; Business Tech, 2016), while another respondent experienced crime first hand: "I got mugged. Sort out the criminality and poverty".

Gay social scene: A minority of respondents indicated that they were disappointed with the 'gay scene' (entertainment) of Cape Town, which is assumed to be one of the main attributes they were interested in, and would therefore not revisit nor recommend the destination. Two respondents argued that fewer gay travellers were travelling to Cape Town, resulting in a much quieter gay social scene:

"Gay holiday makers, especially international guests, are not visiting Cape Town like before, so the social gay scene had become very quiet".

"The gay scene in Cape Town years ago was fun, vibrant and had many gay visitors coming in; that is all history now. Cape Town has become a boring gay holiday destination, that's why I don't intend going back there anytime soon. I'd rather travel to the international gay destinations".

Another respondent felt that Cape Town's gay leisure offering did not meet his expectations as there were "... not enough gay activities/gay hotels/restaurants and too few compared to other closer destinations", while another argued that "... if you do not like clubbing in the two gay clubs in Cape Town it won't be that much fun. We tried the predominant straight clubs or bars, they are acceptant and not superficial".

Racism: This emerged as one of the main reasons provided for not wanting to return or recommend Cape Town. One respondent felt that the city was "... dangerous, unfriendly, apartheid dead in name only", another felt that the city had "... great nature but the people were disappointing. A lot of racism and even discrimination within gay community". Some respondents felt that the local white people were particularly racist: "... too many racist whites. Not a fun town", and "... people are somewhat racist – especially the white British folk". Racism in Cape Town has been in the spotlight in recent months and media articles regularly report on racist incidents (Klaasen, 2016; Times Live, 2016; Botha, 2017; Solwandle, 2017), and while it is outside the scope of this research to determine why this is the case, it is important to note that a minority of LGBT travellers experienced racism while on holiday in Cape Town.

'Gay friendliness': A final theme that emerged was a lack of 'gay friendliness', as a minority of respondents felt that the destination was lacking in this regard. One respondent felt that "... Cape Town might be the gay capital of Africa but when compared to other cities in Europe, USA or Australia, it's not so gay friendly", while another respondent argued that they "... haven't seen any homophobia, but haven't seen anything 'gay friendly' either. It was like any other city, you are fine as long as you keep a low profile".

6.3.20 Spending patterns

Evident in Table 6.8 is that international travellers spent more in all categories than domestic travellers, and that international travellers' spending was in many instances more than double that of domestic traveller spending.

Table 6.8: Average spending per person per category per visit in rands (n = 494)

Category	International travellers (n = 261)	Domestic travellers (n = 233)	All travellers (n = 494)
Accommodation	16 633	11 872	14 388
Food and drinks (including all restaurants)	9 316	4 185	6 896
Shopping (excluding food and drinks)	6 292	3 625	5 034
Tourism-related activities	4 438	1 055	2 843
Transport (car rental, taxi/cab)	4 250	1 567	2 984
Nightlife (clubbing)	2 715	1 132	1 968
Entertainment (shows, theatre and events)	2 128	1 222	1 701
Other	948	337	660
Average trip total	46 720	24 995	36 474

***Rounded off to the nearest whole number**

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

The largest ranked expenditure by international travellers is ‘accommodation’ (R16 633), while domestic travellers spent R11 872. Other big spending areas for both groups were ‘food and drinks’ (R9 316 vs R4 185) and ‘shopping’ (R6 292 vs R3 625). International travellers spent significantly more on ‘tourism-related activities’ (R4 438 vs R1 055) and ‘transport (car rental, taxi/cab)’ (R4 250 vs R1 567) than domestic travellers. ‘Other’ determinants mentioned by international (R948) and domestic (R337) visitors were donations, wine orders, gifts for hosts/hostesses, spa and wellness, art and ‘personal’ expenses. The smallest part of all travellers’ budgets is the ‘other’ category, followed by R2 128 for ‘entertainment’ (international travellers), and R1 132 for ‘nightlife’ (domestic travellers). The total average individual spending of international travellers was R46 720 per trip, while domestic travellers spent R24 995 per person per trip. This may be due to most international travellers having a higher disposable monthly income when compared with domestic travellers (Table 6.6).

6.4 Travel patterns

This section discusses the travel patterns of LGBT leisure travellers. Evident from the content analysis as discussed in Section 4.5 was that of the more popular gay and ‘gay-friendly’ destinations – there was no clear separation between urban, island or beachbreak destinations. Kozak (1999:16) argued that it is not reasonable to compare a summer and a winter destination or a beach/island and an urban destination. He further

warned against placing all destinations in a 'single basket', and ranking them from the highest (or most popular) to the lowest (or the least competitive). In contrast, Butler (2012:29-30) contended that any destination with similar offerings and even destinations offering significantly different opportunities might also be competitors. Therefore, the 27 destinations were grouped according to urban, beach and island destinations (Table 6.9, 6.10 and 6.11). This assists in determining the most popular destinations among LGBT leisure travellers as well as the destinations that compete with Cape Town for these travellers.

6.4.1 International destinations to be visited over the next three years

Respondents in this study were asked to indicate the international destinations they were planning to visit over the next three years (2016–2018) for leisure purposes. These destinations were pre-selected based on the literature consulted; however, if respondents were planning on travelling to other 'gay-friendly' destinations not listed, they were allowed to add these in order to determine any emerging 'gay-friendly' destinations.

As evident in Table 6.9, the most popular 'gay-friendly' urban destination male travellers were planning to visit over the next three years was London (33%), while New York City (36%) was more popular among female travellers. Other urban destinations that appear more popular among male travellers include Paris and Amsterdam respectively (27%), Berlin (22%), and Madrid (18%), while Mexico City and Tokyo respectively (15%) appeared to be more popular among female travellers. Overall, London (33%) is the most popular 'gay-friendly' urban destination, followed by New York City (32%), Amsterdam and Paris respectively (26%) and Berlin (21%). Other popular urban 'gay-friendly' destinations included Rome (20%) and Madrid (17%). Tokyo (12%), Mexico City and São Paulo respectively (10%), were found to be slightly less popular. Accordingly, the top five most popular 'gay-friendly' urban destinations respondents planned to visit over the next three years included London, New York City, Amsterdam, Paris and Berlin.

Table 6.9: ‘Gay-friendly’ urban destinations to be visited over the next three years

Rank	Destination	Male travellers	Destination	Female travellers	Destination	All travellers
1.	London	33%	New York City	36%	London	33%
2.	New York City	32%	London	33%	New York City	32%
3.	Paris/ Amsterdam	27%	Amsterdam/ Rome	21%	Amsterdam/ Paris	26%
4.	Berlin	22%	Paris	18%	Berlin	21%
5.	Rome	20%	Tokyo/ Mexico City	15%	Rome	20%
6.	Madrid	18%	Madrid	10%	Madrid	17%
7.	Tokyo	11%	Berlin/São Paulo	8%	Tokyo	12%
8.	Mexico City/ São Paulo	10%	-	-	Mexico City/ São Paulo	10%

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

According to Table 6.10, the most popular ‘gay-friendly’ beach destination male (24%) and female (26%) travellers planned to visit was San Francisco. Beach destinations that appeared to be more popular among male travellers included Barcelona (23%), Miami (19%), Sydney, and Vancouver respectively (16%), and Sitges (13%). Among all travellers, San Francisco (25%) was the most popular ‘gay-friendly’ beach destination, followed by Barcelona (23%), and Los Angeles (19%). Other popular ‘gay-friendly’ beach destinations respondents planned to visit included Miami (18%), Rio de Janeiro (16%), Vancouver, Sydney, and Tel Aviv respectively (15%). Less popular ‘gay-friendly’ beach destinations respondents were planning to visit were found to be Buenos Aires (13%), Sitges (12%), and Puerto Vallarta (7%). Accordingly, the top five most popular ‘gay-friendly’ beach destinations the respondents planned to visit included San Francisco, Barcelona, Los Angeles, Miami, and Rio de Janeiro.

Table 6.11 indicates that the most popular ‘gay-friendly’ island destination male travellers planned to visit was Phuket (21%), while Mykonos (18%) was the most popular island destination among female travellers. Gran Canaria (8%) appeared to be more popular among male travellers as none of the female respondents planned to visit this destination. Among all travellers, Phuket (20%) was the most popular ‘gay-friendly’ island destination followed by Mykonos (17%) and Ibiza (14%). The islands of Hawaii (10%) and Gran Canaria (8%) seemed to be the least popular among the respondents.

Accordingly, the top three most popular ‘gay-friendly’ island destinations respondents were planning to visit included Phuket, Mykonos and Ibiza.

Table 6.10: ‘Gay-friendly’ beach destinations to be visited over the next three years

Rank	Destination	Male travellers	Destination	Female travellers	Destination	All travellers
1.	San Francisco	24%	San Francisco	26%	San Francisco	25%
2.	Barcelona	23%	Los Angeles	21%	Barcelona	23%
3.	Miami/ Los Angeles	19%	Barcelona	15%	Los Angeles	19%
4.	Sydney/ Rio de Janeiro/ Vancouver	16%	Rio de Janeiro/ Buenos Aires/ Tel Aviv	13%	Miami	18%
5.	Tel Aviv	14%	Miami/ Vancouver/ Puerto Vallarta	8%	Rio de Janeiro	16%
6.	Buenos Aires/Sitges	13%	Sydney	5%	Vancouver	15%
7.	Puerto Vallarta	7%	Sitges	3%	Sydney/ Tel Aviv	15%
8.	-	-	-	-	Buenos Aires	13%
9.	-	-	-	-	Sitges	12%
10.	-	-	-	-	Puerto Vallarta	7%

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Table 6.11: ‘Gay-friendly’ island destinations to be visited over the next three years

Rank	Destination	Male travellers	Destination	Female travellers	Destination	All travellers
1.	Phuket	21%	Mykonos	18%	Phuket	20%
2.	Mykonos	17%	Ibiza	13%	Mykonos	17%
3.	Ibiza	14%	Hawaii/ Phuket	8%	Ibiza	14%
4.	Hawaii	10%	-	-	Hawaii	10%
5.	Gran Canaria	8%	-	-	Gran Canaria	8%

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

As respondents were planning to visit the above destinations for leisure purposes over the next three years, it can be suggested that the most popular destinations in each

category will compete with Cape Town in attracting LGBT travellers. Sixteen percent of respondents were not planning on travelling to any of the destinations provided in the questionnaire. Ten percent of them did not specify the destinations they were planning to travel to, while the remaining 5.6% were keen to broaden their horizons to Auckland, Melbourne, Cologne, Dublin, Stockholm, and Montreal. These destinations, however, appeared to be far less popular and did not make a difference to the rankings when added to Tables 6.9 – 6.11. Therefore, it can be assumed that the destinations provided in the questionnaire were adequate as most respondents did not feel the need to include additional destinations they regarded to be popular 'gay-friendly' destinations. In addition, there was great difficulty in comparing the findings with previously conducted academic and market research studies on 'gay-friendly' destinations. For example, Clift and Forrest (1999) (discussed in Section 4.4.1.1) and Hughes (2002) (discussed in Section 4.4.1.2) sampled only gay British men's travel patterns, Lück (2005) (discussed in Section 4.4.1.3) investigated the destination choices and travel behaviour of largely Canadian and North American gay men, and Community Marketing Inc. studies (discussed in Section 4.4.2.1) sampled only gay US travellers. This study is unique in comparison with the studies discussed above as it collected travel patterns of LGBT traveller flows from a mixture of different nationalities. Although Out Now Global, as discussed in Section 4.4.2.2, is conducting an ongoing world-wide study with a sample size of over 100 000 respondents from 25 different countries and five continents (Out Now Global, 2012), they do not differentiate between urban, beach and island destinations.

6.4.2 Avoidance of destinations due to sexuality

Owing to the additional risks LGBT travellers face while travelling (discussed in Sections 4.6.5.1 and 6.2.2.3), respondents were asked if there were any destinations that they would avoid travelling to for reasons related to their sexuality. More than one-third of respondents (37%) would not avoid a destination for reasons related to their sexuality, while close to two-thirds (63%) would avoid certain destinations. Those who avoided certain destinations were further asked to specify the destination(s) and their reason(s) for avoiding them. Of the responses and comments received, four main destinations (referring here to entire countries and even continents) emerged, based on the frequency that these destinations were mentioned, and are summarised in Table 6.12. It

is evident that many African destinations, some destinations in the Middle East, some destinations in Eastern Europe, Asia and even the Americas are avoided. These findings are comparable with those of Hughes (2002) as discussed in Section 4.5. Of the reasons for avoidance cited, four themes emerged, namely, laws, religion, safety and homophobia, and politics, discussed below.

Laws: Of the two-thirds of respondents who indicated that they avoided certain destinations because of their sexuality, the discriminatory laws of many countries (discussed in Table 4.2) seemed to be one of the main reasons for avoidance. One respondent noted, "... as a rule, I never travel to countries with anti-gay laws. Lately I try to avoid even flying through them", indicating a total avoidance, while another respondent stated that he avoided destinations where homophobia "... is prevalent in society, and not just in government". Another respondent felt that these destinations did not deserve her money and she avoided them "... because of how they treat gay and lesbian people, death penalties, prison sentences. There's no way I'm giving up my cash for these countries".

Table 6.12: Destinations avoided related to sexuality

Destinations
<p>Africa:</p> <p>Algeria, Eritrea, Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Morocco, Nigeria, Rwanda, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe</p>
<p>Middle East:</p> <p>Dubai, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen</p>
<p>Eastern Europe/Asia:</p> <p>China, Croatia, India, Indonesia, North Korea, Pakistan, Philippines, Poland, and Russia</p>
<p>The Americas</p> <p>Jamaica, North Carolina, Texas, and Washington DC</p>

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Religion: This was a theme that commonly appeared in respondents' feedback and seemed to be another reason LGBT travellers avoided certain destinations. One respondent avoided "... all Islamic countries or cities with big Muslim populations", while another avoided "... the Middle East (including Israel and Turkey), Africa and Eastern Europe due to too many religious fanatics".

Safety and homophobia: This was one of the main reasons provided for avoiding certain destinations and revolved around respondents' fears for their safety owing to the perceived homophobic attitudes of the locals. One respondent would be willing to travel to "... most African, Arab and Asian countries" but would "... not travel openly gay and therefore less comfortably", indicating that he would conceal his sexuality, but would be uncomfortable doing so. Another respondent argued that she "... will not travel to the Middle East or any country where I know my life will be in danger due to my sexual preference". One respondent also avoided "... most African countries, Muslim countries and Russia as it is a huge safety problem to be openly gay and in a same-sex marriage when travelling to these regions".

Politics: Interestingly, a few of the respondents mentioned that they would avoid travelling to certain destinations because of the heads of state of these destinations and their influence on the citizens. Two respondents were concerned about the recent inauguration of the new President of the US in November 2016 and argued that "... with Donald Trump in office, I would rather avoid the US", while another commented "... let's see how Trump's America makes life for LGBT". Another respondent would avoid travelling to Russia "... because of Putin and his homophobic outbursts", referring to Vladimir Putin, President of Russia. Putin is particularly vocal about his dislike of homosexuals by often linking homosexuality to paedophilia (Selby, 2014) and in 2013 signed the country's 'gay propaganda law', which bans "... promotion of non-traditional sexual relationships" (Williams, 2015b), while the Trump administration has been "... cruelly taunting LGBT people about their powerlessness" – from floating the possibility that "... an LGBT-specific discriminatory executive order" could be implemented, to trying to "... undermine protections for transgender schoolchildren" (Thrasher, 2017). Out Now Global found that 82 percent of gay Americans fear a Trump/Pence administration. Pence, the US vice president, was reported in 2000 to favour funding organisations that work to "change gay sexual behaviour", which many interpreted as

supporting electroconvulsive aversion therapy (Lee, 2016).

6.4.3 Frequencies of international leisure travel

Respondents were asked how often they took an international leisure trip (holiday). According to Figure 6.1, a quarter (25%) of respondents were avid international travellers, taking more than two international leisure trips per year, closely followed by 24% of respondents that travelled internationally once a year. A further 16% travelled internationally twice a year. Therefore, a combined total of 65% of respondents are regular international travellers. Furthermore, 19% of respondents travelled internationally once every two years, while 16% of respondents had different travel patterns than the categories provided. The 'other' frequencies of international leisure travel included roughly 6% of domestic travellers that have never travelled outside of South Africa. The remaining 11% mentioned that they would travel when it is affordable as a minority (mostly domestic travellers) indicated that their finances did not allow for frequent international travel. Some also mentioned time limitations for leisure travel because of work commitments. A few domestic travellers also mentioned that they were able to travel on average only every five years or more.

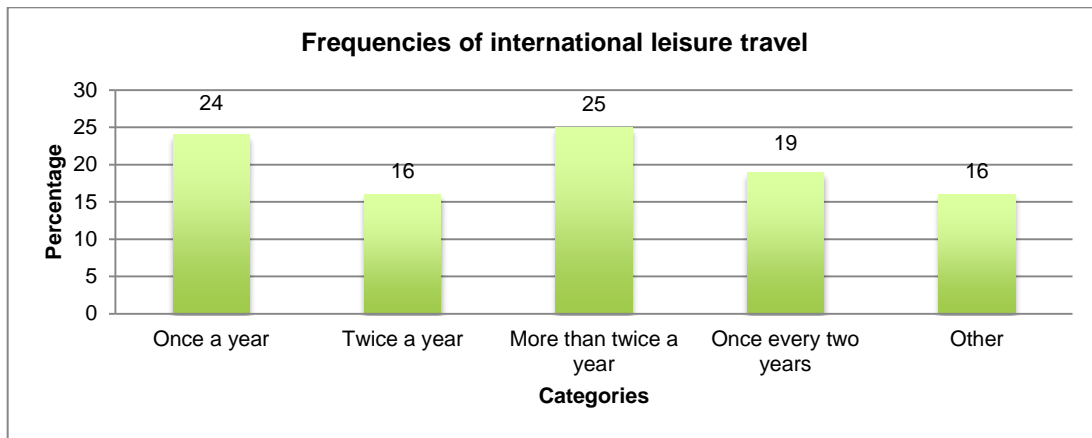


Figure 6.1: Frequencies of international leisure travel

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

6.5 Market segmentation of the gay leisure traveller

As the study aims to develop a typology of homosexual (gay men and women) leisure travellers, sexual identities such as bisexual and transgender were excluded for market segmentation (as discussed in Section 6.2), which resulted in 469 respondents representing 93% of the sample being used for cluster analysis. Nevertheless, the feedback received from bisexual respondents, although limited, provided some insight into whether there were variances among gay and bisexual travellers' motivations (see Section 6.3.6).

Having identified the most important destination pull factors for gay travellers to choose Cape Town as a holiday destination, the next stage in the analysis involved clustering travellers on these pull factors. Following the suggested steps for conducting cluster analysis (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:674), discussed in detail in Section 5.4.2.2, the destination attributes (pull factors) were used as the main segmentation base for market segmentation without pre-processing the raw data as recommended by Dolnicar, (2002a), Weaver and Lawton (2005), Dolnicar and Grün (2008) and Dolnicar and Grün (2011). A post hoc method of segmentation was performed to explain the heterogeneity of the gay market segment and to develop a typology of these travellers by applying a hierarchical cluster analysis on the scores of the pull factors using Ward's procedure with Euclidean distances. With hierarchical clustering, the number of clusters is not defined a priori; instead, clusters are suggested by the data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:672). In other words, members are clustered according to their natural similarity (Johnson & Wichern, 2007:671-673).

By applying Ward's hierarchical clustering procedure, the number of clusters were identified in a heuristic manner by visually analysing the dendrogram (Dolnicar, 2002a:17). Malhotra and Birks (2007:681) suggested that the relative size of the clusters should be appropriate, meaning a relatively balanced number of cases (respondents) were required in the identified clusters. Solutions with two, three, four, and five clusters were explored. A four-cluster solution was selected as the most balanced and discriminatory, i.e. common pull factors within clusters, yet different pull factors across clusters (Table 6.13), after analysing the dendrogram and comparing cluster sizes. In addition, the four-cluster solution was the most readily interpreted and most favourably

met the criteria of identifiability, sufficiency, stability and accessibility, as discussed in detail in Section 3.2.1.1. The four clusters appeared to represent two clusters in which travel behaviour was not influenced by sexuality, while the sexuality of travellers in the two other clusters seemed to influence their travel behaviour to varying degrees.

Table 6.13: The four clusters (n = 469)

Number	Name	Size	% of sample
Cluster 1	Passive Relaxer	83	18
Cluster 2	Wildlife Explorer	126	27
Cluster 3	Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie	183	39
Cluster 4	Gay-Centric Traveller	77	16

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

6.5.1 Identification, interpretation and profiling of the segmented clusters

To ensure the stability and the quality of the cluster analysis results, several statistical analyses were performed. ANOVAs were used to assess how clusters are distinct in terms of pull factors followed by the Tukey post hoc test of pairwise mean comparisons to further explain where the differences lie, as suggested by Weaver and Lawton (2005:217), Prayag (2010:7-8), Sixaba (2013:78) and Kruger et al. (2016:393-394). As Table 6.14 illustrates, ANOVAs indicated that *all* 24 pull factors contributed to distinguishing between the four clusters ($p < 0.05$), thus confirming that the segments were statistically different from one another in their mean scores and that internal validity was present.

External validity, or external criterion analysis, was examined by comparing the clusters with background variables that did not form part of the cluster analysis (Dolnicar, 2002a:11; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:682). In this study chi-squared tests were used to compare the clusters against the push factors to determine the most important push factors of each cluster. The results of the chi-squared test were interpreted by their significance and strength of association. The strength of association is important from a practical viewpoint as the strength of association is of interest only if the association is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:521). The four clusters were cross-tabulated with the 13 push factors, and chi-squared tests revealed statistically

significant differences between the importance scores of *all* push factors ($p < 0.05$) (Table 6.15).

Table 6.14: Results of ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons for pull factors in the four clusters of gay leisure travellers

Category	Pull factor (destination attribute)	Passive Relaxer (N = 83)	Wildlife Explorer (N = 126)	Culinary Enthusiast/ Foodie (N = 183)	Gay-Centric Traveller (N = 77)	F-statistic	Sig. level
Culture and sights attributes	Dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery	4.04	4.50	4.52	4.66	12.624	0.000*
	General tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites	3.11	3.79	4.04	4.52	27.520	0.000*
	Beaches	2.98	3.34	4.16	4.64	44.310	0.000*
	Unique 'African' city	2.14	3.83	3.58	4.49	54.886	0.000*
	Culture and history (monuments, heritage, arts, local customs)	2.99	3.57	3.64	4.17	14.525	0.000*
	Nature, adventure offering (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling)	2.29	3.13	3.50	4.22	32.232	0.000*
	Wildlife, special animals	1.92	3.93	3.13	3.91	34.081	0.000*
	Mainstream event	1.55	1.79	2.90	3.86	102.263	0.000*
Comfort and relaxation attributes	Relaxing atmosphere	3.58	4.23	4.46	4.70	31.772	0.000*
	Local food and wine including restaurants	3.29	4.10	4.55	4.66	40.985	0.000*
	Climate/weather	3.02	3.85	4.20	4.32	29.223	0.000*
	Ease of access into destination	2.16	3.31	3.76	4.55	86.284	0.000*
	Cost/value for money (inexpensive holiday)	2.42	3.63	3.66	4.12	36.417	0.000*
	Shopping facilities	1.86	2.91	3.42	4.25	79.583	0.000*
	Unique accommodation	1.73	2.92	3.32	4.13	67.344	0.000*
	Sport/exercise & wellness facilities	1.49	2.30	2.63	3.83	59.628	0.000*
Gay-related attributes	Gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays	2.81	3.60	4.31	4.61	60.892	0.000*
	Safe and secure destination related to personal safety	2.60	3.65	4.19	4.65	67.729	0.000*
	Diversity and cosmopolitan reputation	2.30	3.71	4.08	4.61	87.169	0.000*
	Local gay culture/gay venues (gay village)	2.47	2.76	4.05	4.56	77.772	0.000*
	Nightlife (bars, clubs and other entertainment)	2.10	2.59	3.73	4.34	91.898	0.000*
	Same-sex marriage laws	1.29	2.42	3.22	4.62	118.110	0.000*
	Gay/nude beach	2.00	1.93	2.80	4.25	61.137	0.000*
	Gay event	1.36	1.81	3.05	4.18	113.244	0.000*

*Significance at the 5% level

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Table 6.15: Cross-tabulation and chi-squared test results of clusters compared with push factor variables

Category	Push factor (importance scores)	Passive Relaxer % (N = 83)	Wildlife Explorer % (N = 126)	Culinary Enthusiast/ Foodie % (N = 183)	Gay-Centric Traveller % (N = 77)	Chi-square probability
Physiological	Opportunities for rest and relaxation	59	79	82	90	0.000*
	Escape from everyday life/daily routine	68	77	71	88	0.008*
	Opportunity to have a sexual adventure	13	14	42	52	0.000*
	Escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity	2	10	30	61	0.000*
Knowledge	Novelty (discovering/exploring a new/exciting place)	55	68	71	87	0.000*
	Enriching myself intellectually (learn something new)	37	55	60	82	0.000*
Self-actualisation	Exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)	18	33	46	71	0.000*
Belonging	Enhancement of kinship relationships (family/friends)	46	49	57	75	0.002*
	Social interaction with other gay people	15	18	48	83	0.000*
	Opportunity to develop close friendships/romance	19	31	44	75	0.000*
	To get married/go on honeymoon	1	8	12	22	0.000*
Personal	Nostalgia	18	27	31	42	0.000*
Esteem	Social recognition/ego enhancement	5	10	25	53	0.000*

***Significance at the 5% level**

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

In order to identify the four clusters meaningfully for marketing purposes, the clusters were cross-tabulated with socio-demographic and travel behaviour characteristics (Table 6.16) as well as income and expenditure patterns (Table 6.17). Chi-squared tests revealed no statistically significant differences across the four clusters in terms of level of education ($p = 0.289$); occupation ($p = 0.240$); openness of sexuality ($p = 0.213$); home environment classification ($p = 0.415$); how often respondents took international leisure trips ($p = 0.097$); number of times they visited the destination (return vs first-time visitor) ($p = 0.404$); length of stay ($p = 0.059$); booking methods ($p = 0.408$); family planning ($p = 0.087$); holiday/trip type ($p = 0.312$); travel cohort ($p = 0.568$) and holiday planning time ($p = 0.133$).

Table 6.16: Cross-tabulation and chi-squared test results of clusters compared with socio-demographic and travel behaviour variables

	Passive Relaxer % (N = 83)	Wildlife Explorer % (N = 126)	Culinary Enthusiast/ Foodie % (N = 183)	Gay-Centric Traveller % (N = 77)	Chi-squared probability
Age					0.003*
18–30	6	23	19	33	
31–50	61	52	64	57	
51+	33	25	17	10	
Relationship status					0.011*
Single	33	29	38	44	
In a relationship	53	34	37	33	
Married/Civil Union	13	36	25	22	
Divorced/widow/widower	1	1	<1	1	
Accommodation type					0.009*
Gay-friendly guest house/B&B/hotel	12	14	28	34	
Mainstream guest house/B&B/hotel	39	38	29	23	
Rent full house/apartment	11	20	22	20	
Hostel	2	2	2	0	
Family or friends	31	25	14	21	
Other	5	1	5	2	

*Significance at the 5% level

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

Table 6.17: ANOVA test results of clusters compared with income and spending patterns

Spending categories & Income	Passive Relaxer (N = 80)	Wildlife Explorer (N = 122)	Culinary Enthusiast/ Foodie (N = 181)	Gay-Centric Traveller (N = 76)	F-statistic	Sig. level
Monthly net income	64 570	65 900	62 064	65 692	0.82	0.970
Entertainment	1 034	1 204	2 013	2 674	7.234	0.000*
Shopping	2 441	4 491	5 394	6 088	3.698	0.012*
Nightlife	1 054	1 486	2 208	3 545	7.248	0.000*
Tourism-related activities	2 431	3 109	2 891	2 893	0.142	0.935
Food & drinks including restaurants	4 719	7 132	7 846	7 079	2.113	0.098
Accommodation	14 107	13 476	13 035	20 463	0.708	0.548
Transport	2 733	2 384	3 474	2 560	0.819	0.484
Total average trip expenditure	28 519	33 282	36 861	45 302	-	-

*Significance at the 5% level

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

The clusters were, however, significantly different in terms of age ($p = 0.003$), relationship status ($p = 0.011$), and accommodation preferences ($p = 0.009$). These descriptives were used to interpret and profile the clusters. This is important for marketing strategy formulation as it provides practical, usable and readily translatable information for each cluster (Sarigollu & Huang, 2005:280).

Once the characteristics had been considered, a label was applied to each cluster to reflect the most important push and pull factors that differentiated each cluster. Tourists are mostly labelled by their main purpose or activity, although most forms of tourism involve more than one purpose or activity (Oppermann, 1999:256). For example, culinary travellers are labelled as such as these individuals travel to experience the culinary offerings of the destination. This does not preclude them from enjoying other attributes of the destination. The same applies to, for example, adventure, medical, sport, and business tourists. It is, therefore, worth mentioning that it was difficult to encapsulate a single label to each cluster owing to the wide variety of information available, discussed below.

6.5.1.1 Cluster 1 – Passive Relaxers

This cluster contained the third largest sample of respondents (83) and had relatively low mean scores across most pull factors (Table 6.14). Likewise, low importance scores were evident for most push factors (Table 6.15). However, in comparison with the other three clusters, this cluster was unique in the sense that respondents seemed to be *only* attracted to the dramatic and beautiful landscape and scenery of the destination. The *only* important push factors with importance scores higher than 50% for respondents in this cluster were for opportunities for rest and relaxation, and to escape from everyday life, suggesting a passive traveller seeking relaxation. In terms of socio-demographics (Table 6.16), respondents in this cluster were mostly between the ages of 31 and 50. However, when compared with other clusters, only 6% were young travellers between the ages of 18 and 30, while a significant percentage (33%) were above the age of 51, suggesting that many respondents in this cluster were mature gay travellers. Respondents were mostly partnered and preferred mainstream hotels, guesthouses, B&Bs and staying with family and friends. It is thus clear that sexuality had no influence on these respondents' travel behaviour, and therefore labelled *Passive Relaxers*.

6.5.1.2 Cluster 2 – Wildlife Explorers

Wildlife Explorers was the second largest sample of respondents (126), and although attracted by the same pull factors as *Passive Relaxers*, this cluster was unique when compared with other clusters in the sense that they were particularly attracted to Cape Town as a unique African city, and the wildlife and special animals (Table 6.14). The respondents in this cluster seemed to be pushed to travel for similar reasons as *Passive Relaxers*, such as to escape from everyday life and to rest and relax.

In addition, and different from *Passive Relaxers*, they travelled to enrich themselves intellectually and to discover/explore new and exciting places (novelty) (Table 6.15) and were, therefore, labelled *Wildlife Explorers*. In terms of socio-demographics (Table 6.16), travellers in this cluster were similar to *Passive Relaxers* in that they were mostly between the ages of 31 and 50. However, a significant percentage (25%) were also above the age of 51. They were mostly married or partnered and also preferred mainstream hotels, guesthouses, B&Bs and staying with family and friends. The pull factor mean scores for gay-related attributes of this cluster, when compared with those of *Passive Relaxers*, appeared to be higher, suggesting that these gay-related attributes could enhance the destination's appeal, but that they are not critical (Table 6.14). However, mean scores of gay-related attributes for both *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* failed to load higher than 4, the important score, suggesting that sexuality had very little if any influence on the travel behaviour of respondents in these two clusters. One interpretation of these findings could be that 'gayness' during the holidays is simply not that important to some gay travellers (Blichfeldt et al., 2011:21-22), resulting in travel behaviours similar to those of mainstream travellers (e.g. seeking a dramatic and beautiful landscape and scenery, opportunities for rest and relaxation, and to escape from everyday life).

6.5.1.3 Cluster 3 – Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie

The *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* cluster was the largest and contained 183 respondents. Although this cluster was attracted by similar pull factors when compared with *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, respondents placed higher importance on a good climate/weather, the beach, general tourist attractions and in particular, the culinary

offerings (food and wine) of the destination and were, therefore, labelled the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie*. In terms of gay-related attributes, a gay culture/village, a 'gay-friendly' environment/friendliness of locals towards gays, a safe, secure, diverse and cosmopolitan destination appeared to be very important attributes for this cluster, although slightly less important than for the *Gay-Centric Traveller* (see Section 6.5.1.4). The respondents in this cluster appeared to be pushed to travel to enrich themselves intellectually and to enhance kinship relationships with family and friends. Social interaction with other gay people, opportunities for sexual adventures and to develop close friendships and/or romance were significantly more important to this cluster than to *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, although they did not seem to be the main motivations for travel (Table 6.15). In terms of socio-demographics (Table 6.16), respondents in this cluster were also mostly between the ages of 31 and 50, with some younger and some more mature travellers, thus suggesting a cluster with a mixture of different ages. Furthermore, respondents in this cluster were a mixture of single and partnered couples and preferred both 'gay-friendly' and mainstream hotels, guesthouses and B&Bs. It is thus evident that the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* travellers' travel behaviour is influenced by their sexuality to a certain degree.

6.5.1.4 Cluster 4 – Gay-Centric Traveller

The *Gay-Centric Traveller*, the smallest cluster with 77 respondents, had the highest mean scores across all the pull factors (Table 6.14) as well as the push factors (Table 6.15). This cluster seemed to be attracted to a relaxing atmosphere, mainstream events, sport/wellness facilities, unique accommodation, shopping, ease of access of destination, the nature and adventure offerings such as hiking, shark-cage diving and abseiling, culture and history, as well as an inexpensive holiday offering value for money, suggesting a traveller interested in a wide variety of mainstream destination attributes. However, when this cluster was compared with *Passive Relaxers*, *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* and *Wildlife Explorers*, it was evident that respondents in this cluster were heavily influenced by their sexuality and their travel behaviour centred on the gay aspects of a holiday. In Section 3.2.1.2 it was argued that only travellers whose holiday behaviours are influenced by their sexuality might be regarded as gay tourists (Thomsen, 2008:40), hence this cluster was labelled the *Gay-Centric Traveller*. The gay aspect of the destination appeared to be a necessity as *all* pull factors loaded above 4

(the important score) in the gay-related attributes category. They regarded a 'gay-friendly' environment/friendliness of locals towards gays, and a safe, secure, diverse and cosmopolitan destination with a strong local gay culture/gay village more important when compared with the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie*. However, unique to this cluster when compared with other clusters was the importance placed on the pull factors of same-sex marriage laws, the gay and/or nude beach, gay events, and nightlife, which indicates a pleasure traveller seeking a 'gaycation' in a more historical destination such as Cape Town (Table 6.14). Furthermore, unique to this cluster, the respondents travelled to socialise with other gay people, to explore and evaluate themselves, for sexual adventures, to develop close friendships and/or romance, to escape disapproving society, and for social recognition/ego enhancement (Table 6.15). In terms of socio-demographics (Table 6.16), respondents in this cluster were also between the ages of 31 and 50. However, when compared with other clusters, a third (33%) of respondents were between the ages of 18 and 30, and almost half (44%) were single, suggesting that many travellers in this cluster were younger, single gay travellers. These findings support Hughes and Deutsch's (2010:460) argument that younger gay individuals "... were more likely to live their social lives in a gay milieu" than were older gay individuals and this followed through into holidays as the gay-related attributes of the destination appeared to be a necessity. The *Gay-Centric Traveller* thus seemed particularly interested in a 'gaycation', a slang term for a gay vacation which includes "... a pronounced aspect of LGBT culture" (Smith et al., 2010:80). Furthermore, respondents in this cluster preferred 'gay-friendly' hotels, guesthouses, B&Bs and staying with family and friends. Higher than 4 (important score) mean scores of pull factors indicate that all gay-related attributes were important to *Gay-Centric Travellers*, whereas only some were important to the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie*, suggesting that sexuality influenced the travel behaviour of respondents in these two clusters, and more so for the *Gay-Centric Traveller*.

Some push factors, including to get married/go on honeymoon and nostalgia appeared to be unimportant for all clusters, while a dramatic or beautiful landscape/scenery was an important pull factor for all clusters.

ANOVAs were used to assess how clusters are distinct in terms of spending patterns and annual monthly net incomes. No significant differences were found among cluster

incomes ($p = 0.97$). However, the four clusters had statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) based on the spending categories entertainment ($p = 0.000$), shopping ($p = 0.012$) and nightlife ($p = 0.000$) (highlighted in Table 6.17). In terms of spending behaviour, *Gay-Centric Travellers* spent the most on entertainment per visit (an average of R2 674), shopping (an average of R6 088) and nightlife (an average of R3 545). *Passive Relaxers* spent the least in these categories (averages of R1 034, R2 441 and R1 054 respectively). Although not statistically significant, it is interesting to note that *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* spent the most on food and drinks compared with the other three clusters, while *Wildlife Explorers* spent the most on tourism-related activities, further confirming and validating the names assigned to these two clusters. *Gay-Centric Travellers* spent the most per person per trip (an average of R45 302), followed by *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* (an average of R36 861). The *Passive Relaxers* spent the least per person per trip (an average of R28 519). It is interesting to note that although the *Gay-Centric Traveller* spent most per person per trip, the *Wildlife Explorer* had the highest average income (R65 900), while the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* had the lowest average income (R62 064).

A multiple responses crosstab was used to identify which destinations each cluster had travelled to in the last five years (2012–2016). A chi-squared test revealed that the clusters had no statistically significant differences ($p = 0.366$) (Table 6.18). However, certain observations can be made in that some destinations appeared to be equally popular among all four clusters: London, Rome, Miami, Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Sitges, and the islands of Hawaii. ‘Gay-friendly’ urban destinations especially less popular among *Passive Relaxers* when compared with other clusters included New York City, Madrid, and Tokyo, while Barcelona appeared to be the only ‘gay-friendly’ beach destination less popular among *Passive Relaxers*. Mykonos, Ibiza, and Gran Canaria, traditionally regarded as stereotypical gay island destinations, were also less popular for this cluster. The *Passive Relaxer*, when compared with other clusters, seemed particularly interested in ‘gay-friendly’ beach destinations such as Puerto Vallarta, Los Angeles, and Vancouver.

Table 6.18: Cross-tabulation of clusters to ‘gay-friendly’ destinations travelled to in the last 5 years (2012 – 2016)

Destination group	Passive Relaxer %	Wildlife Explorer %	Culinary Enthusiast/ Foodie %	Gay-Centric Traveller %
‘Gay’-friendly urban destinations				
London	39	54	48	39
New York City	24	31	37	34
Paris	37	44	36	40
Amsterdam	30	39	36	26
Berlin	23	34	25	25
Rome	22	29	24	22
Madrid	15	28	20	18
Tokyo	6	10	9	5
Mexico City	8	9	4	3
São Paulo	10	10	7	13
‘Gay-friendly’ beach destinations				
San Francisco	28	23	24	16
Barcelona	23	39	40	33
Miami	22	27	23	21
Sydney	15	14	17	21
Tel Aviv	10	13	13	9
Buenos Aires	12	10	10	9
Puerto Vallarta	11	5	7	4
Los Angeles	24	20	19	17
Rio de Janeiro	10	12	8	8
Vancouver	17	14	14	7
Sitges	19	18	21	17
‘Gay-friendly’ island destinations				
Phuket	17	23	19	26
Mykonos	8	18	19	17
Ibiza	6	14	15	12
Hawaii	11	8	8	9
Gran Canaria	8	15	11	12

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

The *Wildlife Explorer* and *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* seemed to enjoy similar ‘gay-friendly’ urban, island and beach destinations, with the exception of Paris, Berlin, and Madrid, which were all more popular among *Wildlife Explorers*. *Wildlife Explorers* and *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* seemed to be drawn to London, Amsterdam, and Barcelona. Vancouver, Puerto Vallarta, San Francisco, and Amsterdam seemed less popular among the *Gay-Centric Traveller*, while Phuket, Sydney, and São Paulo seemed

to be particularly popular with this cluster when compared with other clusters. Overall, *Passive Relaxers* seemed to be less interested in 'gay-friendly' island destinations, while *Wildlife Explorers*, *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* and *Gay-Centric Travellers* travelled to a mixture of 'gay-friendly' urban, beach and island destinations. As there were no statistically significant differences among the clusters, it can be suggested that gay travellers in each cluster enjoy a wide variety of destinations and do not travel to specific destinations only. Although a number of observations were made above, no conclusions can be drawn regarding the most popular destinations for each cluster.

6.5.2 Conclusions from the cluster analysis

Chapter 3 of this thesis discussed in detail whether one could identify a homogeneous gay market segment, and concluded by arguing that a homogeneous gay market segment per se does not exist and that specific sub-segments remain unknown, suggesting a gap in the literature. It was further argued that gay tourism is perhaps incorrectly regarded as a form of niche tourism as a result of the myth that gay men and women lead similar lifestyles and because they are homosexual. The findings of the cluster analysis discussed above shows that no segment is completely homogeneous, as some push and pull motivations overlap and are important to all clusters; however there are group characteristics that strengthen membership. Therefore, it can be concluded that gay travellers are not homogeneous and that there are divergent groups of consumers with different consumer behaviours. It can now be suggested that the sub-segments of the gay market segment be referred to as niches, as individuals within these sub-groups are homogeneous in certain characteristics.

Furthermore, in this study the sample of gay individuals were all regarded to be gay tourists. However, the ambivalence of gay individuals towards gay tourism was revealed by Canavan (2015) (discussed in Section 3.2.2), as none of the individuals who participated in the study considered themselves to be gay tourists. Gay tourism descriptions were seen as unrepresentative, insulting and stereotypical (Canavan, 2015:1), portraying hedonistic gay sun and beach resorts characterised by partying, promiscuity and the pursuit of sexual encounters (Canavan, 2015:3). Furthermore, it was concluded that there is a difference between gay tourism, and mainstream tourism by gay people, as well as that one does not have to identify as gay to pursue gay tourism,

as anyone engaging in hedonistic activities while on holiday could then be regarded as a gay tourist (Canavan, 2015:6). Similarly, Blichfeldt et al. (2011:17) argued that many gay travellers are not interested in visiting stereotypical gay destinations to experience these hedonistic activities as they are simply more interested in other experiences. Therefore, they too argued that not all gay travellers are gay tourists and may instead be labelled “heritage tourists”, “gastronomy tourists”, “culinary tourists”, and so forth, as their travel motivations are not necessarily related to ‘gayness’. They maintain that there are, however, gay travellers who travel for this purpose and those travellers can be regarded as “gay tourists” (Blichfeldt et al., 2011:17). Supporting this view, the results of this study identified four different types of travellers who identify as gay, based on their motivational characteristics. *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* appeared to be interested in mainstream attributes of a destination and were pushed to travel for reasons not related to their sexuality, and can therefore be classified as mainstream tourism by gay people. *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* were motivated by a variety of mainstream push and pull factors in addition to some gay-related push and pull factors, and can therefore be seen as a hybrid of mainstream and gay tourism. Only a distinct sub-segment, the *Gay-Centric Traveller*, can be described as a gay tourist as these travellers were particularly motivated by the gay attributes of the destination and were pushed to travel for reasons related to their sexuality.

There does not appear to be a recent and thorough typology of gay leisure travellers in the literature on gay tourism, with the existing typologies, e.g. Hughes’s (2002) typology of gay men’s holidays, Clift and Forrest’s (1999), and KPMG’s (City of Cape Town, 2002:49) proposed gay market segments not sufficiently explaining the behavioural patterns of gay travellers. In addition, Blichfeldt et al. (2011:7-8) criticised Clift and Forrest’s (1999) and Hughes’s (2002) typology of merely two types of gay travellers as too simplistic.

While the cluster analysis identified four market segments, some segments share characteristics of Clift and Forrest’s (1999), Hughes’s (2002) and KPMG’s findings (City of Cape Town, 2002:49). Hughes (2002), as discussed in Section 4.6.3 and depicted in Figure 4.7, proposed a typology of gay men’s holidays: ‘gay centric’, ‘gay related’ and ‘non-gay’. *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* seemed to enjoy a ‘non-gay’ holiday, as these holidays are no different from those taken by mainstream travellers (Hughes,

2006:58). *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* seem to fit with a 'gay-related' holiday where 'gay space' or 'gay friendliness' and tolerance are somewhat important but do not outweigh other requirements (Hughes, 2002:301). *Gay-Centric Travellers* seem to enjoy a 'gay-centric' holiday, as 'gay space' and experience, on the other hand, are the key attributes looked for in a 'gay-centric' holiday (Hughes, 2006:58) in which nightlife, gay events and gay beaches are considered crucial to a satisfactory holiday experience, and casual sex-contact and socialising with other gay people feature predominantly in the tourists' holiday activities (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010:456).

Furthermore, *Gay-Centric Travellers* seemed to fit KPMG's 'Pink Ravers' segment as this segment also tended to be younger, were mostly single, and were attracted to destinations with well-established gay leisure facilities, a bustling nightlife, cultural attractions, gay festivals/events, a hot sunny climate, gay nudist beaches, and value-for-money offerings. *Gay-Centric Travellers* also shared characteristics with Clift and Forrest's 'gay social life and sex' dimension, as the need for social interaction with other gay individuals and the need to have sex while on holiday were stronger for this segment. In contrast, *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* leaned towards KPMG's Mature Explorers segment as these segments also tended to be older and were mostly partnered/married. Similar to KPMG's Mature Explorers, *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* did not seem to be interested in the gay-related attributes of the destination; hence holiday decisions and travel behaviour were not influenced by their sexuality. There seemed to be a difference in the push and pull motivations when comparing *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* with KPMG's Mature Relaxers, although still mainly mainstream. Strong pull factors for the KPMG's Mature Explorer included, for example, wildlife and natural scenery, good quality food and dining options, outdoor activities, and cultural and historical attractions, whereas these pull factors were found to be important to varying degrees for all four clusters of the current study, hence the two segments as proposed by KPMG do seem to be too simplistic.

Further contradictions were found when comparing KPMG's Mature Explorers segment with *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, and Pink Ravers with *Gay-Centric Travellers*. Mature Explorers were reported to be less price-sensitive than Pink Ravers, whereas this study found that *Passive Relaxers* spent the least per person per trip, while the *Gay-Centric Traveller* spent most per person per trip. In addition, *Gay-Centric*

Travellers had a slightly higher income, although very similar to that of *Passive Relaxers*. KPMG's Pink Ravers enjoyed travelling to popular, well-known and stereotypical 'gay-friendly' destinations, while Mature Explorers were attracted to undiscovered and less well-known 'gay-friendly' destinations. This study found that some 'gay-friendly' destinations were popular across all clusters and that *Passive Relaxers* were not only interested in less popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, as they too visited stereotypical gay destinations such as Sitges. In contrast, *Gay-Centric Travellers* did not only travel to the most popular and stereotypical gay destinations as they too travelled to a wide variety of destinations (Table 6.18). Lastly, *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* share characteristics with Clift and Forrest's 'culture and sights' and 'comfort and relaxation' (Clift & Forrest, 1999:620) dimensions, as the need for culture and sights and comfort and relaxation attributes seems to be more important than gay-related attributes (Table 6.14).

A final conclusion from the cluster analysis is that while destinations have been traditionally promoted in terms of their specific pull attributes, Prayag (2003:53) argued that this may not always be the most effective method as certain travellers are more motivated by push rather than pull factors. In addition, he argued that the attractiveness of a destination depends on the interaction and relationships of push and pull motivations (Prayag, 2003:52). Therefore, the identified four clusters, each with its own set of push and pull motivations could help destinations in their target marketing efforts.

6.6 Summary

The push-pull framework was used to determine the most important motivations for gay leisure travellers. At first, the most important push factors for gay travellers appeared to be for opportunities for rest and relaxation (mean = 4.14), followed by escaping from everyday life and daily routine (mean = 4.03). In Table 6.1 it appears that only these two push motivations, i.e. opportunities for rest and relaxation and escaping from everyday life and daily routine had mean scores higher than 4, which is the value of the "important" level. The push factors related to sexuality that are supposed to be important to gay travellers as suggested by the literature, i.e. social interaction with other gay people, were of neutral importance (neither important nor unimportant) and the push factors, namely opportunity to have a sexual adventure, escape from disapproving

society, and to get married or go on honeymoon appeared to be even lower than 3, suggesting these push factors were unimportant or not important at all.

Similarly, at first, the most important pull motivations among gay travellers appeared to be the dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery (mean = 4.47), followed by the relaxing atmosphere (mean = 4.29). A very surprising finding was that the local food and wine (including restaurants) were among the most important attributes that attracted gay travellers (mean = 4.19), an attribute they regarded more important than, for example, the climate/weather. From Table 6.3 it appears that only these three pull motivations, i.e. dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery, relaxing atmosphere and the local food and wine (including restaurants) had mean scores higher than 4. The gay-related pull factors were all much lower than 4, suggesting these pull factors to be unimportant, or not important at all. Further evidence from Tables 6.2 and 6.4 was that four of Pike's (2016:210) 'needs and tourism motives' seemed to be particularly important. Physiological (relaxation), safety (security), to know and understand (knowledge) and aesthetics (appreciation of beauty) needs dominate, with self-actualisation, belonging, and esteem needs playing a lesser role. It was, therefore, tentatively concluded that the factors motivating a majority of gay travellers were no different from those of most other travellers and therefore largely the same as those of mainstream travellers. Upon closer inspection after conducting cluster analysis, the tentative conclusions above seemed obsolete. The cluster analysis produced four distinct sub-segments of gay leisure travellers and it became clear that at least two sub-segments, i.e. the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* and the *Gay-Centric traveller* were influenced by their sexuality in that they regarded gay-related attributes of the destination important and various sexuality-related push factors motivated them to go on holiday.

Cluster 4, the *Gay-Centric traveller* had the highest mean scores across all the pull factors. Although this traveller was interested in a wide variety of mainstream destination attributes, travellers in this cluster were heavily influenced by their sexuality and their travel behaviour seemed to revolve around the gay aspects of a holiday as *all* pull factors loaded above 4 (the important score) in the gay-related attributes category, while some pull factors in the culture and sights and comfort and relaxation attributes category failed to load above 4 (Table 6.14). Unique to this cluster when compared with other clusters was the importance placed on the pull factors of same-sex marriage laws, the

gay and/or nude beaches, gay events, and nightlife, which indicates a pleasure traveller seeking a 'gaycation' in a more historical destination such as Cape Town (Table 6.14). Furthermore, unique to this cluster, the respondents travelled to socialise with other gay people, to explore and evaluate themselves, for sexual adventures, to develop close friendships and/or romance, to escape disapproving society and for social recognition/ego enhancement (Table 6.15). Cluster 3, the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* traveller placed higher importance on a good climate/weather, the beach, general tourist attractions and in particular, the culinary offerings (food and wine). Gay-related attributes appeared to be very important attributes for this cluster, although slightly less important than for the *Gay-centric traveller*. They appeared to be pushed to travel to enrich themselves intellectually and to enhance kinship relationships with family and friends, while social interaction with other gay people, opportunities for sexual adventures and to develop close friendships and/or romance were significantly more important to this cluster than for *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, although they did not seem to be the main motives for travel and were less important than for the *Gay-Centric traveller*.

Cluster 2, *Wildlife Explorers* was unique when compared with other clusters in the sense that they were particularly attracted to Cape Town as a unique African city, and to the wildlife and special animals. They seemed to travel to enrich themselves intellectually and to discover/explore new and exciting places (novelty). Cluster 1, the *Passive Relaxer*, when compared with the other three clusters, seemed to be *only* attracted to the dramatic and beautiful landscape and scenery of the destination, while the *only* important push factors were for opportunities for rest and relaxation and to escape from everyday life, suggesting a passive traveller seeking relaxation. Mean scores of gay-related attributes for both *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* failed to load higher than 4, the important score, suggesting that sexuality had very little if any influence on the travel behaviour of respondents in these two clusters.

A final conclusion to be drawn from the above sections is that travellers are not all alike, and this is precisely the case for the gay traveller. In fact, the cluster analysis found that they are diverse in motivations (Tables 6.14 – 6.15), age, relationship status, accommodation preferences (Table 6.16) and spending patterns (Table 6.17). The findings of the cluster analysis further showed that no sub-segment is completely homogeneous, as some characteristics overlap; however there are group characteristics that strengthen membership.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter draws conclusions from the conducted literature review and empirical research, and makes recommendations concerning the research.

The aim of this study was to segment gay leisure travellers through 'attribute-based benefit segmentation' to ascertain if significant sub-groups exist. To achieve this aim, the following objectives were presented in Chapter 1:

- To review the legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa through exploring the liberation struggle during the apartheid era to determine how Cape Town became a gay capital and a popular international 'gay-friendly' tourism destination.
- To identify the implications of marketing a tourism destination as gay or 'gay friendly' for the tourism industry.
- To investigate the socio-psychological (push) factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday.
- To determine the destination attributes (pull factors) that attract gay travellers to a sun and beach tourism destination such as Cape Town.
- To develop a typology of gay leisure travellers based on their socio-psychological travel motivations and the destination attributes of Cape Town.

7.2 Summary of the research

Branchik (2002:96) and Jensen-Campbell (2004:5) argued that the LGBT market consists of a variety of segments, of which the gay traveller is one such segment. Cape Town, used as a case study for this study, targets the gay traveller in addition to the hedonistic, cultural, outdoor and culinary traveller (Cape Town Tourism, 2017). Gay travellers, as a segment of the LGBT market, are however perceived to be a homogeneous market segment, as sexual orientation is used as the principal distinguishing characteristic of this population (Fugate, 1993:47; Canavan, 2015:7). This

perception is, however, problematic as it may hinder effective marketing. Although gay travellers form part of a community that shares experiences, knowledge and communication (UNWTO, 2017a:46), and assists in creating a sense of belonging to a group (Verdugo, 2010:3), Pritchard et al. (1998:274) argue that sexual orientation, by itself, is insufficient as a segmentation criterion and state that, for example, seniors and young people are categorised according to their age, and gay people in terms of their sexual orientation, which is rather simplistic as it conceals many other important variables. Bell and Binnie (2000:100) agree that gay travellers should not be treated as a homogeneous segment just because they are homosexual, as sexuality is crosscut by socioeconomic status, race and gender. The reality is that the gay population mirrors the rest of society in a wide variety of aspects (Herrera, 2003:21). Hughes (2005:59) supports this view, contending the gay population are as diverse in their occupations, employment status, incomes, ethnicity, general lifestyles and reasons for travelling as is the rest of society, and as underscored by Herrera (2003:8), do not necessarily hold the same motivations and morals or pursue the same activities. Therefore, as Schofield and Schmidt (2005:311) and Canavan (2015:1) note, using sexual orientation as a segmentation criterion may be an inappropriate and ineffective means of segmenting gay consumers. Indeed, some researchers and organisations, some as long ago as 20 years, have argued that gay travellers are not a homogeneous segment (Pritchard et al., 1998:280; Herrera, 2003:8; Schofield & Schmidt, 2005:311; Crocco et al., 2006:224; Johnson, 2008) and are characterised by a variety of sub-segments (Pritchard & Morgan, 1997:16; Hughes, 2005:55; Hughes, 2006:153; Blichfeldt et al., 2011:22, Hattingh, 2011:50; Wientjens, 2013; UNWTO, 2017a:43).

Despite the developing interest in gay tourism, most destinations targeting the gay traveller continue to regard these travellers as a homogeneous group. The research was therefore motivated by the limited knowledge of the specific sub-segments of gay leisure travellers and built on the calls of Herrera and Scott (2005:260), Hughes (2006:5), Carolan (2007:17-18) and Cohen et al. (2014:894) for further consumer research on the diversity of potential sub-segments among gay travellers. Crompton (1979:409), Gavcar and Gursoy (2002:75), Amirtahmaseb (2007:12) and Smith and Costello (2009:46) point to the criticality of investigating motivations in order to understand the different desires of travellers and are of the opinion that these motivations can serve as a basis for segmenting travellers. Therefore, this study aimed to develop a typology of gay leisure

travellers, from an African perspective, by segmenting gay travellers into homogeneous sub-segments and attempted to contribute to the gap in literature regarding this market's heterogeneity.

The typology of gay leisure travellers proposed by this study was developed by conducting attribute-based market segmentation. Consequently, the identified sub-segments, each with its own set of motivations, could help the destination refine its target marketing strategies and, as suggested by Tebje and Ozinsky (2004), may assist in understanding the different opportunities each sub-segment presents. Indeed, as Cook et al. (2010:17) argue, the more tourism professionals know about travellers and how to meet their needs, the more successful the destination will be. The typology of gay leisure travellers should assist travel planners, destination managers, gay tour operators and travel agents, and Cape Town in particular, in ensuring that products and services, designed for and promoted to gay travellers, actually cater to their needs through the development of distinct travel products and packages.

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the research and clarified the research problem. It stated the research aim, key questions and objectives and provided an introduction to the research method employed for this study. Furthermore, the significance of the research, and the relevant terms, concepts and abbreviations used throughout the thesis were discussed.

In order to determine how Cape Town became the gay capital of South Africa, **Chapter 2** discussed the oppressive history of the country by reviewing specific literature on the country's gay movement. The chapter explored the liberation struggle during the apartheid era and gay activism in South Africa post 1996, after the implementation of the new South African Constitution, and analysed the formation of a post-apartheid gay civil society in Cape Town. It further explored the development and eventual demise (de-gaying) of 'De Waterkant Village' as well as how this village positioned Cape Town as a leading 'gay-friendly' tourism destination at the turn of the 21st century.

Chapter 3 placed the gay traveller in a tourism context in order to develop a better understanding of these travellers as a market segment(s) of the larger LGBT tourism market. This chapter also considered whether one can talk about a homogeneous gay

market segment by unpacking market segmentation theories, as it has been questioned whether or not there are sufficient grounds for the belief that a gay market segment exists. The second part of this chapter discussed the past and present initiatives undertaken by the local gay community and specialised organisations, as well as by the convention board CTT that played a role in contributing to Cape Town's reputation as a leading international 'gay-friendly' destination.

There seems to be an increasing trend where destinations promote themselves as 'gay friendly' in an attempt to attract gay travellers. **Chapter 4** examined what the implications are of this type of marketing and identified some of the more popular 'gay-friendly' destinations, in order to determine, to some degree, which destinations Cape Town competes with in attracting the gay traveller. The chapter's main focus was on investigating the most predominant tourist typologies related to travel motivations as developed over time. As the push-pull framework is used most often to determine tourists' motivations, this chapter reviewed literature on studies that have implemented this framework. Furthermore, the chapter drew together the specific push motivations for travel among gay travellers and elaborated on the pull motivations (attributes) that attract these travellers to specific destinations. As pull factors are place specific, the chapter concluded with some of the particular destination attributes of Cape Town for gay travellers, followed by a discussion of the factors that might lead to these travellers not choosing Cape Town as a holiday destination.

Chapter 5 discussed the research design and methodology applied in this study. It began with a discussion on the research and explained why this study employed a conclusive, descriptive and cross-sectional research design. Next, secondary and primary data collection methods were discussed with a focus on the quantitative instrument used for primary data collection, the design of the research instrument (web-based electronic survey) and the validity and reliability of the instrument. Included were details of the target population and how the chosen non-probability sampling procedure directed the research towards some specific data-collection methods for a study of this nature. As the study followed non-probability sampling, it discussed the sample size chosen in detail, followed by an explanation of cluster analysis and the steps that should be followed when segmenting a market. An introduction to the statistical methods (ANOVA and chi-squared tests) used to analyse the data in the study were also

discussed.

Chapter 6 analysed, discussed and interpreted the results obtained from the web-based electronic survey of domestic and international gay leisure travellers. These results enabled the researcher to draw conclusions that are further discussed in this chapter.

7.3 Conclusions

Conclusions can be drawn from the literature review and empirical survey.

7.3.1 Conclusions with regard to the literature review

The main conclusions derived from Chapter 2, *The legalistic history of the gay movement in South Africa*, Chapter 3, *The gay market segment(s) – homosexual not homogeneous*, and Chapter 4, *Gay travellers' holiday motivations* pertain to research objectives 1 and 2 (cf. 1.3.2).

- The new South African Constitution of 1996 contributed to an increasingly visible and accepted gay civil society in Cape Town which led to a self-styled 'gaybourhood', 'De Waterkant Village'. This village, through a process of gentrification, evolved from being a slum into Africa's first (and only) gay village, which led to Cape Town becoming a unique drawcard for domestic and international gay travellers as South Africa was also, initially, the only country that protected gay rights in its constitution at the time. Cape Town's reputation as a leading 'gay-friendly' destination was a result of international media publicity, and a mix of private initiatives in the gay community and by specialised organisations (cf. 3.3), rather than promotion on the part of the tourism board, CTT.
- There appeared to be an increasing trend in destinations attempting to differentiate themselves by marketing the destination as 'gay friendly', possibly without knowledge of the implications of this type of marketing. The implications of this type of marketing have, however, received very little research attention. Therefore, some advantages and disadvantages of this type of marketing were analysed. The positive effects (advantages) seem to outweigh the negative effects (disadvantages). Some

negative effects identified included the possibility of discouraging other tourism market segments; criticism and violence towards the destination's gay village; and exploitation and overuse of the destination's 'gay space'; while the positive effects included urban regeneration; the possibility of attracting various other market segments; strengthening of the destination's cosmopolitan image; reviving and rejuvenation of the destination's local economy; increasing the economic impact of a destination; and that gay destination marketing may be used as a differentiating strategy.

7.3.2 Conclusions with regard to the empirical survey

The main conclusions derived from the empirical survey pertain to research objectives 3, 4 and 5 (cf. 1.3.2).

7.3.2.1 Conclusions with regard to gay traveller motivations

- Push factors were categorised under the following headings: physiological, knowledge, belonging, self-actualisation, esteem and personal needs. Only two push factor groups (categories) had a 'strong push factor' average of 50% or more, namely 'physiological' needs and 'knowledge' needs (cf. Table 6.2), summarised below:
 - ✓ In terms of 'physiological needs', a large majority of respondents (78%) were motivated by opportunities for rest and relaxation which ranked as the most important overall push factor, followed by 74% of respondents travelling to escape their everyday life/daily routine, which was ranked as the second most important overall push factor (cf. Table 6.1). Although opportunities for rest and relaxation and to escape from everyday life/daily routine were important push factors found in most general tourism studies, so too did these push factors appear in gay tourism studies which suggested that the most important factors that push LGBT individuals to travel were in fact comparable with those of mainstream travellers.

- ✓ In terms of 'knowledge needs', more than two-thirds (71%) of respondents were motivated by novelty, i.e. to discover and explore a new or exciting place. Novelty, one of many psychological needs that play a significant role in causing a person to feel a disequilibrium that can be corrected through a tourism experience (Kim & Lee, 2002:257), seemed to be one of the major push factors for mainstream travel, and although not the most important factor pushing LGBT travellers to travel in this study, it is the third most important push factor overall (cf. Table 6.1). More than half (59%) of respondents were motivated to travel to learn something new or to enrich themselves intellectually. This finding correlates with previously conducted mainstream studies identifying the most important push factors for travel that found 'learning-related' push factors to be important (Klenosky, 2002; Correia et al., 2007; Khuong & Ha, 2014). This finding suggested that LGBT travellers go on holiday to discover and explore new and exciting places and to enrich themselves intellectually, as do most other travellers.
- Pull factors were categorised under the following headings: 'Culture and sights attributes', 'Comfort and relaxation attributes' and 'Gay-related attributes'. All three pull factor groups (categories) had a 'strong pull factor' average of 50% or more (cf. Table 6.4), summarised below:
 - ✓ In the first group, 'Culture and sights attributes', almost all respondents (89%) were attracted to Cape Town for its dramatic and beautiful landscape/scenery. The importance attached to this attribute by respondents came as no surprise as tourism has been defined as a "landscape industry" (Formica, 2000:2). Some two-thirds of respondents attached importance to the general tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites (68%) and beaches (65%). Despite classically the most important attributes in tourism literature on destination attributes and Cape Town being known as the 'African Riviera' (Pirie, 2007:4), it was surprising that these two attributes were not among the top five overall strongest pull factors (cf. Table 6.3). More than half of the respondents (58%) were attracted to Cape Town's being a unique African city and half (50%) of respondents were attracted to the nature and adventure

offering of the destination, including special interests such as hiking, shark-cage diving and abseiling.

- ✓ In the second group, 'Comfort and relaxation attributes', almost all (85%) respondents viewed a holiday in Cape Town as an opportunity to relax as they were attracted by the destination's relaxing atmosphere, and a further 80% regarded the culinary offerings (local food, wine and restaurants) to be important. This was a surprising finding as hospitality services (e.g. food, beverages, and restaurants) have traditionally only played a supporting role within the larger tourism industry. Despite being an essential component of the product mix, it was not regarded as a strong enough pull factor in itself to attract travellers (Smith, 2007:1). This finding supports those of Smith (2007:1) in that a destination's food is an increasingly important attribute sought as the culinary offerings of Cape Town was one of the most important attributes (third overall important pull factor – cf. Table 6.3) that attracted LGBT travellers, an attribute they regarded more important than, for example, the climate/weather, supposedly a universally important destination attribute, to which 68% of respondents attached importance. More than half of the respondents regarded Cape Town's ease of access (53%) and the 'inexpensive offering' (52%) to be important.

- ✓ In the third category, 'Gay-related attributes', more than two-thirds (68%) were attracted to Cape Town's 'gay-friendly' environment and the friendliness of locals towards gays which seemed to contradict Ballegaard and Chor's (2009:81) argument that LGBT travellers were not influenced by their sexuality on holidays, and were not motivated by the 'gay friendliness' of a destination. The attribute of 'gay friendliness' appeared to be an important aspect during the holiday decision-making process for a majority of LGBT travellers despite their being open about their sexuality or not, as it was among the top five most important pull factors (cf. Table 6.3). Although travelling may present obvious risks to all travellers, LGBT travellers are particularly vulnerable in unfamiliar places because of the threat of harassment, disapproval, verbal or physical abuse, discrimination, and even criminalisation incited by those who oppose homosexuality (Hughes,

2005:57), particularly evident in the countries in which homosexuality is illegal (cf. Table 4.2). Two-thirds (66%) of respondents attached importance to Cape Town's safety and security related to their personal safety and another 66% of respondents attached importance to Cape Town's diversity and cosmopolitan reputation. Some studies (Hughes & Deutsch, 2010; Blichfeldt et al., 2013) claimed that gay tourism literature may be over-emphasising the significance of 'gay space' for gay holidays, although these authors acknowledge the fact that their study samples were drawn from Western gays who could regularly socialise in the ample 'gay spaces' in their home environments, and therefore might have a lesser need to experience these spaces on holiday. In addition, it was argued that the post-modern gay generation see no need to codify exclusionary 'gay spaces' (cf. 2.3.2), yet it is clear from the findings of this study that the local gay culture and gay venues of Cape Town were important to more than half (52%) of the respondents, regardless of the fact that most respondents travelled from the Western world.

- When considering which motivations seemed to be important to LGBT leisure travellers, four of Pike's (2016:210) 'needs and tourism motives' (cf. Table 4.4) seemed to be particularly important. Physiological (relaxation), safety (security), to know and understand (knowledge) and aesthetics (appreciation of beauty) needs dominate, with self-actualisation, belonging, and esteem needs playing a lesser role.

7.3.2.2 Conclusions with regard to gay traveller profile and holiday-related information

- Regarding the traveller profile, most gay travellers that participated in the study were from the UK (13%), mainly male (91%), aged between 31 and 40 years (29%) and held a postgraduate degree (41%). They were mostly in a management/executive position (22%), had a monthly disposable income of approximately R96 634, were coupled (in a relationship) (38%), and did not want children (56%). They travelled from open-minded large cities with a variety of gay life and venues (72%) and were open about their sexuality in their home environments (87%).

- Regarding the holiday-related information, most respondents travelled with their partners (50%), and had visited Cape Town more than three times (52%). They stayed between one to two weeks (33%) in mainstream hotels (22%). Most respondents spent less than one month on planning their holiday (42%), planned their holidays themselves (94%), and booked mostly via the Internet (76%). Furthermore, respondents seemed to be very loyal to Cape Town as they indicated that they would return to the destination in the future (95%). They would also recommend Cape Town as a 'gay-friendly' destination (94%).
- International travellers spent more in all categories than domestic travellers, and international travellers' spending was in many instances more than double that of domestic travellers' spending (cf. Table 6.8). The total average individual spending of international travellers was R46 720 per person per trip, while domestic travellers spent R24 995 per person per trip. This may be due to most international travellers having a higher disposable monthly income when compared with domestic travellers (cf. Table 6.6).
- Cross-tabulations using Pearson chi-squared values were used to identify relationships between pairs of variables. Comparison of push and pull motivations for different age groups, sexual identities, relationship statuses, return visitors versus first-time visitors, domestic versus international travellers, and those with children and those without, were made. In addition, it was necessary to determine if the place in which a respondent resided at home (i.e. conservative versus liberal environment) and whether they were open or not open about their sexuality had a significant influence on their travel motivations, summarised below:
 - ✓ The behaviours of LGBT travellers of different age groups appeared to be varied as significant differences existed between age groups of LGBT travellers' motivations. 'Nostalgia', 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity', 'social recognition/ego enhancement', 'novelty (discovering and exploring a new or exciting place)', 'exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)' and 'to get married/go on honeymoon' were significantly more important push factors among younger travellers (between the ages of 18 and 30) compared with older travellers (31

years of age and older). No significant differences were found among push factors for the other age groups. Younger travellers seemed to regard 'safe and secure destination related to personal safety', 'mainstream events', 'sport, exercise and wellness facilities' and 'shopping facilities' as significantly more important pull factors when compared with older travellers, while 'local food and wine including restaurants' were more important among older travellers (31 – 50 years of age) (cf. 6.3.3). It can therefore be concluded that 'age' significantly influences LGBT travellers' motivations in that older LGBT travellers have different travel motivations than younger LGBT travellers.

- ✓ The travel motivations of gay, lesbian and bisexual travellers appear to differ according to their sexual identity. Gay women attached significantly higher importance to push factors of 'escape from everyday life/daily routine', while a 'dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery' as well as 'gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays' appeared to be significantly more important pull attributes attracting gay women. Gay men attached significantly higher importance to the 'gay/nude beach', 'nightlife', 'general tourist attractions/well-known tourist sites', 'climate/weather', 'local gay culture/gay venues' as well as 'culture and history' when compared with gay women and bisexual men and women. Bisexual men and women regarded 'shopping facilities', 'mainstream events', 'unique accommodation' and 'sport/exercise and wellness facilities' significantly more important than gay men and women. The gay tourism studies that have included women show that there are substantial differences in the travel motivations of gay women and gay men (Pritchard et al., 2000, 2002; Puar, 2002; Hughes, 2006; Ballegaard & Chor, 2009). This study therefore supports these previously conducted studies but what is less well known is how bisexual travellers differ from gay travellers in terms of holiday motivations. Results of Community Marketing Inc.'s *10th Annual LGBT Community Survey* showed no significant differences between gay versus bisexual men, or gay versus bisexual women (UNWTO, 2017a:44). Evident from the above discussion, the current study contradicts Community Marketing Inc.'s findings in that bisexual travellers indeed have different, although not entirely different motivations to travel when compared with gay men and women.

- ✓ Travel motivations also differed according to relationship status as it was found that 'to learn something new', 'exploration and evaluation of self', and the 'opportunity to have a sexual adventure' were significantly more important push factors for single travellers, while 'same-sex marriage laws' was a significantly more important pull factor for married travellers. A possible reason why single LGBT travellers are motivated by a sexual adventure while on holiday might be due to their being "... unattached and because holidays might reduce inhibitions and thus increase the opportunity for sex" (Thomsen, 2008:61). A 'relaxing atmosphere' was more important to couples, while 'mainstream events' and 'nightlife' were more important pull factors for single travellers. It can therefore be concluded that LGBT travellers who are in relationships have different travel motivations from LGBT travellers who are single.

- ✓ Wientjens (2013) argues that children have a considerable influence on the travel motivations and behaviours of LGBT travellers, resulting in their having some particular needs that differentiate them from mainstream travellers. Statistically significant differences between motivations for those respondents with children, those who did not want children, those that were undecided and those that were planning to have children revealed that 'enhancement of kinship relationship (family/friends)' was a significantly more important push factor to those respondents with children, possibly owing to the need to visit their children that live in a different destination, while 'to get married /go on honeymoon' was a significantly less important push factor for those without children when compared with the other groups. There were no statistically significant differences found among the pull factors for the different groups, suggesting that those with children and those without were attracted to the destination by similar attributes. It can, however, be concluded that LGBT travellers who have children have slightly different travel motivations to LGBT travellers who do not have children.

- ✓ It was important not to make conclusions based on Westernised perspectives as the majority of respondents to this study originated from open-minded large cities in the Western world (cf. 6.3.9). It was therefore necessary to

determine if the place in which respondents resided at home (i.e. conservative versus liberal environment) had a significant influence on their motivations as some LGBT travellers might have very different travel motivations depending on the situation and circumstances in their home environments. A statistically significant difference was found for one of the push factors among respondents travelling from a conservative environment and those travelling from a liberal environment, while none of the pull factors revealed significant differences. To 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity' was significantly less important to those travelling from a liberal home environment compared with those that travelled from a conservative environment. It was further necessary to determine if there were significant differences between travellers' motivations who were open about their sexuality and those that were not (cf. 6.3.10). Statistically significant differences were found among those that were open and those that concealed their sexuality which, apart from one push factor, had surprisingly little relevance to sexuality. Travellers who concealed their sexuality attached significantly more importance to push factors 'to enrich myself intellectually/learn something new', 'nostalgia' and 'to escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity'. Furthermore, the pull factors 'mainstream event' and 'cost/value for money' were also significantly more important to those who concealed their sexuality when compared with those who were open about their sexuality, while travellers who were open about their sexuality attached more importance to Cape Town's 'dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery'.

This study therefore supports Hughes's (2006:56), Ballegaard and Chor's (2009:48) and Köllen and Lazar's (2012:66) argument that this need to escape heteronormativity depends on the extent to which the individual lives an openly gay lifestyle, as those concealing their sexuality had a particular need to escape the tension and burdens brought about by their conservative home environments. This study further supports Clift and Forrest's (1999:623) and Herrera and Scott's (2005:249) findings in that this need for escape applied to LGBT individuals who lived in conservative environments, which had a limited or no obvious gay community or 'gay space'. In addition,

this study does not support Clift and Forrest (1999:616), Carolan (2007:36) or Hughes and Deutsch's (2010:456) argument that those living in conservative environments (Section 6.3.9) and those concealing their sexuality (Section 6.3.10) travel in pursuit of sex. No statistically significant differences were found between the need to travel for sex and those concealing their sexuality or those travelling from conservative environments.

- ✓ Significant differences were found among domestic and international LGBT travellers' motivations. International LGBT travellers regarded the push factors 'nostalgia', 'to learn something new', 'novelty' and the pull factors 'climate/weather', 'cost/value for money', 'wildlife and special animals' and 'unique African city' significantly more important when compared with domestic LGBT travellers. Domestic LGBT travellers, on the other hand, attached significantly higher importance to push factors 'escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity', 'enhancement of kinship relationships' and the pull factors 'local gay culture/gay venues', 'mainstream events' 'ease of access into destination' and 'nightlife' when compared with international travellers. It can therefore be concluded that there are vast differences in domestic and international LGBT travellers' motivations. Consequently, these travellers require separate marketing strategies.

- ✓ Statistically significant differences were found among first-time and returning LGBT visitors. 'Nostalgia', 'enhancement of kinship relationships', 'opportunities to develop close friendships/romance' and 'opportunity to have a sexual adventure' were significantly more important push factors for return visitors, while 'novelty' and 'to learn something new' were significantly more important push factors for first-time visitors. Furthermore, pull factors such as 'shopping facilities', 'ease of access into destination', 'local food and wine including restaurants', the 'local gay culture/gay venues' and 'relaxing atmosphere' were significantly more important to return visitors, while 'wildlife and special animals', 'cost/value for money' and 'culture & history' were significantly more important to first-time visitors. It can therefore be concluded that there are vast differences between first-time and returning LGBT travellers' motivations. Consequently, they too require separate marketing

strategies.

7.3.2.3 Conclusions with regard to gay travel patterns

- In order to determine gay travel patterns for the next three years (2016 – 2018), 27 destinations were grouped according to urban, beach and island destinations, which assisted in determining the most popular destinations among LGBT leisure travellers as well as the destinations that compete with Cape Town for these travellers, summarised below:
 - ✓ The most popular 'gay-friendly' urban destination male travellers were planning to visit over the next three years was London (33%), while New York City (36%) was more popular among female travellers (cf. Table 6.9).
 - ✓ The most popular 'gay-friendly' beach destination male (24%) and female (26%) travellers planned to visit was San Francisco (cf. Table 6.10).
 - ✓ The most popular 'gay-friendly' island destination male travellers planned to visit was Phuket (21%), while Mykonos (18%) was the most popular island destination among female travellers (cf. Table 6.11).
- More than one-third of respondents (37%) would not avoid a destination for reasons related to their sexuality while close to two-thirds (63%) would avoid certain destinations, suggesting that sexuality influences destination choices in that most respondents chose not to go somewhere because of their sexuality. It was evident that many African destinations, some destinations in the Middle East, some destinations in Eastern Europe, Asia and even the Americas were avoided (cf. Table 6.12). The tendency for LGBT travellers to avoid certain countries was also found in the literature (Hughes, 2002; Blichfeldt et al., 2011). Of the reasons for avoidance cited, four themes emerged: laws, religion, safety and homophobia, and politics.
- A quarter (25%) of respondents were avid international travellers taking more than two international leisure trips per year, closely followed by 24% of respondents that travelled internationally once a year (cf. Figure 6.1).

7.3.2.4 Conclusions with regard to attribute-based market segmentation

- 'Attribute-based benefit segmentation' provided insights into specific sub-segments of gay leisure travellers (cf. Table 6.13): the *Passive Relaxer*, the *Wildlife Explorer*, the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie* and the *Gay-Centric Traveller*. *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* appeared to be interested in mainstream attributes of a destination and were pushed to travel for reasons not related to their sexuality, and can therefore be classified as mainstream tourism by gay people. *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* were motivated by a variety of mainstream push and pull factors in addition to some gay-related push and pull factors, and can therefore be seen as a hybrid of mainstream and gay tourism. Only a distinct sub-segment, the *Gay-Centric Traveller*, can be described as a gay tourist as these travellers were particularly motivated by the gay attributes of the destination and were pushed to travel for reasons related to their sexuality. A full description of the typology of gay leisure travellers is provided in Section 7.4.1.
- A multiple responses crosstab was used to identify which destinations each cluster travelled to in the last five years (2012–2016). A chi-squared test revealed that the clusters had no statistically significant differences (cf. Table 6.18). However, certain observations could be made in that some destinations appeared to be equally popular among all four clusters: London, Rome, Miami, Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Sitges, and the islands of Hawaii. *Passive Relaxers* seemed to be less interested in 'gay-friendly' island destinations, while *Wildlife Explorers*, *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* and *Gay-Centric Travellers* travelled to a mixture of 'gay-friendly' urban, beach and island destinations. As there were no statistically significant differences among the clusters, it was concluded that gay travellers in each cluster enjoyed a wide variety of destinations and did not travel to specific destinations only. Although a number of observations were made, no conclusions could be drawn regarding the most popular destinations for each cluster.

7.4 Contribution of this research

- One of the study's most significant contributions to the body of literature on gay tourism is the conclusion that gay travellers are not homogeneous and that there are

divergent groups of consumers with different consumer behaviours. Furthermore, the sub-segments may be referred to as niches as individuals within these sub-groups are homogeneous in respect of certain characteristics.

- To date, apart from a minor number of exceptions, most studies on gay tourism deal with Western gays, resulting in perceptions often being biased towards travellers and destinations within those regions. This study is unique in that it collected data from LGBT travellers from 38 different countries (including non-Western countries), at different points in tourism seasons as the survey was available online for approximately eight months.
- Despite several researchers arguing that successful destination marketing is only effective when investigating both push and pull motivations and the relationship between them (Oh et al., 1995:124; Goossens, 2000:302; Eftchiadou, 2001:9), and that the attractiveness of a destination depends on the interaction and relationships of push and pull motivations (Prayag, 2003:52), some empirical studies (cf. Table 4.5) still do not consider both factors as a single interrelated concept. This study investigated both push and pull motivations and the relationship between them, and can, therefore, assist with effective future marketing of Cape Town to gay travellers as each sub-segment has its own set of push and pull motivations.
- One of the several consequences of apartheid was that it complicated formal research into homosexuality, evident in the extremely limited body of social science research focusing on homosexuality in South Africa (Visser, 2003b:125), which means that this specific phenomenon has not been fully explored. This study, therefore, contributes to the literature on the gay tourism phenomenon in South Africa.
- Of the prior research that has examined push and pull factors, few have examined them in an African context (Awaritefe, 2004; Zhou, 2005; Prayag, 2010; Kassean & Gassita, 2013), while none has examined the push and pull factors of gay travellers to African destinations such as Cape Town, a destination that has received less interest as a tourism destination in the academic literature (Prayag, 2010:11). Therefore, this study is uniquely 'African' in terms of the destination used as a case

study. Furthermore, almost half of the sample was from South Africa and other African countries, hence the typology of gay leisure travellers suggested is that of an African perspective. No known academic research study to date has attempted to segment gay leisure travellers based on behavioural grounds.

- Most research to date has pointed to the differences within the LGBT market regarding gender (Pritchard et al., 2002; Puar, 2002; Hughes, 2006) and age (Pritchard et al., 1998; Hughes & Deutsch, 2010). This study expanded on these differences and found that LGBT travellers' travel motivations differ according to sexual identities, relationship statuses, those with children and those without, those travelling from conservative versus liberal environments and those that are open versus those that conceal their sexuality.

7.4.1 A typology of gay leisure travellers: an African perspective

The sub-segments that resulted from attribute-based market segmentation were used to develop the typology of gay leisure travellers, presented in Figure 7.1.

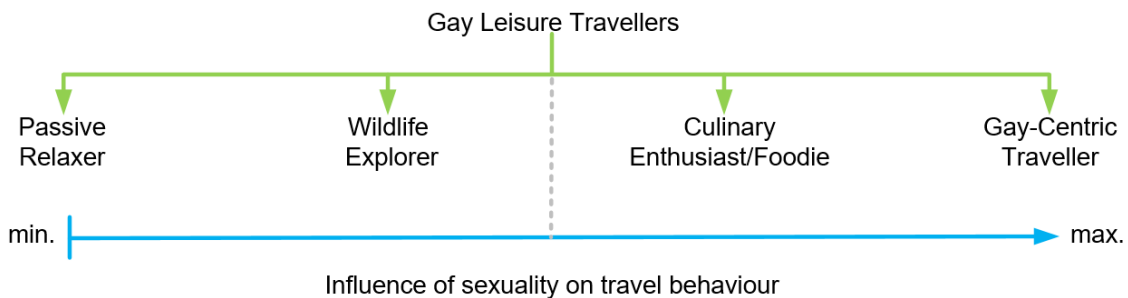


Figure 7.1: A typology of gay leisure travellers

Source: Researcher construct from empirical research data 2017

- The typology is based on the push and pull framework from Dann (1977); the motivations of travellers were assessed both in terms of their socio-psychological motivations and destination attributes of Cape Town. The typology thus provides a framework for relating the destination attributes (pull motivations) to the important push motivations that influence tourist decision making and travel behaviour, and is therefore useful to the destination in developing product and promotional strategies (Oh et al., 1995:124). The splitting of the continuum suggests typologies of four

unique gay travel sub-segments ranging from *Passive Relaxers* on the one end through *Wildlife Explorers*, *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* to *Gay-Centric Travellers* on the extreme end. The typology represents two sub-segments in which travellers' behaviour is not influenced by their sexuality, while the sexuality of travellers in the two other sub-segments influences their travel behaviour to varying degrees.

- *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* could be regarded as mainstream tourism by gay people as the influence of these travellers' sexuality on their travel behaviour is at an absolute minimal level for *Passive Relaxers*, while the influence is only slightly higher for *Wildlife Explorers*, which suggests that gay-related attributes could enhance the destination appeal, but that they are not critical for a satisfactory holiday. *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* are mostly coupled and ages range between 31 and 50, with a significant percentage mature (older than 51). Both sub-segments prefer mainstream accommodation options and are attracted to the destination's landscape and scenery, and primarily go on holiday to rest, relax and escape their everyday lives. In addition, *Wildlife Explorers* combine the perception of Cape Town's being a unique African city or a "cosmopolitan, European city" with the wildlife offering of nearby destinations, and go on holiday for intellectual enrichment and to explore new and exciting places (novelty).
- *Gay-Centric Travellers*, at the opposite extreme, could be regarded as gay tourists as the influence of these travellers' sexuality on their travel behaviour is at an absolute maximum level and, although they are actively involved in nature and adventure offerings and interested in a wide variety of mainstream destination attributes, including a relaxing atmosphere, mainstream events, sport/wellness facilities, unique accommodation, shopping, ease of access of destination, learning about the culture and history, and seeking an inexpensive holiday offering value for money, their travel behaviour centralises around the gay aspects of a holiday. In short, these travellers seek a bit of everything; however, this sub-segment is unique in that they are particularly attracted by same-sex marriage laws and are interested in a 'gaycation' that offers gay/nude beaches, gay events and nightlife. Furthermore, they go on holiday to socialise with other gay people, to explore and evaluate themselves, for sexual adventures, to develop close friendships and/or romance, to escape disapproving society and for social recognition/ego enhancement. Gay-

Centric Travellers are mostly younger, single gay travellers that prefer 'gay-friendly' accommodation options.

- *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* can be seen as a hybrid of mainstream and gay tourism. The influence of these travellers' sexuality on their travel behaviour is much higher than for *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, although lower than for *Gay-Centric Travellers*. Some travellers in this category are younger and some are more mature. Apart from constituting a mixture of different ages, the sub-segment includes a mixture of single and partnered couples and prefers both 'gay-friendly' and mainstream accommodation options. They are attracted to mainstream destination attributes including a good climate/weather, the beach, general tourist attractions, and in particular, the culinary offerings (food and wine). In addition, they are attracted to gay-related destination attributes, including a gay culture/village, a 'gay-friendly' environment/friendliness of locals towards gays, and a safe, secure, diverse and cosmopolitan destination. These all appear to be very important to this traveller, although slightly less important than for the *Gay-Centric Traveller*. They too go on holiday for intellectual enrichment as well as to enhance kinship relationships. Social interaction with other gay people, opportunities for sexual adventures and developing close friendships and/or romance are significantly more important to them than to *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers*, although not the main motivation for travel.
- In terms of spending behaviour, *Gay-Centric Travellers* spend the most on entertainment, shopping and nightlife, while *Passive Relaxers* spend the least in these categories. *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* spend the most on food and drinks, while *Wildlife Explorers* spend the most on tourism-related activities. *Gay-Centric Travellers* spend the most per person per trip and *Wildlife Explorers* have the highest average monthly disposable income.
- The findings of the cluster analysis discussed above showed that no sub-segment is completely homogeneous, as some push and pull motivations overlapped and were important to all clusters; however there are group characteristics that strengthen membership. It is, however, important to note that group membership "... hinges on everyday life context, civil status of the gay in question and the, at the time, identity (or identities) that a specific holiday should reinforce" (Blichfeldt et al., 2011:21).

Prayag (2010:4), however, suggests that using the importance levels of attributes that attracted current travellers for segmentation purposes is likely to identify attributes that will influence future travel behaviour. It can therefore be assumed that attributes that make up the sub-segments suggested in the typology will remain unchanged and apply to future gay leisure travellers to Cape Town.

- The purpose of the typology is to prove empirically that travellers are not all alike, and that this is precisely the case for the gay leisure traveller. In fact, the cluster analysis found that these travellers are diverse in motivations (cf. Tables 6.14 – 6.15), age, relationship status, accommodation preferences (cf. Table 6.16) and spending patterns (cf. Table 6.17). The typology further suggests that the gay traveller is perhaps integrating with other larger mainstream market segments and the literature on gay tourism may soon find itself outdated as fewer gay individuals, as the typology shows, base their travel decisions solely on gay-related issues, possibly owing to an increasing societal acceptance of homosexuality and the insignificance of a 'gay identity' to many of the post-modern gay generation (cf. 4.9).

7.5 Limitations of this research

While this study may be regarded as one of the first in attempting to segment gay leisure travellers, a caveat should be attached to the findings:

- The use of non-probability sampling techniques, as was the case for this study, has implications, as they may not be representative of the population. Respondents self-selected to participate in this study, and findings may therefore be biased towards gay individuals that self-identify as such, resulting in those who 'hide' their sexual orientation being under represented. It is, however, felt that through adopting a web-based electronic survey, the researcher aimed to avoid further biased research findings (i.e. only surveying openly gay individuals who patronise gay bars/venues in the destination), as respondents could opt to remain anonymous on the Web, if they wished, which would not have been the case should personal interviews have been conducted (cf. Table 5.3).

- Web-based electronic surveys do have disadvantages as self-selection bias, as discussed in the preceding paragraph, is of particular concern and only gay travellers who were Internet-users were included for this study. Although oversampling was implemented to overcompensate for the weaknesses of the non-probability sampling methods employed for this study (cf. 5.3.2.5.1), the findings cannot be generalised to the whole gay population.
- A potential limitation with data-driven segmentation is that the researcher made a judgement about the characteristics (variables or data) to use for cluster analysis. The variables for cluster analysis were borrowed from secondary data sources and did not come from primary data, i.e. open-ended questions in the survey. Therefore, although tourism stakeholders were requested during pilot testing to add attributes (pull motivations) of Cape Town that were presumed to be of importance to gay travellers but not included in the survey, it may be possible that the final list of attributes was not exhaustive. The same applies to the push motivations used for the survey.
- Although the study collected data from LGBT travellers from 38 different countries (including non-Western countries), the typology is destination specific and may therefore only be of use to the destination studied. At best, it may be of use to other sun and beach destinations with similar attributes to Cape Town. There is no reason to believe that the motivations of gay travellers visiting Asia or Europe are the same for those travelling to North America, for example.

7.6 Recommendations

This section contains recommendations regarding the research, and is grouped into two subsections. The first subsection presents recommendations for destination marketing, while the second subsection recommends possible future research suggestions.

7.6.1 Recommendations for destination marketing

It is beyond the scope of this study to recommend detailed destination marketing strategies; rather this section intends to improve the knowledge of tourism stakeholders

(travel agents and tour operators targeting gay travellers as well as other stakeholders marketing their product offerings to these travellers, including managers from the various DMOs in respect of gay leisure travellers) in Cape Town. The findings of this study can significantly contribute to the destination's marketing plan, should Cape Town continue to target the domestic and international gay leisure traveller in future. Cape Town's need need for a mixed group of tourists is essential as gay travellers, among other advantages discussed earlier (cf. 7.3.1), strengthen Cape Town's cosmopolitan image and rejuvenate the local economy.

- Different marketing strategies should be designed for different LGBT travellers. Different promotional messages will be required for gay men, gay women and bisexual travellers, those that are coupled or single, those that are return visitors versus first-time visitors, those with children and those without. Furthermore, domestic LGBT travellers have different travel motivations from international LGBT travellers, and will therefore also require different promotional messages (cf. 7.3.2.2).
- The findings reveal that gay and bisexual men in the US and UK, and gay and bisexual women in the US, UK and Germany, had the highest disposable incomes. Butler (2012:27) argues that the quality of tourists could be more important than their quantity to the success of any destination and suggests that considering the expenditure level of each tourist could be more rational than the number of tourists in determining how tourism can provide benefits to the destination. Therefore, LGBT travellers from these countries represent a priority for Cape Town.
- The typology indicates which destination attributes are likely to attract each sub-segment identified, while assisting with eliminating destination attributes that do not have a significant impact on the travellers' decision to choose Cape Town as a holiday destination. Furthermore, the typology may be used to successfully match these destination attributes to push motivations to improve future marketing strategies. For example, in targeting the *Culinary Enthusiast/Foodie*, resources should be devoted to developing a well-organised travel package that includes sightseeing and visiting general tourist attractions and in particular, the culinary offerings (food and wine). This may be in the form of food and wine festivals or the option of visiting a variety of authentic dining facilities combined with wine farm tours

and, perhaps, a visit to De Waterkant village as these travellers are also interested in the gay culture/village of the destination. The promotional message should match the sub-segment's socio-psychological needs (push motivations), i.e. travelling for intellectual enrichment and enhancement of kinship relationships. A selection of 'gay-friendly' and mainstream accommodation options should be offered as part of the package.

- Findings of this study can also be used to develop better promotional strategies with the four identified market segments. Gay travel agents and tour operators may be encouraged by these findings to consider offering a more diverse range of tourism products and services to gay travellers who perhaps fall outside the *Gay-Centric* sub-segment, i.e. those less interested in the gay-related attributes of the destination.
- Despite gay marriages being legal in South Africa and Cape Town being ranked among the "top 10 best gay honeymoon destinations worldwide" (Graham, 2012), this study showed that to get married/go on honeymoon was the least important push motivation (cf. Table 6.1), as an overwhelming majority of respondents regarded this factor as unimportant. Therefore, Cape Town has a tremendous opportunity to promote and develop itself as a popular gay wedding and honeymoon destination (cf. 4.7.8).
- The findings of the cluster analysis showed that no sub-segment is completely homogeneous as some push and pull motivations overlap and are important to all clusters. For example, both *Passive Relaxers* and *Wildlife Explorers* prefer mainstream accommodation options and are attracted to the destination's landscape and scenery; they primarily go on holiday to rest, relax and escape their everyday lives. *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* are attracted to mainstream destination attributes, including a good climate/weather, the beach, general tourist attractions and in particular, the culinary offerings (food and wine). Therefore, marketing to these sub-segments can easily be integrated with existing niche markets of Cape Town, i.e. cultural, outdoor and culinary niche markets. A distinct marketing strategy may be required to attract the *Gay-Centric Traveller* as these travellers' behaviour centralises around the gay aspects of a holiday. This sub-segment is unique in that they are particularly attracted by same-sex marriage laws

and it is therefore the ideal niche market to increase Cape Town's popularity as a gay wedding and honeymoon destination, as discussed in the preceding paragraph.

7.6.2 Recommendations for future research

Based on the findings, the following aspects may require further research:

- As this study implemented a quantitative research methodology, a follow-up, qualitative research method such as focus groups could investigate the deeper reasons as to why certain destination attributes and socio-psychological motivations are more important in gay travellers' holiday decision-making processes and travel behaviours.
- Qualitative research could investigate whether the same traveller may be part of other market segments as gay individuals may, at different points in their travel career, choose different types of holidays, i.e. investigating gay travellers' sexual identity maturation over time and how this influences their travel behaviours and holiday decision-making processes. This should essentially answer the question posed by Blichfeldt et al. (2011:22): "When and under which circumstances do people want to be a certain type of tourist", instead of researching what a certain group of tourists are like.
- Developing a typology of gay leisure travellers devoid of destination attributes to avoid the typology being bound to a specific destination/region. Future studies can use other bases of segmentation such as psychographics (e.g. dividing gay travellers into different segments based on psychological variables such as personality and lifestyle characteristics).
- As the profiles of domestic and international gay leisure travellers to Cape Town revealed by the sample may not be typical of those to other tourism destinations, further research with different samples of gay leisure travellers is recommended. This study may, therefore, be replicated (and adapted where required) at a selection of other destinations popular among gay travellers. A comparison of the motivations for gay leisure travellers to different destinations would then be possible in order to

develop an improved typology of gay leisure travellers.

7.7 Concluding remarks

Although resources restricted the replicability of this study at other destinations popular among gay leisure travellers, it is hoped the findings will serve as a valuable tool for Cape Town's tourism community, contributing to advancing knowledge on gay travel, thus becoming a reference for all tourism stakeholders interested in engaging with or targeting gay leisure travellers.

The research built on the calls of Herrera and Scott (2005:260), Hughes (2006:5), Carolan (2007:17-18) and Cohen et al. (2014:894) for further consumer research on the diversity of potential sub-segments among gay travellers. Empirical evidence, albeit not universally representative of all gay leisure travellers, suggests that gay travellers, at least those who visited Cape Town, are not homogeneous and that there are divergent groups of consumers with different consumer behaviours.

This study agrees with that of Isaac (2008:84) in that the static idea that travellers have to belong to one type or another can be questioned. Isaac (2008:84) argues that people are complex – consequently it may be impossible to describe adequately all their behaviours in terms of a single simple category. However, the cluster analysis clearly showed that only a distinct sub-segment, the *Gay-Centric Traveller*, can be described as a gay tourist and that not all gay travellers or activities by these travellers can be labelled as gay tourism. Instead, it may be classified as mainstream tourism by gay people. Better yet, *Passive Relaxers*, *Wildlife Explorers* and *Culinary Enthusiasts/Foodies* may be referred to as just that.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure A Web-based electronic survey



A doctoral study is being conducted to investigate the motivational factors that influence gay travellers to go on holiday as well as to determine the destination attributes that attract these travellers to Cape Town. Your input in answering the questions that follow would be greatly appreciated. All responses will be treated as confidential and your privacy and anonymity will be preserved. The survey will take on average about 15 minutes to complete. In order to take part in the survey, you need to have visited Cape Town for longer than three nights for holiday purposes and identify as gay.

Email

optional

Begin

1.1 Who did you travel with to Cape Town?*

- Partner
- Family
- Friends
- Alone
- Other, please specify:

1.2 How many times have you visited Cape Town?*

- First time
- Second time
- Third time
- More than 3 times, please specify:

1.3 Generally, for how long were you in Cape Town?*

- Less than a week
- A week
- 1 to 2 weeks
- Between 2 weeks and a month
- More than a month

1.4 What type of accommodation did you use during your stay?*

- Gay-friendly guesthouse or B&B
- Mainstream guesthouse or B&B
- Rent full house/apartment
- Gay-friendly hotel
- Mainstream hotel
- Hostel
- Family or friends
- Other, please specify:

1.5 How did you book your holiday?*

- Internet
- Mainstream travel agent
- Gay travel agent
- Telephone
- Other, please specify:

1.6 What type of holiday were you on in Cape Town?*

- Independent (self-planned)
- Packaged-holiday
- Other, please specify:

1.7 Estimate how much you spent in total, during your most recent trip to Cape Town, on the following items (specify currency € £ \$ R)*

Accommodation:

Food and drink (include all restaurants)

Entertainment (shows, theatre and events)

Shopping (excluding food and drinks)

Nightlife (clubbing)

Tourism-related activities

Transport (car rental, taxi/cab)

Other, please specify items and amount

1.8 How long did it take you to plan your holiday?*

- Spontaneous decision
- Less than 1 month
- 1 to 3 months
- 4 to 6 months
- 7 to 12 months
- Other, please specify:

1.9 Will you return to Cape Town in the future?*

- Yes, definitely
- No, definitely not (please provide reason below):

1.10 Will you recommend Cape Town as a gay-friendly destination?*

- Yes, definitely
- No, definitely not (please provide reason below):

2.1 Which of the following factors motivated you to take a holiday?*

[1 = Not at all important]
[2 = Unimportant]
[3 = Neither important nor unimportant]
[4 = Important]
[5 = Very important]

	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity for rest and relaxation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nostalgia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Escape from disapproving society to freely express gay identity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Escape from everyday life/daily routine	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enhancement of kinship relationships (family/friends)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social interaction with other gay people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enriching myself intellectually (learn something new)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social recognition/prestige/ego-enhancement/status	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Novelty (discovering and exploring a new/exciting place)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exploration and evaluation of self (gain insight about self)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Opportunity to have a sexual adventure	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Opportunity to develop close friendships	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To get married/go on honeymoon	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[reset](#)

2.2 Please rate the importance of the following travel attributes in your decision to travel to Cape Town *

- [1 = Not at all important]
- [2 = Unimportant]
- [3 = Neither important nor unimportant]
- [4 = Important]
- [5 = Very important]

	1	2	3	4	5
Culture & history (Monument, heritage, arts, local customs)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dramatic/beautiful landscape and scenery	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relaxing atmosphere	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gay-friendly environment/friendliness of locals towards gays	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Beaches	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gay/nude beaches	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Climate/weather	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Local gay culture/gay venues (gay village)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Local food & wine including restaurants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Safe & secure destination related to personal safety	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
General tourist attractions/well known tourist sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cost/value-for-money (inexpensive holiday)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mainstream event	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gay event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ease of access into destination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wildlife/special animals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unique accommodation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nightlife (bars, clubs and other entertainment)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sport/exercise & wellness facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shopping facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nature, adventure offering (hiking, shark-cage diving, abseiling etc)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Same-sex marriage laws	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diversity and cosmopolitan reputation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unique 'African' city	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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3.1 Gender *

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

3.2 Age *

- Confidential
- 18 - 20
- 21 - 30
- 31 - 40
- 41 - 50
- 51 - 60
- 61 and older, please specify:

3.3 Highest level of education attained *

- No formal education
- Primary completed (7 years of schooling)
- Secondary completed (more than 7 years of schooling)
- Certificate/diploma
- Undergraduate degree
- Postgraduate degree
- Other, please specify:

3.4 Relationship status *

- Single
- In a relationship
- Married/Civil union
- Divorced
- Widow/widower

3.5 Occupation *

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="radio"/> Student | <input type="radio"/> Education |
| <input type="radio"/> Admin/sales | <input type="radio"/> Manager/executive |
| <input type="radio"/> Business professional | <input type="radio"/> Technical |
| <input type="radio"/> Government employee | <input type="radio"/> Self-employed |
| <input type="radio"/> Unemployed | <input type="radio"/> Retired |
| <input type="radio"/> Home maker | <input type="radio"/> Medical professional |
| <input type="radio"/> Other, please specify: | |

3.6 Country of origin *

- UK
- Germany
- US
- Netherlands
- France
- Australia
- Brazil
- Canada
- Other, please specify:

3.7 Classify the place in which you reside at home *

- Closed-minded small city with limited/no gay life or venues
- Open-minded large city with a variety of gay life and venues
- Village/rural area with limited/no gay life and venues
- Other, please specify:

3.8 Your monthly net income (after deduction of taxes and social security) - specify currency (€ £ \$ R) *

3.9 Sexual identity *

- Gay
- Lesbian
- Bisexual
- Transgender
- Unlabelled
- Other
- Confidential

3.10 Are you open about your sexuality in your home environment? *

- Yes
- No
- Somewhat/partially

3.11 Do you have children or plan on having children? *

- Yes, I have child(ren)
- No, I do not want children
- No, but I plan on having children in the future
- Maybe/undecided

4.1 Which of the below gay-friendly cities/islands/resort towns have you visited in the last 5 years (2012 - 2016) for leisure (holiday) purposes? Multiple responses allowed *

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Miami | <input type="checkbox"/> Phuket | <input type="checkbox"/> Mexico City |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Berlin | <input type="checkbox"/> Sao Paulo | <input type="checkbox"/> Barcelona |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rome | <input type="checkbox"/> Vancouver | <input type="checkbox"/> Madrid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Los Angeles | <input type="checkbox"/> Tokyo | <input type="checkbox"/> Buenos Aires |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Paris | <input type="checkbox"/> San Francisco | <input type="checkbox"/> London |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sydney | <input type="checkbox"/> Rio de Janeiro | <input type="checkbox"/> Tel Aviv |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gran Canaria | <input type="checkbox"/> Sitges | <input type="checkbox"/> New York City |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hawaii | <input type="checkbox"/> Amsterdam | <input type="checkbox"/> Ibiza |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mykonos | <input type="checkbox"/> Puerto Vallarta | <input type="checkbox"/> None of above, please specify the city/resort town/island (not a country) only: |
-

4.2 Which of the following gay-friendly cities/islands/resort towns are you planning on visiting over the next 3 years (2016 - 2018) for leisure (holiday) purposes? Multiple responses allowed *

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Miami | <input type="checkbox"/> Phuket | <input type="checkbox"/> Mexico City |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Berlin | <input type="checkbox"/> Sao Paulo | <input type="checkbox"/> Barcelona |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rome | <input type="checkbox"/> Vancouver | <input type="checkbox"/> Madrid |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Los Angeles | <input type="checkbox"/> Tokyo | <input type="checkbox"/> Buenos Aires |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Paris | <input type="checkbox"/> San Francisco | <input type="checkbox"/> London |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sydney | <input type="checkbox"/> Rio de Janeiro | <input type="checkbox"/> Tel Aviv |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gran Canaria | <input type="checkbox"/> Sitges | <input type="checkbox"/> New York City |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hawaii | <input type="checkbox"/> Amsterdam | <input type="checkbox"/> Ibiza |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mykonos | <input type="checkbox"/> Puerto Vallarta | <input type="checkbox"/> None of above, please specify a city/island/resort town (not a country) only: |
-

4.3 Are there any destinations that you would avoid travelling to for reasons related to your sexuality? If yes, please indicate the destination and your reason for avoiding it. *

- No
- Yes, please provide destination and reason below

4.4 How often do you take an international leisure trip (holiday)? *

- Once a year
- Twice a year
- More than twice a year
- Once every two years
- Other, please specify:

4.5 Please add any comments you think could contribute to this study

**Annexure B
Ethical clearance certificate**



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Symphony Road Bellville 7535

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	Faculty: BUSINESS
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At a meeting of the Research Ethics Committee on 17 June 2015, Ethics Approval was granted to HATTINGH, Chris (209060174) for research activities Related to the MTech/DTech: DTech: TOURISM & HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Title of dissertation/thesis:	Cape Town as a gay tourism destination: the development of a niche market framework Supervisor: Prof J Spencer
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Comments:

Decision: **APPROVED**

	17 June 2015
Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	Date

	15/10/2015
Signed: Chairperson: Faculty Research Committee	Date

Clearance Certificate No | 2015FBREC261

Annexure C

Exchange rates

The following exchange rates obtained on 13 December 2016 were used to convert all foreign currencies to rands. This table displays the average South African rand (ZAR) rate against the currencies listed below:

Australia	AUD	0.095000
Brazil	BRL	0.240089
Canada	CAD	0.093650
European Union	EURO	0.067767
United Kingdom	GBP	0.056882
United States	USD	0.072289

**Annexure D
Language editing certificate**

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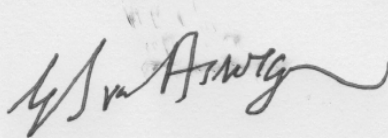
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ACADEMIC WRITING

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The DTech: Hospitality and Tourism Management thesis by **Christiaan Hattingh** titled 'A Typology of Gay Leisure Travellers: An African Perspective' has been edited, the in-text citations and references have been checked for correctness and conformance with the CPUT Harvard bibliographic style guide, and the candidate has been advised to make the recommended changes.



Dr ES van Aswegen
5 September 2017