© Ricky Yao Nutsugbodo

University of Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION AND POST-PURCHASE INTENTIONS OF

CAR RENTAL USERS IN GHANA

BY

RICKY YAO NUTSUGBODO

Thesis submitted to the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management of

the Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies,

University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award

of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Hospitality Management

OCTOBER 2019

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ………………………….   Date …………………………...

Name: Ricky Yao Nutsugbodo

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: ………………………   Date.………………

Name: Dr. Edem Kwesi Amenumey

Co-Supervisor's Signature: ………………………….   Date…………………

Name: Dr. (Mrs.) Eunice Fay Amissah

ABSTRACT

Car rentals are one of the major forms of transportation services in the country (Ghana Tourism Authority, GTA, 2014). The main objective of the study was to assess the motivation, purpose of use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions (PPI) of car rental users. Yoon and Uysal's (2005) destination loyalty model was adapted to guide the study. In all, 382 questionnaires sourced from Accra, Kumasi and Tamale using the quota and convenience sampling technique were deemed useful for analysis. The data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics and AMOS version 24 for SEM. The study showed that car rentals were mostly used to visit tourism and recreational sites, attend social and religious gatherings, attend business meetings, and for NGO and research-related activities. From the study, four factors (car rental features, escape-relaxation, ego-enhancement and novelty) accounted for user motivation. Majority of the users were satisfied with the rental services received. Also, four factors; staff performance, facilities/services, safety and security, and support services were found to have influenced users' satisfaction. The study revealed that PPI was expressed through three dimensions: using the service instead of others, using the service again in the future (reuse) and recommending the service to potential users. It is recommended that car rental operators should leverage on the purpose of use and users' motivations to market their facilities. In addition, operators are encouraged to put in mechanisms, such as organizing in-service training for the drivers and staff of rental facilities to improve their services to ensure the maximum satisfaction of users.

KEYWORDS

Motivation

Purpose of Use

Satisfaction

Post-purchase Intentions

Ghana

Structural Equation Modelling

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have seen the light of day, let alone completed at this opportune time, but for the support and encouragement offered by people of various fields. My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr. Edem Kwesi Amenumey and Dr. (Mrs) Eunice Fay Amissah for their support and contributions to my work. Their expertise, understanding and patience contributed significantly to my graduate experience. I also want to extend this appreciation to Prof. F. E. Amuquandoh, Prof. K. A. A. Boakye, Prof. I. Mensah, Dr. I. Adam, Dr. S. Hiamey, Dr. E. Addison, Dr. C. Adongo and all other teaching and non-teaching staff of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management who have contributed in no small measure to my university education – often unwittingly!

I owe enormous debts of gratitude to my parents, Mr. S. K. Nutsugbodo and C. B. A. Ankudjeh for their love, care and psychological support throughout my education. The same goes to my lovely siblings Jerome, Pearl and Jemima and my nieces Phyllis and Cindy and all other family friends for their support, not forgetting the entire Nutsugbodo and Ankudjeh families. Similarly, I wish to thank Dr. Oheneba Akyeampong and Mr. David Dzonto (all of whom were former UCC faculty members), Mr. Selassie Agudetse of the University of Ghana IT Directorate, Nancy, Olivia (UENR), Prince Justin Anku and; Lawrencia, Nina, Ernestina, Godwin, Priscilla and Gloria Afful and their family for their friendship.

I am also indebted to many friends, distant and close, from Awate Agame to Anfoega Bume to Accra, Cape Coast and Sunyani who directly and indirectly got me interested in the phenomenon that is tourism and postgraduate studies. I take responsibility for all errors and omissions found herein.

v

DEDICATION

To my lovely wife, Bernadette Ekua Bedua Afful and my son, Erel Ebo Dzidzor

Sam-Ricky

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	One-way Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CEN	European Committee for Standardisation
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
CRAG	Car Rentals Association of Ghana
CRF	Car Rental Features
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EGO	Ego-enhancement
ESC_REL	Escape – Relaxation
EQS	Structural Equation Modelling Software
EV	Eigenvalue
FA	Factor Analysis
FAS	Facilities and Services
FL	Factor Loading
GATTA	Ghana Association of Travel and Tour Agents
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
KFC	Kentucky Fried Chicken
KMO	Kaiser Meyer Olkin

LISREL	Linear Structural Relations
LSD	Least Significant Difference
MoTCCA	Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts
NFI	Normed Fit Index
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NOV	Novelty
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PPI	Post-purchase Intentions
REL	Reliability
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SAF	Safety and Security
SAN	Sanitation
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SERVPERF	Service Performance
SERVQUAL	Service Quality
SPE	Staff Performance
SPSS	Statistical Product for Service Solution
SUS	Support Services
SUV	Sport Utility Vehicle
TCRP	Transportation Cooperative Research Programme
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
TOUGHA	Tour Operators Union of Ghana
TRB	Transportation Research Board

UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VE	Variance Explored
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Cooley's (1894) detailed account on 'the theory of transportation' acknowledges the concept as one of the key features underpinning social and economic development. Cooley argued that the essence of transport is not only to overcome the physical constraints of distance, but also to meet human needs for movement across time and space, which includes travelling for tourism (pleasure and business). Even very early examples of hospitality and tourism, dating to the Roman and Medieval period, required the evolution of transport, particularly its mechanisation and use of technology so that travel could occur (Fridgen, 1996; McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990; Page, 2009).

The hospitality and tourism industry, which is seen as a service-oriented industry, sells travel experience through the provision of a wide range of services, mainly from accommodation, food service, transportation to attractions among others (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2000; Lumsdon & Page, 2004; Mensah & Dei-Mensah, 2013; Page, Brunt, Busby & Connell, 2001). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2016) identifies tourism as a major force in the economy of nations, providing direct and indirect employment opportunities for millions of people.

Tourism which is essentially about the movement of people within space in search for novelty and familiarity, making use of hospitality facilities and

interacting with diverse groups of people (Hall, 2005) makes the provision of transport services imperative in the industry. Hence, the demand for transport services is on the increase and it serves as a fundamental prerequisite in the hospitality and tourism phenomenon (Akyeampong & Adjei-Ohemeng, 2016; Page, 2005).

Travel for the purposes of consuming hospitality and tourism services is likely not to occur without the necessary infrastructure and the varying modes of transport (Page, 2009). Transport and its accompanying infrastructure, therefore, are acknowledged as providing an essential link between the tourist origin, destination and transit regions (Leiper, 1990) and facilitates the movement of holidaymakers, business travellers, people visiting friends and relatives and those travelling for 'educational tourism' (Page, 2009). Not only is transport a driving force in the tourism supply chain, but it is also an integral part of the tourism industry. Examining Leiper's (1990) 'basic tourism system' (Figure 1) which
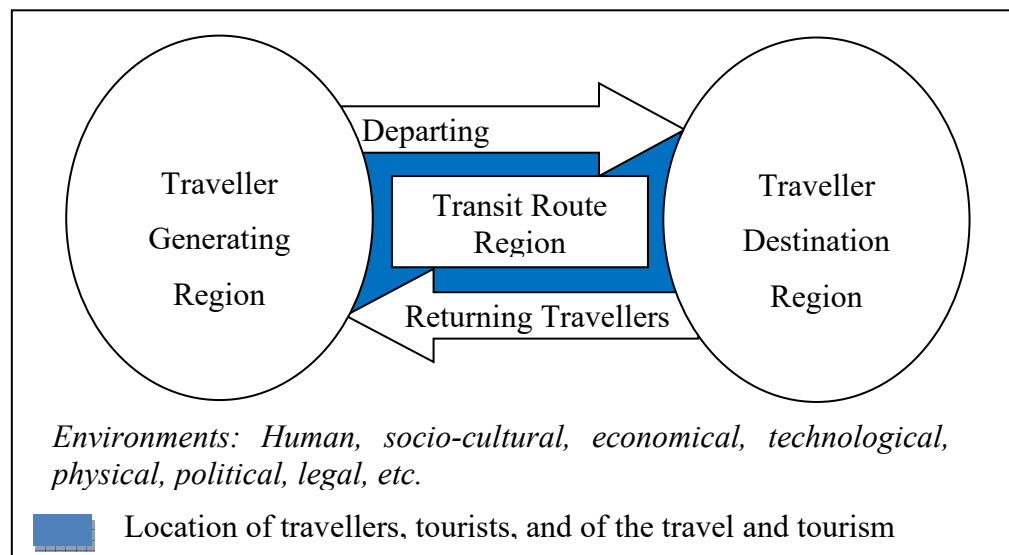
Figure 1: The Basic Tourism System

Source: Leiper (1990)

perhaps is the simplest pictorial illustration that encapsulates the central role of transport in the hospitality and tourism phenomenon; transport, whether motorised, human- or animal-powered, takes tourists (customers/consumers) from the generating region to their destination via a transit route if necessary.

Literature indicates a number of ways by which people or 'would be tourists' make their journeys to and within destinations. Stradling and Anabele (2008) noted that the desire to travel is underpinned by three distinct modes of human transport: self-propelled modes (walking), augmented modes (using technology or tools to amplify our bodily effort, such as skiing, bicycle) and fuelled modes (motorised transport). There have also been debates in the transport literature as to whether tourism specific transport exits or not (Akyeapmong, 2007; Lumsdon & Page, 2004; Mensah, 2009).

While it is readily acknowledged that there are specialized and dedicated forms of 'tourism transport' - tourist coaches, charter flights and cruise liners (Lumsdon, Downward & Rhoden, 2006; Page, 2009), there are other forms of transport which are also not dedicated solely for tourism purposes, but its usage is by the hosts and the tourists – car rental and public transport facilities (Abou-Zeid & Ben-Akiva, 2012; George & Xia, 2011; Grdzelishvili & Sathre, 2011). At the destination, tourists use rental cars and public transport facilities to travel outside the confines of the tourist resort or region they are staying in (Le-Klahn, Gerike & Hall, 2014; Le-Klahn & Hall, 2015; Thomas & Walker, 2015; Willis, Manaugh & El-Geneidy, 2013).

3

Car rentals provide essential services in the development of hospitality and tourism at destinations (Akyeampong & Adjei-Ohemeng, 2016; Busse & Swinkels, 2012; Pazour & Roy, 2015). With this, the experiences and satisfaction of customers are enhanced by guaranteeing them safe, clean, easily accessible and efficient transportation services at the destination. This further enhances the mobility of individuals and groups by making available effective and efficient modes of movement (Tran & Kleiner, 2005). Car rental as defined by the Transport Cooperative Research Program (TCRP) (2005) is the transport service that "provides members with access to a fleet of vehicles on an hourly basis" (p. 1).

Travel using car rental service dates to at least the early part of the twentieth century (Carroll & Grimes, 1995). However, there were some forms of renting vehicles during the Ancient Roman Empire (Automotive Fleet, 1962), when chariots were rented to transport agricultural and construction goods. The early part of the twentieth century was the era when the invention of the automobile was at its infant stage, and their ownership was the preserve of the affluent in society. The last two decades have seen a resurgence in the use of car rental services. This is described as the most sought-after transportation service at a destination whose public transport system is plagued with a myriad of problems. Growth in customer numbers both in proportional and absolute terms has been appreciable. According to Carrol and Grimes (1995) and the Transport Cooperative Research Program (TCRP) (2005), the car rental industry has a huge prospect.

Akyeampong and Adjei-Ohemeng (2016) and Ekiz and Bavik (2008) posit that patrons of car rental services vary. They noted that it is not only a preserve of tourists but rather all and sundry that needs 'personal' transportation services for daily activities. Anecdotal evidence suggests that leading patrons of rental cars are corporate organisations. TCRP (2005) observed that one of the primary reasons for travellers' choice of car rental services is the flexibility it guarantees.

The need to travel, where to go and by what means one has to use to get to that destination are issues that are basically studied through the motivation lens, thus, in its purest sense, it is the driving force behind human actions (Page, 2009). Since people travel for reasons of spirituality, social status, escape and cultural enrichment (Goeldner, Ritchie & McIntosh, 2000), there are varying reasons why people also use car rental services. While some of these reasons may be generic in terms of economic, social and psychological, the influence of the car rentals' own attributes cannot be ignored (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008). The concept of motivation as propounded by Dann (1977) has been classified into two distinct categories; 'push' referring to the personal objective reasons and 'pull', the attractiveness of the object (car rental). Like that of the 'push' and 'pull', literature also propounds the decomposition of the concept into intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Gustavo, 2010), where the former explains inherent reasons why people choose a preferred transport mode and the latter explaining the physical features informing the choice of a preferred mode.

Reasons for the use of car rental services identified comprise both push and pull factors (Le-Klahn et al., 2014). According to Le-Klahn et al. (2014),

5

people look for alternative modes due to reasons such as difficulties in driving, avoiding parking cost and reducing congestion. Specifically, people's desire to use car rental services is a function of them seeking comfort, drive-free benefit, environmentally friendly mode, ease of access, flexibility, ergonomics and the attractiveness/physical conditions of the mode (Dallen, 2007; Ekiz & Bavik, 2008; Guiver, Lumsdon, Weston & Ferguson, 2007; Stradling, Carreno, Rye & Noble, 2007). It is however interesting to note that car rental use basically comes in two folds, that is, 'car rental with driver' and self-drive. Irrespective of which type is being used, users will always seek for comfort, ease of access and flexibility.

Research has conceptualised a relationship between car rental users' motivation, the purposes for which they use the service for (activities for which the services of car rental facilities are needed), likewise satisfaction (Krueger, Rashidi & Rose, 2016; Le-Klahn, Hall & Gerike, 2014; Lumsdon & Page, 2004). Measuring users' satisfaction with car rental services is an essential aspect of the transportation research and practice. Le-Klahn et al. (2014) observed that improving services and increasing the number of users depend on understanding the expectations of the user.

The transportation literature has identified several factors to have influenced user satisfaction in relation to the use of transportation facilities (Hansson & Holmgren, 2017; van Lierop, Badami & El-Geneidy, 2018; Ozdemir, Aksu, Ehtiyar, Cizel, Cizel & Icigen, 2012). Some of these include security issues and comfort; frequency of travel, travel time and punctuality which Budiono

6

(2009) referred to as 'soft quality' and 'functional quality' respectively. Other issues such as charges (price), timely delivery of the vehicle, owner flexibility, vehicle quality and capacity to take you to your destination largely influence satisfaction. Consequently, it is acknowledged that satisfaction can lead to positive future outcomes, such as the intention to reuse the service (loyalty) and positive word-of-mouth recommendations (Lai & Chen, 2011; Kim & Lee, 2011).

There is a consensus within the service marketing and tourism literature that, the study on motivation and satisfaction can be enriched when studied in relation to post-purchase intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010; Wang, Chen, Fan & Lu, 2012). Researchers such as Chen and Chen (2010) and Oliver (2010) have studied motivation and satisfaction all within the perspective of post-purchase intentions. Adam, Adongo and Amuquandoh (2017) analysed a host of issues and concluded that post-purchase intention is the degree of the behavioural outcome based on indicators such as reuse intentions and or willingness to recommend.

Within the hospitality and tourism industry 'servicescape', businesses are becoming very competitive (Cao, 2012). It is therefore imperative to ensure that customers are always satisfied. Satisfied customers who are loyal and recommend services/products to others bring benefits to the business (Brunner, Stocklin & Opwis, 2008). Positive post-purchase intentions exhibited through either reuse intentions, loyalty and recommendations enhance the businesses' increased profits and lowers cost/price (Reichheld & Schefter, 2000).

The literature further states that there is a direct linkage between motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions (Adam et al., 2017; Prayag,

Hosany, Muskat & Del Chiappa, 2017). Prayag et al. (2017) noted that once a consumer decides to patronize a service based on 'push' and 'pull' factors, there is a sense of satisfaction which in turn leads to post-purchase intentions which could either be reuse, recommendation or finding an alternative. Adam et al. (2017: 6) in their study also observed that "there is a direct causal link between motivation and satisfaction, and satisfaction and post-purchase intentions". They extended their argument and opined that satisfaction serves as a mediator between motivation and post-purchase intentions.

Though there is no detailed documentation on car rental use in Ghana, anecdotal evidence suggests that its use is on the increase within the destination. Ghana's hospitality and tourism industry has witnessed some growth in the number of car rental facilities (Ghana Tourism Authority, [GTA], 2014; Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts, [MoTCCA], 2014). The licensed car rental sector shows a healthy growth from 53 companies in 2005, 92 in 2010 and 160 as of 2014 (GTA, 2014; MoTCCA, 2014). According to the MoTCCA (2014), the car rental subsector generated 2 percent direct employment out of the entire employment generated by the hospitality and tourism industry. Modern car rental facilities in the country include Avis Rent-a-Car, Yoks Car Rentals, Royal German Car Rental Services and Euro Star Car Rentals. Given the projected outlook of the car rental market and other hospitality and tourism services as indicated in Ghana's National Tourism Policy Document (2013-2027), there is the need to expand and invest in the transportation industry for the destination to become very competitive in the sub-region.

Statement of the Problem

There is a steady rise in research focusing on the travel behaviour of people within the existing transportation literature (Beirao & Sarsfield-Cabral, 2007; Busse & Swinkels, 2012; Hiscock, Macintyre, Kearns & Ellaway, 2002; Pazour & Roy, 2015). However, empirical evidence gives an indication that the study on car rental users is at an early developmental stage. The focus of car rental service providers is geared towards meeting and even better exceeding customer expectations (Teye & Leclerc, 1998; Ekiz & Bavik, 2008).

Ekiz and Bavik (2008) and the TCRP (2005) affirm that, notwithstanding the considerable increase in the car rental market, few studies have focused on understanding the dynamics of the car rental user. More importantly, customers' purpose of use, factors influencing their demand, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions have not yet been fully explored within the car rental literature. In furtherance to this, while studies have found out that there is the need to understand satisfaction and post-purchase intentions as outcomes of motivation, such investigations have seldom been undertaken within the car rental literature. In situations where this construct (satisfaction) has been studied (Morfoulaki, Tyrinopoulos & Aifadopoulou, 2007; Nutsugbodo, 2013), it was analysed using the single-dimensional approach, that is, treating the construct as a composite aggregate, without studying the various underlying factors influencing the various concepts.

In furtherance to the identification of the research gap, several studies within the transportation literature focusing on motivation, satisfaction have

9

extended their study to include post-purchase intentions (Park & Park, 2018; Wu, Cheng & Ai, 2018; Yin, Poon & Su, 2017). However, most studies on post-consumption intentions have analysed the scenario using constructs such as reuse/repurchase intentions (Kim & Park, 2016; de Ona, de Ona, Eboli, Forciniti & Mazzulla, 2018), or willingness to recommend (Hosany & Witham, 2009; Wu et al., 2018) but have rarely considered both constructs. Whilst a body of knowledge exists on the phenomenon, not much has been done in relation to the car rental market.

Also, the adapted framework, destination loyalty model (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which forms the building block of this study was originally hypothesized and tested in a Western setting. Due to the cultural environment and differences that exist, it is likely that cultural factors will influence its applicability. Using a structured equation model, the study sought to establish the applicability of the adapted conceptual framework within the car rental setting in a developing nation.

Furthermore, existing studies have also focused on Europe, Asia and the Americas with little or no empirical base (Carroll & Grimes, 1995; TCRP Report, 2005). These studies also have their focus on taxation (Palmer-Tous, Riera-Font & Rossello-Nadal, 2007), car rental revenue management (Geraghty & Johnson, 1997; Lazov, 2017; Li & Pang, 2017; Oliveira, Carravilla & Oliveira, 2017) and queueing and fleet management (George & Xia, 2011). Other studies threw light on car rental logistics and problems (Fink & Reiners, 2006; You & Hsieh, 2014) and pricing (Czerny, Shi & Zhang, 2016).

Within the transportation literature in Ghana, studies on car rental users have rarely been conducted, much less an appraisal of their motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Niche market studies within the Ghanaian tourism literature have focused on; backpackers (Dayour, Adongo & Taale, 2016), homestay (Agyeiwaah, 2013; Mensah, Agyeiwaah & Dimache, 2017), public transport users (Nutsugbodo, Amenumey & Mensah, 2018), volunteer tourism (Otoo & Amuquandoh, 2014), and spa-goers (Adongo, Amuquandoh & Amenumey, 2017) with the car rental niche still a gray area. The pertinent issues mentioned coupled with the observation made by McKercher, Wong and Lau (2006) that the car rental market has a high level of prospect, makes this phenomenon worthy of investigation. A plethora of questions have to be answered - who are the users of car rental services, what motivates them, what purpose do they use the service for, how satisfied are they, and what are their future intentions? It is against this background that the study sought to investigate the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of car rental users in Ghana.

Research Objectives

The main objective of the study was to assess the motivation, purpose of use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of car rental users. The specific objectives were to:

1. Find out the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of the car rental user;

2. Find out the purpose of use of car rental services;

3. Identify users' motivation for using car rental services;

4. Examine the satisfaction levels of car rental users;

5. Analyse the post-purchase intentions of the car rental user;

6. Develop a structural model to explain the interrelationships between the constructs (motivation, purpose of use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions).

Research Hypotheses

1. Hypothesis 1 (H1) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on purpose of use of car rental services;

2. Hypothesis 2 (H2) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on purpose of use of car rental services;

3. Hypothesis 3 (H3) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on satisfaction;

4. Hypothesis 4 (H4) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on satisfaction;

5. Hypothesis 5 (H5) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions;

6. Hypothesis 6 (H6) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions;

7. Hypothesis 7 (H7) = Purpose of use of car rental services have a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions;

12

8. Hypothesis 8 (H8) = Satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions.

Significance of the Study

The essence for a study on motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of car rental services is justified by several arguments. An important element of the tourism phenomenon which is transport (Akyeampong & Adjei-Ohemeng, 2016) has been extensively discussed in the literature, particularly with respect to transport to and from destinations (Cohen, Higham, Peeters & Gossling, 2014; Scot, Gossling & Hall, 2012). However, transport has not been thoroughly examined within a destinations' perspective (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Prideaux, 2000), specifically car rental services (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008). The study, therefore, discusses theoretical and empirical evidence on car rental services by highlighting the fundamental factors of users' motivation, use, and satisfaction from the Ghanaian context. The study would, therefore, serve as baseline information that would propel further studies in the area of car rental use in Ghana's hospitality and tourism landscape since existing literature has rarely focused on these issues. The results will also help fill the identified gaps in the literature.

Secondly, with respect to the service providers, delving into the underlying dimensions of the car rental market would give them a broader picture to understand the motivation, purpose of use and satisfaction in order to enhance tailor-made services to meet customers' dynamic needs. For them, more clients mean more income generated. From the perspective of destination managers,

13

GTA, and their subsidiaries, understanding and encouraging car rental use would contribute in their bid to attract visitors to ensure the sustainable development of the hospitality and tourism industry at the destination.

Again, with respect to the customers, destination characteristics including transport infrastructure are significant factors in selecting a preferred destination (Ashworth & Page, 2011; Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2007). Enhancing car rental services is therefore imperative for the attractiveness of the destination. A first-rate car rental system would enhance visitor mobility and subsequently contribute to offering enhanced experiences. Kim (2014), Mandeno (2011) and Yang (2010) observed that improving tourism services would benefit the destination's tourism economy and enhance visitors' utility. Furthermore, data on car rental attributes and its purpose of use/usage can help service providers to beef up their service delivery. Besides, their satisfaction and post-purchase intentions can impact customer relationship management, through customer loyalty.

Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis was organised into nine chapters. Chapter One has information pertaining to the background information for the study, statement of the problem, research objectives and research hypotheses, and the justification of the study. Theoretical and empirical literature was reviewed in Chapters Two and Three. Chapter Two explored the theories and models used in the study. Chapter Three provides a review of the relevant empirical literature on attributes of car rental

14

users, motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. This chapter also discussed the proposed conceptual framework for the study.

Chapter Four threw light on the philosophical dimensions of the study. This included information on the study areas, the research approach/design, the population and sampling techniques used, how the research instrument was designed, and the procedure used for the data collection. Others include the measurement of variables and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

The results were presented in Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight. Specifically, Chapter Five focused on analysing the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of the respondents. Chapter Six and Seven also analysed the objectives pertaining to motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Chapter Eight threw light on the development of the structural equation model for the study. Finally, Chapter Nine summarised the thesis and drew the relevant conclusions based on the findings. The limitations, recommendations, as well as areas for future research were also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL

LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviewed the literature on the historical overview and the conceptualisation of car rental operations. It also gave a detailed account of the various theories, concepts and models adduced for measuring motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. These include Maslow's (1943) theory of needs model, Dann's (1977; 1981) push and pull theory and optimal arousal theory (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Others include the expectancy – disconfirmation paradigm (Oliver, 1977; 1981), the destination loyalty model (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), customer loyalty model (Lin & Wang, 2006) and the satisfaction loyalty theory (Jen, Tu & Lu, 2011).

Brief History of Car Rental Operations

The historical evolution of car rental services can be traced to the early part of the twentieth century. Car renting has developed in recent times that many regards it as a contemporary development. Firnkorn and Muller (2012) have emphasised the potentials of rental car services in terms of business prospects and a solution to sustainable transportation needs. Historically, the concept of rent-a-car began in 1918 as a simple business concept (Carroll & Grimes, 1995). However, the earliest known examples of renting vehicles were in Ancient Rome,

16

when chariots were rented to aid the transportation of agricultural and construction goods or to travel long distances (Automotive Fleet, 1962). The *plaustrum, essedum* and *raeda* were the most common rented chariots. Details capturing the various types of chariots rented are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Types of Rented Chariots in Ancient Rome

Transportation Type	Description	Main Use(s)
Plaustrum	Wooden board with no top. Two or four thick solid wheels with sides or no sides and drawn by oxen (usually two)	Transportation of (heavy) goods
Essedum	Small chariot with opened top and closed front, for two passengers standing up and pulled by one or many horses or mules	Transportation of persons and goods (occasionally)
Cisium	No top, a seat for two passengers sitting. It has two wheels drawn by one or two mules or horses driven by taxi drivers.	Transportation of persons
Raeda	No top or clothed top. Many benches for many passengers. For wheels drawn by many oxen, mules or horses and driven by the *raedarius*.	Transportation of persons
Carpentum	Arched top (often wooden) with four wheels and drawn by mules or horses.	Transportation of persons (affluent in society)
Carruca	Arched top (often wooden) with four wheels and drawn by usually two mules and horses.	Transportation of persons (affluent in society)
Curus clabularis	Top made of cloth and have four wheels usually drawn by oxen, mules or horses.	Transportation of military equipment

Source: Austin (2014); Ramsey (1925)

The history of renting cars is to some extent shrouded in some mystery. However, much evidence seems to trace this to the evolution of the automobile in the United States between 1900 and 1920 (Carroll & Grimes, 1995; Korstanje, 2011; Shaheen, Sperling & Wagner, 1999). The literature has a consensus that the first commercial car rental was done by Joe Saunders of Nebraska in 1916 at a place called Omaha, Nebraska (Automotive Fleet, 1962). Joe Saunders began his car rental carrier by renting out his 'used' Model T Ford. After carrying out an advert in the Omaha World Heritage, he made his first sale by renting to a salesman for 10 cents per mile.

This noble beginning experienced exponential growth and by 1925, the business had facilities in 21 states. However, because of the economic downturn (Great Depression), he sold the business to John Hertz, who with his massive investment has made Hertz become a leading name in the car rental business globally today (Boyd & Phillips, 1992; Carroll & Grimes, 1995; Phillips, 1994). Shaheen, Cohen and Chung (2009) also noted that in 1998, the first successful launch of the modern car rental systems took place in Portland, Oregon in the United States.

Over the past decades, the travel-related rent-a-car market has changed dramatically with major rental firms such as Hertz, Avis, National and Budget dominating. Syratt and Archer (2012) noted that the dominance of these major firms is because of many partnerships formed within the tourism-hospitality continuum (hotels, shipping companies, tour operators, travel agents and airlines). Deducing from the facts above, it can be concluded that these efforts from rental

18

firms (advertising and partnerships) have informed the successes of recent rental facilities.

Conceptualisation of Car Rental Services

Car renting is well positioned within the contemporary category of mobility services that draw on modern technology to enable access to car-based mobility without the consumer owning the physical car. Le Vine, Zolfaghari and Polak (2014) noted that the concept of car renting contrasts with the conventional system of selling cars to end users if they need to ride in a car and/or making available public transportation services to customers. Rather, it involves a little bit of marketing or advertising of one's services using new organisational structures and modern ways of interacting with clients. This terminology has by no means been consistent and it is a continuing source of confusion for both industry professionals and end-users.

Le Vine et al. (2014) classify car rental services into four main categories based on customer experience. These categories include round-trip car rental, peer-to-peer car rental, point-to-point free-floating car rental and point-to-point station-based car rental. Details of these categories are presented in Table 2.

The concept of car rental has been referred to as car-sharing in some jurisdictions (Pan & Nguyen, 2015; Rabbitt & Ghosh, 2013; Shaheen et al., 1999). The term consequently has been defined by Rabbit and Ghosh (2013) as schemes where members can rent cars from convenient points on a short term, for a monthly subscription fee, a per-hour fee and/or a per km travelled fee. Another

19

Table 2: Definitions of Types of Car Rentals

Type of car rental	Definitions
Round-trip	It is the means by which an individual make use of rental services whereby usage is 'round-trip', in that, the customer must return the car to the same place where it was accessed and pay for its use.
Peer-to-peer	It is a model of car rental service whereby private individuals give their excess vehicles (personal vehicles) for use by others (peers) and receive payments when it is rented out.
Point-to-point free-floating	This is defined as the system in which a car rental facility is used under the circumstances that the vehicle is picked from one location, used and parked at another location designated by the owner.
Point-to-point station-based	This system of car renting involves an individual making use of rental facilities whereby the user picks up a vehicle from one parking station and returns it to another.

Source: Adapted from Ballus-Armet, Shaheen, Clonts and Weinzimmer (2014); Ferrero, Perboli, Rosano and Vesco (2018); Le Vine et al. (2014); Shaheen, Mallery and Kingsley (2012)

definition that corroborates this definition is that of Le Vine et al. (2014) which also emphasised on the renting schedules and defined it as the hiring of a motor vehicle from one party to another party either on a daily, weekly or monthly basis. These views emphasize 'renting-schedules' as a key defining characteristic of car rental/sharing, hence, renting-schedules take the centre stage in the conceptualisation of car rental because the actual and ancillary services delivered

20

to the consumer are time-bound. In many instances, these schedules are pre-determined by the operator or can be negotiated to suit both parties.

Shaheen et al. (1999) consider car rental services as a phenomenon that must not be viewed just from the perspective of the renting-schedules. They hold the view that car rental services are supposed to guarantee riding benefits to individuals who do not have the luxury to purchase their own but seek to enjoy the benefits associated with it. They subsequently defined it as individuals gaining the benefits of private cars without the cost and responsibilities of ownership. Their assertion was also buttressed by Kek, Cheu, Meng and Fung (2009) and Seik (2000) who were of the view that rental systems are schemes that allow people access to cars without having to own them. The key underlying construct here is the concept of ownership. In this regard, individuals have access to ride in cars that do not necessarily belong to them on a pre-determined contractual basis. These definitions can be equated to the benefits derived from using car rentals. According to Ekiz and Bavik (2008) and Syratt and Archer (2012), the main elements of car rental experience sought by users is to enjoy the comfort, flexibility, convenience and the security associated with it.

Wagner and Shaheen (1998) also argued that this concept can be viewed from the individual and/or cooperative perspective. They argued that the former comprises circumstances whereby an individual who owns a fleet of vehicles makes them available for use by the public for a period and at a cost. In their view, the cooperative perspective involves individuals gaining access to rental vehicles by joining organisations that maintain a fleet of cars in a network of

21

vehicle locations. An extension of this assertion is that the access to these vehicles is only available to members of these organisations who pay a modest fixed charge plus a usage fee each time they use a vehicle.

Concept of Motivation

The need to travel and the type of mode to be selected for that travel are usually triggered by the concept of motivation. It is therefore imperative to understand why people select particular modes of transport. An inquiry into these motivations, according to Kozak (2002) will help destinations to identify travel needs, markets and attributes of transportation facilities that would appeal to users and that must be promoted in order to remain competitive within the sub-region (Mensah, 2009). Much academic attention has been received by the concept of motivation as applied in tourism-transportation studies with Kim (2014) suggesting that it is on a trajectory growth. The theoretical advancements and writings of Crompton (1979), Dann (1977; 1981), Iso-Ahola (1982), Maslow (1943), and Yoon and Uysal (2005) have formed the 'building blocks' of motivation research.

Motivation has been used to denote an inner state that expresses and strengthens human behaviour as well as the driving force behind all actions (Fodness, 1994; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Lei, 2010). Kim (2010) and Moutinho (2007) also conceptualise the concept as an array of psychological needs that triggers people to act in a way or the factors or attributes that stimulate and influence human behaviour. These definitions have analysed the concept as unidirectional

22

to consider it as a set of intrinsic drivers. Critically examining Dann's (1977) conceptualisation of motivation in terms of its 'push' and 'pull', it provides the basis for the concept to be seen from two folds – intrinsic and extrinsic. In this regard, motivation has been re-defined in its entirety to comprise intrinsic and extrinsic factors that stimulate behaviour (Kao, Patterson, Scott & Li, 2008; Swanson & Horridge, 2006). The push factors (intrinsic) are the needs, wants and desires of individuals, whereas the pull factors (extrinsic) are shaped by perceptions of the destination (Dann, 1981).

Maslow Theory of Needs

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs model proposes that human needs which serve as motivators can be arranged in a hierarchical form comprising lower-order needs/deficiency needs and higher-order/growth needs. According to Abraham Maslow, these needs are essential to optimal human existence; lower-order/deficiency needs are physiological, safety and love/belonging while higher-order/growth needs are esteem and self-actualization. The theory proposes that the lower-level needs must be satisfied before the higher-level needs become important. In the tourism and hospitality industry, travel motivation reflects one's needs and wants and can be viewed as a critical variable in relation to purchasing decisions (Correia & Kozak, 2017; Šimková & Holzner, 2014).

Transport systems are paramount in the entire value chain of the tourism product and Maslow's hierarchy theory helps to understand the motive behind the kind of transport experience travellers seek (Khan, Qianli, SongoBo, Zaman &

Zhang, 2017; van Truong & Shimizu, 2017). For destination marketers and promoters, it is considered a useful tool for transport businesses to understand consumer motivations. This will enable them to develop marketing strategies and craft appropriate advertising tools that will appeal, attract and build customer loyalty with its resultant effect being an increase in positive post-purchase intentions (Jaapar, Musa, Moghavvemi & Saub, 2017; Liu & Chou, 2016; Mutanga, Vengesayi, Chikuta, Muboko & Gandiwa, 2017). For instance, physiologically, transport users want assurance that a car rental service is comfortable and has high quality vehicles to provide satisfactory services.

Users also require information about the safety and credibility of a transport corporation in delivering services to clients (Correia & Kozak, 2017). Similarly, Nakamura and Abe (2016) state that joy, convenience, mobility and safety are the four main determinants of car rental service for the modern-day user. It is therefore imperative for promotional materials and campaigns of transport businesses to provide in-depth information on the promptness, comfortability, mobility and safety of the services (Liu & Chou, 2016; Oliveira, et al., 2017). Mutanga et al. (2017) maintain that destinations with secure and reliable transport systems are fast growing because, physiologically, tourists feel closer to such destinations.

According to Heitmann (2011), social belonging and self-esteem needs can play a central role in motivating people to make a transportation choice. People want to belong to a certain social group when travelling to or undertaking travels at a destination (Sato, Kim, Buning & Harada, 2016; Šimková & Holzner,

2014). It is observed that psychocentric tourists/users exhibit high probability to use transport services with their identified group, especially in cases of organized tours (Weaver, 2012). On the contrary, allocentric tourists/users may be comfortable sharing transport with new people from different cultural, ethnic and religious backgrounds or simply rely on public transport services (Masiero & Zoltan, 2013).

Aside, Nakamura and Abe (2016) argue that car rental entities that provide high satisfaction to prominent people can attract several customers because the consumption of such a transport system communicates a sense of recognition and belonging to a certain social class. It makes users feel part of a new social group, thereby developing a high sense of belonging. Self-esteem needs can also be used to motivate people to purchase the services of a transport provider by sharing information about the transport service with others after returning home. This aids in satisfying the self-esteem needs of car rental users.

Word of mouth from family and friends is by far one of the most powerful tools to generate interest of a colleague to use a product (Baber et al., 2016; Basri, Ahmad, Anuar & Ismail, 2016; Liu & Lee, 2016). Aside from referrals, satisfied customers themselves may develop a sense of pride and confidence that will necessitate reuse during subsequent visits. Transport service providers may provide the chance for self-actualization by improving knowledge, skills and interest of users which could be achieved by transport marketers improving their services through introducing advanced lectures by experts or celebrities while the service is being used. This, according to Liu and Chou (2016), Nakamura and Abe

(2016) and van Truong and Shimizu (2017) is a reflection that transport users seek to meet their aesthetic and safety needs as well as the need to know and understand something new. Self-actualization, which is the highest need in Maslow's hierarchy generates internal satisfaction and explains the necessity for acquiring knowledge and learning about different cultures and this is interconnected with transport.

Push-Pull Theory

Hospitality and tourism have become one of the strongest and most remarkable phenomena in recent times. Their true nature can be discovered through an attempt to understand how the various components are interconnected, what are the causes and effects, the conjectures and the reality (Seebaluck, Munhurrun, Naidoo & Rughoonauth, 2015; Wong, Musa & Taha, 2017). The push and pull theory uncovered the interconnections, conjectures and reasons why people travel to where and how they travel (Dann, 1977; Prayag & Ryan, 2011).

The theory states that motivations related to visitors' choice of a holiday destination can be classified into anomie and ego-enhancement. By taking a sociological approach to tourist motivation, the theory identifies anomie and ego-enhancement as two important travel motivations. Anomie represents the desire to transcend the feeling of isolation obtained in everyday life, where the tourist/consumer simply wishes to 'get away from it all' whereas ego-enhancement is derived from the level of personal needs (Dann 1981). It includes the need for social interaction where people wish to be recognized and the need to

have one's ego enhanced or boosted. Dann (1977) therefore argues that anomie and ego-enhancement motives are push and pull factors.

In general, the pull factors are considered to be external, situational, or cognitive motivations such as destination attributes (the unique natural and built environment, safety, sunshine, inexpensiveness, cultural activities, entertainment, sightseeing, local culture, cuisine and uniqueness of small towns/villages/cities) and leisure infrastructure (Devesa, Laguna & Palacios, 2010; Murdy, Alexander & Bryce, 2018; Seebaluck et al., 2015; Wong et al., 2017). Push factors reflect the psychological drivers of behaviour (Wu & Pearce, 2014) and are the internal motives or forces that can cause consumers to seek activities to reduce their needs, including the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure and social interactions (Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Chen & Chen, 2015; Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurrun, Seebaluck & Janvier, 2015).

In relation to car rental services, users can be categorized into anomie and ego-enhancement based on their push and pull factors. For instance, anomic users may just want to try something new by 'escaping' from the usual way of travelling at a destination (probably public transport). Prayag and Ryan (2011) contend that anomic tourists are young and mostly males and this creates the opportunity for them to use public transport at the destination. However, in their desire to try something different and a breakaway from the familiarity gap, they can opt for a car rental service since public transports mostly provide disconnected travels, meaning at different points, users must transit into a different vehicle (Bajada & Titheridge, 2017; Le-Klahn et al., 2014; Masiero &

27

Zoltan, 2013). Associated effects may include the generation of discomfort, stress, reduces the appreciation of sightseeing and sometimes more expensive than car rentals (Efthymiou & Antoniou, 2017; Haywood, Koning & Monchambert, 2017; Nordfjærn & Rundmo, 2018).

Satisfaction from previous use of car rentals can hence lead to reuse and recommendation (Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Chen & Chen, 2015). Ego-enhancement users, on the other hand, may not necessarily be intrigued by escaping from familiarity with regular transport systems but motivated to achieve social status. Ego-enhancement users would seek prestige and interaction with people from different higher social classes. They feel happy to use transportation services with people of higher reputation such as celebrities, successful entrepreneurs and sports personalities among others. They are also very quick to report their interaction with people of higher social class or even have picture evidence to show their interaction, hence serving as a motivation for purchasing the services of car rentals. In recent times also, electric and low carbon emission vehicles are used to provide personalised rental services to consumers (Barr & Prillwitz, 2012; Barr, Gilg & Shaw, 2011). Ego-enhancement consumers are known to have high purchasing power for such rental services to enhance their ego (Nakamura & Abe, 2016).

Optimal Arousal Theory

The social aspects of motivation described by Maslow (1943) and Crompton (1979) are rejected by Iso-Ahola (1982), who claims that motivation is

purely a psychological concept, not a social one. Iso-Ahola prefers to consider motivation in terms of optimal arousal whereby an individual will seek an environment he/she can achieve a personal psychological equilibrium. If an individual is over stimulated, they will seek an environment with less overwhelming stimuli, if they are under stimulated, they will choose destinations based on an expectation of excitement. In brief, the theory decomposes motivation into two main dimensions: escape (from the routine environment) and seeking (to intrinsic rewards) (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

In transport choice, the theory communicates the psychological element as the major influencing factor (Snepenger, King, Marshall & Uysal, 2006). Psychologically, tourists/users may expect a car rental service to provide restoration and relaxation. Iso-Ahola states that relaxation is a physical feeling, but restoration is the renewal of psychological faculties that may lead to relaxation. Relaxation may also be achieved by closing one's eyes, turning off the world, turning off one's mind and becoming positively empty of stress. Restoration, on the other hand, is not about passively escaping all perception (Balvinder, 2009), rather, it is to escape a fatiguing mode of interaction with the world and to activate a more primitive and natural mode of perception based on effortless fascination, with relaxation as its consequence (Balvinder, 2009; Iso-Ahola, 1982).

For instance, comfortability, safety and security of a transport service offer opportunity for relaxation after travelling long distances from the place of origin which helps to restore a person from mental stress. In effect, people would seek

29

for circumstances where they can be chauffeured, which can be seen from the under-stimulation and over-stimulation perspective (Moufakkir & AlSaleh, 2017). Based on this theory, escape is regarded as an opportunity to break away from a routine activity (using other modes rather than car rental or constant driving of personal vehicles). Also, those without their personal means of a vehicle could seek stimulation by using car rental services for their personal activities, which could be seen from the perspective of 'seeking'. The dichotomy of these motives is not mutually exclusive and often possible for an individual to be engaged in both motives simultaneously.

The psychological benefits of patronising quality car rental services attempt to avoid exposure of over-stimulation (mental or physical exhaustion) or boredom (too little stimulation) by awarding customers with memorable services (Snepenger et al., 2006). In brief, non-users of car rental services can break away from frequent public transport use to seeking different authentic transport experiences. Understanding of the emotional regulations and behaviours of customers through this model will enable car rental businesses to effectively plan, market and manage their business.

Destination Loyalty Model

According to Yoon and Uysal (2005), the success of marketing destinations should be guided by a thorough analysis of tourist motivation and how it interplays with tourist satisfaction and loyalty. The destination loyalty model encapsulates the theories of Crompton's (1979) and Dann's (1977, 1981)

push and pull model. The model presumes that destination loyalty is a function of satisfaction which is influenced by an interaction of pull and push attributes (Figure 2).
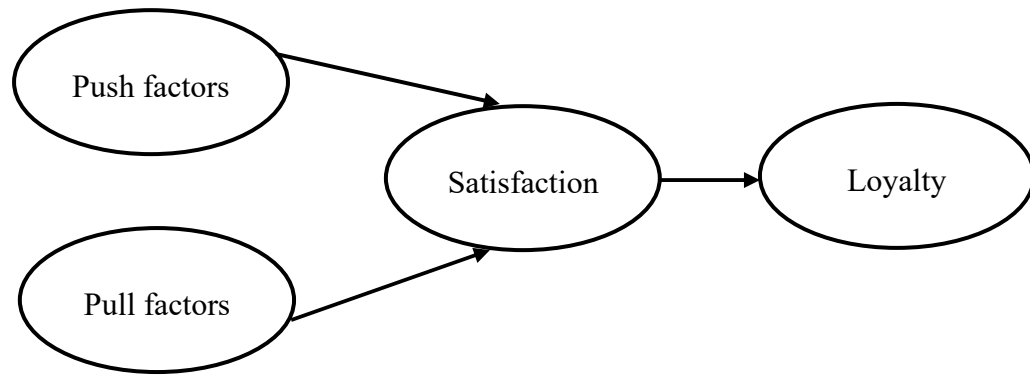
Figure 2: Destination Loyalty Model

Source: Yoon and Uysal (2005)

According to this theory, motivation and satisfaction in tourism have been extensively examined with less attention to loyalty (revisit/reuse intentions). To the proponents, people are persuaded to make travel decisions when they are influenced by internal and psychological forces (push) and external forces such as destination attributes (pull). This push and pull factors consequently influence satisfaction and customer loyalty (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994).

Tourists' loyalty to a destination is reflected in their intentions to revisit the destination and in their recommendation to others (Wu, Ai, Yang & Li, 2015; Wu, Cheng & Hong, 2017). This is an important theory in building a strong nexus between car rental services and users. Previous theories (Iso-Ahola, 1982;

31

Maslow, 1943) adapted to explain the motivation of users of car rental services, only emphasized the relevance of motivation without addressing how customers can remain loyal to their choice of service.

One of the delicate components of travel is transport. Transport plays a critical role in enhancing memorable experiences or generating negative memories (Berry, Eileen & Lewis, 2006; Kim, 2014). Customers can only develop and exhibit a high sense of loyalty if they have been wowed by the experiences of their rental facility (Mouwen, 2015; Sam, Hamidu & Daniels, 2017; Zhang et al., 2016).

Customers' positive experiences of service, add-ons and other resources provided by car rental services could produce repeat use as well as positive word-of-mouth effects to potential customers such as friends and/or relatives (Bramwell, 1998; Oppermann, 2000). For customer loyalty to exist in a brand of car rental service, recommendations by previous users are considered reliable indicators for appraising loyalty. Recommendation is considered essential in loyalty because it communicates maximum satisfaction through evaluation of the physical product of the car rental service and the psychological interpretation of the product (Chang & Yeh, 2017; Fishman, Washington, Haworth & Waston, 2015; Uysal & Noe, 2003).

The theory also argues that customers' satisfaction is significantly related to the amount a customer spends and the reward he/she anticipates. By extension, a perceived expectation is rudimentary to satisfaction and motivation actions (Uysal & Noe, 2003). Customer expectations to use a car rental service may

develop from the originating region, which may be through word of mouth, tour organization or self-research. Customers, therefore, expect these anticipations to be achieved as predetermined. According to Chiu, Liu and Tu (2016) and Cossío-Silva, Revilla-Camacho and Vega-Vázquez (2018) these anticipations may be related to price, benefits, time and effort. Value for money in its varying forms (comfort, convenience, flexibility among others [Costain, Ardron & Habib, 2012]) drives positive post-purchase intentions.

For marketers and operators of car rental businesses, the theory is explicit in helping develop strong marketing strategies that can lead to customer loyalty. Using the three forms of loyalty as stated by the theory (behavioural approach, attitudinal approach and composite approach) car rental services can incorporate loyalty as a major driving force in the competitive market (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The behavioural approach is related to consumer brand loyalty and has been operationally characterised as a sequence purchase, proportion of patronage, or probability of purchase.

In the attitudinal approach, based on consumer brand preferences or intention to buy, consumer loyalty is an attempt on the part of the consumer to go beyond overt behaviour and express his/her loyalty in terms of psychological commitment or statement of preference. Customers may have a favourable attitude toward a particular product, car rental entity, and express their intention to purchase the product or reuse the service of the rental facility. Thus, loyalty measures consumers' strength of affection toward a brand or product, as well as

33

explaining an additional portion of unexplained variance that behavioural approaches do not address (Backman & Crompton, 1991).

Lastly, the composite or combination approach is an integration of the behavioural and attitudinal approaches (Backman & Crompton, 1991). It has been argued that customers who purchase and have loyalty to brands must have a positive attitude toward those brands. Understanding these perspectives of loyalty formations, car rental service providers stand the edge of gaining competitive market advantage through appropriate design of service (Chindaprasert, Yasothornsrikul & Esichaikul, 2015; Jokinen, Sihvola & Mladenovic, 2017; Valle, Silva, Mendes & Guerreiro, 2006).

Summary of the Motivation Models

In summary, Maslow's Theory of Needs basically espouses the idea that the needs of man serve as motivators that influence people when making decisions. To them, these motivators can be arranged hierarchically ranging from lower-order needs to higher-order needs, that is, physiological, safety, love and belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization. In relating this model within the realms of transportation services, the basic motivation (lower-order needs) that influences users to opt for a mode hinge on safety, comfortability, convenience, flexibility and reliability. Higher-order motivations would include the credibility of the mode or service provider and the certainty of being chauffeured in an unusual circumstance. Self-esteem and self-actualization needs could also

34

manifest itself when users of transportation services share information about their experiences with other people who might have not used the service before.

The push and pull motivation, on the other hand, states that motivations pertaining to selecting a destination choice bother on anomie and ego-enhancement. Dann (1977) asserts that anomie and ego-enhancement motives are basically push and pull factors. The pull factors act as external stimuli, whereas push factors reflect the psychological drivers of behaviour (internal stimuli). With respect to transportation services, pull factors basically include features of transportation services (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008) that motivate an individual to make use of their services, whereas push factors comprise issues such as escape, rest and relaxation, prestige (ego-enhancement), health, adventure (Chen & Chen, 2015; Naidoo et al., 2015) among others that also influence users to make decisions.

The Optimal Arousal Theory by Iso-Ahola (1982) posits that motivation is purely a psychological concept but not a social construct. The theory argues that motivation basically is an ideal stimulation of the mind that enables an individual to seek opportunities outside his/her immediate environment to achieve psychosomatic stability. This self-induced equilibrium will only be achieved either from the perspective of 'escape' – where one moves away from his/her usual environment or makes a change from the usual way of life (making use of alternative transportation modes other than the usual) or seeking – the desire to have something which is lacking, yet desired or obtain a psychological or intrinsic

reward through travel in a contrasting environment (having the urge to use transportation facilities and to be chauffeured in an 'unusual circumstance').

In brief, the Destination Loyalty Model propounded by Yoon and Uysal (2005) examined the relationship between push and pull motivations, satisfaction and destination loyalty. In this model, it is hypothesized that customers make decisions regarding the use of a service or product based on push and pull motivations. Once the service is used or product consumed based on one's motivation, satisfaction is evaluated and subsequently the individual over a period develops loyalty to the service/product.

The similarities in these models stem from the fact that all are seeking to explain what triggers people to behave or act in a way. Maslow explains this using a hierarchical process which many have criticized. Major criticisms levelled against this theory are premised on the fact that the needs follow a hierarchy. Researchers such as Neher (1991) contend that needs should not necessarily follow a hierarchy since they might be intertwined in several scenarios. Yoon and Uysal (2005) explained that motivation is a precursor to satisfaction which intends to influence loyalty.

The differences in these models are that, whilst Maslow explains his theory using a hierarchy, Dann (1977) explained the push and pull as a set of interconnections and conjectures that provide the impetus for people to travel. Iso-Ahola (1982) in his theory sees motivation as purely a psychological concept in which one has to be stimulated. Another difference between these models is that Maslow's Hierarchy examines motivation from an intrinsic perspective, whereas

36

the push and pull theory and the optimal arousal theory also explained motivation from both the intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) perspective. In furtherance to the above discussion, the model by Yoon and Uysal also differ since they did not just examine motivation, but rather extended the argument to ascertain the relationship between motivation, satisfaction and loyalty.

In selecting a motivation model for this thesis, the study adapted the Dann's (1977, 1981) push and pull model and Iso-Ahola's (1982) optimal arousal theory to guide the study. These models were selected because the study sought to find out both the internal and external factors that influence people to make transport mode decisions. In this regard, the constructs – escape, relaxation, health, ego-enhancement, novelty/adventure and car rental features formed the basis upon which motivation within the scope of car rental use would be studied. However, the best-fit motivation model was Yoon and Uysal's (2005) destination loyalty model since it encapsulates all the various dimensions (motivation, satisfaction and loyalty) that the study seeks to address.

Concept of Satisfaction

The hospitality and tourism literature is replete with studies on satisfaction being applied in the various aspects of the industry – accommodation, food and beverage and travel (Adam, Adongo & Dayour, 2014; Adam et al., 2017; van Lierop et al., 2018; Pokryshevskaya & Antipov, 2017). The concept of satisfaction has been concisely defined as the completion and fulfilment of needs (Oliver, 1997). Morfoulaki, Tyrinopoulos and Aifadopoulou (2010) also defined it

as the overall experience of a customer with a service compared to their pre-determined expectations. Song, van der Veen and Chen (2012) in their view opined that satisfaction is a fulfilment obtained after one's consumption of a product or service. Eid and El-Gohary (2015) also defined it as the psychological comparison between one's expectation and performance of a service. In effect, satisfaction is the accumulated experiences gained during or after a service have been provided.

Satisfaction in transport studies has been studied since the mid-1960s (Transportation Research Board, 2002; 2004). In furtherance to this, Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha and Bryant (1996) have argued that the application of marketing techniques since the 1990s have provided transportation researchers with a tool to study satisfaction with respect to travel or use of varying transportation services. Thus, the concept of satisfaction with respect to travel or use of transportation services has been well researched and frequently discussed in the tourism-transport literature (van Lierop et al., 2018). The twenty-first century has seen several studies aiming to understand the drivers of satisfaction.

Assessing the satisfaction of services is very thorny. Nonetheless, there have been several attempts to study this phenomenon from diverse viewpoints. Based on the definitions of Eid and El-Gohary (2015) and Morfoulaki et al. (2010), satisfaction is best studied using the expectancy-disconfirmation theory, whereas the definitions espoused by Oliver (1997) and Song et al. (2012) give credence for satisfaction to be studied using the performance-based theory.

38

Expectancy – Disconfirmation Paradigm

Accurate assessment of customer satisfaction is a prerequisite for developing effective management strategies (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Only with reliable customer feedback, gathered through an adequate and appropriate assessment framework, can managers be in possession of facts that will allow them to implement satisfaction improvement programmes (Elkhani & Bakri, 2012). The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm has become the dominant framework employed in the assessment of customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services. The paradigm has been described by many as a two-stage process comprising expectations and performance/perception (Oliver, 1980; 1997).

Regarding the first stage, the theory posits that consumers form expectations prior to the consumption of a product and or service. Zehrer, Crotts and Magnini (2011) were of the view that expectations basically constitute a consumer's conviction that a product or service will have features that will meet his/her needs or will present desirable outcomes. What this means is that within the mind of customers, a consumption goal has been pre-established. As per the views stipulated by Mensah and Dei-Mensah (2013), with regards to the fact that tourism and hospitality products must be consumed in-situ, that is, services/products cannot be evaluated prior to consumption; customers still have their pre-conceived expectations before purchasing the product or consuming the service. Alegre and Garau (2010) have postulated that since hospitality and tourism products cannot be consumed prior to it being purchased, the reliance on

information search, word-of-mouth publicity by friends and relatives and past experiences helps shape these expectations.

After the expectation stage is the actual purchase or consumption stage. This stage involves the consumer having the opportunity to consume or experience the product or service and subsequently form their impressions as to whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied (Oliver, 1980). Within the hospitality and tourism literature, this stage is usually referred to as the perception stage (Kwon, Ha & Im, 2015).

Satisfaction which is the end-product of any service or product consumed is thus measured as a comparison between the expectations prior to the service being delivered and the perception, that is, after the service has been consumed or the products have been used. The proponents of the expectancy-disconfirmation theory hypothesized that positive disconfirmation arises when the performance of the service, either equates or exceeds the expectation (Oliver, 1980; 1997) or when a product or service consumed outperforms expectations. They also noted or stated that when the expectation, on the other hand, exceeds the perceived performance or the perceived performance is worse than the expectations, there is a negative disconfirmation meaning, the customer is dissatisfied (Eid & El-Gohary, 2015; Lai, 2015). Based on this assertion, it can be concluded that satisfaction is best studied using pre-consumption experiences (expectations) and on-site experiences (perception/performance).

In relating this paradigm to transportation services, Lumsdon and Page (2004) and Jacobsen and Antonson (2007) argue that be it transport for tourism or

40

transport as tourism, expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm can be used to assess the quality of a service vis-à-vis motivations. In the car rental business especially, customers' expectations are related to the pre-purchase period. Before the decision to purchase, customers have already formed their expectations about the type of service to receive from a car rental facility (Pazour & Roy, 2015). The formation of these expectations may stem from experience, recommendation or word-of-mouth from a relative or friend. The motivation for choice is therefore dependent on the formed expectations (Elkhani & Bakri, 2012). However, the realization of these expectations happens after the purchase period when the customer has experienced the real performance or services provided by the car rental entity thereby leading to positive or negative disconfirmation.

The implication for car rental services is that services must be provided according to advertised promises. The marketing campaigns, promotions and public relation information sent out influence customers' expectations. Usually, before the tourist/customer set off from their origin, they do some information search about the destination and the service providers. High expectations, therefore come with the desire for exceptional service delivery. For the development of positive disconfirmation, car rental services must provide services that lead to customer satisfaction and avoid negative disconfirmations. Positive disconfirmation leads to reuse intentions and attraction of more customers and negative disconfirmation 'chase' customers away (Jacobsen & Antonson, 2007; Pazour & Roy, 2015; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001).

Performance-Based Paradigm

The performance-based paradigm propounded by Cronin and Taylor (1992) which was based on the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm considers satisfaction as an accomplishment or fulfilment gained after the consumption of a service or product. This model was proposed based on the criticisms levelled against the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm. One of such critics, Al-Ibrahim (2014) noted that expressing satisfaction using negative averages makes interpretation of the concept difficult and complex.

With respect to the performance-based model, the evaluation of a customer's satisfaction is done only after the service or product has been consumed or after the service has been performed (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fragoso & Espinoza, 2017; Palese & Usai, 2018) thereby disregarding their expectations formed prior to the consumption of the service/product (Tse & Wilton, 1988). To this end, satisfaction can only be assessed after the service or product has been used.

The application of the model in the transportation service industry has been lauded by many as being useful (de Ona, de Ona, Eboli & Mazzulla, 2016; de Ona, Eboli & Mazzulla, 2014; Sanchez, Gazquez, Marin & Sanchez, 2007). They have argued that the ideal method to be employed in studying satisfaction with respect to the transportation industry should be the post-consumption method, that is, after the service has been performed or consumed. This will enable the users to provide a reliable assessment of their perceptions regarding the

use of the service or product and to ascertain whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied (Rose & Hensher, 2018).

Transaction-Specific Satisfaction Theory

The transaction-specific satisfaction theory is one of the numerous models used to measure satisfaction. This model views satisfaction from two main perspectives. According to Oliver (2010), these perspectives are overall satisfaction and attribute satisfaction. Earlier studies by Tian-Cole and Cromption (2003) asserts that attribute satisfaction, which Jones and Suh (2000) identified as transaction-specific attribute, takes into consideration the disaggregated aspect of the service encountered or consumed. Thus, their assessment of satisfaction is done independently based on the constructs available in the satisfaction dimension being used.

The overall satisfaction, on the other hand, deals with a customer's evaluation of the entire service received. Jones and Suh (2000) noted that with respect to overall satisfaction, consumers are most likely to give their general impressions and experiences concerning a service or product consumed. They opined that overall satisfaction is an aggregation of all previous transactions or dealings. Usually statements such as 'overall, I am satisfied with the services provided' has been used by several researchers in measuring satisfaction (Adongo, 2015; Irtema, Ismail, Borhan, Das & Alshetwi, 2018; Nutsugbodo, 2013). Within the transportation literature, Irtema et al. (2018) applied this model

43

in a study in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia and Nutsugbodo (2013) also applied it in his study in Accra, Ghana and made some insightful conclusions.

Summary of the Satisfaction Models

The expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm proposed by Oliver (1980, 1997) contend that satisfaction denotes a comparison between one's expectations and performance of a service. The former is the impression one has prior to using a service and this impression could be influenced by past experiences, word-of-mouth advertisements and reliance on information search whereas the latter is the subsequent assessment of the service or product after it has been consumed. The model further states that when impressions formed after using the service/product equates or exceeds the expectations, then there is positive disconfirmation and when the reverse occurs, there is negative disconfirmation.

The performance-based paradigm has its proponents arguing that satisfaction is best measured using a post-consumption approach, that is, after the service has been used. This they contend that it enables the consumer to give a subjective assessment of the service in its entirety without juxtaposing this with earlier expectations formed prior to using a service or product.

The transaction-specific satisfaction theory also proposes that satisfaction is best measured using two main approaches. Namely, attribute satisfaction or transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Researchers have opined that attribute satisfaction involves the decomposition of satisfaction constructs

44

into a host of variables and assessed independently, whereas overall satisfaction evaluates satisfaction holistically using general impressions.

These three models have some similarities. One major similarity is premised on the fact that satisfaction is measured as an end-product. Also, in all the three models, there is an element of a performance in which satisfaction is measured after a service or product has been consumed.

The differences in these models are that, whilst the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm uses the difference between expectation and performance/perception to evaluate satisfaction and determine whether there is a negative or a positive disconfirmation, the performance-based paradigm evaluates satisfaction as a fulfilment attained after consuming a product or service. Thus, satisfaction can only be assessed by examining the perceived performance irrespective of earlier expectations formed. The transaction-specific satisfaction also evaluates satisfaction using a disaggregation of satisfaction variables which is known as attribute satisfaction and the overall impression about a service.

Another difference between these models is that, whereas the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm has the expectation construct as a benchmark against which the performance of the service is being measured, the performance-based paradigm and the transaction-specific satisfaction theory do not have such benchmarks. Also, as the expectancy-disconfirmation makes way for satisfaction to be measured using a bi-dimensional approach, which is, positive and negative disconfirmations, the remaining two models do not create benchmarks for which dissatisfaction can be measured.

45

In selecting a satisfaction model for this study, the performance-based paradigm and the transaction-specific satisfaction theory were adapted. The performance-based model was selected because the primary determinant of car rental users' satisfaction should be evaluated on the perceived performance, taking into consideration that the post-consumption method of data collection was applied. Also, the transaction-specific satisfaction theory was adapted since attributes such as facilities/services, availability of support services, safety and security of the rental facility/vehicles, the services performed by the staff and the sanitary conditions of the vehicles and offices of rental facilities would be assessed alongside their overall satisfaction or general impression about the services received or consumed.

Post-Purchase Intentions

Predicting customers' future behaviours have also been the basis of post-purchase intentions (Kuo, Wu & Deng, 2009). Various researchers have defined the concept as customers' intentions to repurchase products or services from the same retailer and spread their experience of buying by using the product or service or recommend same to their friends (Kuo & Wu, 2012; Wang, Pallister & Foxall, 2006; Zeithmal, Berry & Parasuraman, 1996). Repurchase intention is basically an expression of customer loyalty, reuse intentions or recommendation of the product or service to others and this is very critical if businesses are to succeed and break-even (Kim & Son, 2009; Qureshi et al., 2009; Zhang, Juan, Lu & Xiao, 2016).

46

Within the post-purchase intentions literature, the concept has been classified into two main constructs: economic behavioural intentions and social behavioural intentions (Smith, Bolton & Wagner, 1999). The economic behavioural intentions refer to customers' behavioural reactions with regards to the monetary compensation, that is, whether there is value for money in the service or product consumed (Anderson & Mittal, 2000) and this influence whether the product or service would be repurchased (Maxham III, 2001; Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002, 2003).

On the other hand, the social behavioural intentions also pertain to the cognitive reactions of customers to the delivery of a service. This cognitive reaction manifests itself in the form of complaining, where customers are not satisfied with the service received or product consumed and might seek alternatives (Tax, Brown & Chandrashekaran, 1998) and positive word-of-mouth communication where customers propagate the goodwill of the service provider (Maxham III, 2001; Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002, 2003).

Other researchers have also measured post-purchase intentions using attitudinal commitment and behavioural repurchase intentions (Zhao, Webb & Shah, 2014). The destination loyalty model, customer loyalty model and satisfaction-loyalty theory were used to expatiate on post-purchase intentions.

Customer Loyalty Model

Customer loyalty has been extensively used in the marketing literature for no less than three decades (Lin & Wang, 2006). The concept has been thought of

as an important intangible asset to many service-oriented organisations (Langviniene & Daunoraviciute, 2015) and a source of competitive advantage. The customer loyalty model proposed by Lin and Wang (2006) with earlier inferences from researchers such as Dick and Basu (1994), Oliver (1999) and Rowley (2005) conceptualises customer loyalty as a function of customer satisfaction which is as a result of the interaction of the construct 'perceived value' and 'trust'. According to the proponents of this theory, the perceived value associated with a service received and the trust that the consumer has for the service provider would result in customer satisfaction and by extension customer loyalty. To them, once a customer becomes loyal, there is a propensity for that loyalty to be converted into a habit over a period (Figure 3). The model also hypothesized a relationship between perceived value, trust and customer loyalty.
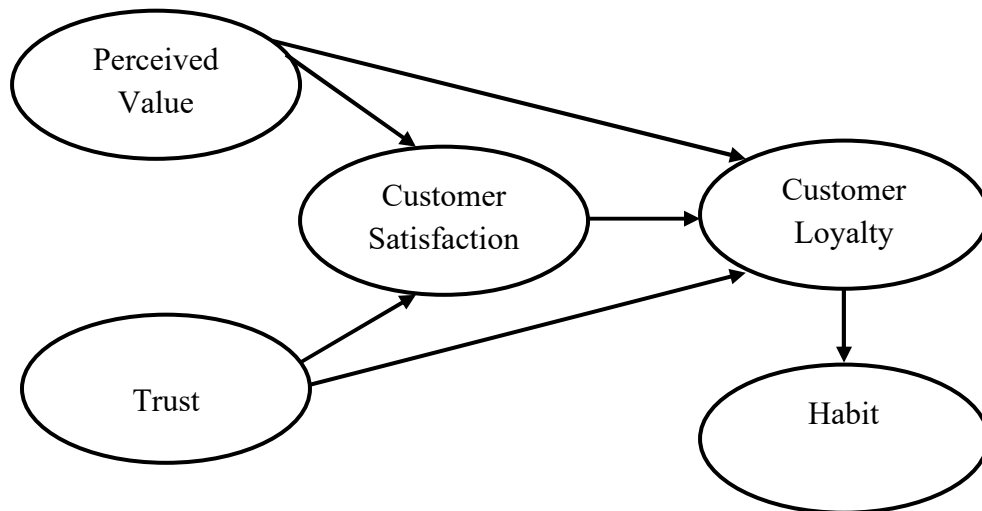
Figure 3: Customer Loyalty Model

Source: Lin and Wang (2006)

48

The proponents opined that perceived value is often assumed to entail a customer's evaluation of the measure of perceived benefits to perceived costs (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). To Bolton and Drew (1991), perceived value is an assessment of customers' overall evaluation of a service than the perceived service quality. According to Parasuraman and Grewal (2000) perceived value is the resultant effect of a 'get' component which they explained as the benefits a customer derives from a service provider's offering and a 'give' component also implying the customer's monetary and non-monetary expenses of purchasing the 'offering', that is, service.

Researchers such as Grewal, Monroe and Krishnan (1998) and Voss, Parasuraman and Grewal (1998) have also estimated that the construct perceived value plays a part in customer loyalty. It must be noted that when the service providers ensure that customers derive the utmost benefit from their services and have value for money, there is a likelihood they will clinch unto the service and become loyal to the brand. Anderson and Srinivasan corroborated the essence of the findings of Voss et al. (1998) and were of the view that when the perceived value is low, customers would be more inclined in substituting to competing businesses to increase their perceived value, thus resulting in a decline in customer satisfaction and subsequently loyalty.

Trust, the second independent variable to have an influence on satisfaction and by extension loyalty has been hypothesized in several ways (McKnight, Choudhury & Kaemar, 2002). Gefen, Karahanna and Straub (2003) defined trust as a set of specific beliefs dealing primarily with the integrity, benevolence,

49

competence and predictability of a service provider, especially when handling the consumers' transactions (Kim & Benbasat, 2003). On the other hand, when trust is conceptualized as 'trusting intentions' (Bennett & Gabriel, 2001; Hosmer, 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999), it implies that the customer feels assured and is eager to or intends to depend on the service provider. Thus, trusting intentions, in car rentals entails making a repeat purchase from a service provider who you feel safe with during transactions and offers the user reliable services. Researchers have suggested that customers generally stay away from service providers who they do not trust (Reichheld & Schefter, 2000), hence once a service provider defaults in the service provision consistently, customers shift to their competitors.

Another major construct in the customer loyalty model proposed by Lin and Wang (2006) is satisfaction. To Oliver (1992), satisfaction is the post-purchase evaluation of the overall product or service experienced. Research has established that satisfaction is a perfect predictor of word-of-mouth advertisements and loyalty (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; Wang, Tang & Tang, 2001; Wu, Li & Li, 2018). In effect, when a car rental user is satisfied with the service received, there is a likelihood of that service being recommended to others and or customer loyalty is developed, and the reverse could also occur when users are not satisfied with the services received.

In furtherance to the above, loyalty which is seen as a function of satisfaction is construed to mean the commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service time and again in the future once the customer is satisfied with the earlier or series of services received (Oliver, 1999). Anderson

and Srinivasan (2003) also summarized the concept as customer's favourable attitude toward a service provider, resulting in repeat purchasing intentions. Based on the definition provided by Anderson and Srinivasan (2003), it can be estimated that customer loyalty is measured using the bi-dimensional approach, thus, incorporating attitudinal commitment and behavioural repurchase intentions. As alluded to by Ali, Kim, Li and Jeon (2018) and Zhao et al. (2014), evaluation of loyalty should be done using the bi-dimensional approach.

Habit, which is an extension of customer loyalty, could also be the resultant effect of a consistent behaviour. Gefen (2003) was of the view that habits are formed when behaviour leads to the continuation of the same type of behaviour over a period. Ouellette and Wood (1998) earlier opined that once behaviour becomes a habit, it turns out subsequently to be spontaneous without a conscious or thorough decision-making process. Researchers have also argued that when a habit becomes entrenched, customers tend to ignore external information regarding the service they are consuming and would stick to a service irrespective of whether there is optimum utility being gained from the service consumed.

In applying this model within the realms of car rental use, it is expected that the perceived value of a service received from a service provider together with whether the service provider can be trusted to deliver reliable services has the propensity to influence customer satisfaction. Satisfaction derived from the use of car rental services leads to positive post-purchase intentions (Caber &

51

Albayrak, 2016; Chen & Chen, 2015). Positive post-purchase intentions by extension could lead to habits being formed.

Satisfaction-Loyalty Theory

Satisfaction Loyalty Theory, developed by Jen et al. (2011), was developed to delve into the causes of customers' loyalty to a service. This theory has been applied in the transportation literature where insightful outcomes have been deduced (Bachand-Marleau, Lee & El-Geneidy, 2012; Fu, Zhang & Chan, 2018) and across other social science fields. The Satisfactory-Loyalty Theory (Figure 4) espouses two constructs - perceived service quality and satisfaction – as having a direct effect on loyalty, with satisfaction mediating the effect of service quality on loyalty.
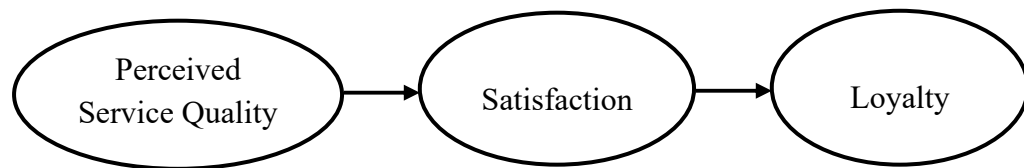
Figure 4: Satisfaction-Loyalty Theory

Source: Jen et al. (2011)

Service quality which is viewed as a customer's general impression of the relative substandard and or excellent service provided (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994) has a direct impact on satisfaction. de Ona and de Ona (2014) also argue that since services are characterized by intangibility, inseparability and heterogeneity

52

and since they are multidimensional (Parasuraman, Zeithmal & Berry, 1985) and hierarchical (Jen et al., 2011), they have to be adequately measured before its inferiority and superiority can be ascertained before satisfaction can subsequently be assessed. Thus, proponents such as Cronin and Taylor (1992) and Parasuraman et al. (1985) have developed the Service Performance (SERVPERF) model and Service Quality (SERVQUAL) model respectively to adequately measure the perceived service quality rendered to customers by using the actual performance of the service or the difference between one's expectations vis-à-vis one's perception. Perceived service quality has also been used by researchers such as Bachand-Marleau et al. (2012) and Shaheen, Guzman and Zhang (2010) in the transportation literature basically to examine the increasing ridership in transportation services.

Traditionally, the transportation literature has identified satisfaction as an important antecedent to loyalty (Slatten, Krogh & Connolley, 2011). Ali, Ryu and Hussain (2015) contend that during the consumption of a product or service, the interaction with the physical and social environment to a large extent results in satisfaction and that shapes future behavioural outcomes. Thus, the proposition of the satisfaction-loyalty model whereby satisfaction leads to loyalty is sound. In summing up the various constructs in the theory, Campbell and Brakewood (2017) tested the model in a study on how bike-sharing impacts bus ridership in New York and found significant results pertaining to the application of the satisfaction-loyalty model. They concluded that passengers with a favourable perception of transportation services tend to possess a higher level of perceived

service quality and satisfaction which influences the loyalty of the users. Mandhachitara and Poolthong (2011) obtained similar findings when they applied the model in determining the attitudinal and behavioural loyalty of customers in the retail banking sector in Bangkok, Thailand.

Summary of the Post-purchase Intention/Loyalty Models

In relation to the Customer Loyalty Model by Lin and Wang (2006), it was theorized that the perceived value of a service coupled with the trust a customer has for the service provider influences satisfaction. They further observed a direct and positive linear relationship between satisfaction and customer loyalty. Finally, the model predicts that once customers become loyal to the service provider, they form habits which Gefan (2003) defines as the continuation of the same type of behaviour over a period.

The satisfaction-loyalty theory by Jen et al. (2011) also established that loyalty is the product of perceived service quality which is moderated by satisfaction. To the advocates of this theory, the quality of service received by a customer when patronizing a service or consuming a product gives an impression which can be linked to satisfaction. They further extended their line of reasoning and conclude that once a customer is satisfied, there is a likelihood of that customer developing positive post-purchase intentions (loyalty).

The two models have some similarities. The main similarity amongst these models is that the proponents have an assumption that loyalty is the ultimate goal when customers are satisfied with the services or products consumed. The

54

customer loyalty model and the satisfaction-loyalty theory also have in common perceived value/service quality that serves as an antecedent in assessing satisfaction.

With regard to the main difference between these loyalty models, Lin and Wang (2006) assert that loyalty is the end result when customer satisfaction is impacted on by the perceived value of a service and the trust a customer has for the service provider whilst the satisfaction-loyalty theory proposed by Jen et al. (2011) also views loyalty as a function of satisfaction which has a direct relationship with the perceived service quality of a service or the assessment of a serviced already consumed. Besides the above differences, it could also be deduced that whereas Jen et al. (2011) see loyalty as the ultimate goal of satisfaction, Lin and Wang (2006) also proposed that developing a habit should be the ultimate desire of customers when they attain the maximum utility from a service or product consumed.

In opting for a preferred model for assessing post-purchase intentions of car rental users in Ghana, the study adapts Jen et al.'s (2011) satisfaction-loyalty theory. This is because it is premised in the study that post-purchase intentions of car rental users are a derivative of satisfaction. Having all these variables in the model measuring post-purchase intention makes it fit to be adapted for this thesis.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on the relevant concepts, theories and models that serve as building blocks for the study. It began by tracing the

55

historical antecedents of car rental services where it was deduced that the concept can be traced to the early part of the twentieth century, when the evolution of the automobile industry was at its infant stage but could be extended as far back as Ancient Rome where chariots were rented to aid transportation of goods.

The chapter reviewed models and theories under the three thematic areas: motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Maslow's theory of needs, Dann's push and pull motivation theory, the optimal arousal theory and the destination loyalty model were discussed under motivation. Conclusion was drawn on the four models with the study adapting the push and pull motivation theory, the optimal arousal theory and the destination loyalty model to serve as the building blocks for the motivation construct to be studied.

With regards to satisfaction, the discourse bothered on the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm, the performance-based paradigm and the transaction-specific satisfaction theory where the performance-based paradigm and the transaction-specific satisfaction theory were also adapted. Finally, the post-purchase intention construct in the study was also discussed using two models, namely, the customer loyalty model and the satisfaction-loyalty theory. The satisfaction-loyalty theory was also selected to serve as one of the building blocks for this research.

Critically examining the destination loyalty model, it could be concluded that it has all the pertinent dimensions that this study seeks to address. First and foremost, it decomposes motivation into push and pull constructs which this study seeks to do. Furthermore, the model employs the performance-based paradigm to

measure satisfaction. This paradigm is critical since the study observes that satisfaction of car rental services would best be assessed after the service has been consumed. Finally, it measures post-purchase intentions (loyalty) as the ultimate action taken when customers express satisfaction pertaining to the services consumed. However, it failed to incorporate the consumption stage (use of the service) into the model. The conceptual framework, therefore, incorporates usage into the model as a mediator between motivation and satisfaction (Figure 5).

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviewed relevant literature on car rental motivations, uses, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Specifically, the chapter examined the profile of car rental users, attributes of car rental services and reasons for using car rental services. It also discussed satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. The chapter further established a linkage between push and pull motivations and satisfaction and that of satisfaction and post-purchase intentions.

Profile of Car Rental Users

Researchers have used varying dimensions to study and conceptualise the car rental user. Travel needs and socio-demographic characteristics are some constructs that have been used to define who the car rental user is and to differentiate them from the mainstream transport facility user (Prieto, Baltas & Stan, 2017). With respect to travel needs, Huwer (2004) defined the car rental user as someone who benefits from a car's flexibility without incurring all of its inherent costs. Two main themes arise from this definition: the benefits and the issue of cost. Kek et al. (2009) corroborated this and conceptualise the 'user' as someone who derives the maximum utility from a rented vehicle with a minimum accompanying cost incurred. This utility could be in the form of flexibility and the

comfort guaranteed as well as the security and convenience assured (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008; Syratt & Archer, 2012).

Also, issues pertaining to environmental concerns have also been identified to aid the conceptualisation of a rental user. Within the hospitality and tourism industry, the concept of sustainability is gaining ground (Mowforth & Munt, 2009). Researchers such as Dubois, Peeters, Ceron and Gossling (2011) and Gossling, Scott and Hall (2013) have argued that the transportation sector of the industry poses some socio-environmental problems, through air and noise pollution. However, users of transportation facilities within the industry are becoming environmentally conscious or green in their travel decision makings (Barr & Prillwitz, 2012; Dobson, 2010), thereby advocating for environmentally friendly transport services: non-motorised modes - walking and cycling (Buehler & Pucher, 2011; Willis et al., 2013) and car rental services (Busse & Swinkles, 2012; Pazour & Roy, 2015). In this regard, Costain et al. (2012) noted that various researchers have identified car rental users as being environmentally conscious people. Also, Burkhardt and Millard-Ball (2006) and Schaefers (2013) opined that a commonly shared characteristic of car rental users is their pro-environmental attitudes. In extending this argument, anecdotal evidence suggests that most rental cars are clean, and the provision of environmentally friendly service makes these modes a preferred choice by the environmentally conscious or green traveller.

Demographic factors are also one of the main determinants that can be used to profile car rental users (Metz, 2012; Millard-Ball, Murray, Ter Schure, Fox & Burkhardt, 2005; Prieto et al., 2017). Observations by Prieto et al. (2017)

59

indicated that car rental users are predominantly males. Other studies such as De Luca and Di Pace (2015) have also found this trend within the car rental market. Becker, Ciari and Axhausen (2017) in a study conducted in Basel, Switzerland, noted that as many as 70 percent of car rental users are males. Yoon, Cherry and Jones (2017), in their study in Beijing, also observed that males dominate the car rental market. However, with regards to females, it has been revealed that issues linked to fear and their unwillingness to use individual modes alone have accounted for their non-use (De Luca & Di Pace, 2014). In a scenario where they are in groups, they are more likely to use rental services. Nevertheless, within the rental market, males using car rental services will continue to surpass their female counterparts.

Age is another variable that is used to conceptualise a car rental user. Per the analysis of Burkhardt and Millard-Ball (2006) and Le Vine et al. (2014), generations X and Y are predominantly car rental users. Similarly, in a study conducted by Correia and Viegas (2011) and Wang, Martin and Shaheen (2012) in Lisbon and Shanghai respectively, it was confirmed that young people are more willing to rent cars to enable them to undertake their scheduled activities such as social trips, educational and sporting activities. Goodwin (2012) was also of the view that the younger generation making use of car rental facilities is not surprising since we are in a generation in which young adults crave for cars. As Miller (2001) stipulated, this can be considered as the new form of 'car culture' that is catching up with them for their attitudes towards car use is largely different from the older generations. Investigating into the age cohorts, Becker et al. (2017)

60

and De Luca and Di Pace (2015) noted that these young adults on the average are aged between 25 and 40 years. In contrast, researchers such as Prieto et al. (2017) and Yoon et al. (2017) also noted that there is a growing demand for rental cars among the baby-boomers. Prieto et al. (2017) in analysing the car rental market in Paris, Madrid and Tokyo observed that its users are usually aged above 50 years, whilst similar trends were concluded on by Yoon et al. (2017) in a study conducted in Beijing, China.

In the transportation literature, there is evidence of income levels influencing car rental usage. Literature posits that irrespective of income levels, users of transportation facilities mull over costs before making a definite decision on choice (Efthymiou, Antoniou & Waddell, 2013; Gardner & Abraham, 2007). Duncan (2011) noted that it is usually cheaper to make a trip using rental cars than to drive a personal private car. He further argued that this scenario is so because of the fixed cost of car purchase and its associated variable costs (fuel and maintenance). With reference to the income cohorts, De Luca and Di Pace (2015) and Shaheen and Schwartz (2004) noted that the predominant users of car rental facilities belonged to the low-income cohort in Salermo (Italy) and the United States of America respectively. In Lisbon, Correia and Viegas (2011) confirmed that rental users are within the low-income category. In contrast, Le Vine et al. (2014) also in their study profiled car rental users as people within the moderate/upper-income levels. Efthymiou et al. (2013) earlier observed a similar trend in Greece, where using rental services is dominated by the upper/higher income group. These arguments notwithstanding, each cohort, Burkhardt and

61

Millard-Ball (2005) noted, have different motives towards car rental usage. Costain et al. (2012) extended this argument and asserted that users within the lower-income cohort are motivated by the affordability and 'mobility freedom' (flexibility), whereas the higher income user is motivated by the convenience and comfort this system of transportation guarantees.

The level of education of the users according to researchers play a role in the patronage of car rental users (Cervero, Golub & Nee, 2007; Millard-Ball et al., 2005; Yoon et al., 2017). Cervero et al. (2007) and Martin and Shaheen (2011) in their research noted that car rental services are attracted mostly to people of higher educational levels. On the contrary, Zhou, Kockelman and Gao (2011) in their research in Austin, Texas when examining the opportunities for and impacts of car-sharing concluded that educational level is not a guarantee of using rental services. In extending this finding, Zhou et al. (2011) noted that the less educated respondents are more willing to use car rental services than those with higher levels of education.

The relationship between educational levels and car rental users is commensurate with that of income. As per the above discussion on income, there is no clear-cut distinction between the two-extreme continuum of low-income level and high-income level earners. This same scenario also exists for educational levels as well. This could be because there seems to be a seamless relationship between income and education as anecdotal evidence suggests that people with higher educational levels are more likely to be in the cohort of the higher income earners. Thus, car rental users can fall within each category based

on their need as evident in the findings of Burkhardt and Millard-Ball (2005) and Costain et al. (2012).

The purposes of use to some extent can also be used to describe who the car rental user is which in turn will aid service providers in service planning and design. Thus, to differentiate between the main public transport and private car user, emphasis is placed on the purpose of use. It is a known fact that cars are often used for travel and leisure purposes (Duval, 2007; Hall, 2010), this notwithstanding, car rentals are also used for the same purpose (Anable & Gatersleben, 2005; Krueger et al., 2016). Haboucha, Ishaq and Shiftan (2015) also observed in their research that there is a tendency of people using rental facilities for work-related and education-related activities. The works of Krueger et al. (2016) and Paudra, Rook, van Dalen and Ketter (2016) provide a comprehensive list of activities or purposes for which car rental facilities are used for.

Paudra et al. (2016) attest that users of car rental facilities use it for purposes such as work, school, leisure and to visit family and friends. Krueger et al. (2016) in their study in Australia when examining preferences for shared vehicles had similar findings to that of Paudra et al. (2016). They argued that this means of transport to a large extent has its patrons using it for work, education, shopping and leisure-related activities. Cervero et al. (2007) and Clavel, Mariotto and Enoch (2009) also in their research found shopping activities as the main reasons why people use car-sharing services. Becker et al. (2017) also corroborated the above assertions and further argued that rental facilities could also be used for airport transfers in which customers use it to shuttle between their

63

hotels and the airport and vice versa. Users of rental facilities to some extent can use it for business purposes (ibid.).

An emerging trend for car rental use in Ghana is for social trips (wedding and funerals). Research has confirmed that people are more willing to rent cars to enable them to undertake scheduled non-work activities such as social, shopping, educational, sporting and recreational trips (Correia & Viegas, 2011; Efthymiou et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012). In Ghana, anecdotal evidence also suggests that car rental facilities are often used for non-governmental organization (NGO) activities and research activities specifically in the three regions of the North. Costain et al. (2012) extended these assertions and argued with respect to the type of vehicle used for these activities that sedan, wagon and SUVs are the most commonly used vehicles for leisure, work, education and social-related activities.

Attributes of Car Rental Services

An ideal transportation mode should meet the needs of the traveller or the user. Users of car rental services take certain attributes into consideration before using these services as compared to other modes of transport (public transport) within the destination. Literature posits that users of rental services do so based on the comfort, convenience, safety and the perceived service quality offered among a host of other attributes/factors (Fellesson & Friman, 2008; Lai & Chen, 2011; Le-Klahn et al., 2014; Redman, Friman, Garling & Harting, 2013).

A study conducted by Nutsugbodo et al. (2018) also conceptualised these factors as psychographic factors and concluded that they play significant roles in

determining mode choice options. Comfort and convenience as key determinants have been conceptualised as having access to vehicles or modes of transport that guarantees "soft, clean seats, a pleasant temperature and preferably having air conditioning" (Grdzelishvili & Sathre, 2011: 40) and ensures ease of movement coupled with having a stress-free travel within the destination (Buehler, 2011; Susilo & Cats, 2014). The comfort attribute is of essence to the user in Ghana due to average warm weather experienced throughout the year. The Ghana Meteorological Agency (2016) in its report noted that the average daily temperature in Ghana is usually between 30°C during the day and 24°C at night. This calls for a more comfortable form of transport for tourists/users in their quest to familiarize themselves with the country or for travellers who crisscross the country for business activities.

The safety consciousness of tourists/travellers also influence their decision-making activities (Adam, 2015) and as such would ensure that they engage in activities that would guarantee their safety (Nutsugbodo et al., 2018). In extending this assertion, it presupposes that users of transportation facilities will always put safety first in opting for a preferred mode of transport (Spears, Houston & Boarnet, 2013; Susilo & Cats, 2014). Safety has been conceptualised as the physical condition of the mode choice and the competence level of the driver in ensuring an accident-free ride (Nutsugbodo et al., 2018). With respect to car rental facilities, safety is usually a serious issue, thus, most operators are safety conscious and have installed safety devices in their vehicle fleets to ensure that users are safe. Also, drivers of car rental facilities are usually trained and re-

trained to be defensive drivers. In a country with high road traffic crashes, with 2,076 passengers including 879 pedestrians perishing in various forms of road crashes in 2017 (Darko, 2018), and having parts of their bodies maimed, very little is heard of with respect to rental cars being involved in road traffic crashes.

In addition to the above psychographic indicators, flexibility, accessibility, reliability, time-saving of mode and the eco-friendly nature of modes are also important attributes influencing transportation decision-making options. For instance, transportation users are now becoming environmentally conscious (Barr & Prillwitz, 2012; Dobson, 2010), thus will opt for modes that will generate less pollution (noise and air) thereby posing fewer distortions to socio-environmental problems (Dubois et al., 2011; Gossling et al., 2013).

Nutsugbodo et al. (2018) also acknowledged the significance of accessibility, affordability and reliability as underlying attributes influencing transportation service usage. With respect to affordability, it denotes having access to a vehicle at a lower cost and enjoying all the benefits therein (Syratt & Archer, 2012). As noted earlier by Shaheen et al. (1999), it is one of the main objectives of car rental services which they seek to guarantee their patrons. Ekiz and Bavik (2008) also argued that users opt for rental cars since it can guarantee them reliability in their schedules. Syratt and Archer (2012) also noted that rental cars provide flexibility, which they defined as the "freedom to go almost anywhere at any time and the pleasure to stop as one pleases" (p. 79). This flexibility is highly needed in the itinerary of the user to ensure that the maximum utility of the mode is derived. Having a drive-free benefit, unavailability of a

personal car, avoiding traffic jam are other attributes that influence the car rental users' decision-making process (Le-Klahn et al., 2014).

Motivation of Car Rental Users

Curtin (2010) and Lawton (2012) have argued that a plethora of consumer studies research suggests that the consumption of a service or a product may serve varying degrees of utilitarian function ranging from ego-enhancement, escapism, relaxation and meeting biological needs of hunger, socialization and novelty/adventure among others. Review of the motivation literature on transport use hinges on issues derived from two main folds which can be categorized under push and pull. According to Prayag and Ryan (2011) and Wong et al. (2017), the 'push' and 'pull' motivations make inferences to the reasons why people make certain decisions regarding their choice of a service or product before that service or product is consumed.

Pull Motivations of Car Rental Users

Car rental features cannot be underrated in the user-motivation discourse. Research has revealed that the features of rental cars serve as a pull factor. In effect, attributes of these facilities coupled with some ancillary characteristics draw users' attention (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008). These features include the aesthetic quality of the vehicles, safety features and the variety of services offered by the rental facility. Car rental facilities with modern vehicles and modern technologies (antilock braking system, airbags, phone charging outlets and Wi-Fi) tend to

appeal to customers. Ekiz and Bavik (2008) also argued that some users also prefer rental facilities with modern ergonomic features for customers with disabilities. Ferrero et al. (2018) have also identified service features – type of services offered, infrastructure and fleet management as key attributes influencing user preference.

Aside these car rental features, variables such as safety and security, reliability, accessibility, the professionalism of staff and affordability could also be considered as factors in the 'pull' construct. Ciari, Bock and Balmer (2014) shared the same opinion and argued that accessibility to rental facilities and their reliability also tend to draw more users.

Since there are competing facilities available, owners in order to gain competitive advantage undertake branding. This branding positions their products and services well enough to attract users (Le Vine et al., 2014; Prieto et al., 2017; Xiong & King, 2015). A study conducted by Lazov (2017) analysed how major global players in the industry such as Avis, Hertz, Europcar and Budget among others, have benefitted from branding to seize a commensurate portion of the rental market. The essence of this notwithstanding, excessive branding/marketing has implications on the expectations of users and by extension their satisfaction (Chang, Chiang & Han, 2012; Xiong & King, 2015).

Pull Motivational Attributes and Satisfaction Relationship

Researchers (example, Chakrabarti & Giuliano, 2015; Fellesson & Friman, 2008; Le-Klahn et al., 2014; Lee, Jin & Ji, 2009; Susilo & Cats, 2014)

have argued that pull motivational attributes (rental features) such as safety, security and the performance of staff in the delivery of quality services have a direct effect on satisfaction. del Castillo and Benitez (2013) and Lai and Chen, (2011) noted that satisfaction can also be a derivative of comfort, cleanliness of vehicles and moment of truth. It can, therefore, be argued that the pull variable (car rental features) becomes an indicator for determining satisfaction. In the structural model (Figure 5), satisfaction will be directly influenced by pull motivation (car rental features). This formed the basis for which hypothesis 3 was proposed.

Push Motivations of Car Rental Users

Researchers have argued that there are backing motives behind why and how a person behaves (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Studies on motivations for people using transportation are replete with researchers using varying variables such as comfort, convenience, safety, reliability, flexibility, affordability and accessibility (Fellesson & Friman, 2008; Lai & Chen, 2011; Le-Klahn et al., 2014; Nutsugbodo et al., 2018). Push motivational dimensions such as escape, ego-enhancement, relaxation, health and novelty used by researchers such as Hosany and Prayag (2013), Kao et al. (2008), Paris and Teye, (2010), Pearce and Lee (2005) and Swanson and Horridge (2006) will form the premise of this study and discussion.

Users' desire to use rental services to some extent is influenced by the motivational concept of escape (Pearce & Lee, 2005; Swanson & Horridge,

69

2006). Pearce and Lee (2005) noted that escape, which is one of the core 'push' factors of travel motivation gives an opportunity for individuals to 'breakaway' from their daily routine engagements. Anecdotal evidence suggests that some car owners and public transport users intermittently make use of car rental facilities. This is because of them seeking to 'getaway' from their daily driving schedules, letting go problems related to the use of public transport services and escape from the stress associated with driving. Ekiz and Bavik (2008) noted that the escape-seeking user has their aim of relaxing and enjoying the trip if he/she is to be chauffeured.

Like the concept of escape, relaxation is associated with resting from one's routine activities. Hosany and Prayag (2013) aver that relaxation entails de-stressing one's self from the tension, trauma and hassle associated with driving and the use of public transport services whilst energizing oneself simultaneously. High-grade car rental facilities provide vehicles that have a cosy ambience to clients to enable them to relax on their journeys. In some cases, clients are also chauffeured, thus, enabling them to relax whilst en-route to their destinations. Research has shown that using rental cars can guarantee the riders a conducive atmosphere to enable them to relax whilst enjoying the comfortability and convenience of the mode (Costain et al., 2012; Paris & Teye, 2010; Redman et al., 2013). In the realms of transportation research, relaxation could be a function of relieving stress and anxiety associated with driving or using other regular modes of transport (public transport), refreshing one's mind whilst travelling, relieving

70

boredom during travels and resting from the daily driving schedules (Le-Klahn, Roosen, Gerike & Hall, 2015; Maoz, 2007; Paris & Teye, 2010).

Ego-enhancement is a derivative of the need for recognition (Maslow, 1943). With ego-enhancement, it is the desire to either drive or be chauffeured in a rental facility that basically reflects an individual's quest to be seen or recognized by society and for prestige, esteem and status. People view riding in 'private vehicles' as prestige, thus, will seek to do similar, to be seen as rich and fashionable, especially when riding in a latest or state-of-the-art vehicle. Iso-Ahola (1982) sees this as individuals wishing to do something that would be more satisfying and making them happy.

Jang and Feng (2007) have observed that novelty seeking is a central component of travel motivation, and it is regarded as the reverse of familiarity (Paris & Teye, 2010), where the individual searches for something new. Bigne, Sanchez and Andreau (2009) also noted that in the tourism literature, seeking novelty is the predisposition of the traveller seeking diversity in the selection of destination and services. Literature has theorized the concept as "curiosity drive, sensation seeking and an exploratory drive" (Jang & Feng, 2007: 582) and an innermost desire that motivates individuals to engage in an activity (Abubakar, Shneikat & Oday, 2014). Proponents of the novelty concept have argued that the search for novelty is an innate desire of travellers which motivates them to travel (Cohen, 1979; Lee & Crompton, 1992) and that it is an important aspect in the tourism/travel decision-making process (Petrick, 2002). Car rental users to some extent in their mode choice decision-making process tend to choose rental

71

facilities that would afford them a new and a sensational experience that is different from their usual riding or driving experience. Crompton (1979) explained this experience as being novel, but not necessarily gaining new knowledge about the activity undertaken.

Another major motivation for using car rental facilities is for health reasons. Health has to do with the complete state of a person, being it physical, mental and social and not mainly because of diseases or infirmity (World Health Organisation [WHO], 1948). The essence of this definition mainly bothers on it being the totality of the human-body being regarded as fit in all aspects of life. Ghana's Road Traffic Act, 2004, Act 683 stipulates in section 57(1) and 61(1) the essence of having a complete health status, which is, being declared healthy before being eligible to drive. While profiling car rental users, Prieto et al. (2017) and Yoon et al. (2017) noted a growing demand among the baby boomers. With advancing age, there are a plethora of risk factors such as neurological, visual and functional disorders (Anstey, Wood, Lord & Walker, 2005; Dellinger, Sehgal, Sleet & Barrett-Connor, 2001; Duchek, Carr & Hunt, 2003) that affect an individual's ability to drive. These conditions create the propensity for individuals to rely on rental cars for their planned schedules.

It is evident that being anxious and depressed (Britton, Shahar, Szepsenwol & Jacobs, 2012; Stroud, Davila & Moyer, 2008), physical and psychologically fatigued or stressed (Cohen, Boniface & Watkins, 2014; Klaperski, von Dawans, Heinrichs & Fuchs, 2013), medical conditions such as being diabetic, epileptic and hypertensive (Commonwealth of Australia, 2010;

Kent, 2014), hearing implications (Miedema, 2007) and advanced age (Cohen et al., 2014; Duchek et al., 2003) also have implications for driving. Users with such conditions are compelled to rely on rental services. Whilst exploring the potential health benefits of using car-sharing services, Kent (2014) avers that relying on chauffeured rental cars can help reduce the health problems associated with personal driving.

Push Motivational Attributes and Satisfaction Relationship

Researchers such as Yoon and Uysal (2005), Adam et al. (2017) and Albaity and Melhem (2017) have argued that there is a direct and positive relationship between motivation and satisfaction. Yoon and Uysal (2005) aver that customers make decisions by internal and psychological forces and 'pulled' by the external forces of the service or product attributes and this has a direct effect on satisfaction, being it positive or negative.

With novelty as a 'push' motivational factor, Toyoma and Yamada (2012) hypothesized that there is a linear, direct and positive relationship between novelty seeking/adventure and satisfaction. They noted that if consumers recognise that novelty attributes match or exceed what they expected, they will be satisfied and if the reverse occurs, they would be dissatisfied. Similarly, Albaity and Melhem (2017) in their study in the United Arab Emirates, where they examined novelty seeking, image and loyalty among international tourists found that novelty-seeking has a positive and significant effect on satisfaction. Similar

73

studies also support the above assertion (Chi & Qu, 2008; Mitas & Bastiannsen, 2018).

In addition to the above, push motivators such as escape, rest and relaxation, prestige (eco-enhancement) and health which have been classified as 'the desire to make decisions' (Kim, Oh & Jogaratnam, 2007) have also been identified as having an effect on satisfaction (Battour, Battor & Ismail, 2012; Eusebio & Vieira, 2013; Taher, Jamal, Sumarjan & Aminudin, 2015). Wong et al. (2017) and Yoon and Uysal (2005) have also argued that a combination of push motivational attributes has an influence on satisfaction. With reference to the proposed structural model, satisfaction will be directly and positively influenced by push motivational attributes (novelty-seeking/adventure, escape, relaxation, health and ego-enhancement). These assertions formed the premise upon which hypothesis 4 was formulated.

Push and Pull Motivation and Usage Relationship

Yoon and Uysal (2005) argue that push and pull motivation has a direct bearing on satisfaction. However, Iso-Ahola (1982) earlier argued that motivation (push and pull) influence purposes for which the service is used for, thus, the consumption of a service should mediate between motivation and satisfaction. Prebensen, Woo, Chen and Uysal (2012) also supported this assertion and argued that motivation has a positive impact on involvement (engaging in series of activities desired).

74

Josiam, Smeaton and Clements (1999) in their study examined the relationship between push/pull motivation and students' involvement in activities during their spring break holiday. The results reveal that high levels of involvement in spring break activities were significantly associated with push and pull motivation factors, thus, students who were motivated by push/pull were more likely to engage themselves in varying activities during their spring break holidays. A similar result was confirmed by Josiam, Kinley and Kim (2004) who also examined the relationship between tourist shopping involvement and demographic and motivational characteristics. This scenario forms the basis upon which hypotheses 1 and 2 were formulated. Furthermore, it is estimated that purposes of use would have a significant correlation on satisfaction, hence, the formulation of hypothesis 7.

Dimensions of Satisfaction

Satisfaction is an important element since it enables consumers of a product or service to assess how they evaluate the products and or services consumed (Adam et al., 2017). In the transportation literature, Tyrinopoulos and Antoniou (2008) conceptualise satisfaction as the overall level of attainment of a customer's expectation, considered as the proportion of the expectations fulfilled. Buckley (2009) noted that the evaluation of such product or service consumed is made against the motivation that drove the action. Adam et al. (2017) and Lai and Hitchcock (2017) buttressed these assertions and observed that if services rendered cannot fulfil the expectations of a consumer, then customers will be

75

dissatisfied. Alegre and Garau (2010) also aver that when motivations are met, the customer is apt to analyse his or her experience as satisfactory.

As alluded to by Chi & Qu (2009) and Ozdemir et al. (2012) service attributes largely determine consumers' satisfaction and future behaviours (revisits and word-of-mouth publicity). Accessibility of a service is seen as a construct that also influences satisfaction. With regards to this in the realms of transport, emphasis is placed on the ease and quality of movement within the destination – quality of transportation services (Dwyer & Kim, 2003).

Accessibility could be conceptualised from the perspective of the physical facilities available, the location of the facilities, ambience, interpersonal relationships of transport operators and the ancillary services on offer (Buhalis, 2000; Clarke & Schmidt, 1995). The nature of the facilities or services provided, availability of support services, safety and security of rental facilities, as well as the performance of staff in the delivery of services and the sanitation of the facility have also been identified as drivers influencing satisfaction within the transportation literature (Chakrabarti & Giuliano, 2015; Lee et al. 2009; Susilo & Cats, 2014).

One of the essential attributes contributing to the satisfaction of transportation users is the nature of services and facilities being provided. Research has indicated that several attempts have been made to evaluate users' satisfaction by assessing the quality of the service and facilities on offer (European Committee for Standardisation, [CEN 2002]; TRB, 2002) and identifying users' priorities (del Castillo & Benitez, 2013). van Lierop et al.

(2018) and Mouwen (2015) argued that satisfaction with respect to the services and facilities on offer can be measured using the frequency of service, punctuality, on-board cleanliness, comfort, and courteous and helpful staff. However, del Castillo & Benitez (2013) expanded the scope of comfort and conceptualised it as a function of the physical state of the vehicle, cleanliness, lighting, onboard vehicle temperature and professionalism of the driver. Whereas some of these elements are noticeable, giving users their moment of truth, others can only be experienced when the service is used.

Researchers such as Kim (2014) and Kim, Hallab and Kim (2012) have argued that safety and security of visitors remain a significant issue influencing their decision making irrespective of their preferred tourism/hospitality product on offer. Kim (2014) extended his argument and noted that making patrons of tourism and hospitality products feel safe and secured irrespective of the activity being undertaken or the service being consumed should be a priority. Safety and security in the tourism-transportation literature have been discussed extensively. van Lierop et al. (2018) has conceptualised it as "passengers' perception of being safe and secured from crime and traffic while on-board" (p. 60).

Users' perception of safety and security is, thus, one of the functional components of satisfaction and a strong indicator (Das, Ladin, Ismail & Rahmat, 2013). This can be in relation to safety from traffic (accidents) or crime (Peden et al., 2004; Smith & Clarke, 2000) which will lead to satisfaction. Availability of defensive drivers (that is, well-trained drivers, drivers who adhere to speed limits and driving regulations), well-maintained vehicle fleets with the appropriate

safety and security warnings and lighting systems can also be indicators of the general safety and security. The vehicles must also be in good conditions for those who will self-drive to ensure their safety. Self-drive users must be given adequate information concerning safety, or vehicle tracking devices can be placed in the vehicles to ensure drivers adhere to the rental facilities driving principles. Mensah and Dei-Mensah (2013) noted the delivery of poor services is likely to reduce repeat use of services. Hence, any negative occurrence in the delivery of transportation services, that is, accidents and the perception of being unsafe and insecure could lead to dissatisfaction (Ali, Hussain, Konar & Jeon, 2017; Kang & James, 2004).

The availability of support services is another attribute that will enable the service provider to appeal to different target markets. For instance, transportation service providers need to provide accessible service to all manner of users (Hansson & Holmgren, 2017). Often, transportation users with special needs such as the disabled and the aged are often the forgotten group in transport planning. However, transportation operators need to incorporate their needs into transport planning. In Sweden, mobility studies have focused on accessibility regarding this group (Preston & Raje, 2007) and in the United Kingdom, low floor vehicles are being introduced to revolutionize the conventional transport industry (Mulley & Nelson, 2009). As the transportation industry is being modernized, users are seeking to use vehicles that have internet facilities and outlets for charging phones, whilst the service providers provide complementary services and good

signage to their facilities. The provision of support services to enhance service delivery can lead to user satisfaction.

The tourism and hospitality industry is a service-oriented industry; thus, people are needed for clients to be served. Service performance is a key determinant of satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Maseiro & Zoltan, 2013) and this can only be achieved when employees deliver prompt and defect-free services. van Lierop and El-Geneidy (2016) have also argued that users of transportation facilities will continue to use the service and recommend same when they are satisfied with the services performed and the behaviour of the staff (de Ona, de Ona, Eboli & Mazzulla, 2013). This invariably means that there must be an in-depth understanding of the services provided and good staff behaviours to meet the needs of the consumer. Amissah (2013) and Fragoso and Espinoza (2017) noted that staff delivering prompt services, personalization of services, understanding the specific needs of the customer, the willingness to help and being friendly are key constructs in service performance.

Etgar and Fuchs (2009) and Shahin and Dabestani (2010) have also noted that staff performance of a service is directly related to the ability to communicate effectively, being courteous and polite and having in-depth knowledge about the service. These notwithstanding and considering that the primary tourism and hospitality products are service-related (Kim, 2014), having the characteristics of heterogeneity (Mensah & Dei-Mensah, 2013) and an inconsistent nature as a result of human error and bad employee attitudes, consumers can always develop

adverse feelings of anger and frustration during the delivery process thereby impacting negatively on their satisfaction.

The environmental conditions in which travel is undertaken or travel arrangements are made can also influence customer experiences, and by extension, travel satisfaction (De Vos, Schwanen, van Acker & Witlox, 2015). Kim (2014) also asserts that essential elements such as cleanliness which van Lierop et al. (2018) defined as the absence of garbage and other insanitary conditions when poorly managed can induce negative memorable experiences and vice versa. Literature posits that in-vehicle cleanliness is a significant factor influencing perceived satisfaction and on-board experiences of users (Mouwen, 2015; de Ona et al., 2013). The appearances of staff (Amissah, 2013) also have a direct effect on satisfaction, hence, should also be properly managed.

Satisfaction and Post-Purchase Intention Relationship

As noted by Agyeiwaah, Adongo, Dimache and Wondirad (2016), a consumer is satisfied if the outcome of the comparison between expectations and experiences is the feeling of pleasure and specifically a positive and a memorable feeling. In analysing this definition, it can be seen that at the end of the satisfaction continuum is having a positive, memorable pleasure and experience which can influence post-purchase intentions. This assertion has also been put forward in the literature. As indicated by these empirical researches (Bajis, 2015; Nilplub, Khang & Krairit, 2016; Ramseook-Munhurrun, Seebaluck & Naidoo, 2015; Rasoolimanesh, Dahalan & Jaafar, 2016), satisfaction is a strong precursor

80

in decisions regarding revisit/reuse intentions and the possible recommendations of that particular service to other consumers. Theories such as the customer loyalty model propounded by Lin and Wang (2006), tourism destination loyalty model by Yoon and Uysal (2005) have also found a significant relationship existing between satisfaction and post-purchase intention. Based on the above literature, hypothesis 8 was formulated.

Car Rental Users' Post-Purchase Intentions

Literature exploring the repurchase decisions of consumers, consumers overall perceptions about a service and its assessment of the purchase experience have been found to have a significant influence on post-purchase intentions (Campo-Martinez, Garau-Vadell & Martinez-Ruiz, 2010). Albeit other variables such as the socio-demographic, travel characteristics and the background environment of the consumer may also play a role in post-purchase intentions (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Campo-Martinez et al., 2010). Satisfaction with a service consumed is a key determinant of its reuse intentions (Adam et al., 2014; Mohamad, et al., 2014; Shiftan, Barlach & Shefer, 2015) and as such together with word-of-mouth advertisement has become one of the main constructs used in determining post-purchase intentions (Lim, Kim & Lee, 2016). It is worthy to note that even though a customer might be satisfied with a service, the odds of switching are still high due to the changing and complex demand of customers (McKercher, Guillet & Ng, 2012).

81

However, the concept of post-purchase intentions is not well defined in the transport literature as it is in its nascent stage (van Lierop et al., 2018). According to van Lierop et al. (2018), the argument of whether to include satisfaction into the definition and conceptualization has been the bone of contention. van Lierop and El-Geneidy (2016) aver that transportation post-purchase intentions are developed based on overall satisfaction, intention to continue the usage of the service and the willingness to recommend the service. Nonetheless, irrespective of the importance of these three attributes stated above, researchers such as Minser and Webb (2010), Shiftan et al. (2015) and Zhao et al. (2014) have argued that customer satisfaction forms the basis upon which a customer's decision on post-purchase intentions would be made. Adam et al. (2017) noted that overall satisfaction cannot be used to measure post-purchase intentions if satisfaction is also being measured as a major construct.

Zhao et al. (2014) in extending their argument on satisfaction being an antecedent to post-purchase intentions suggested that the concept comprise two main constructs: "intentions – which are an individual's continuous behaviour to purchase a product or service; and attitudinal intentions - the consumer's attitudes and emotions towards a service on an on-going basis" (p. 3). Drawing conclusions from Zhao et al.'s (2014) evaluation of post-purchase intentions, it can be argued that the concept should be seen from the perspective of future usage and the willingness to recommend a service and or a product. van Lierop and El-Geneidy (2016) concluded in their study that it is imperative for transportation service

users to continue to use the service and recommend the same to others when they are satisfied with the service performance.

Several researchers have also argued that the conceptualization of post-purchase intentions as an outcome of satisfaction, continuous use and recommending services or products independently is inadequate (Adam et al., 2017; van Lierop et al., 2018). Adam et al. (2017) proposed that there is a need for alternative intention to be considered in the post-purchase intention dimensions. This is because, irrespective of a customer's loyalty level, customers at some point in time would seek for a chance to explore new opportunities. Adam et al. (2017) subsequently proposed three constructs: reuse of a service, recommendation and use amidst other competing services. Baah, Bondzi-Simpson and Ayeh (2019) also proposed seven constructs for measuring post-consumption intentions. The study intends to measure post-purchase intentions using the tripartite measure proposed by Adam et al. (2017).

As most studies have conceptualised post-purchase intentions in terms of the level of satisfaction gained because of the use of a service or product, Anderson and Sullivan (1993) have argued that fewer studies have focused on the consequences of satisfaction vis-à-vis post-purchase intentions. When customers are dissatisfied with a service there is no guarantee of a positive post-purchase intention. The Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect model by Hirschman (1970) is explicit about ways that consumers respond to dissatisfaction. Per the model, consumers respond either by leaving or transferring their loyalty to another facility and engaging in bad word-of-mouth advertisements. In a study conducted by Hussain,

Al Nasser and Hussain (2015) on customer satisfaction of United Arab Emirates-based airlines, they asserted that dissatisfied customers would usually complain to friends and relatives about the poor nature of the service received. As alluded to by Campo-Martinez et al. (2010), a positive satisfaction has a positive influence on post-purchase intentions, and a negative satisfaction will also have a negative influence on the intentions during the decision-making process.

Push and Pull Motivation and Post-purchase Intentions

Yoon and Uysal (2005) examined the relationships between push and pull motivation, satisfaction and destination loyalty using a SEM approach. Their results revealed that there was a significant relationship between push motivation and loyalty. However, their study could not establish a significant relationship between pull motivation and loyalty. Schofield and Thompson (2007) also explored the effects of push and pull motivation on satisfaction and post-purchase intention. Their results showed that push motivation had a direct bearing on post-purchase intentions. Based on this discussion, it can be argued that push and pull motivation can significantly have an influence on post-purchase intentions. Subsequent to this, hypothesis 5 and 6 were proposed in this study.

Structural Model/Conceptual Framework

To model the relationship between motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions among car rental users, the framework, destination loyalty model, proposed by Yoon and Uysal (2005) was adapted (*see page 31 for the*

84

original model). The model is deemed ideal since its underlying thoughts are consistent with the objectives of the study. From the model, post-purchase intentions are conceptualized as revisit intention which is just one type of post-purchase intention. However, as stipulated in the earlier discussions above, there is a clear distinction between revisit intention and post-purchase intention. Even though revisit intention is one scenario of measuring post-purchase intention, Chen and Chen (2010) and Rundle-Thiele (2005) noted that the latter is the overall future behavioural commitment to purchase a product or service amid competing alternatives.

The structural model/conceptual framework (Figure 5) is premised on the assumption that the use of car rental services is based on the individual's or the user's motivation. People use rental services for varied reasons and so would tend to evaluate their satisfaction with their actual experience after using the rental service for an activity, which afterwards would have an impact on their post-purchase intentions.

This assertion by extension could mean that people are motivated to use rental services based on a specific need and for specific purposes (hypothesis 1 and 2), and as to whether they are satisfied or not, will vary based on whether their need has been met or otherwise. Literature indicates that, if those needs are met, users would develop loyalty towards the service and this loyalty would manifest in three folds: using the service instead of others, reuse of services and recommendation. Per this analogy, the study also formulated a hypothesis that there is a direct positive relationship between pull motivation and push motivation

85
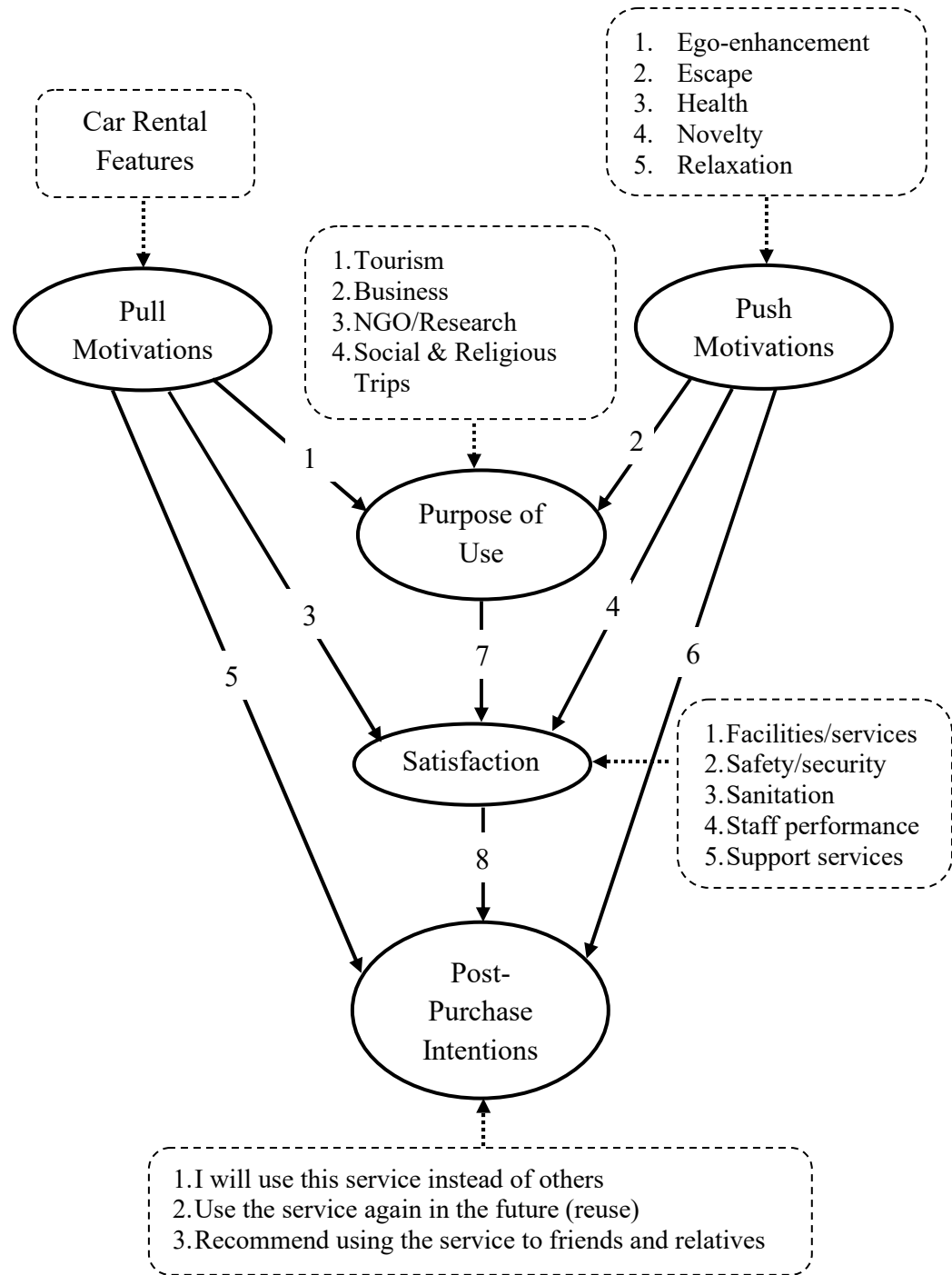
Figure 5: Conceptual Framework on Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and Post-purchase Intentions

Source: Adapted from Yoon and Uysal (2005)

86

and satisfaction gained after consuming the rental service (hypothesis 3 and 4).

Eventually, purposes of use can influence satisfaction (hypothesis 7) and the level of satisfaction gained by the user will influence his/her post-purchase intentions, thus, satisfaction will directly and positively influence post-purchase intention (hypothesis 8). It is also estimated that motivation (push and pull) can have a direct bearing on post-purchase intentions (hypothesis 5 and 6). In summary, there is a direct causal relationship between motivation and purpose of use, purpose of use and satisfaction, and satisfaction and post-purchase intention. Also, motivation is presumed to have an influence on satisfaction and post-purchase intention.

Chapter Summary

The chapter profiled car rental users by examining their key characteristics - demographic factors and their pro-environmental attitudes and the use of rental cars. Also, literature was reviewed on attributes of car rental services, push and pull motivations and their relationship with satisfaction. The empirical literature on satisfaction pertaining to transportation services was also discussed and its relationship with post-purchase intentions. The third major discourse pertained to post-purchase intentions, where it was deduced that the construct was mostly thought of as being similar to reuse, however, further analysis revealed that reuse intention is just an element of post-purchase intentions with others, such as using the service instead of others, the propensity to recommend, consideration of competing alternatives, overall satisfaction and having value for money all

embedded in the construct. The study also formulated its conceptual framework by proposing that a significant relationship exists between motivation (push and pull) and usage, and between usage and post-purchase intentions with satisfaction moderating that relationship. Also, the framework depicts that motivation (push and pull) can directly and positively influence satisfaction as well as post-purchase intentions.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Introduction

As Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) have argued, research methods serve as the building blocks to a research irrespective of the procedures used. This chapter, therefore, outlined the methodological underpinnings of the study. The specific topics discussed include a description of the study area, the research philosophies and design employed, data sources and the target population for the study. It further explained the procedure used to determine the study's sample size, sampling procedures/techniques employed, design of the research instrument(s), data collection procedures, pre-testing, field assistant training, actual fieldwork, data processing and analysis, ethical issues for consideration and challenges encountered from the fieldwork.

Study Area

It is appropriate to outline some basic characteristics of the study area since according to Kumar (2005), the setting in which a study is conducted plays a significant role in the overall research process. The study area of this study is Ghana, specifically the cities of Accra, Kumasi and Tamale (Figure 6). Ghana, after the introduction and implementation of the Structural Adjustment Programme in the mid-1980s and the subsequent liberalization of the economy, brought an influx of hospitality and tourism businesses (Hiamey, 2012). As of

89
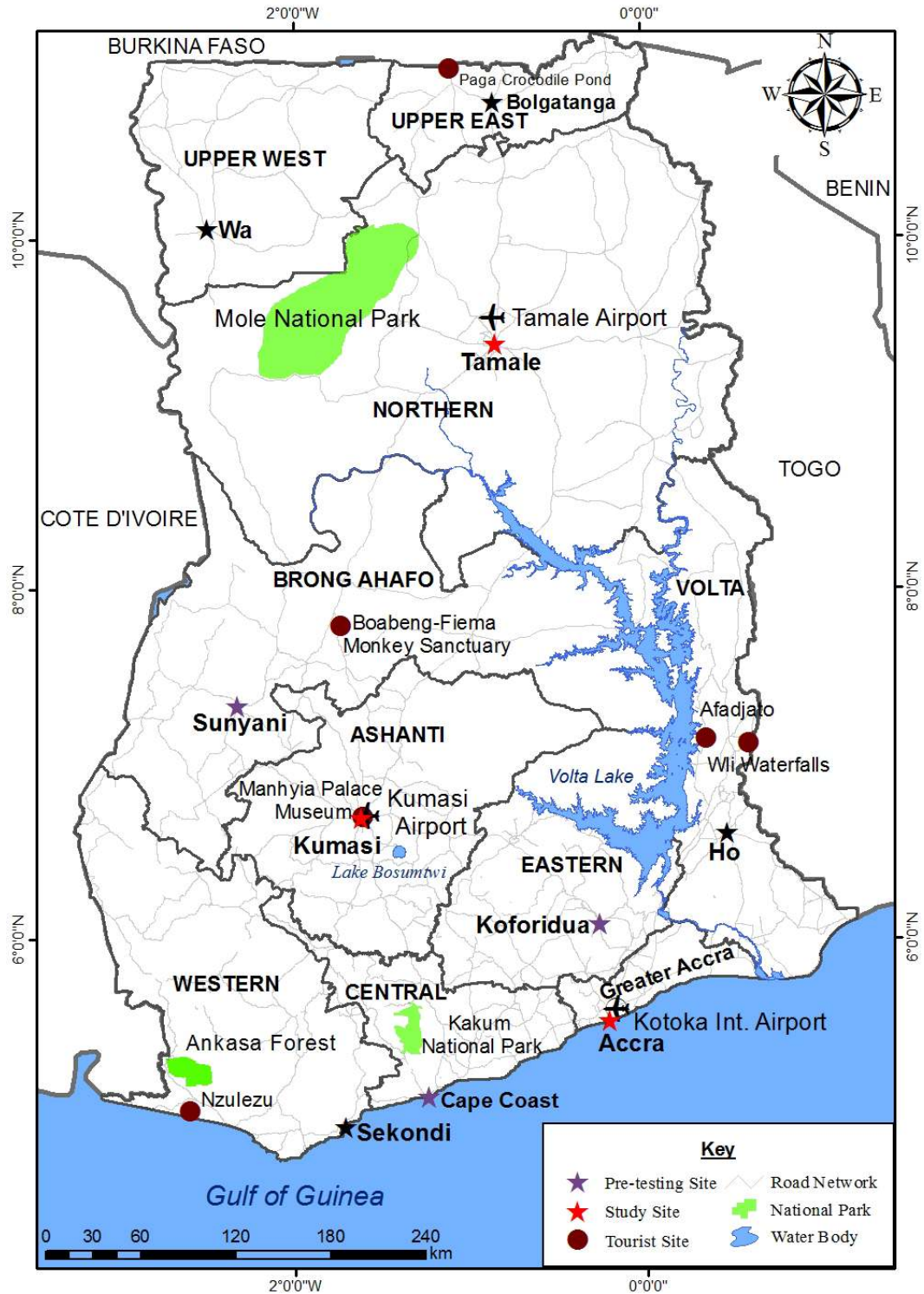
Figure 6: Map of Ghana showing the Study Areas

Source: University of Cape Coast, Cartography Section (2018)

2016, the GTA has registered 84 car rental facilities, 257 travel and tour agencies and 40 tour operating facilities (Table 3).

Table 3: List of Registered Rental Facilities

	Number of facilities			
Region	**Car Rentals**	**Travel and Tour**	**Tour Only**	*Total*
Ashanti	7	53	4	*64*
Brong-Ahafo	0	4	2	*6*
Central	4	1	1	*6*
Eastern	0	0	0	*0*
Greater Accra	46	184	28	*258*
Northern	1	4	0	*5*
Upper East	0	0	0	*0*
Upper West	0	0	0	*0*
Volta	8	0	1	*9*
Western	18	11	4	*33*
Total	*84*	*257*	*40*	*381*

Source: GTA (2016)

Accra, which is the national capital of Ghana, is the largest and most densely populated city in the country. In terms of hospitality and tourism businesses, it has the 'lion's share' of all categories in the country, ranging from top-notch accommodation facilities (Kempinski, Mövenpick, La Palm, Labadi, Holiday Inn, Golden Tulip) to food and beverage establishments (Kentucky Fried

Chicken - KFC, Papaye, New Rest, SERV air and a host of ethnic restaurants), and shopping malls (Accra, West Hills, Achimota Retail Shop, and the Junction Malls). The city also houses important edifices such as the Jubilee/Flagstaff House – the seat of government, Parliament House, Christiansburg Castle, Accra International Conference Centre, National Theatre, Kwame Nkrumah Mausoleum and the Du Bois Centre for Pan African Studies.

With respect to transport, it is the site of an international airport and the focus of the country's railroad system, including a link to nearby Tema, which since 1962 has served as the city's deep-water port. The Greater Accra Region, of which Accra also serves as its capital has 258 varying rental facilities - 46 car rentals, 182 travel and tours and 28 tour operating agencies. Notable rental facilities include Avis, Yoks, Royal German, Euro Star, Sunseekers, and Land Tours all of which provide car rental facilities for all categories of clients.

Accra also has a buoyant service industry, having the headquarters of banks, telecommunication businesses, and several quasi tourism and hospitality businesses, such as hospitals and open market/shopping facilities. The city also serves as headquarters of multinational oil and mining companies and foreign institutions such as agencies of the United Nations and many Development Partners. A meaningful analysis would, therefore, be made with regard to the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of rental car users within this jurisdiction.

Kumasi, the second largest city in Ghana is the capital of the Ashanti Region and the traditional home of the Asantes. It is located approximately 270

km northwest of Accra. It is the commercial and transportation centre for the rich forest and mineral resources of the country. Its love for arts and crafts and tradition makes it a toast of many visitors to the country and the indigenes alike. Kumasi has a woodcraft village and other light industries dotted across the city. Kejetia, Asafo and Adum markets are among a few that serve as a point of call for all traders and buyers.

The city of Kumasi over the years has been described as the 'cultural heartbeat' of Ghana. The people of Kumasi express their culture in deep-rooted traditions such as chieftaincy, rites of passage (naming ceremonies, marriage and funerals) and festivals – Akwasidae, held every six weeks by the Asantehene who sits in state to receive homage from his subjects. The culture of the people of Kumasi (the Asantes) is also espoused in the form of buildings – Manhyia Palace and Museum, the Royal Mausoleums at Bantama and Breman, Kumasi Fort and Military Museum and the Ejisu Besease Traditional Buildings.

Tourism and hospitality facilities within the city include the Ratary Park, Okomfo Anokye Sword Site, Lake Bosomtwe, Golden Tulip, Golden Bean, Georgia, Rexmar and Miklin Hotels, Kumasi City Mall, KFC among others. Quasi service industries such as banks, telecommunication facilities and hospitals (Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital) also exist. Regarding transportation facilities, Kumasi has an airport and railroad facility (no longer viable). Car rental facilities such as Dodi, Joshob, Kitticily, Linked In, Land Air Solutions and St. Michael car rentals operate within the city. In a nutshell, Kumasi also has the market for car rental facilities ranging from individual use to corporate use, which would enable

93

meaningful comparisons of patterns and trends to be established with respect to other study sites.

Finally, the northern city of Tamale, the capital of the Northern Region, which is approximately 640 km north of Accra, the capital city is predominantly the ancestral home of the Dagombas. The city which is a metropolitan area is the 5th largest after Accra, Kumasi, Takoradi and Tema and consists of 2 sub-metros. The people of Tamale usually celebrate the Damba festival. The city is famous for prestigious second cycle schools such as Tamale Senior High School and Ghana Senior High School usually known as 'the pride of the north' and the University for Development Studies with campuses dotted around the three Northern Regions.

Although the city does not have a major tourist attraction, it usually serves as a transit point for visitors travelling to the renowned Mole National Park, the ancient mosque at Larabanga, the Mystic stone, Salaga Slave Market and attractions within the Upper East Region (Tongo Hills, Paga Crocodile Pond, and the Catholic Buildings of Navrongo). It however has accommodation and food and beverage establishments notably Picorna, Modern City, Ganaa, and Mariam Hotels, Hoyla Bon Appetit, Swad Fast Food, Oasis Lounge among others and an arts and crafts centre. It also has an airport and serves as the commercial and transportation hub of the north. The city has a registered car rental facility (Achumba Car Rentals) and 4 travel and tour agencies. Anecdotal evidence suggests that several NGOs within Tamale and its environs, Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies, Ministries, Departments and Agencies make

good use of car rental facilities. It is against this backdrop that the city of Tamale was also selected to be part of this study, although it has limited registered facilities. Tamale has a market base for car rental services, and this would have an impact on the study.

Takoradi which has 33 registered car rental facilities (*see Table 3 on page 91*) was not considered but Tamale for two reasons. Firstly, the Tamale International Airport serves the 5 northern regions and as such many travellers from the south do rely on car rental services to facilitate their travels within the northern territory of the country. Secondly, non-governmental organisations within the northern zone also rely on car rental services to move to the various communities within the northern part of the country for their humanitarian and developmental activities.

Research Philosophy

Appropriate research methods have been a bone of contention between social science philosophers and methodologists. Though there is a consensus in the literature that research is a procedural and methodical framework which increases knowledge (Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar & Newton, 2002), there are still disagreements among social scientists on best approaches. Crotty (1998) proposed four key features as essential in making an informed decision on the appropriate research approach to select. These include the epistemology that informs the research, the philosophical stance underlying the methodology in question, the methodology itself; and the techniques and procedures to be used

in the collection of data. Based on this line of reasoning, Giddings (2006), Neuman (2000) and Sarantakos (2005) proposed three approaches to social science research: positivist, interpretivist and the critical social process as the best premise to conduct social science research. Pragmatism, which seeks to combine the positivist and interpretivist approaches (Morgan, 2007) due to the inherent criticisms of both, is an emerging philosophy in social science research.

The study, however, adopted the positivists' paradigm which forms the theoretical background of the quantitative study, reasons being that the positivists' approach creates a platform for respondents to give real objective responses with respect to the phenomenon under study. Literature posits that positivism is that research philosophy which is employed when experience and empirical knowledge of a natural phenomenon are being sought. According to Willig (2001), this paradigm is guided by the principle of realism and objectivism, which requires methodical investigation derived from the testing of theories using hypothesis. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) and Neuman (2003) both advanced this school of thought and argued that this method of research deals with deducing logic by empirically observing individual behaviours in order to confirm or weaken lines of reasoning using probabilistic rules that predict general human behaviour. This would either prove or refute the validity of theories. The philosophy underpinning positivism holds reality to be out there and that it has an identity of its own (Howe, 2009; Sarantakos, 2005).

This reality and identity can only be perceived using the experience of the senses (observation) through quantitative research (Neuman, 2003; Howe,

2009). Using the quantitative approach will enable this idea, perceived through the senses be reduced into smaller and discrete variables. These variables are then used to explain the research phenomena, through the collection of numerically quantifiable data and the use of rigorous statistical methods for interpretation (Sarantakos, 2005).

The cautionary school of thought, however, argues that reducing people to numbers and the use of abstract statistical tools to interpret such results is meaningless in the 'real' world (Howe, 2009; Neuman, 2003). Furthermore, Sarantakos (2005) was also of the view that quantitative methods determine in advance how a phenomenon is to be studied and this limits the research process by reducing the initiative, dynamism and motivation, thereby rendering the research process artificial and generating unrealistic and irrelevant data.

Despite its shortfalls, the study, however, adopted the positivist philosophy (quantitative research method) since it would significantly contribute to achieving the stated research objectives/questions and hypothesis. The research questions which are answering the 'what' and 'how' would provide the study with numerical data which would be interpreted to ascertain the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of consumers using car rental facilities. Also, adopting such a methodology enabled the findings to be compared to existing studies within the hospitality – tourism continuum.

Implications of Methodology for Research Design

Since every research methodology must be consistent with its paradigm, this study was designed to be consistent with quantitative methodology. Consequently, the structure and sequence propounded by Antwi (2005) and Yin (2003) was adapted. The suggested research process theory proposes that the research philosophy and design are influenced by the research problem, objectives, hypothesis and theories underpinning the phenomena. The philosophy and design have an influence on the research management process which has the target population, sampling, research instrument and data collection and analysis techniques as its building blocks (Figure 7).

However, adopting this methodology had different implications for the study design. Firstly, the positivist approach limits the researcher to two methods of data collection; the experimental and the survey method. Within the hospitality and tourism literature, the survey method is predominantly used. This would provide a premise upon which results are compared since the literature is replete with such methodologies (survey) used to collect and analyse data. Again, the tenets of the positivists' philosophy made it necessary to focus on the observable. Since most of the constructs associated with motivation and satisfaction were assessed using the 'Likert Scale', it fits the tenets of the philosophy.

The philosophy adopted also had implications for the sample size, sampling technique and the ability to generalize the study findings. Since the assumption of the positivist paradigm presupposes that there is an objective reality, there is the need to select a design that would help measure and provide an

98

accurate reflection of the reality. As such, the sample size was large enough and the unit of analysis was selected using the quota and the convenience sampling technique (*see page 103-105 for justification*). Another implication which influenced the research design is the issue of reliability and accuracy. The adopted paradigm, therefore, ensured the objectivity in analysing the phenomena under study.
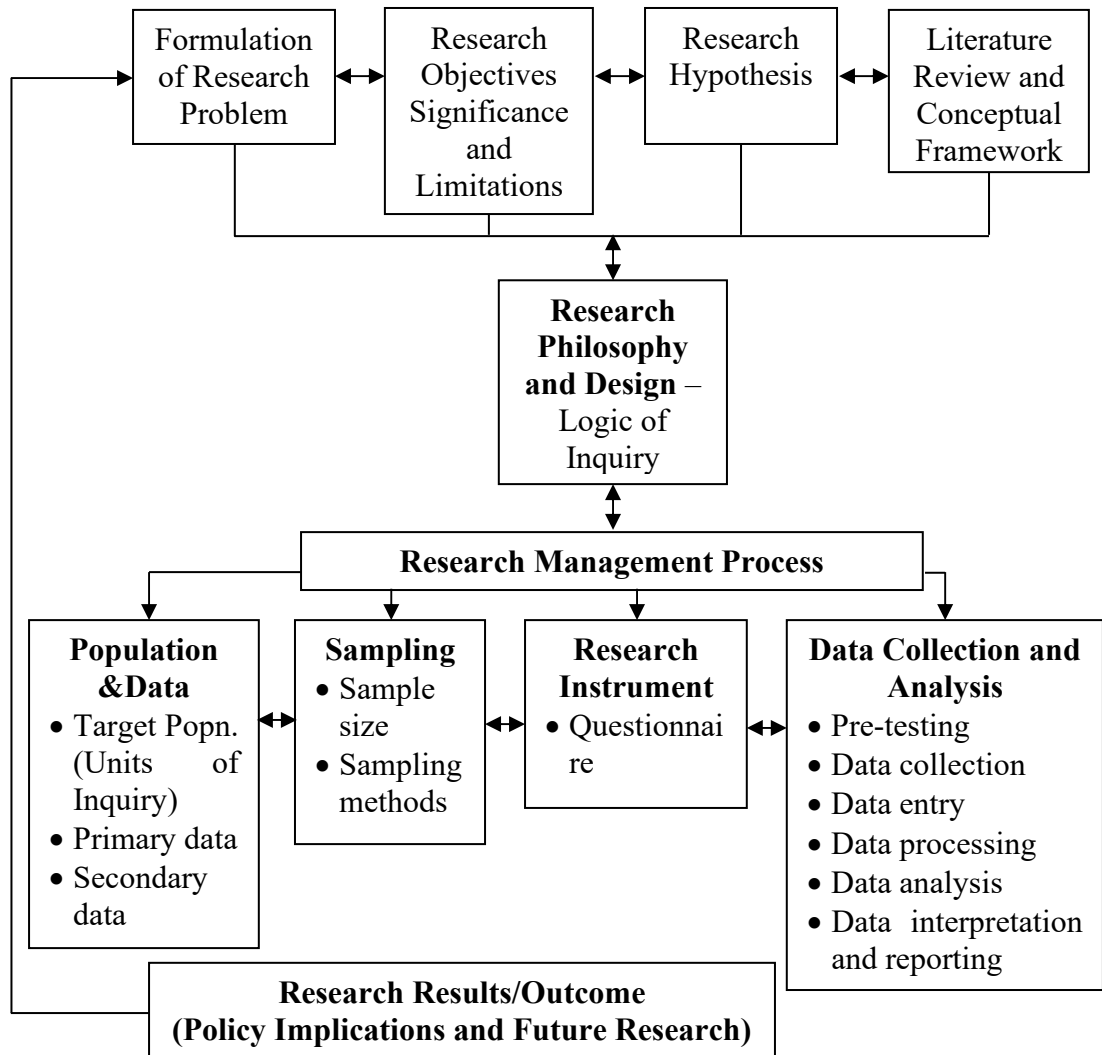
Figure 7: The Research Process

Source: Adapted from Antwi (2005) and Yin (2003)

Research Design

The research followed the assumptions of the cross-sectional research design in exploring the inherent issues since it is purely using the quantitative research approach. Creswell (2010) and Kumar (2005) argue that this design enables researchers to select samples of the population and data collected from same at a single point to answer the research questions. Babbie (2007) also noted that this design makes it possible to collect quantitative data in relation to the variables understudy to identify patterns of association. Accordingly, the study used this design and by that selected a proportion of car rental users within the selected study areas to reconnoitre their motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions.

The study also made inferences to the descriptive and correlational research techniques in bringing to the fore, the empirical issues inherent in the behavioural patterns of car rental users. Literature indicates that descriptive research attempts to answer questions on what and how (Kumar, 2005). With respect to this study, factors that influence the choice of car rentals was described from the users' perspective. Correlational research alternatively seeks to establish or discover patterns of association between variables. Thus, the research attempted to establish associations between socio-demographics and motivation, use and satisfaction. It would also endeavour to ascertain the influence of satisfaction on post-purchase intentions.

Data and Sources

Users of car rental services served as a source of primary data. The data focused on issues pertaining to user's background characteristics, motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. The primary data were useful in providing first-hand information about the study since there is a non-availability of secondary data that would help address the specific objectives.

Secondary information on car rental facilities was sourced from published and unpublished reports by the Car Rentals Association of Ghana (CRAG), Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) and the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts (MoTCCA). Information from Tour Operators Union of Ghana (TOUGHA) and the Ghana Association of Travel and Tour Agents (GATTA) in addition to other published and unpublished research papers, books, journals, magazines, newspapers and websites of rental facilities also formed part of the secondary data used.

Target Population

Babbie (2007) defined the concept of target population as elements from which samples would be drawn for the purposes of research. The unit of analysis for this study comprised all categories of car rental users who make use of rental cars either from car rental facilities or travel and tour operators. To be deemed fit as a respondent, one should have used the service of a rental facility at least on one occasion (with the last usage, not more than 6 months). The post-consumption method was used because it was envisaged that the users of rental services would

101

be able to provide reliable information. This method was used in similar studies by Kucukusta and Guillet (2014), and Adam et al. (2017) and Adongo et al. (2017) also employed the same approach and found reliable results.

Sampling Size

Since it is virtually unfeasible to question all the elements in the target population, and in line with the opinion of Saunders et al. (2003), samples were selected for the survey. Data was gathered from customers that use rental facilities. The International Fund for Agricultural Development (2009) formula was used to determine the sample size for the study. The formula which is:

$$n = \frac{t^2 \times p\,(1\text{-}p)}{m^2}$$

Where:

n = desired sample size when the population is more than 10,000

t = confidence level set at 95% (standard z statistic usually set at 1.96)

p = estimated proportion of the target population with similar characteristics (set at 50% or 0.5)

m = margin of error set at 5% (standard value = 0.05)

Substituting the values into the formula:

$$n = \frac{3.8416 \times 0.5\,(1\text{-}0.5)}{0.0025}$$

$$n = 384.16 \approx 384$$

$$n_f = 384$$

A calculated $n_f = 384$ was obtained. Using the Raosoft online sample size calculator as a cross validation tool, the sample size calculation yielded similar results. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (2010) argued that 'large' sample sizes are needed for effective statistical analysis to be done in order to obtain reliable estimates. Tabachnick and Fidell (2010) suggest that "it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for effective analysis" (p. 588).

Sampling Procedures

A sampling frame was purposefully constructed in each study site. Using quota sampling, quotas were allocated to the various study sites. Specifically, Accra had 8 study sites and was allocated a quota of 171 questionnaires. 5 study sites were purposefully constructed in Kumasi and allocated a quota of 130 questionnaires, whereas Tamale with 4 study sites had a quota of 121 questionnaires (Table 4). Quotas were allocated based on the estimation of car rental usage within these places. These study sites were carefully selected based on the population, activity focus and the tendency to get respondents.

The convenience sampling procedure was used to select the respondents from the selected study sites. The unavailability of a sampling frame and the need for data to be collected at one point in time as a result of the cross-sectional technique adopted basically influenced the use of this sampling technique. Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) and Dornyei (2007) argued that in using convenience sampling technique, certain criteria such as, proximity to the research respondents, respondents being readily available and accessible to the researcher,

103

Table 4: Sample Size Allocation for Attraction Sites and Transport Terminals

Cities/Facilities	Location	Sample size allocated
Accra		*171*
Du Bois Memorial Centre for Pan-African Culture	Cantonments	12
Accra Mall	Tetteh Quarshie Roundabout	12
Ministries	Accra	12
Kwame Nkrumah Mausoleum	✓	25
Centre for National Culture	✓	25
University of Ghana	Legon	25
Hajj Village	Airport	25
Kotoka International Airport	✓	35
Kumasi		*130*
Central Business District	Kumasi	20
Regional Coordinating Council	✓	20
Military Museum	✓	20
Kumasi Airport	✓	35
Manhyia Palace Museum	Manhyia	35
Tamale		*121*
Central Business District	Tamale	15
Tamale Airport	Mile 9, Tamale	30
Tamale Hajj Village	✓	30
Mole National Park	Damongo	46
Total		422

Source: Reconnaissance survey, 2018

and their willingness to participate in the study should be considered. These criteria were basically used to select the respondents for the study. Etikan et al (2016) also observed that since respondents are 'usually' from a homogenous group and that no marked differences would be obtained in results from either a random sampling technique and a convenience sampling technique, it is prudent to use convenience sampling procedures in scenarios when a sample frame for the respondents is unavailable. These influenced the adoption of this sampling technique in a quantitative research.

The researcher and his team visited the selected 'hot spots' within the 3 cities. Visitors or patrons of the facilities who were found at the time of the data collection were interrogated on their use of car rental services. Respondents who attest that they have used car rental services during the last six months were considered for the study. Questionnaires were subsequently administered to respondents who indicated that they had used car rental services before and were willing to participate in the study. This was done until the proportion allocated to each 'hot spot' was reached. The convenient sampling technique has been used by researchers such Adam et al. (2017), Mensah & Dei-Mensah (2018) and Nutsugbodo et al. (2018) in studies pertaining to motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions and in transportation services. To avoid scenarios in which a respondent would participate twice, a filter question was included in the questionnaire.

Data Collection Instrument

The instrument for the data collection was the questionnaire. Using a structured questionnaire is the best-suited method for collecting quantitative data (Babbie, 2007; Creswell, 2010) which in turn also guarantees confidentiality and anonymity. According to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (2014), almost 72% of adults in urban areas (e.g. Accra, Kumasi and Tamale) are literate. This informed the study to adopt the use of the self-administered questionnaire to gather data.

The instrument was structured into five sections. Section A contained filter questions to ascertain motivational factors that influence rental car usage. This section contained information on purposes of use. A checklist of activities was specified, and respondents were asked to indicate those ones that they had used the rental services for. Respondents were asked to write purposes of use that were not provided for which they had also used the services. Issues pertaining to motivational attributes were measured using the Likert scale of 1 to 5 where 1 = strongly disagreed, 2 = disagreed, 3 = neutral, 4 = agreed and 5 = strongly agreed. Variables measuring the use of car rental services were selected from studies such as Correia and Viegas (2011) and Wang et al. (2012) whereas those pertaining to motivation were sourced from researches such as Caber and Albayrak (2016), Ciari et al. (2014), Chen and Chen (2015) and Naidoo et al. (2015). In all, 9 purposes for which car rental services are used for and 34 motivational items were deemed important in the decision-making process of the rental users.

Section B covered issues pertaining to satisfaction. Based on the literature, 33 items were used to measure satisfaction which was drawn from literature (Buhalis, 2000; Chakrabarti & Giuliano, 2015; Kim, 2014; Le-Klahn et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2009; van Lierop et al., 2018; Susilo & Cats, 2014). These items were also measured using the 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, 4 = satisfied, 5 = very satisfied). Section C also elicited data pertaining to post-purchase intentions with scales adopted from studies such as Adam et al. (2017), Baah et al. (2019) and Wang et al. (2012).

The last two sections (D and E) solicited users' views on their travel and socio-demographic characteristics respectively. Issues covered pertaining to travel characteristics include the type of vehicle used, travel party size, travel party group; and those pertaining to socio-demographic characteristics comprised sex, age, marital status, level of education, job status and income amongst others. All questions were worded in English since the respondents could read and write.

Pre-testing of Instrument

Pre-testing of the instrument was done between July 9 to July 28, 2018, in Cape Coast, Koforidua and Sunyani using 52 respondents. This was to ensure clarity of the questions as well as to ensure the content and face validity of the instrument for the actual data collection. Questions found to be irrelevant and or repetitive were deleted and those found to be ambiguous were also rephrased.

The reliability of scales of the multiple items intended to measure motivation and satisfaction were also ascertained through the pre-testing. Items

that were part of the motivation and satisfaction scales had to meet the generally accepted Cronbach's alpha (α) threshold of ≤ 0.70 (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle & Mena 2012; Kline, 2005).

Training of Field Assistants

Prior to the fieldwork, three field assistants were recruited and trained to assist in the data collection. The selection of field assistants was based on their field experience. One of the field assistants had acquired a bachelor's degree in social science and was stationed in Tamale. The second field assistant who was stationed in Kumasi had acquired an MPhil degree in Hospitality Management, whereas the third field assistant had also acquired an MPhil degree in Climate Science with Tourism as his bachelors. The training of the field assistants equipped them with the rudimentary data collection skills needed, how to adequately interpret and give detailed explanations of the aims on the questionnaire and how to ensure that basic research ethics were not violated. The training lasted for a day. Opportunities were given to the assistants to ask questions based on the training session for necessary clarifications.

Field Survey

The field survey lasted for a period of two months, from 1st August to 30th September 2018. The study was started from Accra, then to Kumasi and ended in Tamale. The team spent 4 weeks to collect the data in Accra, another 2 weeks to collect the data in Kumasi and 2 weeks also for Tamale. The team

108

worked for 5 days out of the week in all the selected cities. On average, 10 questionnaires were collected in Accra per day. As regard to Kumasi and Tamale, an average of 12 questionnaires were also collected per day. Administering a questionnaire during the data collection period lasted for about 10 minutes per session.

The purpose of the study was first explained to the respondents and with their consent, the instrument was administered. Largely, the questionnaires were self-administered except for some isolated cases that the respondents needed few clarifications. Respondents who were not willing to participate were subsequently replaced.

Response Rate

A total of 384 questionnaires were administered with all the instruments retrieved. However, after it was perused, 382 were considered useful for the analysis, representing a response rate of approximately 99%. This was because of the sampling technique used. The convenience sampling technique enabled the researchers to replace respondents who were not ready to participate in the study. Also, the instruments were self-administered, and the researchers were on stand-by to collect the answered instruments. Approximately, the 1% deficit was as a result of an incomplete questionnaire and a respondent indicating that they had used Uber and Taxify service which was not considered as part of the traditional car rental market.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are measures of accuracy, consistency, precision and relevance (Zikmund, 2000; Kline, 2005). Reliability, however, is the extent to which results from a research yielded reliable findings. In situations in which similar results are achieved over a period and across the same circumstances, Zikmund (2000) termed it as reliability. Kline (2005) also noted that Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used tool to estimate reliability. In this study, the least Cronbach's alpha (α) value recorded was above the threshold of ≤ 0.70 (Table 5) after the pre-testing was conducted. This, therefore, provided evidence of the reliability of the scales used. Methods used to enhance the reliability of the various scales were rephrasing of ambiguous questions and deleting of misleading variables which were done after the pre-testing exercise.

Validity, on the other hand, is the ability of the instrument to be able to measure what it is supposed to and provides useful outcomes. The validity of the instrument was ascertained after comparing the preliminary results with existing literature and anecdotal evidence.

Table 5: Reliability of Constructs

Constructs (No. of items)	Cronbach's alpha
Factors influencing choice of rental facility (10 items)	0.913
Motivational attributes (34 items)	0.947
Satisfaction (33 items)	0.965

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Ethical Issues

Basic ethical issues that were adhered to in this study include right of entry, informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality. Right of entry was sought by first sending introductory letters to the facilities whose premises the data collection exercise was conducted. This aided the warm reception that was accorded to the researcher and the field assistants and bringing to the fore the essence of the study to the management of the selected hotspots.

In furtherance to the above, respondents' consent was also sought before instruments were administered to them. This enabled the researcher and the assistants to explain the purpose of the study to them and the implications. The explanation sat well with them and their consent was given which subsequently enabled them to participate in the study.

Finally, respondents' confidentiality and anonymity were assured. Respondents were assured that the information given was not going to be divulged to individuals or entities that were not directly involved in the study. Anonymity which bothers on ensuring that the questionnaire was designed to a large extent devoid of questions that would require the respondents to give their identity and contact information was also ensured. Thus, issues such as name, place of work and addresses were not captured on the instrument.

Challenges during Fieldwork

Gathering data for this study was not without challenges. Management of the Mole National Park, for instance, insisted on getting an introductory letter

111

from the Executive Secretary of the Wildlife Division of the Forestry Commission. The reason given was that most researchers do not give a brief of their findings to the various facilities from whose premises data was gathered, hence management have decided to use clearance from the Executive Secretary as a means to track researchers and make them submit their findings to the various facilities. Therefore, only an introductory letter from the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast was not enough to gather data from the park.

Some respondents also complained of time constraints in answering the questionnaire. This was particularly the case encountered at the Kotoka International Airport since most of the guests either had limited time to check-in or were tired as a result of their travel time. Some respondents also complained about the volume of data required. Respondents at the Hajj villages (Accra and Tamale) were not much enthused to participate because to them, they were getting frustrated about their flight delays. Upon having fruitful discussions with some of them, they granted an audience and subsequently participated in the study.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data collected from the field was processed using IBM SPSS version 21. Using SPSS, descriptive (frequency, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Chi-square test of independence was used to analyse relationships existing between motivational factors and users' socio-demographic and travel characteristics. In furtherance to the above techniques, the

112

independent samples t-test and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to assess the variations in the motivations, purpose of use and satisfaction across the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of respondents. The structural equation model was also employed to explain the interrelationships between motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. The results were presented using tables and charts.

Structural Equation Model Analysis

The major statistical analysis method used in this study include factor analysis (FA) and structural equation modelling (SEM). All statistical procedures were carried out in the SPSS and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 24. AMOS was specifically used to test the proposed relationships among the study variables, by conducting structural equation modelling. As proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), to test the construct validity, there was a need for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) before testing the hypothesized paths using the SEM.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis (FA) is a data reduction and an interdependence technique, whose main aim is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006; Mazzocchi, 2008; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). FA is a multivariate statistical technique that is used to summarise the information contained in a large number of variables into a

smaller number of factors (Cao, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Mazzocchi, 2008). It is seen as the basis of SEM alongside the multiple regressions.

FA by extension is a multivariate technique that identifies the dimensions of the originally observed measures of a scale in terms of a hierarchical structure. The factors are arranged in descending order of importance based on their eigenvalues and their contribution to the total variance explained. FA employs principal components analysis (PCA) and extracts factors with eigenvalues usually greater than 0.3 using the varimax rotation. Results indicating Bartlett's test of sphericity, ($p < 0.05$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) index, ranging from 0 to 1, means the data is correlated (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2010). Total variance explained is used to denote the variation explained by each latent variable.

There are two main procedures to conduct a SEM. Firstly, it is by conducting FA or exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA is used to confirm the dimensionality of constructs and to establish the validity between sets of constructs. EFA is also useful in searching for structures among a set of variables or as a data reduction method (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) which aids in generating the results (SEM), is a way of testing how well, measured variables, represent a smaller number of constructs (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Hair et al., 2006). The researchers must specify both the number of factors that exist within a set of variables and which factor each variable will load highly on before results can be computed. It has also been noted by Costello and Osborne (2005) that the CFA statistic can show how well the

specification of the factors matches reality (the actual data); it is a tool that enables researchers to either confirm or reject a preconceived theory and it forms the premise for the theory testing (Hair et al., 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM is a powerful, yet complex, analytical technique (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Shook, Ketchen Jr, Hult & Kacmar, 2004). It is a technique for measuring associations among unobserved variables. SEM has been in use since the early part of the 20th century (Shah & Goldstein, 2006). It is a family of statistical models that seek to explain the relationships among multiple variables and examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations. These equations are like a series of multiple regression equations (Hair et al., 2006; Shook et al., 2004).

SEM is a distinct analytical tool that combines both interdependence and dependence techniques (Byrne, 2016; Hair et al., 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). It is most effective when one dependent variable becomes an independent variable in an ensuing dependence relationship and it gives rise to the interdependent nature of the structured model (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The three characteristics of SEM which make it a unique statistical technique in multivariate data analysis include estimation of multiple interrelated dependence relationships, incorporating latent variables not measured directly, and defining a model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In recent times, SEM has become a well-known technique. Several different software packages (like AMOS, LISREL,

115

EQS) for computers have been developed (Byrne, 2013; Henriksen & Pedersen, 2007; Narayanan, 2012). This has made SEM an easily accessible analytical method. AMOS was adopted in this study because of its flexibility.

A comprehensive SEM model comprises measurement and structural models. A model should always be developed based on some underlying theory. A structural model entails specifying structural relationships between latent constructs which can be related to the measured variables with a dependence relationship. Two types of relationships are possible among constructs (Cao, 2012; Narayanan, 2012). The first is a dependency relationship, which is always illustrated by a direct arrow and used between an exogenous construct and an endogenous construct. The second is a correlation relationship, which is depicted by a two-headed arrow connection, which can be shared only between exogenous constructs.

A structural model's goodness of fit is evaluated using the Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Incremental Fit Index (IFI). The RMSEA value of between 0.05 and 0.08, and the TLI and CFI value of 1 (perfect fit) or close to 1 indicates a good-fit and considered acceptable. The squared multiple correlation coefficient is also used to ascertain the proportion of variance of a construct explained by antecedent constructs. Estimated coefficients are subsequently assessed for statistical significance and the correct sign.

116

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The CFA was a preferred technique as against the more conventional EFA technique for three main reasons. Firstly, as part of the study objectives, this study sought to develop a model in explaining the interrelationships between the four major constructs by evaluating the applicability of the conceptual framework in car rental studies. In this regard, CFA would be useful in testing the factorial validity (divergent and convergent) of the latent variables than the EFA.

Secondly, having preference for CFA over EFA is partly a methodological one, however, it is not peculiar to this study. The study adopted already developed scales which have been used in the field of motivation, satisfaction and transport studies in measuring the constructs (motivation, purpose of use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions). Thus, any further use of these scales must proceed in a confirmatory manner (Byrne, 2000). With regards to this study, the aim was to confirm the applicability of the scales in relation to the study context. Assuming there were no developed scales in this regard, the EFA would have been more suited for exploring the structure of the scales in its initial stages.

Thirdly, one of the emergent statistical methodologies for modelling issues related to motivation and satisfaction is CFA and SEM (Adam et al., 2017). This is based on several studies that have employed CFA and SEM techniques (Adam & Amuquandoh, 2018; Adam et al., 2017; Agyeiwaah, Otoo, Suntikul & Huang, 2018).

117

Reliability Analysis

Reliability and validity scores should be evaluated when using SEM (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Reliability is an indicator of the extent to which a series of items of a latent construct is internally consistent based on their interrelationships. Scale reliability refers to the degree to which a scale can replicate similar measurement results in repeated trials (Hair et al., 2006).

Cronbach's alpha, also known as the coefficient alpha, is usually used in measuring scale reliability. An important property of the coefficient of alpha is that its value tends to increase with an increase in the number of scale items; therefore, the coefficient alpha may be artificially and inappropriately inflated by the inclusion of several redundant scale items (Mazzocchi, 2008).

The scale reliability of the constructs was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. This gave a measure of how well a set of manifest indicators, measures the scale (Pallant, 2005). The coefficient value ranges from 0 to 1. Values of less than 0.60 would typically indicate marginal to low (unsatisfactory) internal consistency (Hair et al., 2006). However, Pallant (2005) recommends an alpha value of 0.70.

As regards SEM and due to the criticisms levelled against the Cronbach's alpha, the most used technique in testing for the reliability of the scale and the validity of constructs is the Composite Reliability (C.R.) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) respectively. C.R. which measures the internal consistency of the scale has a threshold of C.R. ≥ 0.60 whereas the AVE which also measures the convergent validity of the constructs also has a recommended value of AVE ≥ 0.50.

Chapter Summary

This chapter dealt with the methodological underpinnings of the study. The issues discussed include description of the study area and the research philosophy and perspectives. Implications of selecting the appropriate methodology and the research design were also addressed. The data used for the study were the primary data sourced from the users of rental services. The main instrument used to collect data from the samples was the questionnaire. Out of the 384 questionnaires administered, 382 were retrieved and were useful for further analysis. The data from the respondents were gathered through the convenience sampling method due to the absence of a sample frame and the inability to get easy access to the target population.

Issues pertaining to reliability, validity and ethics were also discussed. Spotlights were also thrown on the training of field assistants, the actual data collection and the challenges encountered during the field survey. The data collected were processed using the SPSS version 21 and AMOS software version 24. The descriptive analysis was used to present the results of the socio-demographic and travel characteristics and motivation and satisfaction constructs. Factor analysis was used to examine the multivariate structure of the data and significant correlations among the variables. Structural equation modelling was used to test the proposed relationships among the variables and examine the interrelationships expressed in a series of equations which are similar to that of a multiple regression.

CHAPTER FIVE

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC AND TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS OF CAR RENTAL USERS IN GHANA

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the study sample characteristics, specifically socio-demographic and travel characteristics. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were presented in tables to describe these characteristics.

Socio-demographic Profile of Car Rental Users

According to Metz (2012) and Prieto et al. (2017), socio-demographic and travel characteristics have been used to define who the car rental user is, and it aids in differentiating them from the mainstream transport facility user. With reference to Table 6, the analysis showed that out of the respondents surveyed, male users (61.0%) outnumbered the female users (39.0%). The findings conform to that of De Luca and Di Pace (2015) and Prieto et al. (2017) who argued that car rental users are predominantly males. To buttress this, Becker et al. (2017) also found similar trends in their study conducted in Basel, Switzerland, where they noted that as many as 70 percent of car rental users were males. Yoon et al. (2017) also found similar trends in their study in Beijing, China.

Respondents who participated in the study were largely below 40 years. Cumulatively, they accounted for 78.5 percent. Specifically, 43.2 percent of the

Table 6: Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Socio-demographic characteristics (n=382)	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	233	61.0
Female	149	39.0
Age (years)		
< 30	165	43.2
30-39	135	35.3
40-49	61	16.0
> 50	21	5.5
Average age = 33		
Marital status		
Single	164	42.9
Married	218	57.1
Education		
High School	41	10.7
College/Poly/University	255	66.8
Postgraduate	86	22.5
Job status		
Student	112	29.3
Employee	197	51.6
Unemployed	36	9.4
Self-employed/Businessperson	37	9.7
Religion (n=372)		
Christian	255	68.6
Muslim	112	30.1
Atheist	5	1.3

121

Table 6 continued

Monthly income (n=213) *[Average = 2000]*		
GH¢ < 1000.00	32	15.0
GH¢ 1000.00 – 1999.00	91	42.7
GH¢ 2000.00 – 2999.00	42	19.7
GH¢ 3000.00 – 3999.00	25	11.8
GH¢ > 4000.00	23	10.8
Nationality		
Ghanaian	339	88.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	12	3.2
North & South America	16	4.2
Europe	15	3.9

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

users were less than 30 years and 35.3 percent were between 30 and 39 years. Users above 40 years accounted for 21.5 percent. According to Becker et al. (2017) and De Luca and Di Pace (2015), the Millennials dominate the car rental clientele. The Millennials are the generational cohort, which the Pew Research Centre (2014) and Klein and Smart (2017) have defined as individuals born between 1981 and 1997. Correia and Viegas (2011) and Wang et al. (2012) also found similar trends in studies conducted in Lisbon and Shanghai respectively. This result can be attributed to the fact that many young people are more willing to rent cars to enable them to undertake their scheduled activities such as attending social gatherings, tourism and other recreational activities. Goodwin (2012), in his study, reported similar findings and concluded that we are in a period where young adults crave for cars. Miller (2001) earlier considered this as

a new form of 'car culture' emerging among the youth. Circella et al. (2017) and Wang, Akar and Chen (2018), in comparing Millennials with other age cohorts were of the view that Millennials are more likely to adopt rented or shared mobility services and use this service regularly.

From the study, it could also be adduced that slightly above one-fifth (21.5%) of the users were above 40 years indicating that there is a demand for rental cars also among the Generation Xers and Baby Boomers. This also conforms to the findings of Prieto et al. (2017), in their study in Paris, Madrid and Tokyo. With regards to marital status, more than half (57.1%) of the users were married with 42.9 percent being single. This could be attributed to the youthful nature of the users considering their age and the fact that almost 30 percent of them were students.

Several studies have also argued that in profiling car rental users, their level of education must be considered. From the survey, majority of the users (89.3%) were graduates or pursuing graduate/post-graduate degrees. Specifically, 66.8 percent are graduates, whereas 22.5 percent were pursuing post-graduate degrees, thus majority of the users are people with higher education. This result conforms to that conducted by Cervero et al. (2007) and Martin and Shaheen (2011) who noted in their study that the use of car rental service is most attractive to people of higher educational levels.

In using job status as a profiling tool in studying car rental users, it could be deduced from Table 6 that more than half (51.6%) of the respondents were employees of either public or private institutions. Also, 29.3 percent were students

123

with 9.7% being self-employed or businesspersons. With regards to religious affiliation, the majority (68.6%) described themselves as Christians while 30.1 percent professed to be Muslims. Ghanaians dominated (88.7%) the samples, whereas cumulatively, 11.3 percent of the users are from other Sub-Saharan African countries, North and South America and Europe.

About 42.7 percent of the respondents earn a monthly income of between GH¢ 1000 – GH¢ 1999, followed by those who earn between GH¢ 2000 – GH¢ 2999 (19.7%) with 10.8 percent earning above GH¢ 4000. On average, the respondents attest that they earn GH¢ 2000. Using this information as a point of reference to determine low and high-income earners, it could be deduced that 77.7% of the respondents are low-income earners. Referring to the findings of De Luca and Di Pace (2015) and Shaheen and Schwartz (2004), the income distribution observed is consistent with the income patterns identified. To them, low-income earners are the predominant users of rental cars. Correia and Viegas (2011) also confirm this when they carried out their study in Lisbon, Portugal.

Travel Characteristics of Respondents

Travel characteristics have also been used to profile niche market tourists such as spa-goers, backpackers, volunteer and homestay tourists (Adam, 2015; Adongo et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh, Dahalan & Jaafar, 2016; Otoo & Amuquandoh, 2014). Variables such as length of use, frequency of use, type of vehicle used and travel party group dynamics amongst others were used to profile car rental users (Table 7). From the study, it was observed that 44 percent of the

124

users had used car rental facilities within the last two months. With respect to the frequency of use, 70.2 percent attested that they used car rental facilities occasionally, with 20.7 percent using the service frequently.

About 36% of the respondents were 'first-time' users, while the remaining (64%) were repeat users. The high number of repeat users could be attributed to the past experiences these users have had with previous service providers. With respect to the number of uses, half (50.8%) have used car rental services for less than 5 times with 39.8 percent having used rental services for between 5-10 times.

The results also revealed that out of the 6 types of vehicles identified as being available on the Ghanaian rental market, 24 percent of the users made use of saloon cars and 17.7 percent rented 4x4 cross country vehicles. The least type of vehicle used is the coaster (10.2%). In addition to this, it was further observed that less than one-fifth (17.5%) self-drove the rented vehicles whilst a substantial majority (82.5%) made use of drivers of the rental facilities. This finding agrees with similar findings by Costain et al. (2012) who noted in their study that sedan cars (saloon), 4x4s and SUVs are the most commonly rented vehicles.

With respect to group dynamics, 77.5 percent of the users made use of the service in groups, whereas 22.5 percent were individual users. In furtherance to this, 51.1 percent of the users were in groups of less than 5 individuals, whereas 11.1 percent were in groups of more than 30 individuals. Table 7 also shows the breakdown of the travel party or group dynamics. In all, 43.8 percent of the travel party group was made of friends, family and relatives, 26.5 percent were members

Table 7: Travel Characteristics of Respondents

Travel characteristics (n=382)	Frequency	Percentage
Length of use of rental facility		
< 2 months	168	44.0
2-4 months	110	28.8
4-6 months	104	27.2
Frequency of use		
Almost daily	12	3.1
Frequently	79	20.7
Occasionally	268	70.2
Rarely	23	6.0
Car rental use experience		
First time use	137	35.9
Repeat use	245	64.1
Number of times rental facility is used (n=181)		
< 5	92	50.8
5-10	72	39.8
> 10	17	9.4
Average use = 6 times		
Rental car used*		
Saloon	125	24.0
4x4 cross country	92	17.7
Urvan	70	13.5
Bus/coaches	62	11.9
SUV	61	11.7
Pick-up	57	11.0
Coaster	53	10.2

Table 7 continued

Self-drive		
Yes	67	17.5
No	315	82.5
Travel group		
Group	296	77.5
Individual	86	22.5
Travel party size (n=262)		
< 5	134	51.1
5-14	44	16.8
15-30	55	21.0
> 30	29	11.1
Travel party dynamics (n=313)		
Friends/family/relatives	137	43.8
Association/union	83	26.5
Business colleagues	48	15.3
Partner/spouse	45	14.4
Sources of information about rental facility *		
Word of mouth	391	64.2
Internet	84	13.8
Newspaper/magazine	61	10.0
Television/radio advert	60	9.9
Government website	13	2.1
Location (data collection site)		
Accra	162	42.4
Kumasi	103	27.0
Tamale	117	30.6

*Frequency exceeds 382 because of multiple responses

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

127

of an association or union and 14.4 percent were people who travelled with their partners or spouses.

The most utilised source of information was word of mouth (64.2%). This observation conforms to the view that the most relied source of travel information is the word of mouth. Chen, Lin and Kuo (2013) noted that the reliability of word of mouth as a credible source of travel information has proven to be high compared to other sources such as those of the electronic and print media. To them, this is because of the embellishment of information by some advertising sources, that is, making their description of information more interesting by exaggerating the details. It could also be deduced from Table 7 that 13.8 percent of the users made their travel-related decisions with regard to the use of rental facilities through the internet. The use of the internet as a source of information has not been downplayed in the literature. Ayeh, Au and Law (2013) noted that individuals are increasingly utilising information from the internet to make travel decisions. With regards to the location (data collection site), 42.4 percent of the data was collected in Accra, while 30.6 percent was collected in Tamale with Kumasi recording a little above a quarter (27.0%).

Purpose of Use of Car Rental Services

Purpose of use have also been adapted to profile the car rental market (Haboucha et al., 2015; Paudra et al., 2016). The results (Figure 8) suggested that 45.9 percent of the respondents usually used car rental services to attend social and religious gatherings. Also, the second highest purpose of use (31.7%) was

128

tourism, 11.7 percent used it for NGO and research-related activities with 10.7% using it for the purposes of business either to attend business meetings and or conferences. The highest form of use, social and religious trips, can be disaggregated in that, it is a composite of purposes of use such as attending weddings, funerals, visiting friends and relatives, religious gatherings and for the purposes of shopping.

This result conforms to the views held by Correia and Viegas (2011), Efthymiou et al. (2013) and Wang et al. (2012). To them, car rental services are predominantly used to attend social gatherings. Becker et al. (2017) also noted that rental services are predominantly used for tourism purposes such as airport transfers, in which customers use it to shuttle between their hotels and the airport and vice versa, and to visit tourist attraction sites for the purposes of relaxation, recreation and educational purposes.
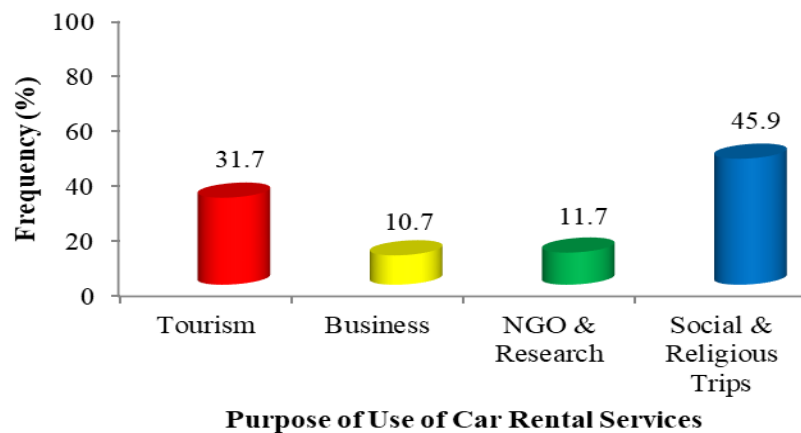
Figure 8: Purpose of Use of Car Rental Services

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

129

In furtherance to the above, it is not surprising for social and religious trips to dominate the use of rental services. In Ghana, an emerging trend for car rental use is for weddings and funerals where the wedding and funeral attendees rent cars to have flexibility and convenience when attending such programs. Also, couples who do not have their personal cars also go renting to enable them carry out their wedding activities. NGO and research activities being the third most used for purpose lays claim to the fact that anecdotal evidence from the Northern part of the country has revealed an increasing number of NGOs which are undertaking social researches to liberate the people from their vicissitudes.

Purpose of Use by Socio-demographic Characteristics

This section of the analysis ascertains whether significant relationships exist between purposes for which the rental services were used and the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Using the Chi-square statistic with the significance level set at $p \leq 0.05$, the following results could be deduced from Table 8. The results suggest that except for sex, a significant relationship was established for age, marital status, educational level, job status, religion, income, nationality and purpose of use.

Purpose of use did not have any significant relationship with sex ($\chi^2 = 1.27$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.737$). However, it could be deduced from Table 8 that males predominantly used rental services for tourism purposes (42.9%) and social and religious trips (36.5%). The females, on one hand, were seen to predominantly use car rental services for tourism (38.2%) and social and religious trips (39.6%). This

Table 8: Purpose of Use by Socio-demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Purpose of Use				
		Tourism	Business	NGO & Research	S & R Trips	χ^2
		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(p)
Sex						
Male	233	42.9	11.6	9.0	36.5	1.27
Female	149	38.2	14.1	8.1	39.6	(0.737)
Age (years)						
< 30	165	42.4	5.5	5.5	46.6	
30-39	135	39.3	16.3	11.1	33.3	26.21
40-49	61	39.4	18.0	13.1	29.5	(0.002)*
> 50	21	47.6	28.6	4.8	19.0	
Marital status						
Single	164	45.7	7.9	6.1	40.3	9.06
Married	218	37.6	16.1	10.5	35.8	(0.028)*
Educational level						
High school	41	9.8	9.8	4.9	75.5	
College/Poly/Uni.	255	45.9	9.4	7.1	37.6	49.88
Postgraduate	86	41.9	23.2	15.1	19.8	(0.000)*
Job status						
Student	112	44.6	6.3	5.4	43.7	
Unemployed	36	33.3	16.7	5.6	44.4	24.61
Employee	197	42.6	12.7	12.7	32.0	(0.003)*
Self-employed	37	29.7	27.1	0.0	43.2	
Religion						
Christian	255	50.2	10.2	5.9	33.7	
Muslim	112	22.3	17.0	16.1	44.6	35.35
Atheist	5	0.0	40.0	0.0	60.0	(0.000)*

Table 8 continued

Monthly income						
<GH¢ 1000	32	56.3	15.6	3.1	25.0	
GH¢ 1000 – 1999	91	50.5	5.5	11.0	33.0	29.57
GH¢ 2000 – 2999	42	35.7	21.4	11.9	31.0	(0.003)*
GH¢ 3000 – 3999	25	32.0	12.0	12.0	44.0	
>GH¢ 4000	23	26.1	43.5	13.0	17.4	

NB: S & R Trips = Social and Religious Trips; *$p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

finding confirms the views held by Duval (2007) and Hall (2010) that irrespective of sex, the purposes of use of rental services are predominantly for leisure and social activities.

Variation in purpose of use was noticed across car rental users and their age distributions ($\chi^2 = 26.21$; $df = 9$; $p = 0.002$). As shown in Table 8, users below 30 years used rental services mostly for social and religious trips (46.6%) and for tourism purposes (42.4%). Also, the purpose of use of rental cars within the age cohort of 30-39 years did not significantly differ from those under 30 years, in that they also predominantly use it for tourism (39.3%) and for social and religious trips (33.3%). Since this age cohort are the Millennials who love to socialize and undertake adventurous activities (Strauss & Howe, 2003), it is only prudent that they would at most times visit tourist attractions and also attend social and religious gatherings. Regarding users above 50 years, their usage of car rental service is to enable them to undertake tourism and recreational activities (47.6%) and to enable them to attend to their business schedules (28.6%).

Taking into consideration that these age cohorts are mostly employees and or businesspersons, they are more likely to use rental cars for business purposes and also to enable them to visit tourism and recreational resources for relaxation. With respect to marital status, there was a significant association between marital status and purpose of use ($\chi^2 = 9.06$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.028$). Purposes of tourism; 45.7 percent, 37.6 percent, and for social and religious trips, 40.3 percent and 35.8 percent were the main purposes of use among the singles and the married respectively.

Users who have attained high school level, predominantly use rental services to attend social and religious gatherings (75.5%) whereas those with college, polytechnic and university degrees prefer to use it for tourism purposes (45.9%), with people having higher degrees (post-graduates) also using it for the same purpose (41.9%). Almost a quarter of the users pursuing or having attained post-graduate degrees also make use of rental services for business activities. The trend with regards to the post-graduate category is that there is a likelihood that these people would prefer to undertake tourism activities because they may have the discretionary income and some of them may be businessmen or women and perhaps might frequently meet business partners and attend conferences and other meetings. With regards to the college, polytechnic and university cohort, it is also likely that they are Millennials and thus, would prefer to undertake adventurous activities, thereby travelling to tourism resources and because they like to socialize, they would also likely be fond of attending social and religious

gatherings. The relationship between these two variables was significant (χ^2 = 49.88; df = 6; p = 0.000).

The issue of the relationship between job or employment status and purpose of use of rental services as highlighted in Table 8 was statistically significant (χ^2 = 24.61; df = 9; p = 0.003). Specifically, students were found to predominantly use the service to enable them visit tourism and recreational sites (44.6%) for the purposes of education and relaxation, whereas 43.7 percent of students also used it for social and religious purposes. Also, 27.1 percent of the self-employed used it for business purposes and 43.2 percent for social and religious trips.

Religion to some extent can play a role in influencing how people use rental services. It was observed from the study findings that half of the users (50.2%) who professed the Christian faith use rental services to visit tourism and recreational resources and 33.7 percent use it for social and religious trips. On the other hand, users who also professed the Islamic faith usually used it to attend social and religious gatherings. It could be deduced from this finding that since most of the users identified in the study averaged 33 years and are Christians, Christian youth groups usually organize excursions, and this could have contributed to the rise in the number of Christians who use rental services for tourism purposes.

Also, some Christian couples could also use rental facilities to visit tourism outfits to be able to relax and have fun. With regards to Christians using rented facilities to attend social and religious gatherings, this could be because of

the frequent Christian marriage and funeral ceremonies and religious gatherings such as conventions and conferences that would warrant the attendees to rent or hire vehicles to be able to attend such functions. Moslems using rented facilities for social and religious gatherings could also be as a result of the Hajj period in which the data were collected. Most Moslems in the Northern region who participated in the study were of the view that they used rental facilities to aid them to move from their place of residence to the airport to embark on this year's (2018) Hajj to the Holy Land. The relationship between religion and purpose of use was statistically significant (χ^2 = 35.35; df = 3; p = 0.000).

Finally, income was also found to have a statistically significant relationship with purpose of use (χ^2 = 29.57; df = 12; p = 0.003). Respondents who earn less than GH¢ 1000 and those who earn between GH¢ 1000 – GH¢ 1999 usually used rental services for tourism purposes with each cohort accounting for 56.3 percent and 50.5 percent respectively. Also, respondents within the income cohort of more than GH¢ 4000 (43.5%) also used the services to attend business meetings.

Purpose of Use by Travel Characteristics

In furtherance to the above results, that is, purpose of use by socio-demographic characteristics, further analysis was done to ascertain the relationship between travel characteristics and purpose of use. The results show that with reference to travel characteristics and purpose of use, only travel group dynamics and type of car used showed significant variations (Table 9). Users who

135

Table 9: Purpose of Use by Travel Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Tourism	Business	NGO & Research	S & R Trips	χ^2
		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(p)
Experience						
First time use	137	35.0	10.2	8.8	46.0	6.74
Repeat use	245	44.5	13.8	8.6	33.1	(0.081)
Self-drive						
Yes	67	35.8	13.4	7.5	43.3	1.40
No	315	42.2	12.4	8.9	36.5	(0.705)
Travel group						
Group	296	43.9	9.8	9.8	36.5	13.11
Individual	86	31.3	22.1	4.7	41.9	(0.004)*
Rental car used						
Saloon	125	36.8	16.8	3.2	43.2	
4x4 cross country	92	16.3	13.0	26.1	44.6	
Minibus (Urvan)	70	50.0	1.4	5.7	42.9	81.22
Bus/coaches	62	45.1	6.5	12.9	35.5	(0.000)*
SUV	61	23.0	21.2	11.5	44.3	
Pick-up	57	19.3	15.8	22.8	42.1	
Coaster	53	56.6	3.8	9.4	30.2	
Location						
Accra	162	46.9	9.9	5.6	37.6	
Kumasi	103	57.3	14.6	2.9	25.2	49.10
Tamale	117	17.9	14.6	18.8	48.7	(0.000)*

NB: S & R Trips = Social and Religious Trips; *$p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

travelled in groups usually used it for tourism purposes (43.9%) and for social and religious trips (36.5%). Reasons could be that people who usually rent vehicles to attend social and religious gatherings and for tourism purposes do that in groups. It was also noted that there were individuals who also use rental cars to attend social and religious gatherings (41.9%), tourism and recreational sites (31.3%) and 22.1 percent preferred using it to attend business functions. The relationship between these two variables was found to be significant (χ^2 = 13.11; df = 3; p = 0.004).

A significant variation was also noticed between type of vehicle used and the purpose of use (χ^2 = 81.22; df = 18; p = 0.000). Specifically, saloon cars, bus/coach and coaster showed significant variations. Saloon cars were preferred for social and religious trips (43.2%) than tourism (36.8%) and business (16.8%). Bus/coach and coaster were preferred for tours, thus, accounting for 45.1 percent and 56.6 percent respectively. Also, 4x4 cross country vehicles and pickups were preferred for social trips (44.6%; 42.1%) and for NGO and research-related activities (26.1%; 22.8%) respectively. The reasons for quite a number of people using 4x4 cross country and pickup vehicles for NGO and research-related activities could be that some of the research sites are in remote areas of the Northern Region and other regions and thus, these remote sites could be effectively accessed by the use of 4x4 and pickups. Bus/coach and coaster also being preferred for use by people to enable them visit tourism sites could be because people who usually travel to tourism and recreational sites normally do that in groups and thus, would prefer vehicles that could carry the entire group.

Finally, the location of the respondents had a significant relationship with purpose of use (χ^2 = 49.10; df = 6; p = 0.000). Respondents who were in Accra preferred using car rental services for tourism and recreational activities (46.9%) and social trips (37.6%). Same could be said of Kumasi (tourism and recreation = 57.3% and social trips = 25.2%). With respect to Tamale, almost half (48.7%) of the respondents used car rental services for social trips. Almost a quarter (18.8%) of the respondents in Tamale also use the service for NGO activities. Using car rental services for NGO activities in Tamale is as a result of the several NGOs within the northern part of the country, and they do rely on car rental services to enable them to visit their project sites to carry out sensitizations, monitoring of existing projects and other activities.

Factors Influencing Choice of Rental Cars/Facilities

In as much as travellers need a means of transport to enable them to commute to and fro, certain factors usually are taken into consideration before a mode choice or a facility's vehicle could be settled on for use. Lai and Chen (2011) and Le-Klahn et al. (2014), were of the view that factors usually taken into consideration before a transport mode is chosen out of the lot include, but not limited to comfort, convenience, safety and the perceived service quality offered by the facility. As indicated in Table 10, several factors were considered by the respondents before making a choice.

The respondents virtually affirmed (m ≥ 3.50) that all the identified factors in exception of the eco-friendly attribute (m < 3.50) were attributes taken into

138

Table 10: Factors Influencing Choice of Rental Facility

Statement	% in agreement	Mean	SD
Factors/Attributes			
Comfort	83.5	3.96	0.907
Convenience	81.7	3.95	0.868
Safety	79.1	3.91	0.892
Flexibility	76.7	3.81	0.928
Time saving	75.9	3.86	0.867
Accessibility	79.1	3.85	0.883
Affordability/pricing	72.3	3.72	1.007
Availability	83.0	3.96	0.766
Reliability	79.6	3.89	0.820
Eco-friendly	51.8	3.42	0.971

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral;

3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

consideration before selecting a preferred rental service provider. As regards the specificity, car rental users agreed that comfort (m=3.96), convenience (m=3.95) and safety (m=3.91) influenced their decision-making with regards to the type of vehicle to be rented. Also, issues pertaining to flexibility (m=3.81), accessibility (m=3.85), affordability/pricing (m=3.72) and the reliability (m=3.89) were also identified as factors considered. These findings reinforce the assertion of Abane (2011), Nutsugbodo et al. (2018) and Susilo and Cats (2014) that safety, convenience, comfort and reliability are factors transport users usually consider

before making decisions with respect to which transportation modes to use for their journeys.

Chapter Summary

This chapter profiled the car rental user using their socio-demographic and travel characteristics. It further analysed the purposes of use of car rental services and juxtaposed that with their socio-demographic and travel characteristics. The study established that males were more than the females and that, the average age of the respondents was 33 years and they earn an average income of GH¢ 2000. The first-time users of rental cars accounted for 35.9 percent of the respondents with the saloon car being the most used vehicle (24.0%) and followed by 4x4 cross country (17.7%) and the least type of vehicle used was the coaster (10.2%).

The study also found that most of the patrons of rental cars prefer using it to attend social and religious gatherings (45.9%) and to visit tourism and recreational sites (31.7%). Significant variations were found between all the socio-demographic variables and purpose of use with the exception of sex ($p = 0.737$). Travel group, type of rental car used, and location of the respondents also had significant variations with purpose of use with their p-values being 0.004, 0.000 and 0.000 respectively. Factors such as comfort, convenience, safety, flexibility, and reliability were also identified as factors that influenced the rental users in making decisions regarding what type of vehicle to use and which service provider should be selected amongst the lot.

CHAPTER SIX

MOTIVATION OF CAR RENTAL USAGE IN GHANA

Introduction

This chapter presents the determinants of car rental usage. Specifically, push and pull motivations were analysed using descriptive statistics. Factor analysis was used to extract the factors that predominantly influenced users to make their travel decisions whereas independent-samples t-test (t-test) and One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to establish differences between the various motivational constructs and socio-demographic and travel characteristics.

Motivation of Car Rental Users

Studies in the transportation literature have identified varying reasons why people make certain decisions regarding their choice of transport service (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). According to Wong et al. (2017), these decisions could either be a push or a pull. From the results presented in Table 11, several motivational factors such as car rental features, escape, relaxation, ego-enhancement and seeking novelty/adventure comes to play. There was a general affirmation by respondents that 'car rental features' was a significant factor in influencing their decision to patronise car rental services (m=3.81). Specifically, they made use of car rental services because the rental facilities have modern cars (m=3.84), the service providers have well-trained drivers and staff (m=3.91) and vehicles are safe to

141

Table 11: Motivations of Car Rental Users (N = 382)

Statement	% in agreement	Mean	SD
Car rental features			
Rental facility has modern cars	75.6	3.84	0.88
Services are affordable	73.0	3.70	0.96
Facilities are easily accessible	81.9	3.89	0.81
Staff provide good service(s)	78.3	3.83	0.83
Facilities have well-trained drivers/staff	80.4	3.91	0.79
Facilities have friendly service providers	75.7	3.83	0.84
Prompt/timely delivery of service(s)	78.8	3.86	0.81
Their vehicles are safe to ride in	78.8	3.90	0.84
Facilities ensures privacy	75.6	3.86	0.89
Their car rental facility is popular	62.3	3.66	0.94
I have a preference for their vehicles	64.9	3.66	0.89
Overall score	*75.0*	*3.81*	*0.86*
Escape			
Get away from regular driving schedules	62.0	3.50	1.04
To let go problems related to the use of public transport services	62.6	3.50	1.12
Escape from the stress of driving	60.8	3.46	1.07
Overall score	*61.8*	*3.49*	*1.08*
Ego-enhancement			
To feel fulfilled/satisfied/content	64.9	3.62	1.01
To show off or be seen fashionable	45.9	3.14	1.20
To be chauffeured	57.6	3.43	1.08
To give myself a treat/make oneself happy	62.3	3.49	1.07
To have a luxurious experience	50.8	3.27	1.19
Overall score	*56.3*	*3.39*	*1.11*

Table 11 continued

Relaxation			
Relieve stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services	67.6	3.55	1.12
Refresh or free my mind whilst travelling	67.5	3.63	1.04
Rest from regular driving activities	65.4	3.58	1.11
Overall score	*66.8*	*3.59*	*1.09*
Health			
Eyesight issues (sight)	40.0	2.77	1.45
Hearing restrictions	24.9	2.41	1.23
Ability to use the leg effectively	28.8	2.49	1.29
Medical conditions	24.6	2.37	1.31
Avoid physical and psychological fatigues	36.9	2.84	1.30
Subjective symptoms	31.7	2.61	1.32
Present illness	25.4	2.43	1.33
Use of medication/drugs	27.2	2.43	1.32
Advanced age	27.5	2.48	1.36
Overall score	*29.7*	*2.54*	*1.32*
Novelty/adventure			
Attempt something new	51.9	3.17	1.18
Discover something new	53.6	3.28	1.14
Have a sensational experience	57.6	3.36	1.15
Overall score	*54.4*	*3.27*	*1.16*

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral;

3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

143

ride in (m=3.90). Research has revealed that certain features of rental facilities serve as a pull factor in influencing people regarding their travel decision-making (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008).

Overall, approximately 62 percent of the respondents agreed that the need to seek for escape influenced their decisions. With the specifics, the results revealed that respondents desire to get away from regular driving schedules (m=3.50) and the need to let go problems related to the use of public transport services (m=3.50) influenced their decision to make use of car rental services.

Slightly over half (56.3%) of the respondents agreed that seeking opportunities to enable them to have a feeling of an enhanced social status (ego-enhancement) motivated them to use car rental services. They remained indifferent when their average mean score was calculated (m=3.39), indicating that they were not all that enthused with this construct as influencing their motivation in using car rental services. The respondents, however, agreed (m=3.62) that they were motivated to use rental facilities to meet their travel needs because they want to feel fulfilled and satisfied. Also, the users were indifferent with issues pertaining to them being seen as fashionable/showing off (m=3.14), giving themselves special treats to make themselves happy (m=3.49) and to have a luxurious experience (m=3.27).

The users were also of the view that they need to relieve themselves of the stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services (m=3.55), refresh or free their minds whilst travelling (m=3.63) and have a rest from their regular driving activities (m=3.58) as motivating factors influencing their

144

decisions to make use of car rental services. In all, the respondents agreed (m=3.59) to issues pertaining to relaxation as playing a key role in their transport decision-making process (Table 11). As alluded to by Le-Klahn et al. (2015), relaxation within the realms of transportation research is seen as a function of relieving stress and anxiety associated with driving, refreshing one's mind whilst travelling and to rest from daily driving schedules.

The respondents were indifferent with the construct health (m=2.54) as a motivating factor. Thus, making use of rental facilities because of health concerns did not contribute much to reasons why people patronise rental facilities. This could be as a result of the youthful nature of the study sample. In that, issues such as having eyesight problems and hearing restrictions, medical conditions and advanced age is not 'predominant' among the Millennials. Specifically, the respondents disagreed with 6 out of the 9 health issues, notably hearing restrictions (m=2.41), ability to use the leg effectively (m=2.49), medical conditions (m=2.37), present illness (m=2.43) and advanced age (m=2.48) amongst a host of others as not directly influencing the travel decision-making process.

As regards novelty/adventure as a motivating factor, the respondents were also indifferent (m=3.27). In particular, the respondents were indifferent with all the 3 constructs, attempt something new (m=3.17), discover something new (m=3.28) and having a sensational experience (m=3.36).

145

Exploratory Factors Explaining Car Rental Users' Motivation

After the descriptive analysis of the motivational factors influencing car rental users' decision-making process, it was of essence to advance the analysis by looking at the key factors and to what extent these key indicators influenced the motivation of the users. Factor Analysis (FA) was used to identify how the specific factors influenced users' motivation by taking into consideration the 34 items used in the descriptive analysis as presented in Table 11 above. The statistical tool, that is, the factor analysis according to Pallant (2005: 172) is a "data reduction technique" which has the tendency to take a large set of variables and examine ways to reduce or summarise them using a smaller set of factors or components, helping to identify the scale dimensionality and achieving parsimony of the measurement items. Thus, FA was performed on 34 variables and 20 were identified as having accounted for the motivation of the car rental users.

The data after being subjected to the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using the varimax rotation, satisfied the two most recommended preliminary requirements for using factor analysis, that is, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value of 6704.84 was deemed significant at $p = 0.000$ which was also confirmed by the KMO values of 0.911. According to Pallant (2005) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2010), KMO values should exceed the recommended value of 0.60. The Kaiser's criterion or eigenvalue rule which stipulates that variables with eigenvalues of 1.0 or more should be retained for further analysis and a factor loading threshold of 0.60 was set as a criterion for the inclusion of a

variable into the analysis (Table 12). To ascertain the internal consistency of the variables, that is, the degree to which the items that make up the scale are all measuring the same underlying construct, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha was computed for variables measuring each construct. Nunnally (1978) recommend a minimum Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 for a scale to be considered as reliable. Hence, the Cronbach's alpha of all scales was duly calculated.

Table 12 shows the coefficients used to express the standardised variables in terms of the factor. The factor loadings (FL) represent the correlation between the factors and the variables. A coefficient with large value indicates that the factor and the variables are closely related. The PCA extrapolated 20 items under four constructs. The results indicated that four factors: car rental features, escape-relaxation, ego-enhancement and novelty/adventure collectively explained 62.55 percent of motivations of car rental users in Ghana. This finding confirms the idea that just like other tourist groups or service consumers, car rental users' motivations are multidimensional. Except for car rental features (pull motivation), the 3 other constructs bother on an individual's predisposition or psychographic and socio-demographic characteristics.

Factor I, being car rental features had an eigenvalue of 9.51 and explained 20.43 percent of the variation in the motivations of car rental users. It comprises attributes such as facilities having friendly service providers, staff providing good service(s), vehicles being safe to ride in, facilities having well-trained drivers and facilities having modern vehicles. It is important to note that customers are enticed to make use of car rental services based on certain features of the vehicles

147

Table 12: Exploratory Factors Explaining Car Rental Users' Motivation

F	Latent constructs and observed variables	FL	EV	VE (%)	α
I	Car Rental Features				
	Facilities have friendly service providers	0.83	9.51	20.43	0.907
	Staff provide good service(s)	0.81			
	Their vehicles are safe to ride in	0.79			
	Prompt/timely delivery of service(s)	0.78			
	Facilities have well-trained drivers/staff	0.77			
	Facilities ensure privacy	0.70			
	Rental facilities have modern cars	0.70			
II	Escape – Relaxation				
	To let go problems related to the use of public transport services	0.81	3.31	18.29	0.908
	Relieve stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services	0.81			
	Escape from the stress of driving	0.81			
	Rest from regular driving activities	0.78			
	Get away from regular driving schedules	0.77			
	Refresh or free my mind whilst travelling	0.67			
III	Ego-enhancement				
	To have a luxurious experience	0.86	2.04	12.85	0.881
	To show off or be seen fashionable	0.84			
	To give myself a treat/make oneself happy	0.73			
	To be chauffeured	0.71			
IV	Novelty/Adventure				
	Discover something new	0.93	1.73	10.98	0.936
	Attempt something new	0.90			
	Have a sensational experience	0.85			
	Total variance explained			62.55	

Note: F: Factor, FL: Factor Loading, EV: Eigenvalue, VE: Variance explored, α:

Cronbach's alpha; KMO = 0.929, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Approx. χ^2) =

11132.02; p = 0.000

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

148

and the service(s) being provided by the operators. Ciari et al. (2014) and Ferrero et al. (2018) also identified similar factors such as service features – type of services offered, vehicle safety and security and the professionalism of staff as key attributes influencing user preference. For internal consistency, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.907 was achieved.

The second most significant factor measured escape-relaxation as one of the main motivations of people using car rental services. In all, 6 items comprising escape from the stress of driving, relieving stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services, getting away and resting from regular driving activities, being able to relax and refresh the body and mind amidst travelling were significant. Escape-relaxation accounted for 18.29 percent of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.31 as a motivation for people using car rental services. This finding supports the assertion that users' desire to use rental services is influenced by the motivational concept of escape (Pearce & Lee, 2005; Swanson & Horridge, 2006). The FA results for the second factor shows that there is a correlation between escape and relaxation, meaning, 'escape' to use rental services is very much related to relaxation needs of people which would propel them to use rental cars. For instance, escape from the stress of driving with a factor loading of 0.81 is closely related to rest from regular driving activities which also loaded 0.78. Redman et al. (2013) and Hosany and Prayag (2013) noted that relaxation is one of the main motivations for using car rental services. They argued that car rental facilities providing clients with vehicles having a cosy

149

ambience will enable them to relax and relieve themselves of the stress and anxiety associated with driving.

Ego-enhancement was the third major reason why people make use of car rental services in Ghana. With the specifics, customers looking to have a luxurious experience, to be seen fashionable or to show off, to give themselves a treat and to be chauffeured in an 'unusual circumstance' could account for this reason. According to Maslow (1943), ego-enhancement is a derivative of the need for recognition. People want to be recognized and associated with a certain class in society and will, therefore, endeavour to engage in activities to meet that status or be associated with that class. Iso-Ahola (1982) in his study observed that ego-enhancement is about individuals wishing to do something that would be more satisfying and making them happy. In Ghana, people prefer renting private vehicles to attend social functions to have some prestige and be fashionable. With regards to the statistics, this factor explained 12.85 percent of the reasons why people make use of car rental services and has an eigenvalue of 2.04 and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.881.

Jang and Feng (2007) have observed that seeking novelty is one of the central components of travel and, thus, it influences the kind of transportation mode travellers opt for when travelling. Proponents of the novelty concept have argued that the search for novelty is an innate desire which motivates people to travel (Lee & Crompton, 1992). The novelty construct is the fourth variable that loaded in the FA. It accounted for an eigenvalue of 1.73 and explained 10.98 percent of the reasons why the respondents make use of rental services. The

variable 'discover something new' (0.93), loaded highest with having a sensational experience (0.85) loading the least. In all, 3 factors loaded on this construct with an internal consistency reliability of 0.936. This finding supports the observations made by Petrick (2002) that in the travel decision-making process, people make use of modes or transport services that would afford them a new and sensational experience that is different from their usual riding or driving experience. It is evident that people in an attempt to have a luxurious experience by riding vehicles that they have 'wished' for and cannot afford to be the outright owners of such vehicles will make use of rental facilities that have such vehicles to help them satisfy their desires.

Motivation of Car Rental Users by Socio-demographic Characteristics

Using the independent-samples t-test (t-test) and One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), the study further explored the extent to which car rental users' motivation differ across their socio-demographic characteristics. The t-test statistic was used in situations where the variables being considered had only two categories whilst ANOVA was used in instances where the independent or explanatory variables had three or more categories. The eta values were also computed for each construct in relation to the independent variables. Cohen (1988) was of the view that eta squared (eta^2) values should be interpreted as follows: less than 0.06 = small effect; 0.06 – 0.13 = moderate effect and 0.14 and above = large effect.

From Table 13, it could be deduced that a significant difference occurred in motivational construct of escape-relaxation for males (m=3.46) and females [m=3.66; t(380) = -2.10, p = 0.037]. Whilst the males were uncertain (m=3.46) that they were motivated to use car rental services because of escape-relaxation purposes, their female counterparts agreed (m=3.66) that, seeking to travel in a relaxed manner, and away from the stress associated with driving or using public transport services to some extent compelled them to use car rental services. The magnitude of the differences in the means, however, was very small (eta^2 = 0.012). This finding means that females are likely to consider using rental facilities as a result of they seeking to travel in a relaxed manner than their male counterparts. Also, females are more likely not to take risks, especially when they are travelling on long journeys, thus, might opt against personal driving or using modes that would not guarantee them a relaxed ride whilst en route to their destinations.

Age was found to have also caused significant differences in escape-relaxation (p = 0.005) as a motivational construct. With respect to escape-relaxation, age contributed significantly to the differences herein. Specifically, whereas respondents between the age cohort of 30-39 were indifferent (m=3.44), those under 30 years (m=3.53), between 40-49 years (m=3.53) and above 50 years (m=4.20) agreed that they used car rental services because they wanted to travel in a relaxed manner and escape from the regular driving schedules. The Least Significant Difference (LSD) test which helps to identify the variables whose means are statistically significant from each other, was used to establish

Table 13: Motivations of Car Rental Users by Socio-demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Car Rental Features Mean	p (Eta²)	Escape-Relaxation Mean	p (Eta²)	Ego-enhancement Mean	p (Eta²)	Novelty / Adventure Mean	p (Eta²)
Sex									
Male	233	3.85	0.653	3.46	0.037*	3.30	0.379	3.25	0.607
Female	149	3.88	(0.001)	3.66	(0.012)	3.39	(0.002)	3.31	(0.001)
		t=-0.45		t=-2.10		t=-0.88		t=-0.52	
Age (years)									
< 30	165	3.86	0.201	3.53	0.005*	3.42	0.367	3.42	0.137
30-39	135	3.79	(0.012)	3.44	(0.034)	3.31	(0.008)	3.17	(0.015)
40-49	61	3.94		3.53		3.18		3.13	
> 50	21	4.08		4.20		3.26		3.14	
		F=1.55		F=4.41		F=1.06		F=1.86	
Marital status									
Single	164	3.79	0.057	3.47	0.206	3.43	0.091	3.25	0.799
Married	218	3.92	(0.010)	3.59	(0.004)	3.26	(0.008)	3.28	(0.000)
		t=-1.91		t=-1.27		t=1.69		t=-0.26	

153

Table 13 continued

Educational level								
High school	41	4.01	0.002*	3.61	0.457	3.66	0.026*	3.56	0.139
Col./Poly/Uni.	255	3.78	(0.029)	3.50	(0.004)	3.28	(0.014)	3.26	(0.010)
Post-graduate	86	4.03		3.62		3.34		3.15	
		F=6.61		F=0.78		F=3.78		F=1.98	
Job status								
Student	112	3.71	0.027*	3.47	0.312	3.43	0.473	3.35	0.466
Unemployed	36	3.80	(0.025)	3.53	(0.009)	3.44	(0.007)	3.44	(0.006)
Employee	197	3.93		3.52		3.26		3.20	
Self-employed	37	4.00		3.79		3.33		3.24	
		F=3.19		F=1.19		F=0.84		F=0.86	
Religion								
Christian	255	3.79	0.005*	3.47	0.011*	3.33	0.878	3.18	0.003*
Muslim	112	4.00	(0.021)	3.70	(0.016)	3.32	(0.001)	3.53	(0.030)
Atheist	5	3.60		3.27		3.55		2.47	
		F=6.93		F=4.85		F=0.13		F=7.67	

154

Table 13 continued

Monthly income									
< GH¢ 1000	32	3.94	0.016*	3.55	0.039*	3.55	0.148	3.71	0.006*
GH¢ 1000-1999	91	3.67	(0.056)	3.35	(0.036)	3.13	(0.032)	3.08	(0.067)
GH¢ 2000-2999	42	3.81		3.28		3.05		3.00	
GH¢ 3000-3999	25	3.86		3.57		3.29		2.63	
>GH¢ 4000	23	4.24		3.87		3.53		2.96	
		F=3.11		F=2.66		F=1.71		F=3.74	
Nationality									
Ghanaian	339	3.83	0.118	3.51	0.513	3.31	0.020*	3.19	0.000*
Sub-Saharan Africa	12	4.08	(0.015)	3.83	(0.006)	4.02	(0.018)	4.31	(0.052)
North & South America	16	4.11		3.67		3.47		3.67	
Europe	15	4.10		3.69		3.18		3.89	
		F=1.97		F=0.77		F=3.97		F=13.54	

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

* Significant difference exists at $p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

differences in the means of the independent variables. Using the LSD, the means of the various age cohorts were found to have been significant. With an eta-squared value of 0.034, there was a small effect on the mean difference between the different age cohorts and escape-relaxation as a motivation for using rental cars.

Furthermore, the above results, show that there was a significant difference between car rental features ($p = 0.002$) and ego-enhancement ($p = 0.026$) in relation to the educational level of the respondents. As alluded to by Yoon et al. (2017), the educational level of users can have an influence on the motivation to use car rental services. Taking into consideration features of car rental facilities, all the three cohorts of educational level: high school (m=4.01); college, polytechnic or university degree holders (m=3.78) and users who are pursuing or having post-graduate degrees (m=4.03) agreed to have been motivated to use rental services because of certain unique features. These unique features could range from modern ergonomic features, safety and security features and the professionalism of the staff (Ekiz & Bavik, 2008). The magnitude of these differences caused by educational level is small (eta^2 = 0.029).

Religion also accounted for some differences with respect to what motivates people to use car rental services. Christians (m=3.79), Muslims (m=4.00) and Atheists (m=3.60) all agreed that they consider rental features ($p = 0.005$). Using the LSD to determine where the difference occurred, the test-statistic revealed that, it occurred between the mean scores of the Christians and Muslims with a small magnitude of 0.021. With regards to escape-relaxation ($p =$

0.011) and an eta squared of 0.016, Christians (m=3.47) and Atheists (m=3.27) were indifferent, whilst their Muslim counterparts agreed (m=3.70) that escape-relaxation was their motivating factor in using car rental services. As alluded to by Paris and Teye (2010), escape which is associated with relaxation serves as a motivating factor for people making transportation mode choice decisions. Referring to the novelty/adventure construct ($p = 0.003$), religion played a key role as to whether users would consider this as a motivating factor. However, whereas the Muslims agreed (m=3.53), the Christians (m=3.18) were indifferent and the Atheists (m=2.47) also disagreed that seeking novelty and adventure was a major reason in using car rental services. In effect, there was no consensus amongst the respondents juxtaposing religion as against novelty/adventure.

Except for ego-enhancement ($p = 0.148$), marked differences were observed across income with respect to car rental features ($p = 0.016$), escape-relaxation ($p = 0.039$) and novelty/adventure ($p = 0.006$). On car rental features, all the 5 income cohorts agreed (m=3.94; m=3.67; m=3.81; m=3.86; m=4.24) in order of magnitude, that irrespective of their income earnings, they consider rental features as a motivating factor. However, using the LSD test, the difference in the means was observed within the income cohort of GH¢ 1000-1999, GH¢ 2000-2999 and GH¢ 4000 and above. Approximately, the magnitude of the effect of car rental features on income was moderate (Table 13).

Seeking novelty/adventure according to Jang and Feng (2007) is a central component of travel motivation in which individuals search or seek to discover new things. The study observed that there was a significant difference between

the means of the various income categories and novelty/adventure. Specifically, car rental users who earn less than GH¢ 1000 were the only group that agreed (m=3.71) whilst the other categories were ambivalent. The differences in the mean scores can be attributed to all the 5 categories with the magnitude of these means having a moderate effect on the differences caused ($eta^2 = 0.067$).

The job status of the users and nationality also recorded some significant differences as to how they influence the various motivational constructs. For instance, there was a significant difference between car rental features ($p = 0.027$) across the various categories of the respondents' job status as to whether they are students, unemployed, employed or self-employed. In connection with nationality, marked differences were observed between ego-enhancement ($p = 0.020$) and novelty ($p = 0.000$) across the nationality categories with the highest magnitude or effect being recorded within the novelty construct ($eta^2 = 0.052$).

Motivation of Car Rental Users by Travel Characteristics

The independent-samples t-test was further employed to analyse the extent to which car rental users' motivation differ across their travel characteristics. The results from Table 14 showed that users of rental services differed considerably ($p =0.001$) on the motivation for ego-enhancement based on whether they were chauffeured or drove the rental cars themselves. The mean scores indicated that those who self-drove acknowledged ego-enhancement as the main motive for using rental services (m=3.71) as compared to those who were chauffeured (m=3.26). The results implied that driving oneself is seen more as a means for

158

Table 14: Motivations of Car Rental Users by Travel Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Car Rental Features Mean	p (Eta^2)	Escape-Relaxation Mean	p (Eta^2)	Ego-enhancement Mean	p (Eta^2)	Novelty / Adventure Mean	p (Eta^2)
Experience									
First time use	137	3.83	0.509	3.56	0.666	3.36	0.748	3.33	0.458
Repeat use	245	3.88	(0.001)	3.52	(0.003)	3.32	(0.000)	3.24	(0.001)
		t=-0.66		t=0.43		t=0.32		t=0.74	
Self-drive									
Yes	67	3.93	0.380	3.53	0.966	3.71	0.001*	3.29	0.882
No	315	3.85	(0.002)	3.54	(0.000)	3.26	(0.004)	3.27	(0.000)
		t=0.88		t=-0.04		t=3.91		t=0.15	
Travel group									
Group	296	3.87	0.723	3.55	0.718	3.30	0.177	3.03	0.019*
Individual	86	3.84	(0.002)	3.51	(0.002)	3.46	(0.005)	3.34	(0.016)
		t=0.36		t=0.36		t=-1.35		t=2.37	

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

* Significant difference exists at $p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

people to enhance the ego, social status and prestige within their society. Therefore, when people self-drive, they are more likely to 'show-off', or engage in activities that they would be seen by their peers which to some extent would gain them enhanced social status when especially they self-drive latest or state-of-the-art cars.

Travelling in groups also has an influence on the motive behind the use of a rental service. The study revealed that significant differences ($p = 0.019$) existed across travel group/travel party size and novelty/adventure as a motivation for using rental services. Though there were no marked differences in the mean scores when juxtaposed against the scale used whereby mean scores between 2.50-3.49 were considered as neutral or uncertain (Table 14), the mean rating for individual users (m=3.34) was higher as compared to those who travelled in groups (m=3.03). Even though the mean scores did not vary that much, there is a likelihood that individual users would seek to discover something new or have a new experience when a situation arises. This is because it is easier to make an individual decision regarding a preferred mode choice as compared to making decisions for a group. Individuals also have the freedom to select any mode deemed desirable as compared to users who travel in groups.

Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to assess the determinants of car rental users' motivation in using rental services. In all, 6 factors; car rental features, escape, ego-enhancement, relaxation, health and novelty/adventure were the main factors

160

identified as reasons for people using rental vehicles. Using factor analysis on 34 variables that influenced the use of rental facilities, 4 factors consisting of 20 variables/items were identified with escape and relaxation being combined. Thus, in order of magnitude, the 4 factors identified, including their eigenvalue and percentage of variance contributed in parenthesis are: car rental features (9.51; 20.43%); escape-relaxation (3.31; 18.29%); ego-enhancement (2.04; 12.85%) and novelty/adventure (1.73; 10.98%). In all, these 4 factors contributed to 62.55 percent of the reasons why people make use of rental vehicles. In terms of measuring the internal consistency of the scales used the highest Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.936 was recorded for the novelty/adventure construct whilst the lowest of 0.881 was recorded for the construct ego-enhancement.

Also, t-test and ANOVA test-statistic were used to determine whether significant differences occurred in motivations of using rental facilities across socio-demographic and travel characteristics. Overall, in the exception of marital status, all the remaining explanatory variables (sex, age, education, job status, religion, income and nationality) to some extent caused some differences. For instance, there was a significant difference in the areas of car rental features ($p = 0.016$), escape-relaxation ($p = 0.039$) and novelty ($p = 0.006$) in relation to income. In addition to the differences caused by socio-demographic characteristics, there were marked differences also caused by travel characteristics across some motivational constructs. For instance, there was a significant difference between the categories of self-drive construct and ego-enhancement ($p = 0.001$) and travel group/travel party size and novelty ($p = 0.019$). For example,

161

users who drove themselves agreed (m=3.71) while those who were chauffeured by the rental facility's driver(s) were uncertain (m=3.26) as to whether seeking prestige and enhancing one's ego was the reason why they used rental services.

The conceptual framework and the research philosophy were also useful in contextualising this chapter. As indicated in the conceptual framework, motivation (push and pull) has a direct linkage to usage, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions (Figure 5). Even though motivation can have an influence on post-purchase intentions, it cannot solitarily have that influence but rather through usage (Wu et al., 2018) to satisfaction or directly through satisfaction (Adam et al., 2017; Le-Klahn et al., 2014). The research philosophy also enabled the researcher to find answers to the question 'what are the motivations of the car rental user?'.

162

CHAPTER SEVEN

SATISFACTION AND POST-PURCHASE INTENTIONS OF CAR

RENTAL USERS

Introduction

This chapter presents issues pertaining to the satisfaction of the respondents, constructs that contributed much to their satisfaction and whether their satisfaction, vary across socio-demographic and travel characteristics. In furtherance to this, the post-purchase intentions of car rental users were also analysed. Descriptive statistics – pie chart, percentages and means, coupled with inferential statistics – factor analysis, t-test and ANOVA were used.

Satisfaction of Car Rental Users with Rental Services

Adam et al. (2017) noted that analysing satisfaction is an essential element in service research as it enables users to assess how they evaluate products or services consumed. As people make use of products and services, two major outcomes are observed, that is, being satisfied or dissatisfied with the service(s) received or consumed. From the study, it was observed that a substantial majority (95.5%) of the car rental users were satisfied with the services received, while only 4.5 percent of the users were dissatisfied in one way or the other with the services received (Figure 9).

In furtherance to the above, the analysis was extended to ascertain what aspects of the service(s) received were users satisfied or dissatisfied with. In all,
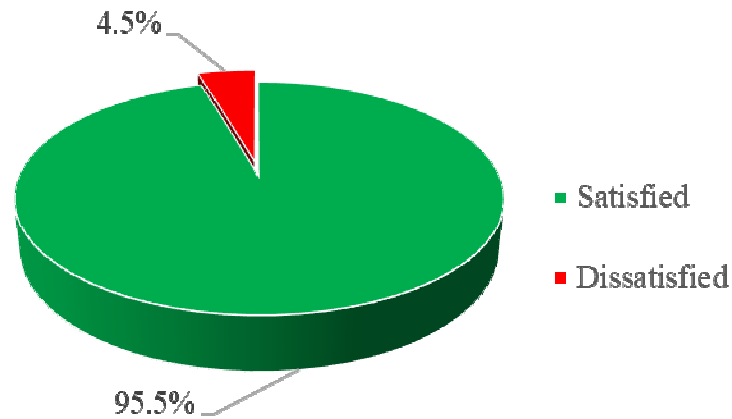
Figure 9: Satisfaction with Car Rental Services

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

5 constructs were identified as influencing the satisfaction of the respondents. Using, descriptive statistics – percentages and means, these 5 dimensions were analysed (Table 15). The constructs identified were facilities and services, support services, sanitation, staff performance and safety and security. Table 15 indicates that the majority of the respondents agreed (78.8 percent; m=3.90) that they were satisfied with the facilities of the rental firms and their services. Specifically, they agreed to issues such as availability of varied vehicles (m=3.90), comfort and convenience of the vehicles (m=4.06), vehicle appeal (m=3.96) and appearance of staff (m=3.87) respectively. Comfort and convenience received the highest rating (m=4.06), thus, management should pay more attention to making sure that, their vehicles would guarantee clients comfort and convenience. Respondents were also satisfied with the pricing of the services (73.3%; m=3.81).

164

Table 15: Satisfaction of Car Rental Users (N = 382)

Statement	% in agreement	Mean	SD
Facilities/Services			
Availability of varied vehicles	77.7	3.90	0.78
Comfort/convenience	87.7	4.06	0.75
Vehicle appeal	83.0	3.96	0.76
Vehicle cleanliness	82.2	3.94	0.87
Onboard vehicle temperature	81.2	3.93	0.85
Pricing of services	73.3	3.81	0.87
Appearance of staff	77.7	3.87	0.77
Ride smoothness/serene vehicle	84.3	4.02	0.72
Dependable when handling complaints	62.0	3.64	0.76
Overall score	*78.8*	*3.90*	*0.79*
Support services			
Availability of internet services in vehicles	37.7	2.94	1.26
Availability of phone charging outlets	46.9	3.20	1.19
Availability of complementary services	51.1	3.37	1.03
Good signage and directions to offices	56.0	3.54	0.93
Availability of disability-friendly facilities	40.3	3.04	1.26
Overall score	*46.4*	*3.22*	*1.13*
Sanitation			
Interior and exterior cleanliness of the vehicles	81.9	3.93	0.81
Cleanliness of car rental terminals/offices	77.3	3.89	0.77
Neatness of staff	80.6	3.96	0.78
Overall score	*79.9*	*3.93*	*0.79*

Table 15 continued

Safety and security			
Availability of well-trained drivers	78.0	3.85	0.82
Availability of well-maintained vehicles	78.2	3.87	0.84
Drivers complying with speed limits	74.6	3.83	0.81
Safety on-board vehicles	73.0	3.82	0.84
Adequate seating capacity	80.3	3.90	0.77
Safety and security equipment on vehicles	68.0	3.69	0.93
Adherence to road traffic regulations	78.2	3.89	0.80
Overall score	*75.8*	*3.84*	*0.83*
Staff performance			
Staff promptness with service delivery	79.6	3.86	0.78
Friendliness of staff	80.9	3.92	0.75
Availability of skilful/experienced staff	80.3	3.92	0.78
Communication skills of staff	75.7	3.87	0.80
Knowledge of staff on products/services	78.6	3.84	0.81
Staff attendance to requests/complaints	77.7	3.87	0.78
Staff courtesy and politeness	81.2	3.91	0.74
Driver and client cordiality/relationship	80.9	3.93	0.74
Trustworthy staff	70.9	3.82	0.75
Overall score	*78.4*	*3.88*	*0.77*

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral;

3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Users were ambivalent (m=3.22) in terms of their satisfaction with the

support services of the rental firms. Among the 5 items that measured support

services, the respondents agreed (m=3.54) only to the fact that the facilities have

good directional signage to their respective offices or operating points. They were however uncertain about the other 4 items that measured the construct. Notably, they were indecisive with the fact that not all the vehicles used had internet services in them (m=2.94), not all the vehicles have adequate phone charging outlets (m=3.20) and that most of the vehicles rented were not having disability-friendly facilities (m=3.04).

In general, respondents agreed (79.9%; m=3.93) that they were content with the sanitation issues of the vehicles. The vehicles were having good interior and exterior conditions (m=3.93), offices and terminals of facilities being clean (m=3.89) and staff being neat (m=3.96). Thus, the rental facilities were operating within the purview of the law. The parliamentary act establishing the Ghana Tourism Authority (Tourism Act, 817 of 2011) mandates it in section 27, clause 2 (a) and (b) that before the license to operate a tourism and hospitality business is issued to the applicant, the Authority must be satisfied with the sanitation and safety of the premises. Hence, these rental operators have satisfied this condition with the users of their facilities having attested to it in the study.

Similarly, users of the rental services agreed (75.8%; m=3.84) that they were satisfied with the safety and security procedures and mechanism put in place by the operators and that of the vehicles they used. Users were satisfied with the availability of well-trained drivers (m=3.85), availability of well-maintained vehicles (m=3.87), drivers complying with speed limits (m=3.83) and the drivers adhering to road traffic regulations (m=3.89). Kim (2014) noted that making patrons of tourism and hospitality products and services feel safe and secure

should be a priority for service providers. Ghana's Road Traffic Act, 2004, Act 683 also specifies the driving speed limit on Ghana's road systems. The findings confirm that rental car drivers are defensive drivers and thus obey the road traffic regulations.

Finally, the satisfaction of users with respect to staff performance was also assessed. About 78.4 percent (m=3.88) agreed that they were pleased with the performance of the service staff. Staff were seen as courteous and polite (m=3.91), prompt in the delivery of service (m=3.86), friendly (m=3.92), trustworthy (m=3.82), knowledgeable on products and services (m=3.84) and also communicate well (m=3.87). In general, the staff related issues identified and assessed had a positive influence on the satisfaction levels of the users. As alluded to by Maseiro and Zoltan (2013) service/staff performance is a key determinant of satisfaction. Researchers such as Amissah (2013) and Fragoso and Espinoza (2017) concluded in their respective studies that promptness in service delivery, friendliness, being knowledgeable on the product or service on offer and their trustworthiness are hallmarks of customer satisfaction.

In relating the findings to the conceptual framework, the results indicated that five satisfaction dimensions formed the basis in which car rental users evaluate their satisfaction levels. As regards the framework (Figure 5), satisfaction is an intermediating variable in influencing post-purchase intentions (Bajis, 2015; Nilplub et al., 2016; Lin & Wang, 2006). In addition, the research philosophy has proved useful in finding answers to the factors that influence car rental users' satisfaction.

Exploratory Factors Explaining Car Rental User's Satisfaction

Akin to the motivation scale in Table 12 above, satisfaction attributes, using the varimax rotation were also subjected to PCA. Out of the 33 initial items, 30 items were retained culminating in 4 factors after satisfying the two most recommended preliminary requirements. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value met the recommended threshold of $p \leq 0.05$ having measured $p = 0.000$ with an approximated Chi-square value of 9841.26. The KMO value of 0.959 also exceeded the recommended minimum value of 0.60. The correlation matrix for users' satisfaction revealed the presence of many coefficients (factor loadings) of 0.60 and above (Table 16). All the sub-scales under the 4 constructs had a high internal consistency since the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were higher than the 0.70.

The 4 components or factors explained 65.80 percent of the total variance in satisfaction of car rental users, implying that there is an outstanding variance of 34.2 percent not accounted for by the variables under study. The eigenvalues for the 4 uncorrelated factors were expected to decrease in magnitude from factor one through to factor four (Factor I = 16.52; Factor II = 2.19; Factor III = 1.81; Factor IV = 1.19). The 4 factors include staff performance, facilities and services, safety and security, and support services.

Factor I, staff performance had 8 items which measured the satisfaction of car rental users. Staff courtesy and politeness had the highest loading (0.75), followed by staff attendance to complaints (0.74), knowledge of staff on products and services (0.74) with the last two being availability of skilful and experienced

169

Table 16: Exploratory Factors Explaining Car Rental User's Satisfaction

F	Latent constructs and observed variables	FL	EV	VE (%)	α
I	Staff performance				
	Staff courtesy and politeness	0.75	16.52	19.20	0.935
	Staff attendance to your requests or complaints	0.74			
	Knowledge of staff on products and services	0.74			
	Driver and client cordiality or relationship	0.73			
	Communication skills of staff	0.67			
	Trustworthy staff	0.64			
	Availability of skilful and experienced staff/drivers	0.64			
	Friendliness of staff	0.63			
II	Facilities/Services				
	Vehicle appeal	0.77	2.19	18.29	0.916
	Appearance of staff	0.75			
	Ride smoothness/serene ride	0.74			
	On-board vehicle temperature	0.73			
	Vehicle cleanliness	0.70			
	Availability of varied vehicles	0.70			
	Comfort and convenience	0.69			
III	Safety and Security				
	Adherence to road traffic regulations	0.69	1.81	15.37	0.912
	Adequate seating capacity	0.68			
	Availability of well-maintained vehicles	0.64			
	Drivers not driving beyond speed limits	0.63			
	Safety and security equipment on vehicles	0.62			
	Safety on-board vehicles	0.61			
	Availability of well-trained drivers	0.60			

170

Table 16 continued

IV	Support Services				
	Availability of phone charging outlets	0.84	1.19	12.94	0.888
	Availability of internet services in vehicles	0.83			
	Availability of disability friendliness facilities	0.77			
	Availability of complementary services	0.74			
	Good signage and directions to offices	0.60			
	Total variance explained			65.80	

Note: F: Factor, FL: Factor Loading, EV: Eigenvalue, VE: Variance explored, α:

Cronbach's alpha; KMO = 0.959, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Approx. χ^2) =

9841.26; p = 0.000

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

staff (0.64) and friendliness of staff (0.63). This factor explained 19.2 percent of

the variation validating the importance of this attribute in measuring the

satisfaction of car rental users. Literature posits that the tourism and hospitality

industry is a service-oriented industry, hence, service/staff performance influence

customer experiences and by extension satisfaction (De Vos et al., 2015; Etgar &

Fuchs, 2009). Shahin and Dabestani (2010) noted that being courteous and polite,

and having in-depth knowledge about the service being offered are essential

components of staff performance when delivering services to clients. Cleanliness

of rental premises which van Lierop et al. (2018) defined as the absence of

garbage and other insanitary conditions can also have a direct effect on

satisfaction, which was one of the findings of this study.

Facilities and services being the second factor likewise explained 18.29 percent of the variation in satisfaction with an eigenvalue of 2.19 with issues such as vehicle appeal, staff appearance, ride smoothness, comfort and convenience adequately loading above the threshold of 0.60. Specifically, vehicle appeal loaded highest (0.77) and comfort and convenience loaded lowest (0.69). Other significant variables that helped to explain the construct include the appearance of staff (0.75), serene ride (0.74), pleasant on-board vehicle temperature (0.73) and availability of different types of vehicles (0.70). Findings from studies conducted by CEN (2002) and TRB (2002) observed that to effectively evaluate user satisfaction with respect to products or services consumed, assessing the quality of service and facilities on offer cannot be underestimated. Customers usually take this into consideration when evaluating their satisfaction vis-à-vis hospitality and tourism services consumed. This finding also supports that of del Castillo and Benitez (2013) who earlier in their study revealed that comfort usually conceptualised as a function of the physical state of the vehicle, cleanliness, convenience, on-board vehicle temperature are factors influencing satisfaction.

Factor III, comprising 7 items accounted for 15.37 percent of the variance in explaining car rental users' satisfaction that measured safety and security with an internal consistency of 0.912. This factor took into consideration the adherence to road traffic regulations (0.69), adequate seating capacity of vehicles (0.68), availability of well-maintained vehicles (0.64), not driving beyond speed limits (0.63) and availability of well-trained drivers (0.60) amid others. Safety and security is one of the functional components of satisfaction (Das et al., 2013).

Peden et al. (2004) noted that safety from road traffic crashes can lead to satisfaction. It is therefore imperative for the management of rental facilities to put in more measures to ensure the safety, security and welfare of their clientele as it is one of the important indicators of satisfaction with services that have some form of risk.

Support services, the last factor explained 12.94 percent of the satisfaction among car rental users with an eigenvalue of 1.19 and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.888, meaning there is a high internal consistency among the variables and thus, measures what it is expected to measure. 5 factors successfully loaded to this factor with the highest being availability of phone charging outlets (0.84) and good directional signages to the offices (0.60) being the least. Availability of disability-friendly facilities also loaded 0.77. As the transportation industry expands and grows with modern technology, managers of rental fleets should ensure that their vehicle fleets are upgraded to have some of the state-of-the-art gadgets such as multiple phone charging outlets, internet services in them to ensure maximum satisfaction of their clients.

Satisfaction of Car Rental Users by Socio-demographic Characteristics

Having identified the factors that inform the varying satisfaction levels of car rental users, the study further explored how the satisfaction constructs differ or vary across respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. Inferential statistics: t-test and ANOVA were employed (Table 17). In determining how satisfaction differ across sex and marital status, t-test was used. The results

173

Table 17: Satisfaction of Car Rental Users by Socio-demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Staff performance Mean	p (Eta²)	Facilities/Services Mean	p (Eta²)	Safety and Security Mean	p (Eta²)	Support Services Mean	p (Eta²)
Sex									
Male	233	3.88	0.853	3.94	0.786	3.86	0.289	3.20	0.567
Female	149	3.90	(0.000)	3.92	(0.000)	3.79	(0.003)	3.25	(0.001)
		t=-0.19		t=0.27		t=1.06		t=-0.57	
Age (years)									
< 30	165	3.89	0.112	3.95	0.005*	3.83	0.101	3.24	0.069
30-39	135	3.86	(0.016)	3.89	(0.034)	3.79	(0.016)	3.16	(0.019)
40-49	61	3.86		3.85		3.82		3.13	
> 50	21	4.21		4.39		4.18		3.72	
		F=2.01		F=4.36		F=2.09		F=2.38	
Marital status									
Single	164	3.86	0.376	3.90	0.303	3.81	0.595	3.26	0.507
Married	218	3.92	(0.002)	3.96	(0.003)	3.85	(0.001)	3.19	(0.001)
		t=-0.89		t=-1.03		t=-0.53		t=0.67	

174

Table 17 continued

Educational level								
High school	41	4.07	0.001*	4.07	0.011*	3.92	0.038*	3.20	0.009*
Col./Poly/Uni.	255	3.81	(0.034)	3.87	(0.022)	3.78	(0.014)	3.13	(0.025)
Post-graduate	86	4.04		4.06		3.96		3.49	
		F=6.68		F=4.67		F=3.32		F=4.82	
Job status									
Student	112	3.77	0.057	3.84	0.037*	3.72	0.104	3.27	0.887
Unemployed	36	3.86	(0.018)	3.85	(0.022)	3.90	(0.015)	3.14	(0.002)
Employee	197	3.95		3.97		3.86		3.21	
Self-employed	37	3.99		4.16		3.97		3.20	
		F=2.55		F=2.86		F=2.08		F=0.21	
Religion									
Christian	255	3.83	0.000*	3.88	0.004*	3.79	0.062	3.25	0.345
Muslim	112	4.03	(0.023)	4.08	(0.023)	3.94	(0.015)	3.18	(0.006)
Atheist	5	3.68		3.63		3.40		2.68	
		F=8.96		F=7.27		F=2.80		F=1.07	

Table 17 continued

Monthly income									
<GH¢ 1000	32	4.13	0.013*	4.12	0.024*	3.86	0.234	3.64	0.008*
GH¢ 1000-1999	91	3.77	*(0.059)*	3.78	*(0.052)*	3.72	*(0.026)*	3.06	*(0.064)*
GH¢ 2000-2999	42	3.75		3.84		3.70		2.93	
GH¢ 3000-3999	25	3.80		3.93		3.82		3.07	
> GH¢ 4000	23	4.10		4.18		4.07		3.51	
		F=3.26		F=2.87		F=1.40		F=3.53	
Nationality									
Ghanaian	339	3.88	0.200	3.92	0.001*	3.81	0.001*	3.20	0.002*
Sub-Saharan Africa	12	4.09	*(0.006)*	4.41	*(0.019)*	4.32	*(0.020)*	4.05	*(0.025)*
North & South America	16	3.99		3.91		3.92		3.18	
Europe	15	4.00		4.00		3.97		3.24	
		F=1.65		F=6.79		F=6.71		F=5.79	

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

* Significant difference exists at $p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

presented revealed that there were no significant variations in the satisfaction of males and females in relation to the 4 satisfaction constructs just as is the case of marital status and the satisfaction dimensions.

Both sexes acknowledged being satisfied with staff performance, facilities and services, safety and security, but were ambivalent on issues pertaining to support services as a domain influencing their satisfaction. The same situation could be seen in relation to marital status, where both singles and married users agreed that they were satisfied with the first 3 satisfaction dimensions but were generally indecisive on issues pertaining to support services. The implication of this finding is that the service operators should consider enhancing their support services such as purchasing new fleets of vehicles having extra amenities such as phone charging outlets, wireless internet services amid other technological advancements needed to enhance the satisfaction levels of the users.

Variations were also observed in rental users' evaluation of satisfaction with respect to the facilities and services ($p = 0.005$) used across the various age categories. Despite the significant differences recorded, the means of the age groupings (< 30 years – m=3.95; 30-39 years – m=3.89; 40-49 years – m=3.85; and > 50 years – m=4.39) did not differ that much in terms of their face value. However, applying the LSD test statistic, the differences in means were caused by respondents within the age cohort of less than 30 years and above 50 years. For instance, comfort and convenience are both seen as critical issues that influence satisfaction. Thus, users, irrespective of their age would not accept any kind of

177

service from rental facilities that are not geared towards the provision of comfort and convenience for clients.

Significant differences were also recorded among the educational groups or categories in terms of staff performance ($p = 0.001$), facilities and service ($p = 0.011$), safety and security ($p = 0.038$) and support services ($p = 0.009$). Educational attainment is one major socio-demographic variable used in explaining satisfaction with services. It is expected that people of varying educational backgrounds will view society and issues confronting them differently. Using the LSD statistic, and with the exception of staff performance in which the differences were caused by the 3 categories (high school, college/polytechnic/university and post-graduate), the differences in the remaining 3 satisfaction constructs were caused by users who had attained college/polytechnic/university and post-graduate degrees with virtually all the differences having a small effect on the constructs.

With reference to job status, significant differences were found to have occurred with respect to facilities and services ($p = 0.037$). All the four (4) categories of job status; student (m=3.84), unemployed (m=3.85), employee (m=3.97) and self-employed (m=4.16) agreed that facilities and services influenced their satisfaction.

Another explanatory variable, religion, also accounted for some differences with respect to what influences their satisfaction with respect to their usage of car rental facilities. Christians (m=3.83), Muslims (m=4.03) and Atheists (m=3.68) all agreed that their satisfaction was influenced by staff performance (p

178

= 0.000) with the magnitude of the effect being small (eta^2 = 0.023). Similar observations were made about facilities and services (p = 0.004) in which the respondents all agreed that their satisfactions were influenced by the rental facilities and services, and their safety and security. The LSD confirmed that the significant differences in these means were caused by the Christian and Muslim cohorts.

Except for safety and security (p = 0.234), significant differences were found among the income categories. Marked differences were observed across income in relation to staff performance (p = 0.013), facilities and services (p = 0.024) and support services (p = 0.008). In the case of support services, two income cohorts agreed (< GH¢ 1000 – m=3.64; > GH¢ 4000 – m=3.51) that it influenced their satisfaction, whereas the remaining three (GH¢ 1000-1999 – m=3.06; GH¢ 2000-2999 – m=2.93; GH¢ 3000-3999 – m=3.07) were indifferent in this regard. The magnitude of effects caused by these explanatory variables were moderate considering the eta-squared values (eta^2 [staff performance] = 0.059; eta^2 [facilities/services] = 0.052; eta^2 [support services] = 0.064).

Except for staff performance (p = 0.200) marked differences were observed across nationality with respect to facilities and services, safety and security and support services. For instance, in terms of facilities and services, and safety and security, all the means were indicating to an acknowledgement that satisfaction was influenced by nationality (Table 17).

Satisfaction of Car Rental Users by Travel Characteristics

Using the independent-samples t-test, (Table 18), significant variations were observed across specific travel characteristics and some satisfaction dimensions. Support services were seen to have significant variations, $p = 0.022$ and $p = 0.044$ with respect to the explanatory variable self-drive and travel group or travel party dynamics. Examining their respective means, those who drove the rented vehicles (m=3.46) and others that relied on drivers provided by the facilities (m=3.17) were uncertain as to whether their satisfaction was influenced by support services.

Similar situation was encountered between support services and travel group dynamics, with people who used the service(s) in groups and those who were individual users being ambivalent. Individual users predominantly make use of a saloon and or vehicles having the maximum capacity to carry 5 passengers. These types of vehicles have phone charging outlets which the individual can use to charge his/her phone or other communication devices. Thus, individual users would be more satisfied than people travelling in groups who might not have this opportunity.

Table 18: Satisfaction of Car Rental Users by Travel Characteristics

Characteristics	N	Staff performance Mean	p (Eta²)	Facilities/Services Mean	p (Eta²)	Safety and Security Mean	p (Eta²)	Support Services Mean	p (Eta²)
Experience									
First time use	137	3.84	0.241	3.88	0.241	3.83	0.883	3.22	0.998
Repeat use	245	3.92	(0.004)	3.96	(0.004)	3.84	(0.000)	3.22	(0.000)
		t=-1.17		t=-1.18		t=-0.15		t=0.00	
Self-drive									
Yes	67	3.89	0.998	3.94	0.98	3.91	0.324	3.46	0.022*
No	315	3.89	(0.000)	3.93	(0.000)	3.82	(0.003)	3.17	(0.014)
		t=-0.00		t=0.03		t=0.99		t=2.30	
Travel group									
Group	296	3.89	0.973	3.94	0.808	3.81	0.216	3.16	0.044*
Individual	86	3.89	(0.000)	3.92	(0.001)	3.91	(0.004)	3.40	(0.011)
		t=0.03		t=0.24		t=-1.24		t=-2.02	

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

* Significant difference exists at $p \leq 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Post-purchase Intentions

According to Chen and Chen (2010), motivation and satisfaction studies can be enriched when studied in relation to post-purchase intentions. Post-purchase intention is the extent to which outcomes of service encounters are based on some indicators. Taking into consideration the post-purchase intentions of car rental users, it could be deduced that 3 items were used in measuring this construct (Table 19).

Table 19: Post-purchase Intentions

Statement	% in agreement	Mean	SD	α
Post-purchase intentions				
I will use this service instead of others	95.5	3.91	0.41	
Use the service again in the future	94.2	3.88	0.47	0.623
Recommend using the service to friends and relatives	90.8	3.82	0.58	
Overall score	*93.5*	*3.87*	*0.49*	

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neutral; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree; α: Cronbach's alpha

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Overall, the users had positive post-purchase intentions (93.5%; m=3.87). These positive post-purchase intentions were expressed in 3 ways. Specifically, the respondents agreed (m=3.91) that they will use this service amid other services. Majority (94.2%) of the respondents indicated that they will use car

rental services in the future (reuse). In as much as the users were generally satisfied and are willing to reuse car rental services in the future, they also opined (90.8%; m=3.82) that they were keen on recommending the car rental services to other potential users who might have the intention of using such services in the future. This finding conforms to that of Adam et al. (2017), Baah et al. (2019) and Reichheld and Schefter (2000) who noted that positive post-purchase intentions are usually expressed in terms of choosing a service amidst other services, using the service again in the future (reuse) and recommendations. In situating this finding in the context of the conceptual framework, it could be seen that post-purchase intentions are the end-product of satisfaction; thus, satisfaction is influenced by post-purchase intentions. Also, the research philosophy aided the study in finding answers to the post-purchase behavioural intentions of the car rental user.

Chapter Summary

The objective of this chapter was to assess car rental users' satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. 5 factors, namely; facilities and services, support services, sanitation, safety and security and staff performance were assessed. Using the PCA with Varimax rotation, factor analysis was conducted to ascertain which factors influenced the users' satisfaction. 4 dimensions were identified comprising 30 items. These dimensions include staff performance, facilities and services, safety and security, and support services. These 4 dimensions in all contributed to 65.80 percent of the variation in the satisfaction of car rental users

with 34.2 percent being unaccounted for by these variables. However, it could be deduced that a person's socio-demographic and travel characteristics, purpose of use of the rental facility which was not considered in the study to some extent can also have an influence on the users' satisfaction. Staff performance had the highest eigenvalue and variance explained (16.52; 19.20%) with support services having the least (1.19; 12.94%). The internal consistency of the various scales was above the threshold of 0.70 as stipulated by Nunnally (1978).

T-test and ANOVA helped in examining how significant variations occurred in the satisfaction dimensions across the explanatory variables of socio-demographic and travel characteristics. Age, educational level, job status, religion, monthly income, nationality, self-drive and travel group dynamics accounted for the variations in the satisfaction levels of the car rental users.

Post-purchase intentions of the users were also analysed. In general, the users had positive post-purchase intentions (93.5%). They expressed these intentions in 3 ways, that is, using the service instead of others or amid other services, use the service again in the future (reuse) and recommending the service to friends and relatives. Most often, post-purchase intentions have been expressed in terms of overall satisfaction, reuse intentions and recommendations or at most a combination of the latter two. However, this study analysed the latter two together with 'using the service instead or amid other services' simultaneously. The relevance of the conceptual framework and the research philosophy has also been highlighted.

CHAPTER EIGHT

STRUCTURED EQUATION OF CAR RENTAL USERS' MOTIVATION,

PURPOSE OF USE, SATISFACTION AND POST-PURCHASE

INTENTIONS IN GHANA

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the structural equation model. Specifically, the chapter discusses the results of the confirmatory factor analysis before proceeding with the decompositional model on car rental users' motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Inter-construct relationships, direct relationships between the 3 constructs, the path coefficients of the decomposed model were also determined. The proposed conceptual model for the study was subsequently confirmed. The structural equation modelling was done to test the study's hypotheses stated in chapter one.

Testing of the Proposed Model

After reviewing the relevant literature, the study proposed a structural model on car rental users' motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. The study proposed that push motivation and pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on usage, which in turn has a direct and positive effect also on post-purchase intentions with satisfaction being a mediator between usage and post-purchase intentions. The study also proposes that push and pull

185

motivation have a direct and positive effect on satisfaction and on post-purchase intentions (Figure 5).

Codes for the Questionnaire Items

In Table 20, a code is dedicated to each item on the questionnaire which will be used in tagging the items for subsequent use in the SEM. The reason for this was to make the analysis easy and less complex. The main constructs considered in the study include push motivation (Escape – ESC; Relaxation – REL; Ego-enhancement – EGO; Novelty/Adventure – NOV), pull motivation (Car Rental Features – CRF), satisfaction (Staff Performance – SPE; Facilities and Services – FAS; Support Services – SUS; Safety and Security – SAF) and Post-purchase Intentions (PPI).

Table 20: Codes for Questionnaire Items

Construct	Variable Code	Statements
Car Rental Features	CRF1	Rental facilities have modern vehicles
	CRF2	Services are affordable
	CRF3	Facilities are easily accessible
	CRF4	Staff provide good services
	CRF5	Facilities have well-trained drivers/staff
	CRF6	Facilities have friendly service providers
	CRF7	Prompt/timely delivery of service(s)
	CRF8	Their vehicles are safe to ride in
	CRF9	Facilities ensure privacy
	CRF10	Their car rental facility is popular
	CRF11	I have a preference for their vehicles

Table 20 continued

Escape	ESC1	Get away from regular driving schedules
	ESC2	To let go problems related to the use of public transport services
	ESC3	Escape from the stress of driving
Ego-enhancement	EGO1	To feel fulfilled/satisfied/content
	EGO2	To show off or be seen fashionable
	EGO3	To be chauffeured
	EGO4	To give myself a treat/make oneself happy
	EGO5	To have a luxurious experience
Relaxation	REL1	Relieve stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services
	REL2	Refresh or free my mind whilst travelling
	REL3	Rest from daily driving activities
Novelty/Adventure	NOV1	Discover something new
	NOV2	Attempt something new
	NOV3	Have a sensational experience
Support Services	SUS1	Availability of internet services in vehicles
	SUS2	Availability of phone charging outlets
	SUS3	Availability of complementary services
	SUS4	Good signage and directions to the office
	SUS5	Availability of disability-friendly facilities
Facilities/Services	FAS1	Availability of varied vehicles
	FAS2	Comfort/convenience
	FAS3	Vehicle appeal
	FAS4	Vehicle cleanliness
	FAS5	On-board vehicle temperature
	FAS6	Pricing of services
	FAS7	Appearance of staff
	FAS8	Ride smoothness/serene ride
	FAS9	Dependable when handling complaints
Safety and Security	SAF1	Availability of well-trained drivers
	SAF2	Availability of well-maintained vehicles
	SAF3	Drivers complying with speed limits
	SAF4	Safety on-board vehicles
	SAF5	Adequate seating capacity
	SAF6	Safety and security equipment on vehicles
	SAF7	Adherence to road traffic regulations

Table 20 continued

Staff Performance	SPE1	Staff promptness with service delivery
	SPE2	Friendliness of staff
	SPE3	Availability of skilful/experienced staff
	SPE4	Communication skills of staff
	SPE5	Knowledge of staff on products/services
	SPE6	Staff attendance to requests/complaints
	SPE7	Staff courtesy and politeness
	SPE8	Driver and client cordiality/relationship
	SPE9	Trustworthy staff
Purpose of use	TSM	Tourism
	BUS	Business
	NGR	NGO and Research
	TSRT	Social and Religious Trips
Post-purchase intentions	PPI 1	I will use this service instead of others
	PPI 2	Use the service again in the future
	PPI 3	Recommend using the service to friends and relatives

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Structural Equation Modelling

The structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the proposed model. According to Snoj, Korda and Mumel (2004), SEM has been predominantly used in the social sciences when testing hypotheses of causal effects or influences (hypothesized paths). In testing the proposed correlations among the items in the model (Figure 5), SEM was conducted using AMOS 24.

In this study, push motivation and pull motivation were each conceptualised to have a direct effect respectively on usage, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. Purposes of use also after having been influenced by push and pull motivation is seen as having a direct and positive effect on satisfaction

188

and subsequently on post-purchase intentions. The model (Figure 5) was tested and the various hypothesis examined.

The tested model together with its path model is presented in Figure 10 and Table 21 respectively. The model fit indices (NFI = 0.65; IFI = 0.69; TLI = 0.66; CFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.13) indicate that the data does not fit the model. However, push motivation significantly influenced satisfaction (β = 0.233; SE = 0.044; $p \leq 0.01$). Similarly, pull motivation was found to have a positive and direct effect on satisfaction (β = 0.587; SE = 0.096; $p \leq 0.01$). Push motivation (β = -0.017; SE = 0.036; $p \geq 0.05$) and pull motivation (β = 0.230; SE = 0.059 $p \geq$ 0.05) were found to have no significant influence on purpose of use. Again, push and pull motivation were not found to have a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intention as their p-values were above the threshold of 0.05.

Purpose of use was also identified to have no direct and positive correlation on satisfaction (β = 0.156; SE = 0.277; $p \geq 0.05$). From the study, there is no direct and positive relationship between satisfaction and post-purchase intentions (β = 0.079; SE = 0.042; $p \geq 0.05$). Based on the results, hypotheses 3 and 4 were supported by the model, whereas that of 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were not supported because their p-values were above the level of significance (α = 0.05).

In relating the findings to the conceptual framework (Figure 5), it can be deduced that the constructs (motivation, usage and satisfaction) did not result in influencing the post-purchase intentions as the model was deemed not fit. However, the analysis showed that push and pull motivation had a significant influence on satisfaction as depicted in the framework. On the other
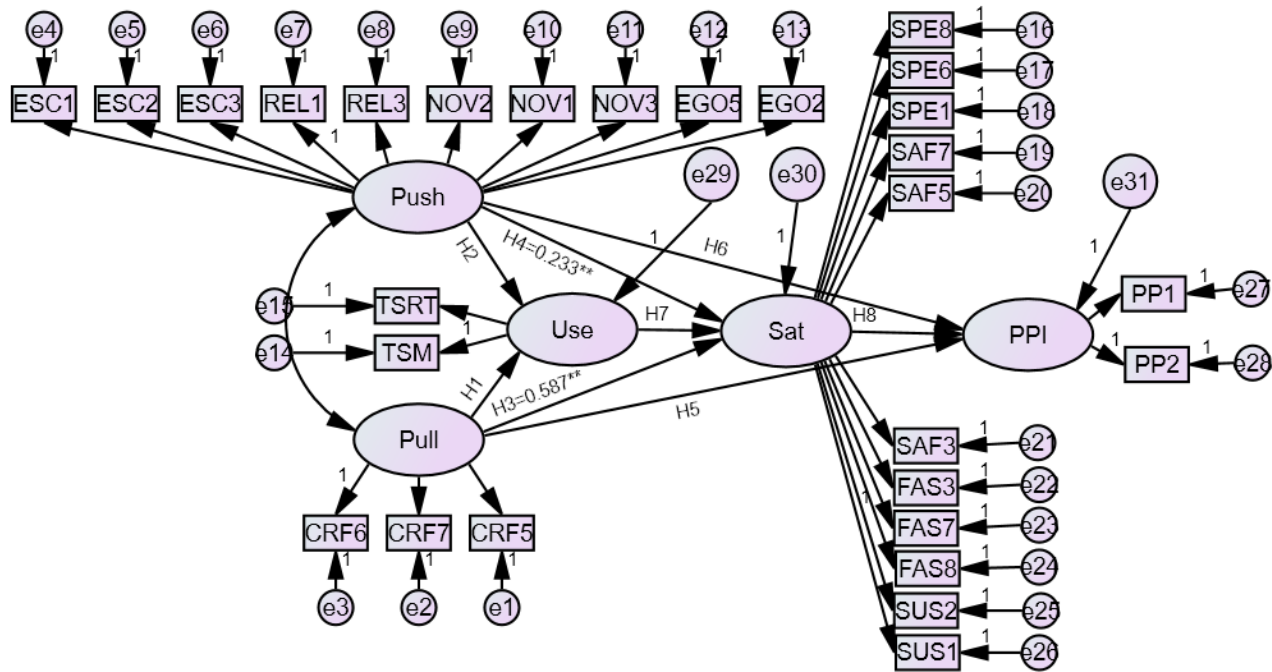
Figure 10: SEM Conceptual Path Model on Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and PPI

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

190

Table 21: Direct Relationships between Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and Post-purchase Intentions

	Path			*B*	SE	*P*
H1	Pull Motivation ⟶	Purpose of use		0.230	0.059	0.083
H2	Push Motivation ⟶	Purpose of use		-0.017	0.036	0.892
H3	Pull Motivation ⟶	Satisfaction		0.587	0.096	0.000**
H4	Push Motivation ⟶	Satisfaction		0.233	0.044	0.000**
H5	Pull Motivation ⟶	PPI		0.135	0.047	0.269
H6	Push Motivation ⟶	PPI		-0.037	0.023	0.671
H7	Purpose of use ⟶	Satisfaction		0.156	0.277	0.159
H8	Satisfaction ⟶	PPI		0.079	0.042	0.520

Note: NFI = 0.65; IFI = 0.69; TLI = 0.66; CFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.13; χ^2 = 2020.80; df = 341; p = 0.000

$p \leq 0.05$*; $p \leq 0.01$ **

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

hand, motivation was seen as having a relationship with usage and post-purchase intentions, but these relationships were not significant, likewise that of usage on satisfaction and satisfaction on post-purchase intentions. The positivist philosophy

was deemed useful as it also aided the researcher to probe into the various constructs identified in the study.

Modified Model

Based on the above results, the conceptual model was modified to fit the data collected. The preliminary results of the model fit indices showed that the modified model was supported by the data collected. Subsequently, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was deduced.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The CFA was employed to corroborate the structure of the items that measured motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions based on the adopted scales (Table 22). The table reported the standardised regression estimates (β), Composite Reliability (CR), and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The average variance extracted measures the amount of common variance among latent construct indicators (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998) or the level of variance of the constructs in relation to the variance due to the error in measurement (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) with values of 0.50 deemed acceptable (Han, Lee & Seo, 2008). This implies that the validity of both the construct and the individual variable is high.

In addition, the composite reliability, which is an estimate of the extent to which a set of latent construct indicators share in their measurement of a construct (Hair et al., 2006) or a measure of scale reliability, which assesses the internal

Table 22: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

F	Loaded variables	*B*	C.R.	AVE
	Motivation Variables			
I	Escape – relaxation			
	Relieve stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services	0.925	0.845	0.695
	Rest from regular driving activities	0.892		
	To let go problems related to the use of public transport services	0.799		
	Escape from the stress of driving	0.702		
II	Car Rental Features			
	Facilities have friendly service providers	0.859	0.864	0.731
	Facilities have well-trained drivers/staff	0.854		
	Prompt/timely delivery of service(s)	0.851		
III	Novelty/Adventure			
	Attempt something new	0.963	0.934	0.868
	Discover something new	0.955		
	Have a sensational experience	0.874		
IV	Ego-enhancement			
	To have a luxurious experience	0.892	0.879	0.760
	To show off or be seen fashionable	0.850		
	Satisfaction Variables			
V	Staff Performance – Safety and Security			
	Adequate seating capacity	0.845	0.828	0.662
	Driver and client cordiality/relationship	0.827		
	Staff attendance to requests/complaints	0.817		
	Adherence to road traffic regulations	0.798		
	Staff promptness with service delivery	0.797		
	Drivers complying with speed limits	0.796		
VI	Facilities and Services			
	Vehicle appeal	0.840	0.837	0.679
	Ride smoothness/serene ride	0.824		
	Appearance of staff	0.807		

Table 22 continued

			β	C.R.	AVE
VII	Support Services				
	Availability of internet services in vehicles		0.907	0.891	0.783
	Availability of phone charging outlets		0.862		
	Post-Purchase Variables				
VIII	Post-Purchase Intentions				
	Use the service again in the future		0.899	0.796	0.608
	I will use this service instead of others		0.638		
	Purposes for which rental services are used for				
IX	Usage				
	Social and religious trips		1.022	0.724	0.539
	Tourism		0.185		

NFI = 0.90; IFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.94; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05

Note: F: Factor, *β* = Standardised estimates; C.R. = Composite reliability; AVE =

Average Variance Extracted;

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

consistency of a construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) is estimated to have a

minimum value of 0.6 or higher which is the recommended threshold (Hair et al.,

2006; Lawson-Body & Limayem, 2004). Other researchers also stated that the

composite reliability should be greater than the benchmark value of 0.70 (Fornel

& Larcker, 1981).

In terms of the goodness-of-fit indices, Cao (2012) recommends that the

NFI, IFI, TLI and CFI should be 1 (perfect fit) or close to 1. Forza & Filippini

(1998) and van de Schoot, Lugtig and Hox (2012) estimated that for SEM model

to be considered as fit, the NFI, IFI, TLI and CFI values should be > 0.90 for the

model to be deemed satisfactory. RMSEA which also examines the closeness of

fit should have a value ranging between 0.04 and 0.08 (Forza & Filippini (1998).

With reference to Table 22, the goodness-of-fit indices (NFI = 0.90; IFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.94; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05) indicates that the fitness of the model was good as recommended by van de Schoot et al. (2012) and Forza & Filippini (1998). The table also indicates that all the standardised regression estimates (β) for all the constructs loaded above 0.50 except for the tourism variable which had a β-value of 0.185. Thus, the β-value for the variables met the recommended threshold as suggested by Kim, Woo and Uysal (2015) thereby indicating that the convergent validity of the items measured was attained.

Also, the latent variables have high composite reliability coefficients exceeding 0.60 which is the recommended value (Lawson-Body & Limayem, 2004). This implies that all the latent variables adequately measured the constructs and that the scale used can produce consistent results (internal consistency).

The square root of the AVE was calculated to determine the discriminant validity of the constructs (Table 23). It was observed that the square root of the AVE for each construct was greater than the correlations between all other constructs indicating that each construct shared more internal variance with its items than an external variable (other constructs). In addition, the common variance that exists between the latent construct indicators (AVE) for the 9 constructs were above the recommended estimate of 0.50. The implication is that a convergent validity (that is, the degree to which the constructs are related) for all the factors have been established.

Table 23: Inter-construct Correlation and Square Root of AVE

Inter-construct	ESC_REL	CRF	EGO	NOV	ACT	SUS	SPE_SAF	FAS	PPI
ESC_REL	(0.834)								
CRF	0.414	(0.855)							
EGO	0.586	0.255	(0.872)						
NOV	0.453	0.365	0.220	(0.914)					
ACT	-0.010	-0.009	-0.004	-0.006	(0.734)				
SUS	0.422	0.360	0.524	0.253	0.001	(0.885)			
SPE_SAF	0.425	0.693	0.325	0.409	-0.012	0.538	(0.814)		
FAS	0.423	0.690	0.322	0.430	-0.013	0.401	0.691	(0.824)	
PPI	0.059	0.162	-0.014	0.046	-0.003	0.031	0.106	0.214	(0.780)

Value in parenthesis is the square root of the AVE of the construct

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Modified Conceptual Path Model (Structural Model)

With reference to the results presented in Figure 10 above and the conclusion drawn thereafter and based on the goodness-of-fit indices that the model was not a good model, a new model was subsequently proposed. In the modified structural model, of the 28 estimated hypotheses (Figure 11), only 9 measures (hypothesis) associated with the construct were statistically significant (Figure 12). To reduce the pictorial complexity of the modified model, all the items that measured the various constructs significantly (paths) were retained resulting in a simplified model (Figure 13).

The 9 stated hypotheses are as follows:

1. Hypothesis 1a (H1a): Novelty/Adventure (push motivation) has a direct and positive effect on staff performance-safety and security (satisfaction).

2. Hypothesis 2a (H2a): Novelty/Adventure (push motivation) has a direct and positive effect on facilities and services (satisfaction).

3. Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Ego-enhancement (push motivation) has a direct and positive effect on support services (satisfaction).

4. Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Car rental features (pull motivation) has a direct and positive effect on support services (satisfaction).

5. Hypothesis 5a (H5a): Car rental features (pull motivation) has a direct and positive effect on staff performance-safety and security (satisfaction).

6. Hypothesis 6a (H6a): Car rental features (pull motivation) have a direct and positive effect on facilities and services (satisfaction).
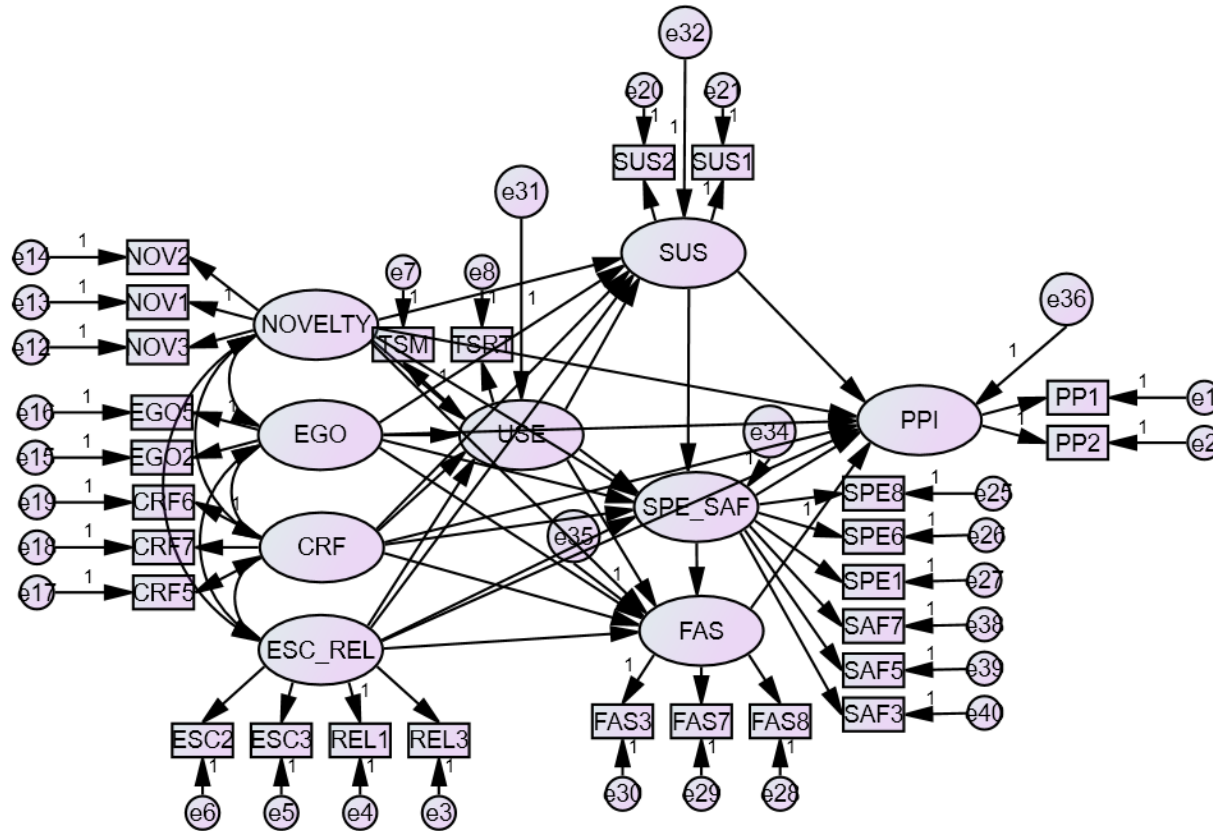
Figure 11: Conceptual Path Model on Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and PPI Indicating all the

Relationships

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)
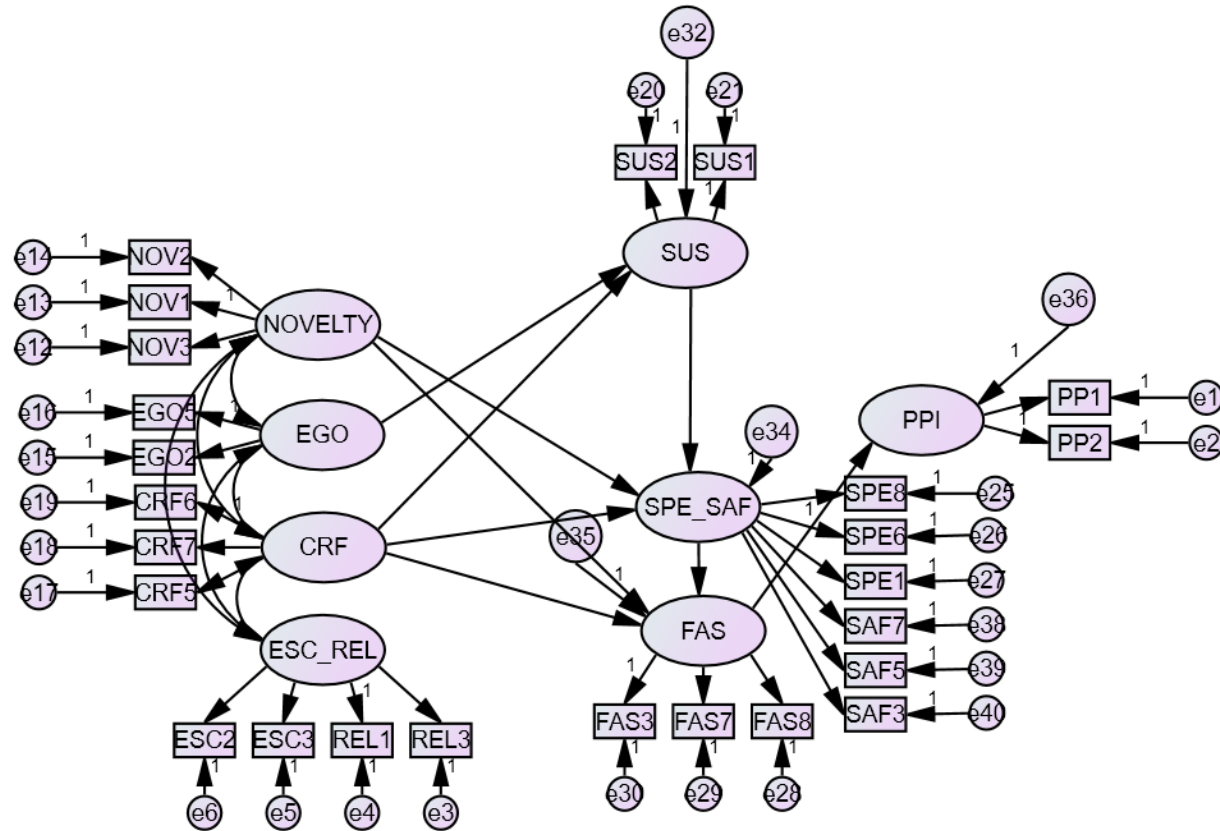
Figure 12: Conceptual Path Model on Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and PPI Indicating the Significant Relationships

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)
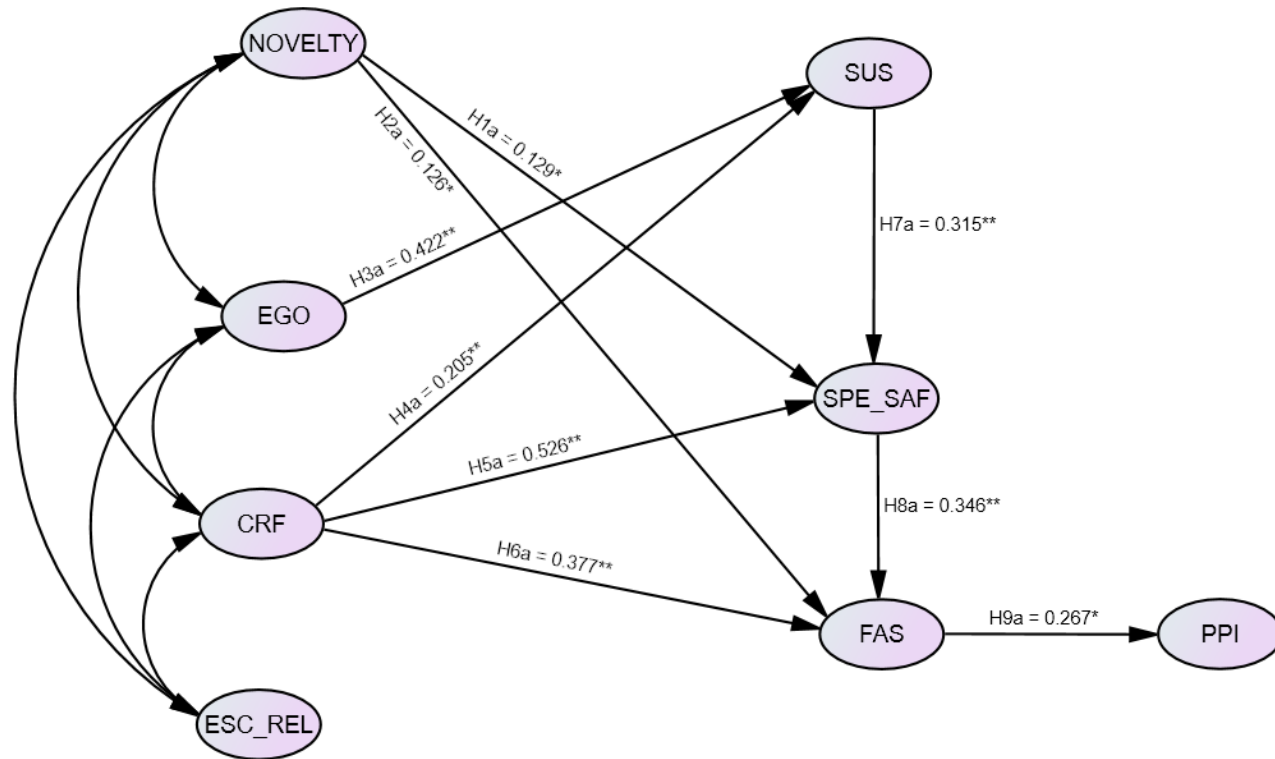
Figure 13: Simplified Conceptual Path Model on Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction

and PPI

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

200

7. Hypothesis 7a (H7a): Support services (satisfaction) has a direct and positive effect on staff performance-safety and security (satisfaction).

8. Hypothesis 8a (H8a): Staff performance-safety and security (satisfaction) has a direct and positive effect on facilities and services (satisfaction).

9. Hypothesis 9a (H9a): Facilities and services (satisfaction) have a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions (PPI).

The model fit indices reported in Table 24 (NFI = 0.90; IFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.94; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05) indicates that the data fit the model per the estimations of Forza and Filippini (1998). Specifically, the desire of users to use rental services because of novelty or adventure had a positive and direct effect on staff performance-safety and security (H1a: β = 0.129; SE = 0.027; $p \leq 0.05$). Hypothesis H2a which seeks to draw an association between novelty and facilities and services was found to be significant (H2a: β = 0.126; SE = 0.027; $p \leq 0.05$). Users who also yearned for car rental services to satisfy their ego had their satisfaction positively influenced by support services (H3a: β = 0.422; SE = 0.084; $p \leq 0.01$).

Literature posits that push motivational attributes (ego-enhancement and novelty) have a direct relationship with satisfaction (Kim et al., 2007; Toyoma & Yamada, 2012). Wong et al. (2017) were of the view that a combination of push motivational attributes have a significant influence on satisfaction. To buttress these findings, users who were motivated to use rental services because they desire to drive or ride in the latest and modern vehicles or they want to have a feel

Table 24: Path Coefficients of Decomposed Model

Hypothesis (H)	Path	β	SE	p
H1a	Novelty ⟶ Staff performance-safety/security	0.129	0.027	0.016*
H2a	Novelty ⟶ Facilities and Services	0.126	0.027	0.027*
H3a	Ego-enhancement ⟶ Support Services	0.422	0.084	0.000**
H4a	Car rental features ⟶ Support Services	0.205	0.129	0.002**
H5a	Car rental features ⟶ Staff performance-safety/security	0.526	0.058	0.000**
H6a	Car rental features ⟶ Facilities and Services	0.377	0.071	0.000**
H7a	Support Services ⟶ Staff Performance-safety/security	0.315	0.031	0.000**
H8a	Staff Performance-Safety/security ⟶ Facilities and Services	0.346	0.075	0.000**
H9a	Facilities and services ⟶ Post-purchase intentions	0.267	0.065	0.033*

Note: NFI = 0.90; IFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.94; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05; χ^2 = 564.60; df = 290; p = 0.000;

$p \leq 0.01$**; $p \leq 0.05$*

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

of rental facilities and to have a sensational experience (novelty/adventure) can derive their satisfaction from staff performance of the services and the safety and security of their chosen facilities/vehicles. The reason being that the service performance of staff (friendliness of staff, how staff/drivers communicate with clients, being courteous and polite, and being trustworthy) and safety and security (drivers adhering to road traffic regulations, drivers complying with speed limits, adequate seating capacity) could influence customer satisfaction.

Car rental features as a pull motivation significantly influenced satisfaction of users in terms of the facilities and services (H6a: $\beta = 0.377$; SE = 0.071; $p \leq 0.01$), likewise staff performance-safety and security (H5a: $\beta = 0.526$; SE = 0.058; $p \leq 0.01$). Also, car rental features positively influenced the satisfaction of users in terms of support services (H4a: $\beta = 0.205$; SE = 0.129; $p \leq 0.01$). This finding supports views held by Chakrabarti and Giuliano (2015), Le-Klahn et al. (2014) and Susilo and Cats (2014) that pull motivation has a direct effect on satisfaction constructs.

In furtherance to this, car rental features with variables such as facilities having friendly service providers, facilities having well-trained drivers/staff and prompt/timely delivery of services could be seen as directly relating to staff performance and safety and security, thereby having a direct and positive effect on staff performance-safety and security (H5a). Also, items measuring rental features (vehicles being safe to ride in and facilities ensuring the privacy of clients) have some correlation with the facilities and services construct (satisfaction). This could also have accounted for the positive effect that the

203

exogenous construct (rental features) had on the endogenous construct (facilities and services).

Support services also had a positive effect on staff performance-safety and security (H7a: β = 0.315; SE = 0.031; $p \leq 0.01$). These satisfaction constructs are endogenous variables that seek to influence post-purchase intentions. Also, staff performance-safety and security have a direct association with facilities and services (H8a: β = 0.346; SE = 0.075; $p \leq 0.01$).

In relation to post-purchase intentions, facilities and services (H9a: β = 0.267; SE = 0.065; $p \leq 0.01$) significantly influenced it. As alluded to by Nilplub, Khang and Krairit (2016) and Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015) satisfaction is a strong precursor in decisions regarding post-purchase intentions. Other studies such as Lin and Wong (2006), and Yoon and Uysal (2005) also found that a significant relationship exists between satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. In this study, users' satisfaction with the facilities and services (vehicle appeal, ride smoothness/serene ride and the appearance of staff) have a positive effect on post-purchase intentions.

It could also be deduced from the model (Figure 13) that support services, staff performance and facilities and services (satisfaction) are mediating between car rental features, ego-enhancement and novelty (pull and push motivation) to have a significant influence on post-purchase intentions. In other words, the relationship between pull and push motivation and post-purchase intention is indirect with satisfaction as the mediator. Purposes of use, on the other hand, could not significantly mediate between motivation and satisfaction. The ability

of SEM to predict indirect latent effects makes it superior to ordinary regression and correlation analysis (Byrne, 2000).

From Figure 13, it could also be deduced that the push and pull motivation constructs (the exogenous variables) interacted among themselves to have a significant effect on the endogenous variables (satisfaction). As indicated in Table 25, all four exogenous variables significantly influenced each other. For instance, novelty and ego-enhancement significantly correlated with each other (Cr1: β = 0.220; SE = 0.073; $p \leq 0.01$) and ego-enhancement correlating significantly with car rental features (Cr4: β = 0.255; SE = 0.041; $p \leq 0.01$). Car rental features also interacted significantly with escape-relaxation (Cr6: β = 0.414; SE = 0.037; $p \leq 0.01$). In effect, the interaction of the exogenous variables among

Table 25: Path Coefficients of the Covariances

	Path		β	SE	p
Cr1	Novelty ⟷	Ego-enhancement	0.220	0.073	0.001**
Cr2	Novelty ⟷	Escape-relaxation	0.453	0.068	0.000**
Cr3	Novelty ⟷	Car rental features	0.365	0.042	0.000**
Cr4	Ego-enhancement ⟷	Car rental features	0.255	0.041	0.000**
Cr5	Ego-enhancement ⟷	Escape-relaxation	0.586	0.071	0.000**
Cr6	Car rental features ⟷	Escape-relaxation	0.414	0.037	0.000**

Note: Cr – Covariance relationship; $p \leq 0.01$**; $p \leq 0.05$*

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

205

themselves could have accounted for the significant relationships these variables had with the endogenous variables.

Chapter Summary

This chapter tested the stated hypotheses using the structural equation model. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to confirm the underlying structure of both the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intention items. The SEM was subsequently used to validate the structural model that has been set out in the study (Figure 5). The hypothesized paths among the unobserved items of motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions were tested. However, the goodness-of-fit indices recorded (NFI = 0.65; IFI = 0.69; TLI = 0.66; CFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.13) indicated that the tested model path (Figure 10) was poor and that the data collected does not support the model.

A modified model which decomposed the initial model (Figure 11) was then proposed. 9 estimated coefficients (hypotheses) were statistically significant (Figure 12 and Figure 13) with the model fit indices indicating the validity of the model. The CFA of the modified model also recorded the β, CR and the AVE. The data was deemed to have a convergent validity, high internal consistency and shared more variance with its items than it did with other constructs based on the β, CR and the values of the square root of the AVEs.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study. It summarizes the thesis and presents the main findings of the study. The main conclusions were drawn based on the results and recommendations are also outlined in this chapter.

Summary of Thesis

The main objective of the study was to assess the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of car rental users. The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Find out the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of the car rental users;

2. Find out the purpose of use of car rental services;

3. Identify users' motivation for using car rental services;

4. Examine the satisfaction levels of car rental users;

5. Analyse the post-purchase intentions of car rental users;

6. Develop a structural model to explain the interrelationships between the constructs (motivation, purpose of use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions).

Eight hypotheses were also formulated to guide the study. These were:

207

1. Hypothesis 1 (H1) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on purpose of use of car rental services;

2. Hypothesis 2 (H2) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on purpose of use of car rental services;

3. Hypothesis 3 (H3) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on satisfaction.

4. Hypothesis 4 (H4) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on satisfaction.

5. Hypothesis 5 (H5) = Pull motivation has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intention.

6. Hypothesis 6 (H6) = Push motivation has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intention.

7. Hypothesis 7 (H7) = Purpose of use of car rental services have a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions.

8. Hypothesis 8 (H8) = Satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on post-purchase intentions.

A structural model or conceptual framework was adapted from Yoon and Uysal (2005). The framework captured four main constructs (motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions) which were based on the study objectives. The study area was Ghana with data sampled from 3 cities, that is, Accra, Kumasi and Tamale. The study adopted the positivists' paradigm thereby forming the theoretical background of the quantitative study employed. Data was

collected from 384 car rental users. The quota and convenience sampling techniques were used to allocate samples and collect the primary data. The questionnaire was structured into 5 sections (A-E). Pre-testing was done in July with the main data collection conducted between August and September 2018. In all, 382 questionnaires were considered useful for further analysis.

The data was processed using IBM SPSS version 21. Descriptive statistics (frequency, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (Chi-square test of independence, t-test, ANOVA, FA) were used to analyse the data. AMOS version 24 was used to model the data and test the stated hypotheses.

Summary of Main Findings

With respect to purpose of use, the study found out that the vehicles were rented for 4 main purposes, namely, to attend social and religious trips, visit tourism and other recreational sites, NGO and research-related activities and to attend to their business schedules. Majority of the users were males, married and employed. The average age of the respondents was 33 years and they earn approximately GH¢ 2000.00. The result of the Chi-square test of independence indicated that relationships exist between purpose of use and socio-demographic characteristics (age, marital status, educational level, job status, religion and income) and travel characteristics (travel group and type of vehicle used).

Through factor analysis, it emerged that 4 underlying factors accounted for the motivation of car rental use in Ghana among the sampled respondents. The results indicate that car rental features accounted for the highest variance and explained 20.43 percent of the total variance whilst novelty/adventure, being the

least accounted for 10.98 percent of the total variance explained. Other factors such as escape-relaxation and ego-enhancement explained total variances of 18.29 percent and 10.98 percent respectively. Significant differences were also established between car rental users' motivation and some of their background characteristics. For instance, significant differences were found between escape-relaxation and sex ($p = 0.037$), car rental features and education ($p = 0.002$) as well as ego-enhancement and education ($p = 0.026$). Furthermore, all the motivational constructs, but ego-enhancement ($p = 0.148$) were significant across the income cohorts. Motivation for ego-enhancement and novelty/adventure differed by self-drive ($p = 0.001$) and travel group ($p = 0.019$) respectively.

The study also revealed that the majority (95.5%) were satisfied with the rental services received. Using the PCA with the varimax rotation, 4 factors were found to have influenced user satisfaction (staff performance, facilities and services, safety and security and support services). Users' satisfaction with facilities/services ($p = 0.005$) varied significantly by age. Furthermore, marked variation was significantly observed in car rental users' satisfaction with staff performance ($p = 0.001$), facilities and services ($p = 0.011$), safety and security ($p = 0.038$) and support services ($p = 0.009$) as regards the educational level of the users. Except for safety and security ($p = 0.234$), all other satisfaction dimensions varied significantly across income, likewise support services differed by self-drive ($p = 0.022$) and travel group ($p = 0.044$). With respect to post-purchase intentions, the study observed that users expressed these intentions using 3 attributes, namely, using the service instead of others, using the service again in the future

and recommending using the service to friends and relatives.

Using SEM to test the proposed conceptual framework, the results of the model fit indices NFI = 0.65; IFI = 0.69; TLI = 0.66; CFI = 0.69; RMSEA = 0.13) indicate that the data did not fit the model. Irrespective of this, push motivation (β = 0.233; SE = 0.044; $p \leq 0.01$) and pull motivation (β = 0.587; SE = 0.096; $p \leq 0.01$) significantly influenced satisfaction. Both push and pull motivation could not have a direct and positive effect on usage and post-purchase intentions, likewise usage not having a significant influence on satisfaction and consequently post-purchase intentions.

A decomposed model was subsequently proposed in which push motivation was disaggregated into 4 sub-dimensions (escape-relaxation, ego-enhancement and novelty/adventure) with car rental features retained as pull motivation as well as satisfaction (staff performance-safety and security, facilities/services and support services). The confirmatory factor analysis table (Table 22) showed that the composite reliability of the scales was attained.

With respect to the modified model, the goodness-of-fit indices (NFI=0.90; IFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.94; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05) indicate that the data fit the model and the β estimates for all the variables except for use (tourism), were above the threshold of 0.50 indicating that the convergent validity of the items measured was attained. Also, the results indicated that all but 9 of the modified hypotheses were statistically significant (Figure 13) at $p \leq 0.01$ and $p \leq 0.05$. For instance, there was a direct, positive effect of novelty on staff performance-safety and security (H1a: β = 0.129; SE = 0.027; $p \leq 0.05$), car rental

211

features also had a direct positive effect on support services (H4a: $\beta = 0.205$; SE = 0.129; $p \leq 0.01$) likewise support services having an effect on staff performance-safety and security (H7a: $\beta = 0.315$; SE = 0.031; $p \leq 0.01$). Facilities/services also significantly influenced post-purchase intentions (H9a: $\beta = 0.267$; SE = 0.065; $p \leq 0.05$).

Conclusions

From the foregoing discussions and findings of the study and pursuant to the study objectives, this study put forward these conclusions.

The study concludes that users of car rental facilities within the country are young male users who are mainly married, have acquired university education, employed and are Ghanaians with an average monthly income of more than GH¢ 2000.00. Saloon cars and 4x4 cross country vehicles are the most often used. It can also be concluded that car rental services are mainly used to attend social and religious programs (wedding, funerals, visiting friends and relatives, shopping amid others), visit tourism and recreational sites, attend business schedules (meetings and conferences) and for NGO related activities. Researchers such as Becker et al. (2017) and Efthymiou et al. (2013) were of the view that car rental services are predominantly used for tourism and business activities whereas its use for social and religious purposes is distinctive to the Ghanaian milieu. Disaggregating the social trip, it can be concluded that the use of rental cars to attend weddings (by attendees/or the bride and groom) and funerals is unique to the Ghanaian experience. Irrespective of whether a particular usage of rental

services is peculiar to the Ghanaian setting or not, it can be observed that the various uses of car rental services matter to the users in Ghana.

The study concludes that car rental features, escape-relaxation, ego-enhancement and novelty/adventure are the factors that motivate the car rental user in Ghana. This conclusion does not only make a case for this scenario but corroborates the affirmation that push and pull factors are fundamental in influencing users' choice of car rental facilities. It can also be concluded that escape-relaxation, novelty/adventure, ego-enhancement are motivational constructs that are commonly used to measure the driving force behind the decision-making of consumers/customers/tourists alike regarding their use of hospitality and tourism services.

It can also be concluded that users of car rental services were satisfied with the services provided them by the car rental facilities. From the study, it can also be deduced that four satisfaction dimensions (staff performance, facilities/services, safety and security and support services) influenced users' satisfaction. Furthermore, it was deduced from the study that post-purchase intention is a function of satisfaction. This implies that when car rental users are satisfied with the rental services provided them, there is a likelihood that there would be positive post-purchase intentions, which were expressed in three forms: using the service instead of others, using the service again in the future (reuse) and recommendation of car rental services to potential users. Jen et al.'s (2011) and Slatten et al.'s (2011) assertion that satisfaction is an antecedent to positive post-purchase intention was upheld.

Based on the inferential statistics (Chi-square, t-test and ANOVA) results, there was enough evidence to conclude that variations in users' motivation and satisfaction across socio-demographic and travel characteristics exit. This implies that users of rental services are dissimilar on issues pertaining to their motivation and satisfaction. The results confirm the appropriateness of the use of inferential statistical tools to analyse the variations of car rental users' in Ghana. This dissimilar or heterogeneous characteristic is an indication that service providers must analyse the car rental market using varying dimensions in order to provide tailor-made services to their clients.

In furtherance to the above, the study concludes on the SEM analysis that, specific motivations lead to reasons for which people make use of car rental services. Also, specific motivations lead to specific satisfaction which in turn influence the post-purchase intentions of car rental users. This implies that the satisfaction of a different kind of motivation that is not related will not necessarily influence post-purchase intention.

Finally, the results agree with the propositions of the adapted or conceptual framework. The framework was essential in measuring the identified constructs. However, it was concluded that in analysing the direct and indirect link between the constructs, it must be disaggregated. On that score, the study settles that individually, causal effects exist among the variables in the car rental setting. The application of the positivist philosophy using the quantitative approach was also helpful in finding answers to the stated objectives and hypotheses.

Contribution to Knowledge

The study makes some major contributions to knowledge. First and foremost, the study makes a significant contribution to the adapted model by Yoon and Uysal (2005). This model, which was employed as the conceptual framework for the study, identifies push and pull motivation as influencing satisfaction, and post-purchase intention being a function of satisfaction. However, after testing the model using SEM, a new model was proposed as best-fit for measuring the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions of car rental users in Ghana. The modified model advocates that the exogenous variable (push and pull motivation) and the endogenous variable (satisfaction) be decomposed into individual constructs. This is because not all the motivational constructs have an influence on satisfaction and by extension post-purchase intention.

For instance, escape-relaxation as a push motivation did not have a significant effect on the satisfaction constructs. Satisfaction as a composite construct also had no significant influence on post-purchase intention, instead, specific user satisfaction constructs; support services, staff performance-safety and security, and facilities/services, influenced each other respectively to have a significant effect on post-purchase intentions (Figure 14).

The study also made some contributions to literature. The literature on car rental use pertaining to motivation, satisfaction and post-purchase intention is in its embryonic stage. Information sought for this study largely was from the general transportation studies with public transport literature being mostly used.

Since this study was a niche market study, that is, targeting users of car rental facilities/services, it will provide the empirical premise for further studies.
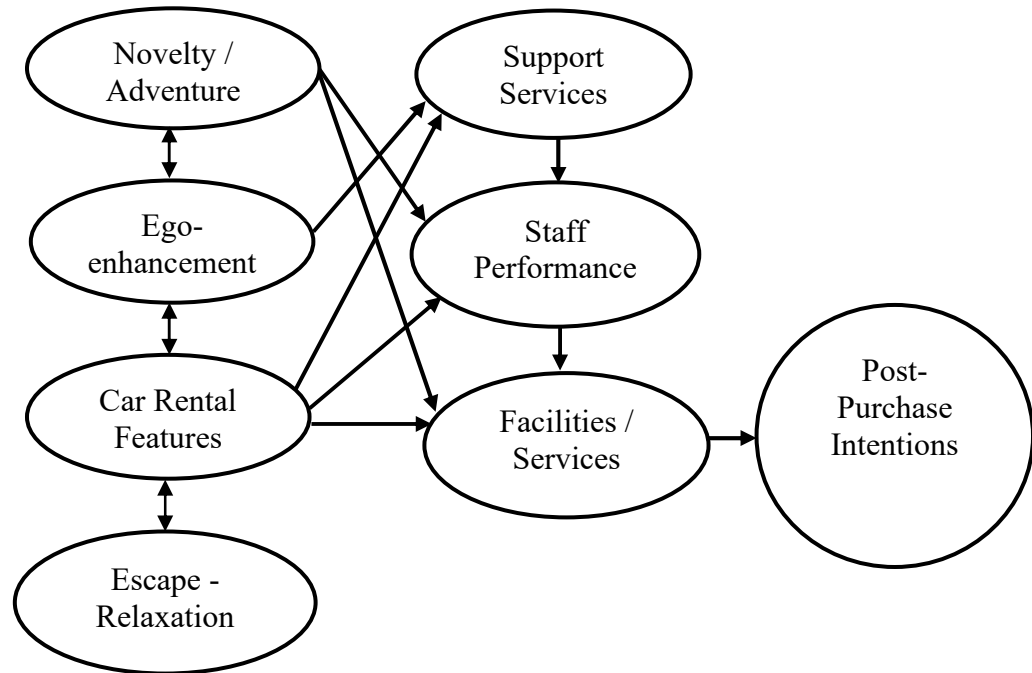
Figure 14: Proposed Framework for Car Rental Users' Motivation, Use, Satisfaction and Post-Purchase Intentions

Source: Field survey, Nutsugbodo (2018)

Limitations

The research design used for this study, which is the cross-sectional design has its inherent impediments when used in such studies. Its major inherent challenge is that it cannot predict a trend over a period. Thus, the validity of the results may not always be fail-safe. It is therefore safe to take a caution when the findings are being interpreted or generalized.

Recommendations

In relation to the key findings, the study suggests the following recommendations. First and foremost, based on the usage, car rental operators can leverage on the 4 main purposes of use to market their facilities. This can be done by ensuring that customers will have a variety of vehicles to choose from based on their needs; to enable them visit tourism and recreational sites, attend business meetings or schedules, enable them to undertake their NGO and research-related activities and or to provide a means for people to attend social and religious functions.

In furtherance to the above, it is also recommended that car rental operators and for that matter the Car Rentals Association of Ghana (CRAG) can also capitalize on the motivations of car rental users to serve as a point of reference when marketing their services. Thus, marketing can be done by using the unique features of car rental facilities and ensuring users that their escape-relaxation and ego-enhancement need amid a host of other desires/requests can be met. This can be done through the projecting of these dimensions in varying forms of advertisements, either digital/contemporary or traditional. It is also recommended that when marketing car rental facilities based on the motivational dimensions, socio-demographic and travel characteristics of the market should be taken into consideration since different dimensions would appeal to different target markets.

The results pointed to the fact that about 5 percent of car rental users were dissatisfied with the services received. Even though this percentage is small or

217

negligible taking into consideration the proportion that was satisfied, this category of users cannot be underestimated. This is because a dissatisfied customer can tarnish the image of a business or reduce its market viability through means such as leaving or transferring their loyalty to other businesses and engaging in bad word-of-mouth advertisements (Hirschman, 1970). It is therefore recommended that car rental businesses put in place mechanisms such as understanding customers' needs, managing pricing schemes, providing feedback mechanisms to address customer concerns among others.

In the same vein, respondents who were satisfied should also not be neglected. It is therefore imperative for service providers to rely on the satisfaction dimensions identified to enable them to provide better and quality service to their clients. Rental facilities should continually ensure that their fleet of vehicles are safe, have modern facilities and ensure that their facilities have the support services needed by the users. Also, service providers should continually train their staff to continually improve upon their service delivery. GTA can also identify some of these dimensions and use them as yardsticks when conducting their monitoring and evaluation of car rental facilities. CRAG can also use these dimensions to establish a service design for implementation and use among its membership.

Suggestions for Further Studies

The study explored the motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intention of car rental users' in Ghana. This study focused on the general users of

rental facilities; however, issues may not be so formidable with tourists being the target group until a similar study is replicated among them to confirm their motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions also. It is therefore prudent for further studies to be carried out in the future with tourists being the target population.

The study adopted a cross-sectional research design using the convenience sampling technique. Due to its inherent challenges, the findings cannot be accurately extrapolated since the results might differ. It is therefore proposed that conducting a longitudinal study using a probability sampling technique over a period to ascertain any changes in users' motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions will aid in the accuracy of profiling car rental users.

This study was premised on quantitative methodological procedures. Further studies can also be conducted using qualitative procedures, especially into the experiences of car rental users. This will allow for a much broader and detailed understanding of who the car rental user is, and to ascertain their lived experiences.

Also, since the study focused on motivation, use, satisfaction and post-purchase intentions, the issue of service quality delivery was not addressed. A further study could be done using the SERVQUAL scale or the SERVPERF scale to measure how car rental operators perform their services to the admiration of their clients or how car rental users perceive the services received from their service providers to ascertain their quality or otherwise.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abane, A. M. (2004). Red light running in a developing city: A case study of the Accra Metropolitan Area. *Oguaa Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(1), 42-63.

Abane, A. M. (2011). Travel behaviour in Ghana: Empirical observations from four metropolitan areas. *Journal of Transport Geography, 19*(1), 313-322.

Abou-Zeid, M., & Ben-Akiva, M. (2012). Travel mode switching: Comparison of findings from two public transportation experiments. *Transport Policy, 24*, 48-59.

Abubakar, A. M., Shneikat, B. H. T., & Oday, A. (2014). Motivational factors for educational tourism: A case study in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 11*, 58-62.

Adam, I. (2015). Backpackers' risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies in Ghana. *Tourism Management, 49*(1), 99-108.

Adam, I, Adongo, C. A., & Amuquandoh, F. E. (2017). A structural decompositional analysis of eco-visitors' motivations, satisfaction and post-purchase behaviour. *Journal of Ecotourism.* https: doi.org/10.1080/14724049.2017.1380657

Adam, I., Adongo, C. A., & Dayour, F. (2014). International tourists' satisfaction with Ghanaian Upscale Restaurant services and revisit intentions. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism,* 1-21.

Adam, I., & Amuquandoh, F. E. (2018). Ethnic-based motives and experiences at former slave sites. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing.* doi:10.1080/10548408.2018.1527743.

Adongo, C. A. (2015). *Motivation and satisfaction of spa-goers in Ghana* (Unpublished thesis). Ghana: Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast.

Adongo, C. A., Amuquandoh, F. E., & Amenumey, E. K. (2017). Modelling spa-goers' choices of therapeutic activities. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 31*(1), 105-113.

Agyeiwaah, E. (2013). International tourists' motivations for choosing homestay in the Kumasi Metropolis of Ghana. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *24*(3), 405-409.

Agyeiwaah, E., Adongo, R., Dimache, A., & Wondirad, A. (2016). Make a customer, not a sale: Tourist satisfaction in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management, 57*(6), 68-79.

Agyeiwaah, E., Otoo, F. E., Suntikul, W., & Huang, W.-J. (2018). Understanding culinary tourist motivation, experience, satisfaction and loyalty using a structural approach. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing.* https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2018.1541775.

Akyeampong O. A., & Adjei-Ohemeng, J. (2016). Transport and tourism in Brong-Ahafo Region. In O. A. Akyeampong (Eds.), *Tourism development in Ghana's Brong-Ahafo Region: Demand and supply dynamics* (172-190), Sunyani, Ghana: Xtrym Consortium.

Akyeampong, O. A. (2007). *Tourism in Ghana: The accommodation sub-sector*. Accra, Ghana: Janel Publications.

Albaity, M., & Melhem, S. B. (2017). Novelty seeking, image, and loyalty – The mediating role of satisfaction and moderating role of length of stay: International tourists' perspective. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 23*, 30-37.

Alegre, J., & Garau, J. (2010). Tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(1), 52-73.

Ali, F., Hussain, K., Konar, R., & Jeon, H. M. (2017). The effect of technical and functional quality on guests' perceived hotel service quality and satisfaction: A SEM-PLS Analysis. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *18*(3), 354-378.

Ali, F., Kim, W. G., Li, J., & Jeon, H.-M. (2018). Make it delightful: Customers' experience, satisfaction and loyalty in Malaysian theme parks. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management, 7*, 1-11.

Ali, F., Ryu, K., & Hussain, K. (2015). Creative tourists' experience, memories, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 33*(1), 85-100.

Al-Ibrahim, A. (2014). Quality management and its role in improving service quality in public sector. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences, 2*(6), 123-147.

Amaratunga, D., Baldry, D., Sarshar, M., & Newton, R. (2002). Qualitative and quantitative research in the built environment: Application of 'mixed' research approach. *Journal of Management Development, 51,* 17-31.

Amissah, E. F. (2013). Tourist satisfaction with hotel services in Cape Coast and Elmina, Ghana. *American Journal of Tourism Management, 2*(1), 26-33. doi.10.5923/s.tourism.201304.03.

Anable, J., & Gatersleben, B. (2005). All work and no play? The role of instrumental and affective factors in work and leisure journeys by different travel modes. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy Practice, 39*, 163-181.

Anderson, E. W., & Mittal, V. (2000). Strengthening the satisfaction-profit chain. *Journal of Service Research, 3*(2), 107-120

Anderson, E. W., & Sullivan, M. W. (1993). The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms. *Marketing Science, 12*(2), 125-142.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modelling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411-423.

Anderson, R. E., & Srinivasan, S. S. (2003). E-satisfaction and e-loyalty: A contingency framework. *Psychology & Marketing*, *20*(2), 123-138.

Anstey, K. J., Wood, J., Lord, S., & Walker, J. G. (2005). Cognitive, sensory and physical factors enabling driving safety in older adults. *Clinical Psychology Review, 25*(1), 45-65.

Antwi, K. B. (2005). *Public sector reforms in Ghana: Enforcing human resource development challenges facing decentralised local government systems.* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Bradford Centre for International Development, University of Bradford, UK.

223

Ashworth, G., & Page, S. J. (2011). Urban tourism research: Recent progress and current paradoxes. *Tourism Management*, *32*(1), 1–15.

Austin, G. (2014). *A drive through time: Carriages, horses and history*. Create Space Independent Publishing Platform.

Automotive Fleet. (1962). Car renting - its development - and future. Retrieved from http://www.automotive-fleet.com/article/story/1962/12/car-renting-its-development-and-future.aspx on 15/06/17.

Ayeh, J. K., Au, N., & Law, R. (2013). Predicting the intention to use consumer-generated media for travel planning. *Tourism Management*, *35*, 132-143.

Baah, N. G., Bondzi-Simpson, A., & Ayeh, J. K. (2019). How neophilia drives international tourists' acceptance of local cuisine. *Current Issues in Tourism.* https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1619676

Babbie, E. (2007). *The practice of social research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Baber, A., Thurasamy, R., Malik, M. I., Sadiq, B., Islam, S., & Sajjad, M. (2016). Online word-of-mouth antecedents, attitude and intention-to-purchase electronic products in Pakistan. *Telematics and Informatics, 33*(2), 388-400.

Bachand-Marleau, J., Lee, B., & El-Geneidy, A. M. (2012). Better understanding of factors influencing likelihood of using shared bicycle systems and frequency of use. *Transportation Research Record*: *Journal of Transportation Research Board, 2314*(1), 66-71.

Backman, S. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1991). The usefulness of selected variables for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, *13*(3), 205-220.

Bajada, T., & Titheridge, H. (2017). The attitudes of tourists towards a bus service: Implications for policy from a Maltese case study. *Transportation Research Procedia, 25,* 4110-4129.

Bajis, I. P. (2015). Tourist perceived value, relationship to satisfaction, and behavioural intentions the example of the Croatian tourist destination Dubrovnik. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(1), 122-134.

Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27*(3), 785-804.

Ballus-Armet, I., Shaheen, S., Clonts, K., & Weinzimmer, D. (2014). Peer-to-peer car sharing: Exploring public perception and market characteristics in the San Francisco Bay area. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of Transportation Research Board, 2416,* 27-36.

Balvinder, K. K. (2009). Tourism and restoration. In J. Tribe (Eds.), *Philosophical issues in tourism* (pp. 117-134), Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Barr, S., & Prillwitz, J. (2012). Green travellers? Exploring the spatial context of sustainable mobility styles. *Applied Geography, 32*, 798-809

Barr, S., Gilg, A., & Shaw, G. (2011). Citizens, consumers and sustainability: (Re) framing environmental practice in an age of climate change. *Global Environmental Change, 21*(4), 1224-1233.

Basri, N. A. M. H., Ahmad, R., Anuar, F. I., & Ismail, K. A. (2016). Effect of word of mouth communication on consumer purchase decision: Malay

upscale restaurant. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *222*, 324-331.

Battour, M. M., Battor, M. M., & Ismail, M. (2012). The mediating role of tourist satisfaction: A study of Muslim tourists in Malaysia. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 29*, 279-297.

Becker, H., Ciari, F., & Axhausen, K. W. (2017). Comparing car-sharing schemes in Switzerland: User groups and usage patterns. *Transportation Research Part A, 97*, 17-29.

Beirao, G., & Sarsfield-Cabral, J. A. (2007). Understanding attitudes towards public transport and private car: A qualitative study. *Transport Policy, 14*(1), 478-489.

Bennett, R., & Gabriel, H. (2001). Reputation, trust and supplier commitment: The case of shipping company/seaport relations. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 16*(6), 424-438.

Berry, L. L., Eileen, A. W., & Lewis P. C. (2006). Service clues and customer assessment of the service experience: Lessons from marketing. *The Academy of Management Perspectives, 20*(2), 43-57.

Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, I., & Andreau, L. (2009). The role of variety seeking in short and long run revisit intentions in holiday destinations. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 3*(2), 103-115.

Bitner, M. J., & Hubbert, A. R. (1994). Encounter satisfaction versus overall satisfaction versus quality: The customer's voice. In R. T. Rust and R. L.

Oliver (Eds.), *Service quality: New directions in theory and practice* (pp. 72-94). London: Sage Publications.

Bolton, R. N., & Drew, J. H. (1991). A multistage model of customers' assessment of service quality and value. *Journal of Consumer Research, 17*(4), 375-384.

Boyd, D., & Phillips, R. (1992). *Integrated transportation planning.* Paper presented at the ORSA/TIMS Conference, San Francisco.

Bramwell, B. (1998). User satisfaction and product development in urban tourism. *Tourism Management*, *19*(1), 35-47.

Britton, W. B., Shahar, B., Szepsenwol, O., & Jacobs, W. J. (2012). Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy improves emotional reactivity to social stress: Results from a randomized controlled trial. *Behaviour Therapy, 43*(2), 365-380.

Brunner, T. A., Stocklin, M., & Opwis, K. (2008). Satisfaction, image and loyalty: New versus experienced customers. *European Journal of Marketing, 42*(9/10), 1095-1105.

Buckley, R. (2009). *Ecotourism: Principles and practices.* Wallingford: CABI.

Budiono, O. A. (2009). *Customer satisfaction in public transport: A study of travellers' perception in Indonesia* (Unpublished master's thesis). Karlstad University, Sweden.

Buehler, R. (2011). Determinants of transport mode choice: A comparison of Germany and the USA. *Journal of Transport Geography, 19*(4), 644-657.

Buehler, R., & Pucher, J. (2011). Cycling to work in 90 large American cities. New evidence on the role of bike paths and lanes. *Transportation, 39*(2), 409-432.

Buhalis, D. D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management, 21*(1), 97-116.

Burkhardt, J. E., & Millard-Ball, A. (2005). *Who's attracted to car sharing.* In: TRB 2006 Annual Meeting (CD-ROM).

Burkhardt, J. E., & Millard-Ball, A. (2006). Who is attracted to car sharing? *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board 1986*(1), 98-105.

Busse, M., & Swinkels, J. (2012). *Enterprise rent-a-car*. Technical Report KEL612, Kellogg School of Management.

Byrne, B. M. (2000). *Structural equation modelling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.

Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modelling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. New York: Psychology Press.

Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural equation modelling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. New York: Routledge.

Caber, M., & Albayrak, T. (2016). Push or pull? Identifying rock climbing tourists' motivations. *Tourism Management*, 55, 74-84.

Campbell, K. B., & Brakewood, C. (2017). Sharing riders: How bikesharing impacts bus ridership in New York City. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 100*, 264-282.

Campo-Martinez, S., Garau-Vadell, J. B., & Martinez-Ruiz, M. P. (2010). Factors influencing repeat visits to a destination: The influence of group composition. *Tourism Management, 31*(1), 862-870.

Cao, J. (2012). A structural equation of customers' behavioural intentions in the Chinese restaurant sector (Published Thesis). UK: Business School, Newcastle University.

Carroll, W. J., & Grimes, R. C. (1995). Evolutionary change in product management: Experiences in the car rental industry. *Interfaces, 25*(5), 84-104.

Cervero, R., Golub, A., & Nee, B. (2007). City carshare: Longer term travel demand and car ownership impacts. *Transportation Research Record, 1992,* 70-80.

Chakrabarti, S., & Giuliano, G. (2015). Does service reliability determine transit patronage? Insights from the Los Angeles Metro bus system. *Transport Policy, 42,* 12-20.

Chang, A., Chiang, H.-H., & Han, T.-S. (2012). A multilevel investigation of relationships among brand-centred HRM, brand psychological ownership, brand citizenship behaviours and customer satisfaction. *European Journal Marketing, 46*(5), 626-662.

Chang, Y.-H., & Yeh, C.-H. (2017). Corporate social responsibility and customer loyalty in intercity bus services. *Transportation Policy, 59*, 38-45.

Chen, C. F., & Chen, F. S. (2010). Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management, 31*(1), 29-35.

Chen, L. C., Lin, S. P., & Kuo, C. M. (2013). Rural tourism: Marketing strategies for the bed and breakfast industry in Taiwan. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *32*, 278-286.

Chen, L. J., & Chen, W. P. (2015). Push–pull factors in international birders' travel. *Tourism Management, 48,* 416-425.

Chi, C. G. C., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 624-636.

Chi, C. G., & Qu, H. (2009). Examining the relationship between tourists' attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 18*(1), 4-25.

Chindaprasert, K., Yasothornsrikul, P., & Esichaikul, R. (2015). The effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty at the Thailand-Laos (PDR) Border. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism*, *4*(1), 1-17.

Chiu, S. C., Liu, C. H., & Tu, J. H. (2016). The influence of tourists' expectations on purchase intention: Linking marketing strategy for low-cost airlines. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *53*, 226-234.

Ciari, F., Bock, B., & Balmer, M. (2014). Modelling station-based and free-floating car-sharing demand: Test case study for Berlin. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board, 2416,* 37-47.

Circella, G., Alemi, F., Tiedeman, K., Berliner, R. M., Lee, Y., Fulton, L., Mokhtarian, P. L., & Handy, S. (2017). *What affects millennials' mobility? Part II*: The impact of residential location, individual preferences and lifestyles on young adults' travel behaviour in California. (No. NCST-201703).

Clarke, I., & Schmidt, R. A. (1995). Beyond the servicescape: The experience of place. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 2*(3), 149-162.

Clavel, R., Mariotto, M., & Enoch, M. (2009). *Carsharing in France: Past, present and future*. In: TRB 2009.

Cohen, E. (1979). Rethinking the sociology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(1), 18-35.

Cohen, J. M., Boniface, S., & Watkins, S. (2014). Health implications of transport planning, development and operations. *Journal of Transport and Health, 1*(1), 63-72.

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, S., Higham, J. E. S., Peeters, P. M., & Gossling, S. (Eds.). (2014). *Understanding and governing sustainable tourism mobility: Psychological and behavioural approaches.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Commonwealth of Australia (2010). *Taking preventive action – A response to Australia: The healthiest country by 2020 – The report of the National Preventive Health Taskforce.* Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

Cooley, H. (1894). The theory of transportation. *Publications of the American Economic Association, 9*(3), 13-148.

Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D. & Wanhill, S. (2000). *Tourism, principles and practice* (4th ed.). London: Essex.

Correia, A., & Kozak, M. (2017). The review process in tourism academia: An elaboration of reviewers' extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *32*, 1-11.

Correia, G., & Viegas, J. M. (2011). Carpooling and carpool clubs: Clarifying concepts and assessing value enhancement possibilities through a Stated Preference web survey in Lisbon, Portugal. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 45*, 81-90.

Cossío-Silva, F. J., Revilla-Camacho, M. Á., & Vega-Vázquez, M. (2018). The tourist loyalty index: A new indicator for measuring tourist destination loyalty. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*. https://doi.org/1.1016/j.jik.2017.10.003

Costain, C., Ardron, C., & Habib, K. N. (2012). Synopsis of users' behaviour of a carsharing program: A case study in Toronto. *Transportation Research Part A, 46*(1), 421-434.

Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment Research and Evaluation, 10*(7), 1-9.

Creswell, J. W. (2010). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boylston Street, Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Creswell, J., & Plano-Clark, V. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408-424.

Cronin, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A re-examination and extension. *Journal of Marketing, 56*(3),55-67.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage Publications.

Curtin, S. (2010). What makes for memorable wildlife encounters? Revelations from 'serious wildlife tourists. *Journal of Ecotourism, 9*(2), 149-168.

Czerny, A. I., Shi, Z., & Zhang, A. (2016). Can market power be controlled by regulation of core prices alone? An empirical analysis of airport demand and car rental price. *Transportation Research Part A, 91,* 260-272.

Dallen, J. (2007). Sustainable transport, market segmentation and tourism: The Looe Valley Branch Line Railway, Cornwall, UK. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15*(2), 180-199.

Dann, G. M. S. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *4*(4), 184-194.

Dann, G. M. S. (1981). Tourist motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *8*(2), 187-219.

Darko, E. (2018, January 10). A total of 2,076 people died in road traffic accidents in 2017. *The Finder Newspaper*. Retrieved from www.thefinderonline.com/news/item/11373-2-076-perish-in-2017

Das, A., Ladin, M., Ismail, A., & Rahmat, R. (2013). Consumer satisfaction of public transport monorail user in Kuala Lumpur. *Journal of Engineering Science and Technology, 8*(3), 272-283.

Dayour, F., Adongo, C. A., & Taale, F. (2016). Determinants of backpackers' expenditure. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 17,* 36-43.

De Luca, S., & Di Pace, R. (2014). Modelling the propensity in adhering to a carsharing system: A behavioural approach. *Transportation Research Procedia, 3*, 866-875.

De Luca, S., & Di Pace, R. (2015). Modelling users' behaviour in inter-urban carsharing program: A stated preference approach. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 71,* 59-76.

de Ona, J., & de Ona, R. (2014). Quality of service in public transport based on customer satisfaction surveys: A review and assessment of methodological approaches. *Transportation Science, 49*(3), 605-662.

de Ona, J., de Ona, R., Eboli, L., & Mazzulla, G. (2013). Perceived service quality in bus transit service: A structural equation approach. *Transport Policy, 29*, 219-226.

de Ona, J., de Ona, R., Eboli, L., & Mazzulla, G. (2016). Index numbers for monitoring transit service quality. *Transportation Research A: Policy and Practice, 84,* 18-30.

de Ona, J., de Ona, R., Eboli, L., Forciniti, C., & Mazzulla, G. (2018). An ordered regression model to predict transit passengers' behavioural intentions. *Case Studies on Transport Policy* (Article in Press), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cstp.2018.05.004

de Ona, R., Eboli, L., & Mazzulla, G. (2014). Monitoring changes in transit service quality over time. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 111,* 974-983.

De Vos, J., Schwanen, T., van Acker, V., & Witlox, F. (2015). How satisfying is the scale for travel satisfaction? *Transportation Research Part F, 29*(1), 121-130.

del Castillo, J. M., & Benitez, F. G. (2013). Determining a public transport satisfaction index from user surveys. *Transportmetrica A: Transport Science, 9*(8), 713-741.

Dellinger, A., M., Sehgal, M., Sleet, D. A., & Barrett-Connor, E. (2001). Driving cessation: What older former drivers tell us. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 49*(4), 431-435.

Devesa, M., Laguna, M., & Palacios, A. (2010). The role of motivation in visitor satisfaction: Empirical evidence in rural tourism. *Tourism Management, 31,* 547-552.

Dick, A. S., & Basu, K. (1994). Customer loyalty: Toward an integrated conceptual framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 22*(2), 99-113.

Disability Act, Act 715 (2006). *Disability act.* Accra, Ghana: Parliament of Ghana.

Dobson, A. (2010). *Environmental citizenship and pro-environmental behaviour: Rapid research and evidence review.* London: Sustainable Development Research Network.

Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Dubois, G., Peeters, P., Ceron, J.-P., & Gossling, S. (2011). The future tourism mobility of the world population: Emission growth versus climate policy. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 45*(10), 1031-1042.

Duchek, J. M., Carr, D., & Hunt, L. (2003). Longitudinal driving performance in early-stage dementia of the Alzheimer's type. *Journal of Geriatr Society, 51*, 1342-1347.

Duncan, M. (2011). The cost saving potential of carsharing in a US context. *Transportation 38*(2), 363-382.

Duval, D. T. (2007). *Tourism and transport: Modes, networks and flow.* Clevedon: Channel View Publications

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: Determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*(5), 369-414.

Efthymiou, D., & Antoniou, C. (2017). Understanding the effects of economic crisis on public transport users' satisfaction and demand. *Transport Policy*, *53*, 89-97.

Efthymiou, D., Antoniou, C., & Waddell, P. (2013). Factors affecting the adoption of vehicle sharing systems by young drivers. *Transport Policy, 29,* 64-73.

Eggert, A., & Ulaga, W. (2002). Customer perceived value: A substitute for satisfaction in business markets. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 17*(2-3), 107-118.

Eid, R., & El-Gohary, H. (2015). The role of Islamic religiosity on the relationship between perceived value and tourist satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *46*, 477-488.

Ekiz, E. H., & Bavik, A. (2008). Scale development process: Service quality in car rental services. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 6*(2), 133-146.

Elkhani, N., & Bakri, A. (2012). Review on "expectancy disconfirmation theory" (EDT) Model in B2C E-Commerce. *Journal of Information Systems Research and Innovation*, *2*(12), 95-102.

Etgar, M., & Fuchs, G. (2009). Why and how service quality perceptions impact on consumer responses. *Managing Service Quality, 19*(4), 474-485.

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4.

European Committee for Standardisation, CEN, (2002). *Transportation logistics and services: Public passenger transport service quality, definition, targeting and measurement.* European Committee for Standardization.

Eusebio, C., & Vieira, A. L. (2013). Destination attributes' evaluation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions: A structural modelling approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 15*(1), 66-80.

Fellesson, M., & Friman, M. (2008). Perceived satisfaction with public transport service in nine European cities. *Journal of Transportation Research Forum, 47*(3), 93-104.

Ferrero, F., Perboli, G., Rosano, M., & Vesco, A. (2018). Car-sharing services: An annotated review. *Sustainable Cities and Society, 37*(1), 501-518.

Fink, A., & Reiners, T. (2006). Modelling and solving short-term car rental logistics problem. *Transportation Research Part E, 42,* 272-292.

Firnkorn, J., & Muller, M. (2012). Selling mobility instead of cars: New business strategies of automakers and the impact on private vehicle holding. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 21*(4), 264-280.

Fishman, E., Washington, S., Haworth, N., & Waston, A. (2015). Factors influencing bike share membership: An analysis of Melbourne and Brisbane. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 71*, 17-30.

Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourism motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 555-581.

Fornel, C., & Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(1), 39-50.

Fornell, C., Johnson, M., Anderson, E., Cha, J., & Bryant, B. (1996). The American customer satisfaction index: Nature, purpose, and findings. *Journal of Marketing, 60*(4), 7-18.

Forza, C., & Filippini, R. (1998). TQM impact on quality conformance and customer satisfaction: A causal model. *International Journal of Production Economics, 55*, 1-20.

Fragoso, J. T., & Espinoza, I. L. (2017). Assessment of banking service quality perception using the SERVPERF model. *Contaduria y Administracion, 62*(4), 1294-1316.

Fridgen, J. D. (1996). *Dimensions of tourism* (2nd ed.). New York: Educational Institute of American Hostel and Motel Association.

Fu, X.-M., Zhang, J.-H., & Chan, F. T. S. (2018). Determinants of loyalty to public: A model integrating satisfaction-loyalty theory and expectation-confirmation theory. *Transportation Research Part A, 113*, 476-490.

Gardner, B., & Abraham, C. (2007). What drives car use? A grounded theory analysis of commuters' reasons for driving. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 10,* 187-200.

Gefan, D. (2003). TAM or just plain habit: A look at experienced online shoppers. *Journal of End User Computing, 15*(3), 1-13.

Gefen, D., Karahanna. E., & Straub, D. W. (2003). Trust and TAM in online shopping: An integrated model. *MIS Quarterly, 27*(1), 51-90.

George, D. K., & Xia, C. H. (2011). Fleet-sizing and service availability for a vehicle rental system via closed queueing networks. *European Journal of Operational Research, 211,* 198-207.

Geraghty, M. K., & Johnson, E. (1997). Revenue management saves national car rental. *Interfaces, 27*(1), 107-127.

Ghana Living Standards Survey (2014). *Report of the fifth round (GLSS 5).* Accra, Ghana: Ghana Statistical Service.

Ghana Meteorological Agency. (2016). *Climate and weather information.* Accra, Ghana: Author.

Ghana Tourism Authority Act, Act 817, (2011). *Ghana Tourism Authority Act.* Accra, Ghana: Parliament of Ghana.

Ghana Tourism Authority. (2014). *Car rental statistical fact sheet on Ghana.* Accra, Ghana: Author.

Ghana Tourism Authority. (2016). *Registered rental facilities in Ghana.* Sunyani, Brong Ahafo Region, Ghana: Author.

Giddings, L. S. (2006). Mixed-methods research: Positivism dressed in drag? *Journal of Research in Nursing, 11*(3), 195-203.

Goeldner, C. R., Ritchie, J. R., & McIntosh, R. W. (2000). *Tourism principles, practices and philosophies* (8th ed.). New York: Wiley.

Goodwin, P. (2012). Peak travel, peak car and the future of mobility: Evidence, unresolved issues, policy implications, and a research agenda. *International Transport Forum Discuss Paper, 13.* Retrieved from http://www.oecd-library.org/transport/international-transport-forum-discusssion-papers_2223439x?page=2 in June 2016

Gossling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2013). Challenges of tourism in low-carbon economy. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change 4*(6), 525-538.

Grdzelishvili, I., & Sathre, R. (2011). Understanding the urban travel attitudes and behaviour of Tbilisi residents. *Transport Policy, 18,* 38-45.

Grewal, D., Monroe, K. B., & Krishnan, R. (1998). The effects of price comparison advertising on buyers' perceptions of acquisition value, transaction value, and behavioural intentions. *Journal of Marketing 62*(2), 46-59.

Guiver, J., Lumsdon, L., Weston, R., & Ferguson, M. (2007). Do buses help meet tourism objectives? The contribution and potential of scheduled buses in rural destination areas. *Transport Policy*, *14*(4),275–282.

Gustavo, N. S. (2010). A 21st century approach to health tourism spas: The case of Portugal. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 17*(1), 127-135.

Haboucha, C. J., Ishaq, R., & Shiftan, Y. (2015). *User preferences regarding autonomous vehicles: Giving up your private car*. In: IATBR 2015 – Windsor Presented at the IATBR 2015 – WINDOSR.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective* (7th ed.). New Jersey, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modelling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *40*(3), 414-433.

Hall, C. M. (2005). *Tourism-rethinking the social science of mobility*. Harlow: Pearson.

Hall, C. M. (2010). Equal access for all? Regulative mechanisms, inequality and tourism mobility. In S. Cole, & N. Morgan (Eds). *Tourism and inequality: Problems and prospects* (pp. 34-48). Wallingford: CABI.

Han, H.-S., Lee, J.-N., & Seo, Y.-W. (2008). Analysing the impact of a firm's capability on outsourcing success: A process perspective. *Information and Management, 45,* 31-42.

Hansson, L., & Holmgren, J. (2017). Reducing dependency on special transport services through public transport. *Transportation Research Procedia, 25*, 2450-2460.

Haywood, L., Koning, M., & Monchambert, G. (2017). Crowding in public transport: Who cares and why? *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, *100*, 215-227.

Heitmann, S. (2011). Tourist behaviour and tourism motivation. Research Themes for Tourism. In P. Robinson, S. Heitmann, P. Dieke (Eds.), *Research Themes for Tourism* (pp. 31-44), Oxfordshire, UK: CAB International.

Henriksen, A., & Pedersen, P. E. (2007). The application of structural equation modelling in Information Systems Research. *ECIS 2007 Proceedings 35*, 1469-1480.

Hiamey, S. E. (2012). Challenges of hotel outsourcing in Ghana: A transaction cost perspective. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 2*(2), 1-10.

Hirschman, A. (1970). Exit, voice and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organisations and states. *Havard University Press, p. 176.*

Hiscock, R., Macintyre, S., Kearns, A., & Ellaway, A. (2002). Means of transport and ontological security: Do cars provide psycho-social benefits to the users? *Transportation Research Part D, 7*(2), 119-135.

Hosany, S., & Prayag, G. (2013). Patterns of tourists' emotional responses, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(6), 730-737.

Hosany, S., & Witham, M. (2009). Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(3), 351-364.

Hosmer, L. T. (1995). Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(2), 379-403.

Howe, K. R. (2009). Positivist dogmas, rhetoric, and the education science question. *Educational Researcher, 38*, 428-440.

Hussain, R., Al Nasser, A., & Hussain, J. (2015). Service quality and customer satisfaction of a UAE-based airline: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Air Transport Management, 42,* 167-175.

Huwer, U. (2004). Public transport and car-sharing benefits and effects of combined services. *Transportation Policy, 11,* 77-87.

International Fund for Agricultural Development (2009). *Calculating sample size.* Retrieved on 27/6/17 from http:www.ifad.org/hfs/tools/hfs/anthropometry/ant3.htm

Irtema, H. I. M., Ismail, A., Borhan, M. N., Das, A. M., & Alshetwi, A. B. Z. (2018). Case study of the behavioural intentions of public transportation passengers in Kuala Lumpur. *Case Studies on Transport Policy, 64*(4), 462-474.

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *9*(2), 256-262.

Jaapar, M., Musa, G., Moghavvemi, S., & Saub, R. (2017). Dental tourism: Examining tourist profiles, motivation and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *61*, 538-552.

Jacobsen, J. K. S., & Antonson, H. (2007). *Tourism routes in Sweden and abroad: Visions, concepts and planning criteria.* Oslo: Institute of Transport Economics.

Jang, S. C., & Feng, R. (2007). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management, 28*, 580-590.

Jen, W., Tu, R., & Lu, T. (2011). Managing passenger behavioural intention: An integrated framework for service quality, satisfaction, perceived value, and switching barriers. *Transportation*, *38*(2), 321-342.

Jokinen, J. P., Sihvola, T., & Mladenovic, M. N. (2017). Policy lessons from the flexible transport service pilot Kutsuplus in the Helsinki Capital Region. *Transport   Policy*,   1-11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tranpol.2017.12.004

Jones, M. A., & Suh, J. (2000). Transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Services Marketing, 14*(2), 147-159.

Josiam, B. M., Kinley, T. R., & Kim, Y.-K. (2004). Involvement and the tourist shopper: Using the involvement construct to segment the American tourist shopper at the Mall. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 11*(2), 135-153.

Josiam, B. M., Smeaton, G., & Clements, C. J. (1999). Involvement: Travel motivation and destination selection. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 5*(2), 167-175.

Kang, G. D., & James, J. (2004). Service quality dimensions: An examination of Gronroos's service quality model. *Managing Service Quality, 14*(4), 266-277.

Kao, M. C., Patterson, I., Scott, N., & Li, C. K. (2008). Motivations and satisfactions of Taiwanese tourists who visit Australia: An exploratory study. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 24*(1), 17-33.

Kek, A. G., Cheu, R. L., Meng, Q., & Fung, C. H. (2009). A decision support system for vehicle relocation operations in carsharing systems. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review, 45*(1), 149-158.

Kent, J. L. (2014). Carsharing as active transport: What are the potential health benefits? *Journal of Transport and Health, 1*(1), 54-62.

Khadaroo, J., & Seetanah, B. (2007). Transport infrastructure and tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *34*(4), 1021–1032.

Khan, S. A. R., Qianli, D., SongBo, W., Zaman, K., & Zhang, Y. (2017). Travel and tourism competitiveness index: The impact of air transportation, railways transportation, travel and transport services on international inbound and outbound tourism. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *58*, 125-134.

Kim, D., & Benbasat, I. (2003). Trust-related arguments in Internet stores: A framework for evaluation. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research, 4*(2), 49-64.

Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism Management, 46,* 465-476.

Kim, J.-H. (2010). Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 27*(8), 780-796.

Kim, J.-H. (2014). The antecedents of memorable tourism experiences: The development of a scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences. *Tourism Management, 44,* 34-45.

Kim, K., Hallab, Z., & Kim, J.-N. (2012). The moderating effect of travel experience in a destination on the relationship between the destination image and the intention to revisit. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 21,* 486-505.

Kim, K., Oh, I.-K., & Jogaratnam, G. (2007). College student travel: A revised model of push motives. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *13*(1), 73-85.

Kim, N.-Y., & Park, J.-W. (2016). A study on the impact of airline service delays on emotional reactions and customer behaviour. *Journal of Air Transport Management, 57*, 19-25.

Kim, S.-S., & Son, J.-Y. (2009). Out of dedication or constraint? A dual model of post-adoption phenomena and its empirical test in the context of online services. *MIS Quarterly, 33*(1), 49-70.

Kim, Y. K., & Lee, H. R. (2011). Customer satisfaction using low cost carriers. *Tourism Management, 32*(2), 235-243.

Klaperski, S., von Dawans, B., Heinrichs, M., & Fuchs, R. (2013). Does the level of physical exercise affect physiological and psychological responses to psychological stress in women? *Psychological Sport Exercise, 14*(2), 266-274.

Klein, N. J., & Smart, M. J. (2017). Millennials and car ownership: Less money, fewer cars. *Transportation Policy, 53*, 20-29.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling* (2nd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Korstanje, M. E. (2011). Rent-a-car industry: A case study in Argentina. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism, 6*(1), 271-280.

Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management, 23*(3), 221-232.

Krueger, R., Rashidi, T. H., & Rose, J. M. (2016). Preferences for shared autonomous vehicles. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies, 69,* 343-355.

Kucukusta, D., & Guillet, B. D. (2014). Measuring spa-goers' preferences: A conjoint analysis approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 41,* 115-124.

Kumar, R. (2005). *Research methodology: A-step-by-step guide for beginners.* London: Sage Publications.

Kuo, Y.-F., & Wu, C.-M. (2012). Satisfaction and post-purchase intentions with service recovery of online shopping websites: Perspectives on perceived

justice and emotions. *International Journal of Information Management, 32*, 127-138.

Kuo, Y.-F., Wu, C.-M., & Deng, W.-J. (2009). The relationship among service quality, perceived value, customer satisfaction and post-purchase intention in mobile value-added services. *Computers in Human Behaviour, 25*(4), 887-896.

Kwon, H., Ha, S., & Im, H. (2015). The impact of perceived similarity to other customers on shopping mall satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *1,* 1-6.

Lai, I. K. (2015). The roles of value, satisfaction, and commitment in the effect of service quality on customer loyalty in Hong Kong Style tea restaurants. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *56*(1), 118-138.

Lai, I. K. W., & Hitchcock, M. (2017). Sources of satisfaction with luxury hotels for new, repeat and frequent travellers: A PLS impact-asymmetry analysis. *Tourism Management, 60*, 107-129.

Lai, W., & Chen, C. (2011). Behavioural intentions of public transport passengers: The roles of service quality, perceived value, satisfaction and involvement. *Transportation Policy, 18*(2), 318-325.

Langviniene, N., & Daunoraviciute, I. (2015). Factors influencing the success of business model in the hospitality service industry. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 213*, 902-910.

Lawson-Body, A., & Limayem, M. (2004). The impact of customer relationship management on customer loyalty: The moderating role of web site

characteristics. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 9*(4), JCMC94. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2004.tb00295.x

Lawton, L. J. (2012). Dimensions of least satisfaction among protected area visitors. *Journal of Ecotourism, 11*(2), 118-131.

Lazov, I. (2017). Profit management of car rental companies. *European Journal of Operational Research, 258,* 307-314.

Le Vine, S., Zolfaghari, A., & Polak, J. (2014). Carsharing: *Evolution, challenges and opportunities*. In 22nd ACEA Scientific Advisory Group Report, 20ff. Available at https://www.acea.be/uploads/publications/SAG_Report_-_Car_Sharing.pdf. Retrieved, June 2016

Lee, J., Jin, B., & Ji, Y. (2009). Development of a structural equation model for ride comfort of the Korean high-speed railway. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics, 39*(1), 7-14.

Lee, T.-H., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19*, 732-751.

Lei, S. (2010). *Understanding leisure and travel motivations of frequent travellers with mobility impairments*. (Master's Thesis: Physical Education and Recreation), Indiana University. USA.

Leiper, N. (1990). Tourist attraction systems. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17*(3), 367-384.

Le-Klahn, D.-T., Gerike, R., & Hall, C. M. (2014). Visitor users vs. non-users of public transport: The case of Munich, Germany. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *3*(3), 152-161.

Le-Klahn, D.-T., Roosen, J., Gerike, R., & Hall, C. M. (2015). Factors affecting tourist's public transport use and areas visited at destinations. *Tourism Geographies, 17*(5), 738-757.

Le-Klahn, D-T., & Hall, C. M. (2015). Tourists use of public transport at destinations – a review. *Current Issues in Tourism, 18*(8), 785-803.

Le-Klahn, D-T., Hall, C. M., & Gerike, R. (2014). Analysis of visitors' satisfaction with public transport in Munich, Germany. *Journal of Public Transportation, 17*(3), 68-85.

Lew, A., & McKercher, B. (2006). Modelling tourist movements: A local destination analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research, 33*(2), 403-423.

Li, D., & Pang, Z. (2017). Dynamic booking control for car rental revenue management: A decomposition approach. *European Journal of Operational Research, 256,* 850-867.

Lim, Y.-J., Kim, H.-K., & Lee, T. J. (2016). Visitor motivational factors and level of satisfaction in wellness tourism: Comparison between first-time visitors and repeat visitors. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 21*(2), 137-156.

Lin, H.-H., & Wang, Y.-S. (2006). An examination of the determinants of customer loyalty in mobile commerce contexts. *Information and Management, 43*, 271-282.

Liu, C. H. S., & Chou, S. F. (2016). Tourism strategy development and facilitation of integrative processes among brand equity, marketing and motivation. *Tourism Management*, *54*, 298-308.

Liu, C. H. S., & Lee, T. (2016). Service quality and price perception of service: Influence on word-of-mouth and revisit intention. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *52*, 42-54.

Lumsdon, L., & Page, S. J. (2004). *Tourism and transport: Issues and agenda for the new millennium.* Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Lumsdon, L., Downward, P., & Rhoden, S. (2006). Transport for tourism: Can public transport encourage a modal shift in the day visitor market? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 14*(2), 139-156.

Mandeno, T. G. (2011). *Is tourism a driver for public transport investment?* (Master Thesis). University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

Mandhachitara, R., & Poolthong, Y. (2011). A model of customer loyalty and corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *25*(2), 122-133.

Maoz, D. (2007). Backpackers' motivations the role of culture and nationality. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*(1), 122-140.

Martin, E., & Shaheen, S. (2011). The impact of carsharing on public transport and non-motorised travel: An exploration of North American carsharing survey data. *Energies, 4*(11), 2094-2114.

Masiero, L., & Zoltan, J. (2013). Tourists intra-destination visits and transport mode: A bivariate probit model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *43*, 529-546.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*(4), 370-396.

Maxham, J. G. III, & Netemeyer, R. G. (2002). Modelling customer perceptions of complaint handling over time: The effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and intent. *Journal of Retailing, 78*(4), 239-252.

Maxham, J. G. III, & Netemeyer, R. G. (2003). Firms reap what they sow: The effects of employee shared values and perceived organizational justice on customer evaluations of complaint handling. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(1), 46-62.

Maxham, J. G. III. (2001). Service recovery's influence on consumer satisfaction, positive word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Business Research, 54*(1), 11-24.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust in management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 123-136.

Mazzocchi, M. (2008). *Statistics for marketing and consumer research*. London: Sage Publications.

McIntosh, R. W., & Goeldner, C. R. (1990). *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies.* New York: John Wiley.

McKercher, B., Guillet, B. D., & Ng, E. (2012). *Rethinking loyalty. Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(2), 708-734.

McKercher, B., Wong, C., & Lau, G. (2006). How tourists consume a destination. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(5), 647–652.

McKnight, D. H., Choudhury, V., & Kaemar, C. (2002). Developing and validating trust measures for e-commerce: An integrative typology. *Information Systems Research, 13*(3), 334-359.

Mensah, E. A., Agyeiwaah, E., & Dimache, A. O. (2017). Will their absence make a difference? The role of local volunteer NGOs in home-stay intermediation in Ghana's Garden City. *International Journal of Tourism Cities, 3*(1), 69-86.

Mensah, I. (2009). *Management of tourism and hospitality service* (1st ed.). Accra, Ghana: Woeli Publishing.

Mensah, I., & Dei-Mensah, R. (2013). *Management of tourism and hospitality services* (2nd ed.). Cape Coast, Ghana: Edsam Press Ltd.

Mensah, I., & Dei-Mensah, R. (2018). Effects of service quality and customer on repurchase intention in restaurants on University of Cape Coast Campus. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage and Services Marketing, 4*(1), 27-36.

Metz, D. (2012). Demographic determinants of daily travel demand. *Transportation Policy, 21*(1), 20-25.

Miedema, H. M. E. (2007). Adverse effects of traffic noise. In T. Garling, and L. Steg, (Eds.), *Threats to the quality of urban life from car traffic: Problems, causes and solutions*. Elsevier, Amsterdam.

Millard-Ball, A., Murray, G., Ter Schure, J., Fox, C., & Burkhardt, J. (2005). Carsharing: Where and how it succeeds. *Transit Cooperative Research Program Report 108.*

Miller, D. (Eds.). (2001). *Car culture.* Berg: Oxford

Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts, [MoTCCA], (2014). *National tourism policy document, 2013-2027*. Accra, Ghana: Author.

Minser, J., & Webb, V. (2010). Quantifying the benefits: Application of customer loyalty modelling in public transportation context. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of Transportation Research Board, 2144*, 111-120.

Mitas, O., & Bastiannsen, M. (2018). Novelty: A mechanism of tourists' enjoyment. *Annals of Tourism Research, 72*, 98-108.

Mohamad, M., Ab Ghani, N. I., Mamat, M., & Mamat, I. (2014). Satisfaction as a mediator to the relationships between destination image and loyalty. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *30*(9), 1113-1123.

Morfoulaki, M., Tyrinopoulos, Y., & Aifadopoulou, G. (2007). Estimation of satisfied customers in public transport systems: A new methodological approach. *Journal of the Transportation Research Forum, 46*(1), 63-72.

Morfoulaki, M., Tyrinopoulos, Y., & Aifadopoulou, G. (2010). *Estimation of satisfied customers in public transport systems: A new methodological approach*. Paper presented at the Journal of the Transportation Research Forum.

Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*, 48-76.

Moufakkir, O., & AlSaleh, D. (2017). A conceptual framework for studying recreational travel motivation from an Arab perspective. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *42*(4), 522-536.

Moutinho, L. (2007). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing, 21*(10), 3-44

Mouwen, A. (2015). Drivers of customer satisfaction with public transport services. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, *78*, 1-20.

Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2009). Tourism and sustainability: Development, globalization and new tourism in the Third World (3rd ed). London: Routledge.

Mulley, C., & Nelson, J. D. (2009). Flexible transport services: A new market opportunity for public transport. *Research in Transportation Economics, 25*(1), 39-45.

Murdy, S., Alexander, M., & Bryce, D. (2018). What pulls ancestral tourists' 'home'? An analysis of ancestral tourist motivations. *Tourism Management*, *64*, 13-19.

Mutanga, C. N., Vengesayi, S., Chikuta, O., Muboko, N., & Gandiwa, E. (2017). Travel motivation and tourist satisfaction with wildlife tourism experiences in Gonarezhou and Matusadona National Parks, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, *20*, 1-18.

Naidoo, P., Ramseook-Munhurrun, P., Seebaluck, N. V., & Janvier, S. (2015). Investigating the motivation of baby boomers for adventure tourism. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *175*, 244-251.

Nakamura, H., & Abe, N. (2016). Tourist decisions in renting various personal travel modes: A case study in Kitakyushu City, Japan. *Tourism Management*, *55*, 85-93.

Narayanan, A. (2012). A review of eight software packages for structural equation modelling. *The American Statistician*, *66*(2), 129-138.

Neher, A. (1991). Maslow's theory of motivation: A critique. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, *31*(3), 89-112.

Neuman, W. L. (2000). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Boston: Ally and Bacon.

Neuman, W. L. (2003). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (5th ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Ally and Bacon.

Nilplub, C., Khang, D. B., & Krairit, D. (2016). Determinants of destination loyalty and the mediating role of tourist satisfaction. *Tourism Analysis, 21*(2-3), 221-236.

Nordfjærn, T., & Rundmo, T. (2018). Transport risk evaluations associated with past exposure to adverse security events in public transport. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, *53*, 14-23.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nutsugbodo, R. Y. (2013). Tourists' perceptions of the quality of public transportation services in the Accra Metropolis: A SERVQUAL Approach. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 2*(4), 1-8.

Nutsugbodo, R. Y., Amenumey, E. K., & Mensah, C. A. (2018). Public transport mode preferences of international tourists in Ghana: Implications for transport planning. *Travel Behaviour and Society, 11*(1), 1-8.

Oliveira, B. B., Carravilla, M. A., & Oliveira, J. F. (2017). Fleet and revenue management in car rental companies: A literature review and an integrated conceptual framework. *Omega*, *71*, 11-26.

Oliver, R. L. (1977). Effect of expectation and disconfirmation on post-exposure product evaluations: An alternative interpretation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *62*(4), 480.

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decision. *Journal of Marketing Research, 17, 460-469.*

Oliver, R. L. (1981). Measurement and evaluation of satisfaction processes in retail settings. *Journal of Retailing, 57*(3), 25-48.

Oliver, R. L. (1992). An investigation of the attribute basis of emotion and related effects in consumption: Suggestions for a stage-specific satisfaction framework. In J. Sherry, & B. Sternthal (Eds.), *Advance in Consumer Research* (pp. 237-244). Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioural perspective on the consumer.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty. *Journal of Marketing 63*, 33-44.

Oliver, R. L. (2010). *Satisfaction: A behavioural perspective on the consumer* (2nd ed.). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, *39*(1), 78-84.

Otoo, F. E., & Amuquandoh, F. E. (2014). An exploration of the motivations of volunteering: A study of international volunteer tourists to Ghana, *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *11,* 51-57.

Ouellette, J. A., & Wood, W. (1998). Habit and intention in everyday life: The multiple processes by which past behaviour predicts future behaviour. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(1), 54-74.

Ozdemir, B., Aksu, A., Ehtiyar, R., Cizel, B., Cizel, R. B., & Icigen, E. T. (2012). Relationships among tourist profile, satisfaction and destination loyalty: Examining empirical evidence in Antalya region in Turkey. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 21*(5), 506-540.

Page, S. (2005). *Transport and tourism: Global perspectives*. Harlow: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Page, S. J. (2009). *Transport and tourism: Global perspectives.* (3rd ed.). London: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Page, S. J., Brunt, P., Busby, G., & Connell, J. (2001). *Tourism: A modern synthesis.* London: Thomson Learning.

Palese, B., & Usai, A. (2018). The relative importance of service quality dimension in E-commerce experiences. *International Journal of Information Management, 40,* 132-140.

Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS Survival Manual* (2nd ed.). Crows Nest: Allen and Unwin.

Palmer-Tous, T., Riera-Font, A., & Rossello-Nadal, J. (2007). Taxing tourism: The case of rental cars in Mallorca. *Tourism Management, 28,* 271-279.

Pan, J.-H., & Nguyen, H. T. N. (2015). Achieving customer satisfaction through product-service systems. *European Journal of Operational Research, 247,* 179-190.

Parasuraman, A., & Grewal, D. (2000). The impact of technology on the quality-value-loyalty chain: A research agenda. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1), 168-174.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithmal, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing, 49*(3), 41-50.

Paris, C. M., & Teye, V. (2010). Backpacker motivations: A travel career approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 19*(3), 244-259.

Park, K., & Park, J.-W. (2018). The effects of the servicescape of airport transfer amenities on the behavioural intentions of transfer passengers: A case study of Incheon International Airport. *Journal of Air Transport Management, 72*, 68-79.

Paudra, J., Rook, L., van Dalen, J., & Ketter, W. (2016). Preferences for car sharing services: Effects of instrumental attributes and psychological ownership. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 53*, 121-130.

Pazour, J. A., & Roy, D. (2015). Analytical rental vehicle threshold policies that consider expected waiting times for two customer classes. *Computers and Industrial Engineering, 80*(1), 80-96.

Pearce, P. L., & Lee, U. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of Travel Research, 43, 226-237.*

Peden, M., Scurfield, R., Sleet, D., Mohan, D., Hyder, A., Jarawan, E., & Mathers, C. (2004). *World report on road traffic injury prevention*. Geneva: World Health Organisation.

Petrick, J. F. (2002). Experience use history as a segmentation tool to examine golf travellers' satisfaction, perceived value and repurchase intentions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing 8*(4), 332-342.

Pew Research Centre (2014). Comparing Millennials to other generations. Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/topics/millennials/2014 on 19/10/2018.

Phillips, R. (1994). *Proceedings of the 16th IFIP Conference on system modelling and optimization* (Ed). J. Henry, Springer-Verlag, New York.

Pokryshevskaya, E. B., & Antipov, E. A., (2017). Profiling satisfied and dissatisfied hotel visitors using publicly available data from a booking platform. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 67*(1), 1-10.

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2011). The relationship between the 'push' and 'pull' factors of a tourist destination: The role of nationality – an analytical qualitative research approach. *Current Issues in Tourism, 14*(2), 121-143.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B., & Del Chiappa, G. (2017). Understanding the relationships between tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall image, satisfaction and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research, 56*(1), 41-54.

Prebensen, N. K., Woo, E., Chen, J. S., & Uysal, M. (2012). Motivation and involvement as antecedents of the perceived value of the destination experience. *Journal of Travel Research, 52*(2), 253-264.

Preston, J., & Raje, F. (2007). Accessibility, mobility and transport-related exclusion. *Journal of Transport Geography, 15*, 151-160.

Prideaux, B. (2000). The role of transport system in destination development. *Tourism Management, 21*(1), 53-63.

Prieto, M., Baltas, G., & Stan, V. (2017). Car sharing adoption intention in urban areas: What are the key socio-demographic drivers? *Transportation Research Part A, 101*(1), 218-227.

Qureshi, I., Fang, Y., Ramsey, E., McCole, P., Ibboston, P., & Compeau, D. (2009). Understanding online customer repurchasing intention and the mediating role of trust – An empirical investigation in two developed countries. *European Journal of Information Systems, 18*(3), 205-222.

Rabbit, N., & Ghosh, B. (2013). A study of feasibility and potential benefits of organised car sharing in Ireland. *Transportation Research Part D, 57,* 49-58.

Ramseook-Munhurrun, P., Seebaluck, V. N., & Naidoo, P. (2015). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, perceived value, tourist

satisfaction and loyalty: Case of Mauritius. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 175*, 252-259.

Ramsey, A. M. (1925). The speed of the Roman Imperial post. *The Journal of Roman Studies, 15*(1), 60-74.

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Dahalan, N., & Jaafar, M. (2016). Tourists' perceived value and satisfaction in a community-based homestay in the Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 26*(1), 72-81.

Raykov, T., & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modelling* (2nd ed.). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Redman, L., Friman, M., Garling, T., & Harting, T. (2013). Quality attributes of public transport that attract car users: A research review. *Transport Policy, 25*, 119-127.

Reichheld, F. F., & Schefter, P. (2000). E-loyalty: Your secret weapon on the web. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(4), 105-113.

Road Traffic Act, Act 683 (2004). *Road traffic act.* Accra, Ghana: Parliament of Ghana.

Rose, J. M., & Hensher, D. A. (2018). User satisfaction with taxi and limousine services in the Melbourne Metropolitan Area. *Journal of Transport Geography, 70*, 234-245.

Rowley, J. (2005). The four Cs of customer loyalty. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 23*(6), 574-581.

Rundle-Thiele, S. (2005). Exploring loyal qualities: Assessing survey-based loyalty measures. *Journal of Services Marketing, 19*(7), 492-500.

Sam, E. F., Hamidu, O., & Daniels, S. (2017). SERVQUAL analysis of public bus transport services in Kumasi metropolis, Ghana: Core user perspectives. *Case Studies on Transport Policy*, *6,* 25-31.

Sanchez, M., Gazquez, J. C., Marin, G. M., & Sanchez, R. (2007). Effects of service quality dimensions on behavioural purchase intentions. A study in public-sector transport. *Managing Service Quality, 17*(2), 134-151.

Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social research*, (3rd ed.). London: Macmillan.

Sato, S., Kim, H., Buning, R. J., & Harada, M. (2016). Adventure tourism motivation and destination loyalty: A comparison of decision and non-decision makers. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *8*, 74-81.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003). *Research methods for business students* (3rd ed.). London: Pearson.

Schaefers, T. (2013). Exploring carsharing usage motives: A hierarchical means – End chain analysis. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 47,* 69-77.

Schofield, P., & Thompson, K. (2007). Visitor motivation, satisfaction and behavioural intention: The 2005 Naadam festival, Ulaanbaatar. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 9*(5), 329-344.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modelling* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group.

Scott, D., Gössling, S., & Hall, C.M. (2012). *Tourism and climate change: Impacts, adaptation and mitigation.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Seebaluck, N. V., Munhurrun, P. R., Naidoo, P., & Rughoonauth, P. (2015). An analysis of the push and pull motives for choosing Mauritius as "the" wedding destination. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *175*, 201-209.

Seik, F. T. (2000). Vehicle ownership restraints and car sharing in Singapore. *Habitat International, 24*(1), 75-90.

Shah, R., & Goldstein, S. M. (2006). Use of structural equation modelling in operations management research: Looking back and forward. *Journal of Operations Management*, *24*(2), 148-169.

Shaheen, S. A., Mallery, M. A., & Kingsley, K. J., (2012). Personal vehicle sharing services in North America. *Research in Transportation Business and Management, 3*, 71-81.

Shaheen, S., & Schwartz, A. (2004). Policy considerations for carsharing and station cars: Monitoring growth, trends and overall impacts. *Transportation Research Record, 1884,* 128-136.

Shaheen, S., Cohen, A. P., & Chung, M. S. (2009). North American carsharing: 10-year retrospective. *Transportation Research Record, 2110,* 35-44.

Shaheen, S., Guzman, S., & Zhang, H. (2010). Bikesharing in Europe, the Americas, and Asia: Past, present, and future. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, *2143,* 159-167.

Shaheen, S., Sperling, D., & Wagner, C. (1999). A short history of carsharing in the 90s. *The Journal of World Transport Policy and Practice, 5*(3), 18-40.

Shahin, A., & Dabestani, R. (2010). Correlation analysis of service quality gap in Four-Star Hotels in Iran. *International Business Research, 3*(3), 40-46.

Shiftan, Y., Barlach, Y., & Shefer, D. (2015). Measuring passenger loyalty to public transport modes. *Journal of Public Transportation, 18*(1), 1-16.

Shook, C. L., Ketchen Jr, D. J., Hult, G. T. M., & Kacmar, K. M. (2004). An assessment of the use of structural equation modelling in strategic management research. *Strategic Management Journal*, *25*(4), 397-404.

Šimková, E., & Holzner, J. (2014). Motivation of tourism participants. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *159*, 660-664.

Slatten, T., Krogh, C., & Connolley, S. (2011). Make it memorable: Customer experiences in winter amusement parks. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 5*(1), 80-91.

Smith, A. K., Bolton, R. N., & Wagner, J. (1999). A model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. *Journal of Marketing Research, 36*(3), 356-372.

Smith, M., & Clarke, R. (2000). Crime and public transport. *Crime and Justice, 27,* 169-233.

Snepenger, D., King, J., Marshall, E., & Uysal, M. (2006). Modelling Iso-Ahola's motivation theory in the tourism context. *Journal of Travel Research*, *45*(2), 140-149.

Snoj, B., Korda, A. P., & Mumel, D. (2004). The relationships among perceived quality, perceived risk and perceived product value. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 13*(3), 156-167.

Song, H., van der Veen R., & Chen, J. L. (2012). The Hong Kong tourist satisfaction index. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1), 459-479.

Spears, S., Houston, D., & Boarnet, M. G. (2013). Illuminating the unseen in transit use: A framework for examining the effect of attitudes and perceptions on travel behaviour. *Transportation Research Part A, 58*, 40-53.

Stradling, S., & Anabele, J. (2008). Individual transport patterns. In R. D. Knowles, J. Shaw and I. Docherty (Eds). *Transport Geographies: Mobilities, Flows and Spaces,* (pp. 179-195). Oxford: Blackwell.

Stradling, S., Carreno, M., Rye, T., & Noble, A. (2007). Passenger perceptions and the ideal urban bus journey experience. *Transport Policy, 14*(4), 283-292.

Strauss, W., & Howe, N. (2003). *Millennials go to college: Strategies for a new generation on campus.* American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Washington, DC.

Stroud, C. B., Davila, J., & Moyer, A. (2008). The relationship between stress and depression in first onset versus recurrences: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 117*(1), 206-213.

Susilo, Y., & Cats, O. (2014). Exploring key determinants of travel satisfaction for multi-modal trips by different traveller groups. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 67,* 366-380.

Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P. E. (2006). Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management, 27*(4), 671-683.

Syratt, G., & Archer. J. (2012). *Manual of travel agency practice* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S (2010). *Using multivariate statistics* (7th ed.). Boston: HarperCollins.

Taher, S. H. M., Jamal, S. A., Sumarjan, N., & Aminudin, N. (2015). Examining the structural relations among hikers' assessment of pull-factors, satisfaction and revisit intentions: The case of mountain tourism in Malaysia. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, *12*, 82-88.

Tax, S. S., Brown, S. W., & Chandrashekaran, M. (1998). Customer evaluations of service complaint experiences: Implications for relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 62*(4), 60-76.

Teye, V. B., & Leclerc, D. (1998). Product and service delivery satisfaction among North American cruise passengers. *Tourism Management*, *19*(2),

Thomas, G. O., & Walker, I. (2015). Users of different travel modes differ in journey satisfaction and habit strength but not environmental worldviews:

A large-scale survey of drivers, walkers, bicyclists and bus users commuting to a UK university. *Transportation Research Part F, 34,* 86-93.

Tian-Cole, S., & Crompion, J. (2003). A conceptualisation of relationships between service quality and visitor satisfaction, and their links to destination selection. *Leisure Studies*, *22*(1), 65-80.

Toyoma, M., & Yamada, Y. (2012). The relationships among tourist novelty, familiarity, satisfaction, and destination loyalty: Beyond the novelty-familiarity continuum. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 4*(6), 10-18.

Tran, T., & Kleiner, H. B. (2005). Managing for excellence in public transportation. *Management Research News, 28*(11/12), 154-163.

Transport Cooperative Research Program. (2005). *Car sharing: Where and how it succeeds.* Transportation Cooperative Research Program Report 108.

Transportation Research Board (2002). *A guidebook for developing a transit performance-measurement system transit cooperative research program (Vol. 88).* Washington, DC: Transportation Research Board: United States Federal Transit Administration.

Transportation Research Board (2004). Transit capacity and quality of service manual. TRCP Report 100 (2nd ed.). *Transportation Research Board.*

Tse, D. K., & Wilton, P. C. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *25*, 204-212.

Tyrinopoulos, Y., & Antoniou, C. (2008). Public transit user satisfaction: Variability and policy implications. *Transportation Policy, 15*(4), 260-272.

United Nations World Tourism Organization. (2016). *Tourism highlights, facts and figures.* Madrid: Author.

University of Cape Coast, Cartography Section Unit (2018). *Map of Ghana.* Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *21*(4), 844-846.

Uysal, M., & Noe, F. (2003). Satisfaction in outdoor recreation and tourism settings. In E. Laws (Ed.), *Case Studies in Tourism Marketing* (pp. 140-158). London: Continuum Publisher.

Valle, P. O. D., Silva, J. A., Mendes, J., & Guerreiro, M. (2006). Tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty intention: a structural and categorical analysis. *International Journal of Business Science and Applied Management*, *1*(1), 25-44.

van de Schoot, R., Lugtig, P., & Hox, J. (2012). A checklist for testing measurement invariance. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 9*(4), 486-492.

van Lierop, D., & El-Geneidy, A. (2016). Enjoying loyalty: The relationship between service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioural intentions in public transit. *Research in Transportation Economics, 59,* 50-59.

van Lierop, D., Badami, M. G., & El-Geneidy, A. M. (2018). What influences satisfaction and loyalty in public transport? A review of the literature. *Transport Reviews, 38*(1), 52-72.

van Truong, N., & Shimizu, T. (2017). The effect of transportation on tourism promotion: Literature review on application of the Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) Model. *Transportation Research Procedia*, *25*, 3096-3115.

Voss, G. B., Parasuraman, A., & Grewal, D. (1998). The roles of price, performance and expectations in determining satisfaction in service exchanges. *Journal of Marketing, 62*(4), 46-61.

Wagner, C., & Shaheen, S. (1998). Carsharing and mobility management: Facing new challenges with technology and innovative business planning. *World Transport Policy Practice, 4*(2), 39-43.

Wang, H.-C., Pallister, J. G., & Foxall, G. R. (2006). Innovativeness and involvement as determinants of website loyalty. III. Theoretical and managerial contributions. *Technovation, 26*(12), 1374-1383.

Wang, K., Akar, G., & Chen, Y.-J. (2018). Bike sharing differences among Millennials, Gen Xers, and Baby Boomers: Lessons learnt from New York City's bike share. *Transportation Research Part A, 116*, 1-14.

Wang, M., Martin, E. W., & Shaheen, S. A. (2012). Carsharing in Shanghai, China. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of Transportation Research Board, 2319*, 86-95.

Wang, W., Chen, J. S., Fan, L., & Lu, J. (2012). Tourist experience and wetland parks: A case of Zhejiang, China. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(4), 1763-1778.

Wang, Y.-S., Tang, T.-I., & Tang, J.-T. (2001). An instrument for measuring customer satisfaction toward web sites that market digital products and services. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research, 2*(3), 89-102.

Weaver, D. B. (2012). Psychographic insights from a South Carolina protected area. *Tourism Management*, *33*(2), 371-379.

Westbrook, R. A., & Oliver, R. P. (1991). The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research, 18*(1), 84-91.

Willig, C. (2001). *Introducing qualitative research in psychology: Adventures in theory and method.* Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.

Willis, D. P., Manaugh, K., & El-Geneidy, A. (2013). Uniquely satisfied: Exploring cyclist satisfaction. *Transportation Research Part F, 18,* 136-147.

Wong, B. K. M., Musa, G., & Taha, A. Z. (2017). Malaysia my second home: The influence of push and pull motivations on satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *61*, 394-410.

World Health Organisation [WHO], (1948). *Health promotion: A discussion document.* Copenhagen: Geneva.

Wu, H.-C., Ai, C.-H., Yang, L.-J., & Li, T. (2015). A study of revisit intentions, customer satisfaction, corporate image, emotions and service quality in the hot spring industry. *Journal of China Tourism Research, 11*(4), 371-401.

Wu, H.-C., Cheng, C.-C., & Ai, C.-H. (2018). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, trust, corporate reputation, experiential satisfaction and behavioural intentions for cruise tourists: The case of Hong Kong. *Tourism Management, 66*, 200-220.

Wu, H.-C., Cheng, C.-C., & Hong, W. (2017). An assessment of zoo visitors' revisit intentions. *Tourism Analysis, 22*(23), 361-375.

Wu, H.-C., Li, M.-Y., & Li, T. (2018). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, experiential satisfaction, theme park image and revisit intention. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 42*(1), 26-73.

Wu, M. Y., & Pearce, P. L. (2014). Chinese recreational vehicle users in Australia: A ethnographic study of tourist motivation. *Tourism Management, 43,* 22-35.

Xiong, L., & King, C. (2015). Motivational drivers that fuel employees to champion the hospitality brand. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 44*(1), 58-69.

Yang, Y. (2010). *Analysis of public transport for urban tourism in China.* (Master of Arts in Transport Policy and Planning), The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.

Yin, C.-Y., Poon, P., & Su, J.-L. (2017). Yesterday once more? Autobiographical memory evocation effects on tourists' post-travel purchase intentions toward destination products. *Tourism Management, 61*, 263-274.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Yoon, T., Cherry, C. R., & Jones, L. R. (2017). One-way and round-trip carsharing: A stated preference experiment in Beijing. *Transportation Research Part D, 53,* 102-114.

Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, *26*(1), 45-56.

You, P-S., & Hsieh, Y-C. (2014). A study on the vehicle size and transfer policy for car rental problems. *Transportation Research Part E, 64,* 110-121.

Yüksel, A., & Yüksel, F. (2001). The expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm: a critique. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *25*(2), 107-131.

Zehrer, A., Crotts, J. C., & Magnini, V. P. (2011). The perceived usefulness of blog postings: An extension of the expectancy – disconfirmation paradigm. *Tourism Management*, *32*(1), 106-113.

Zeithmal, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioural consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 60*(2), 31-46.

Zhang, C., Juan, Z., Lu, W., & Xiao, G. (2016). Do the organizational forms affect passenger satisfaction? Evidence from Chinese public transport

service. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 94,* 129-148.

Zhao, J., Webb, V., & Shah, P. (2014). Customer loyalty differences between captive and choice transit riders. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of Transportation Research Board, 2415*, 80-88.

Zhou, B., Kockelman, K. M., & Gao, R. (2011). Opportunities for and impacts of carsharing: A survey of the Austin, Texas Market. *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation, 5*(3), 135-152.

Zikmund, W. (2000). *Business research methods* (5th ed.). Chicago: The Dryden Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Use of Car Rental Services in Ghana

August 2018

Dear Sir/Madam

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CAR RENTAL USERS

*This study is a PhD research questionnaire intended for car rental users. I would be most grateful if you would participate in the study by providing responses to the items below as best as you can. However, your participation is voluntary. This is a purely academic exercise and I can assure you of your anonymity and confidentiality. You may contact me on **0242229228** or **0209578250** or through my e-mail at **ricky.nutsugbodo@uenr.edu.gh***

Thank you.

Ricky Yao Nutsugbodo

MODULE A: MOTIVATIONS FOR USING CAR RENTALS

Instruction: Please tick [√] or fill the blank spaces where applicable

  1. Name of facility whose rental service(s) you have used.

   1. ....   3. ....
   2. ....   4. ....

  2. How long have you been using car rental facilities in Ghana?

   1. Below 6 months   [   ]   3. Above 1 year   [   ]

   2. 6-12 months [   ]   4. Others (specify): …………………………

276

3. How often do you use car rental services in Ghana?

    1. Almost daily   [   ]   3. Occasionally   [   ]

    2. Frequently   [   ]   4. Rarely or never   [   ]

4. What are your reasons for using car rental services?

    1. ....

    2. ....

    3. ....

    4. ....

5. Which of these activities did you use the car rental facility for?

    NB: Tick [√] as many as apply

	Purpose of Use	**Tick [√]**
1	Shopping trips	
2	Tourism/recreation activities	
3	Business purposes	
4	NGO related activities	
5	Visit friends	
6	Social trips (wedding/funerals)	
7	Research activities	
8	Educational activities	
9	Sporting activities	
10	**Others (please specify below)**	

6. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the statements below on the factors that influenced your choice of rental facility using the scale of 1 to 5, where SD = Strongly Disagree (1); D = Disagree (2); N = Neutral (3); A = Agree (4); SA = Strongly Agree (5).

	ATTRIBUTES	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
1	Comfort					
2	Convenience					
3	Safety					
4	Flexibility					
5	Time-saving					
6	Accessibility					
7	Affordability/pricing					
8	Availability					
9	Reliability					
10	Eco-friendly					
11	**Any other (please specify below)**					
	....					

7. What is your main motivation for using car rental services in Ghana?

   1. ....

   2. ....

   3. ....

   4. ....

8. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or otherwise with these statements on a scale of 1-5, where SD = Strongly Disagree (1); D = Disagree (2); N = Neutral (3); A = Agree (4); SA = Strongly Agree (5).

		RATINGS				
	MOTIVATION ATTRIBUTES	**SD (1)**	**D (2)**	**N (3)**	**A (4)**	**SA (5)**
1	Rental facility has modern vehicles					
2	Services are affordable					
3	Facilities are easily accessible					
4	Staff provide good service(s)					
5	Facilities have well trained drivers/staff					
6	Facilities have friendly service providers					
7	Prompt/timely delivery of service(s)					
8	Their vehicles are safe to ride in					
9	Facilities ensures privacy					
10	Their car rental facility is popular					
11	I have preference for their vehicles					
12	Get away from regular driving schedules					
13	To let go problems related to the use of public transport services					
14	Escape from the stress of driving					
15	To feel fulfilled/satisfied/content					
16	To show off or be seen fashionable					
17	To be chauffeured					
18	To give myself a treat/make oneself happy					
19	To have a luxurious experience					
20	Relieve of stress and anxiety associated with the use of public transport services					
21	Refresh or free my mind whilst travelling					
22	Rest from daily driving activities					

	MOTIVATION ATTRIBUTES	**SD (1)**	**D (2)**	**N (3)**	**A (4)**	**SA (5)**
23	Eyesight issues (sight)					
24	Hearing restrictions					
25	Ability to use the leg effectively					
26	Medical conditions (e.g. epilepsy, diabetes)					
27	Avoid physical and psychological fatigues					
28	Subjective symptoms (neck pain, low back pain)					
29	Present illness (hypertension)					
30	Use of medication/drugs					
31	Advanced age					
32	Attempt something new					
33	Discover something new					
34	Have a sensational experience					

MODULE B: SATISFACTION WITH SERVICES

9. Which aspect of the car rental service(s) were you most satisfied with?

   1. ....
   2. ....
   3. ....
   4. ....

10. Indicate the extent of your satisfaction with the following attributes of the car rental facilities on a scale of 1-5, where VD = Very Dissatisfied; D = Dissatisfied; N = Neutral; S = Satisfied; VS = Very Satisfied.

		RATINGS				
	SATISFACTION ATTRIBUTES	VD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	S (4)	VS (5)
1	Availability of varied vehicles					
2	Comfort/convenience					
3	Vehicle appeal					
4	Vehicle cleanliness					
5	On-board vehicle temperature					
6	Pricing of services					
7	Appearance of staff					
8	Ride smoothness/serene ride					
9	Dependable when handling complaints					
10	Availability of internet services in vehicles					
11	Availability of phone charging outlets					
12	Availability of complementary services					
13	Good signage and directions to offices					
14	Availability of disability friendly facilities					
15	Availability of well-trained drivers					
16	Availability of well-maintained vehicles					
17	Drivers complying with speed limits					
18	Safety on-board vehicles					
19	Adequate seating capacity					
20	Safety and security equipment on vehicles					
21	Adherence to road traffic regulations					
22	Staff promptness with service delivery					
23	Friendliness of staff					
24	Availability of skilful/experienced staff					

	SATISFACTION ATTRIBUTES	VD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	S (4)	VS (5)
25	Communication skills of staff					
26	Knowledge of staff on products/services					
27	Staff attendance to requests/complaints					
28	Staff courtesy and politeness					
29	Driver and client cordiality/relationship					
30	Trustworthy staff					
31	Interior and exterior cleanliness of the vehicles					
32	Cleanliness of car rental terminals/offices					
33	Neatness of staff					

MODULE C: OVERALL SATISFACTION/REUSE INTENTIONS

11. Please indicate your response to these statements.

	STATEMENTS	Yes	No
1	I will use this service instead of others		
2	Use the service again in the future		
3	Recommend using the service to friends and relatives		

MODULE D: TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS

12. Is this your first time using a car rental facility? 1. Yes   [   ] 2. No [   ]

13. If **No**, how many times have you used car rental services in the past?

    …………………………………………………………………………………

14. Which type of car rental facility did/do you use? **Tick [√] as many as**

    apply

    1. Saloon   [   ] 4. Pick-up   [   ]   7. Bus [   ]

    2. SUV   [   ] 5. Urvan   [   ]

    3. 4x4 cross country   [   ] 6. Coaster   [   ]

15. Did you at any point in time drive the rented vehicle personally?

   1. Yes   [   ]   2. No   [   ]

16. Did you use the service in a group?   1. Yes [   ]   2. No [   ]

17. If in a group, how many are/were you? ………………………......

18. Which of the following best describes your group (Choose one)?

   1. Partner/Spouse   [   ]   4. Association/Union   [   ]

   2. Friends   [   ]   5. Business colleagues   [   ]

   3. Family or relatives   [   ]   6. Any other specify: ……………………….

19. What were your key source(s) of information about this car rental service you

   have used? **Tick [√] as many as apply**

   1. Word of mouth   [   ]   5. Government Website   [   ]

   2. Newspapers/magazine [   ]   6. Friends and relatives   [   ]

   3. Internet   [   ]   7. Others (specify)………………….

   4. Television/radio advert [   ]

MODULE F: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

20. Nationality:………………………………………………………………….

21. Sex: 1. Male   [   ]   2. Female   [   ]

22. Age ………………………………….

23. Marital Status?

   1. Single   [   ]   2. Married   [   ]

24. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

  1. High school   [   ]

  2. College/Poly/University [   ]

  3. Post graduate   [   ]

25. What is your job status?

   1. Student   [   ]   4. Retired   [   ]

   2. Unemployed [   ]   5.Business person   [   ]

   3. Employee   [   ]

26. Religion?

   1. Christian   [   ]   3. Traditional   [   ]

   2. Muslims   [   ]   4. Others (specify) ………………………..

27. How would you assess your own financial situation?

   1. Very bad   [   ]   3. Good   [   ]

   2. Bad   [   ]   4. Very good   [   ]

   3. Good   [   ]

   4. Very good   [   ]

28. Monthly income level (Gh ¢)…………...…………...……………………

Thank you

APPENDIX B

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Telephone: 0503177979
Fax: 233-3321-34072, UCC, GH
Telex: 2552, UCC, GH
Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast
Email: htmd@ucc.edu.gh
Homepage: http://ucc.edu.gh/academics/view/3/department/32

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: SS/HMD/15/0001

11ᵗʰ June, 2018

Your Ref:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this note, **Mr. Ricky Yao Nustugbodo** is a PhD student of this Department who is collecting data for his thesis as part of the requirement for the award of PhD (Hospitality Management). His thesis topic is **"Motivation, satisfaction and reuse intentions of car rental services in Ghana."**

I shall be most grateful if you give him your utmost assistant and co-operation by providing him any information/data within your means. The data he is collecting is purely for academic purposes and, in any case, your anonymity is assured.

Thank you in advance for your anticipated co-operation.

PROF. KWAKU A. A. BOAKYE
HEAD

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY
AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

285