

**PREDICTING THE INTENTION TO IMPLEMENT GREEN PRACTICES BY SMALL  
AND MEDIUM SIZEDHOTELS IN CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO  
PROVINCE**

by

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## **ABSTARCT**

The purpose of this research was to predict the intention to implement green practice by small and medium sized hotels in the Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province. A quantitative approach was utilised. A self-administered questionnaire divided into 5 sections covering demographical data, green practice, and theory of planned behaviour (TPB) variables, organisational factors and individual factors was used for the collection of data from SMMEs managers and owners. The Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling(PLS SEM) was utilised for the analysis of data with a total sample of 403 managers and owners. The PLS SEM was used to assess the hypotheses of the study as well as the reliability and validity of the data. The findings of the study indicated that attitude, leadership behaviour, moral norms have a significant positive relationship with green practice intention. The other variables of TPB (subjective norm and perceived behavioural control), that is, organisational factors (pro-environmental organisational climate) and individual factors (response efficacy and environmental concern) have no relationship with green practice intention. Recommendations on how TPB variables, organisational and individual factors can best be used to improve the green practice intention of managers and owners of SMMEs was outlined. The mediation and moderation effects were also tested.

**Keywords:** Intention, green practice, SMMEs, TPB, organisational factors, individual factors.

## DECLARATION

I declare that **PREDICTING THE INTENTION TO IMPLEMENT GREEN PRACTICES BY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOTELS IN CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.



Masebe Proceed Lerato

6 June 2022

Date

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## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ATGPI-Attitude towards green practice intention

EC-Environmental concern

EU-European Union

GPB-Green practice behaviour

GPI-Green practice intention

LB-Leadership behaviour

MNs-Moral norms

PBC-Perceived behavioural control

PEOC-Pro-environmental organisational climate

SA-South Africa

SMMEs-Small medium and micro enterprises

SNs-Subjective norms

TRA-Theory of reasoned action

TPB-Theory of planned behaviour

USA-United States of America

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

There are serious environmental related problems the universe is facing; this includes air pollution, global warming, acid rain, waste disposal and water pollution (Steg, Bolderdijk, Keizer & Perlaviciute, 2014). According to Nheta and Tondani (2016), the key causes of global warming are known to be carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases (GHGs). Even though hotels have positive benefits, they are also linked to extensive natural resource use, significant waste creation, and high greenhouse gas emissions, all which have negative environmental consequences (Alipour, Safaeimanesh & Soosan, 2019). Due to rising stakeholder pressure, particularly from governments and customers, hospitality firms have begun to consider issues related to the environment. As a result, hotels are increasingly implementing green measures to decrease undesirable environmental effects and expenses, draw attention and keep guests, maintain a competitive advantage, and improve financial performance (Huang, Wang & Wang, 2015; Nheta & Tondani, 2016). However, many small and medium-sized hotels and lodges, mainly in developing countries, have not taken any initiative to decrease the damage they cause to the environment, regardless of the efforts done by certain parts of the industry (Nheta & Tondani, 2016).

Green practice and sustainability is a new area of focus that has become an important part of research in recent years. According to Alipour et al. (2019), currently green practices and sustainability are being considered by many businesses and industries when running their daily operations. Smith and Perks (2010) assert that the ways to utilise methods and products that will not negatively affect the environment by weakening the natural resources or through pollution are referred to as green practices. Given all these effects that the hospitality sector has on the environment, there is a considerable level of scepticism regarding the enduring consequences of these harmful effects on the environment, particularly the ones that relate to climate changes worldwide (Mbasera, Du Plessis, Saayman & Kruger, 2016). Despite the scepticism the indications are that there

is a need to create a zero net release of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere and for the hospitality sector to go green. The environment is impacted negatively by the activities of hotels and lodges. Therefore, pressure is exerted by government, customers and other role players on the tourism industry to strengthen businesses that are not harmful to the environment (Mbasera et al., 2016). Hotels are now going green because they want to protect the environment. They do so by taking into account the utilization of water conservation, energy efficiency, environmental management systems and waste management. Hotels are trying by all kinds of means to put in place a genuine sustainability practice as it has also been shown that green practice is an attractive system by which branding will be achieved. (Alipour et. al., 2019). Yilmaz (2014) states that pro-environmental behaviour by hotels and lodges is a crucial aspect of environmental management.

Theoretical models such as Value Belief Norm (VBN) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) have been used by researchers to examine managers' intentions to carry out green practices in hotels. However, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is the most commonly utilised theory for predicting green behavioural intentions and behaviours (Chen & Tung, 2014; Yilmaz, 2014; Wang, Fan, Zhao, Yang & Fu, 2016). Ajzen (1991) proposed the TPB as it states that an individual's intention to perform a specific behaviour determines whether or not that behaviour is performed. An individual's intention to behave in a certain way is influenced by three elements and these are (1) attitude (2) subjective norm (3) perceived behavioural control. The TPB argues that intention is a significant indicator in predicting the implementation of sustainable practices (Yilmaz, 2014; Chen & Tung, 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Huang & Ge, 2019). Despite the fact that the TPB is widely used to explain green behaviour, several studies have improved the theory's explanatory power through additional relevant variables or factors (Chen & Tung, 2014). This study intends to extend the TPB by adding two organisational factors (pro-environmental organisational climate and leadership behaviour) and three individual factors (moral norms, response efficacy and environmental concern) to develop a "predictive model of intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels".

## **1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

There is an increasing level of awareness in South Africa of the negative impact and the dangers that global warming and climate change could have on the country's rapidly growing tourism industry (Reddy, 2012). According to Huang et al. (2015), since 1980, a large number of studies have been done on how the transport industry causes global warming with regard to air travel services, yet the hospitality industry has received scant empirical attention with regard to the part it plays in global warming. Chan and Hsu (2016) point out that consumers environmental concern has encouraged an increasing niche market, specifically in the pro-environmental hotel industry. As a result, hotels and lodges have gradually started to accept sustainable environmental initiatives (Rahman, Park & Chi, 2015; Kang, Stein, Heo & Lee, 2012). Environmental issues are exacerbated by the actions of small, medium, and micro enterprise (SMME) hotels (Parker, Redmond & Simpson, 2009). However, research on green practices and initiatives have tended to focus on large hospitality firms and studies that examine green practices in the context of SMMEs are sparse (Boiral, Paillé & Raineri, 2015a).

Small firms in the hospitality industry function differently from big hotels. The solutions and findings of pro-environmental behaviour that produce the desired or intended results in bigger firms might not be relevant to smaller firms. The dependence on a single decision maker and limited resources are barriers, whereas fewer hierarchical levels, flexibility and informal communication styles are benefits. Both these barriers and benefits suggest that the pro-environmental behaviour of small hospitality SMME firms may not be the same as that of large firms (Boiral et al., 2015a). Marquart-Pyatt (2008) argues that one of the ways to better understand environmentalism worldwide is for scholars to explore investigations in a variety of contexts (for example, developed and developing countries, small firms and large firms). Thus, this study will explore “the intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hospitality firms in the Capricorn district”.

## **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of this study is to investigate the determinants of green practices by small and medium-sized hotels by extending the theory of planned behaviour.

## **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

In order to achieve the aim of this study, the following objectives were set:

- To investigate the impact of TPB constructs on the intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.
- To examine the effects of organisational factors (leadership behaviour and organisational climate) on the intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.
- To determine the effects of individual factors (moral norms and response efficacy) on the intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.
- To determine whether intention to implement green practices leads to behaviour in line with the TPB.
- To find out the mediating role of attitude on the relationship between environmental concern and intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.
- To find out the moderating effect of gender, age and level of education on the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.

## **1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS**

### **1.5.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)**

Ho1: there is no significant relationship between attitude and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha1: there is a significant positive relationship between attitude and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho2: there is a no significant relationship between subjective norms and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha2: there is a significant positive relationship between subjective norm and intention to implement green practices intention by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho3: there is no significant relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha3: there is a significant positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

### **1.5.2 Organisational factors and intention**

Ho4: there is no significant relationship between leadership behaviour and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha4: there is a significant positive relationship between leadership behaviour and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho5: there is no significant relationship between pro-environmental organisational climate and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha5: there is a significant positive relationship between pro-environmental organisational climate and intention to implement green practices intention by small and medium-sized hotels.

### **1.5.3 Individual factors and intention**

Ho6: there is no significant relationship between moral norms and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha6: there is a significant positive relationship between moral norms and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho7: there is no significant relationship between response efficacy and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha7: there is a significant positive relationship between response efficacy and intention to implement green practices intention by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho8: there is no significant relationship between environmental concern and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha8: there is a significant positive relationship between environmental concern and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho9: there is no significant relationship between environmental concern and attitude

Ha9: there is a significant relationship between environmental concern and attitude.

#### **1.5.4 Intention and behaviour**

Ho10: there is no significant relationship between intention to implement green practice and green practice behaviour.

Ha10: There is a significant positive relationship between intention to implement green practice and actual green practice behaviour.

#### **1.5.5 Mediation**

Ho11: Attitude does not mediate the relationship between environmental concern and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha11: Attitude mediates the relationship between environmental concern and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

#### **1.5.6 Moderation**

Ho12: Gender does not moderate the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha12: Gender moderates the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho13: Age does not moderate the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha13: Age moderates the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ho14: Level of education does not moderate the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

Ha14: Level of education moderates the relationship between TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and intention to implement green practices by small and medium-sized hotels.

## **1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

### **1.6.1 Green practices**

Practices that use methods and products in ways that do not damage the environment by the depletion of natural resources or through pollution are called green practices. Green practices comprise the maintenance of permits, water conservation, ensuring air quality, solid waste management, community awareness, energy conservation and ecological purchasing (Mbasera et al., 2016).

### **1.6.2 Hospitality and hotels**

Hotel Revenue Management (2020) defines a hotel as the place run with the intention to receive people as guests, where the buildings or premises have all things that are demanded by the guests such as bathrooms and numerous rooms with beds, cushions, and duvets. Discover Hospitality (2015) states that an organisation that welcomes people, enables them to enjoy themselves and make them feel relaxed is called hospitality.

### **1.6.3 Green hotels**

Hotels that render quality services but also attempt to be sustainable by utilizing water, energy and other materials efficiently are known as green hotels (Amandeep, 2017). Environmental friendly hotels that implement various green practices such as recycling and reusing the durable service items, conserving energy and water, and decrease solid waste to preserve the world in which we live are called green hotels (Green Hotel Association, 2012). Liu and Sanhaji (2010) identify the three areas of focus in green hotels as water conservation programs, energy conservation programs and waste reduction programs.

#### **1.6.4 Small, medium and microenterprises**

The number of workers can be a quantitative way to define a SMME. Micro enterprises, for example, employ between 0 and 10 workers. Small businesses employ between 11 and 50 workers. Medium firms employ between 51 and 250 workers (Government gazette, 2019).

#### **1.6.5 Intention**

According to Sommer (2011), "Intention shows the motivation of an individual's conscious plan to exert effort to perform the behaviour and it could be understood as an immediate antecedent to behaviour".

#### **1.6.6 Behaviour**

Behaviour is the manner in which a person conducts him/herself in relation to a specific situation. Behaviour in the context of environmentalism implies the actual behaviour of an individual or business to minimise or even improve the environment as much as possible (Steg & Vlek, 2009).

#### **1.6.7 Attitude**

Attitude is the way an individual makes a positive or negative judgement of the behaviour in question. Chen and Tung (2014) define attitude as a mental feeling and the favourable or unfavourable appraisal that is made as a person is involved in a particular behaviour. Individuals that have a positive attitude as an outcome of behaviour are favourably appraised and as a result, are expected to display a particular behaviour (Yilmaz, 2014).

#### **1.6.8 Subjective norms**

Subjective norms determine whether or not key reference persons or groups, such as family and friends, will disapprove or approve of a specific behaviour. Individuals are not influenced by people around them only, but they are also influenced by the groups or individuals that they consult regarding beliefs, behaviours, attitudes and opinions (Wang & Ritchie, 2012). Subjective norms simply mean depending on other people's opinions to perform a behaviour. Chan (2013) defined subjective norm as a modification in the person's feelings, attitudes, thinking or behaviour as a result of the impact of other people's influence.

### **1.6.9 Perceived behavioural control**

A person's belief that certain behaviour is under his or her control and the apparent difficulty or ease of carrying out a behaviour is known as perceived behavioural control. Choo, Ahn and Petrick (2016) also confirm that the difficulty or ease to carry out a certain behaviour is referred to as perceived behavioural control. The more the people have the ability to control their resources and the chance of conducting a certain behaviour, the greater the type of behaviour is expected to be engaged in (Chen & Peng, 2012; Chen & Tung, 2014). Elements of perceived behavioural control comprises of the possession of required skills or money and availability of time as well as the self-confidence in the persons' ability to implement the action.

### **1.6.10 Leadership behaviour**

Leadership behaviour refers to specific behaviours that leaders use to improve subordinates' satisfaction and performance. Qureshi, Qayyum, Nassani, Aldakhil, Abro and Zaman (2019) define leadership as a determining factor for encouraging and applying innovations, initiatives, changes or practices that make companies produce favourable results. Walker, Seuring, Sarkis and Klassen (2014) assert that leadership plays an important part in formulating the environmentally concerned business strategy that encourages pro-environmental behaviour.

### **1.6.11 Moral norms**

A moral norm is a command for acting, an order for a specific sort of behaviour, or a prohibition against performing specific activities (Machura, 2013). Moral norms are the rules of morality that individuals should follow. According to Juvan and Dolnicar (2014), people utilise either individual attribution or outward situational attribution as a reason for their behaviour as well as things influencing them.

### **1.6.12 Response efficacy**

Response efficacy is the extent of an individual's beliefs about how effective a response is in preventing a threat (Popova, 2012). Response efficacy refers to situations in which a person is of the opinion that a specific change in response will help to protect them and other people from the threat. The person's belief that an anticipated behaviour will succeed in eliminating threat is referred to as response efficacy (Almarshad, 2017).

## **1. 7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Research methodology is the general procedure followed in the research process that begins with the hypothetical foundation to the collection and analysis of information (Collis & Hussey, 2013). It comprises a description of the study area, research design, population of the study, sampling method, sample size, methods and procedures of collecting data, and methods of analysing data.

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the research design is a method for gathering, measuring, and analysing information, based on the questions of the research. Babbie and Mouton (2011) define the research design as a plan of how the researcher proposes to carry out the study. The model utilised in this research was summarised by the research design. The research method applied in the research is termed the quantitative research method with a causal research approach. The study area for this research was the Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province. It was the chosen area of choice because of the large number of SMME hotel establishments in the area. Therefore, this gave the researcher the essential information needed to conduct the study.

The population selected in this research study focused on SMME hospitality firms in the Capricorn district in the Limpopo province, where managers and owners were participants. The reason for selecting them is that they are the ones who come up with ideas in their businesses and implement them for their businesses to be profitable. The researcher did not know the population of the study for SMME hospitality firms in the Capricorn District Municipality. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), "the procedure of choosing the correct people, objects, or events as representatives for the whole population" is referred to as sampling. This research study used a non-probability sampling method. Because there is no sampling frame for SMME hospitality establishments in the study area, respondents were identified by means of convenience sampling.

The sample size consisted of a number of managers and owners selected from a wide range of SMME hospitality establishments in the study area through databases such as TripAdvisor, Trivago, and Hotel grading of South Africa. The recommendation of the 10-times rule is that the minimum sample size should be equal to or larger than (1) "10 times

the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct or (2) 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular latent construct in the structural model” (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2017:24). Peng and Lai (2012:469) contends that “the 10-times rule of thumb for determining sample size adequacy in PLS analyses only applies when certain conditions, such as strong effect sizes and high reliability of measurement items, are met”.

The instrument which was utilised to collect the data was the questionnaire. Questionnaires were self-administered and issued to all participants in the study through emails and they were given 1-2 months to complete the questionnaire. The researcher frequently contacted them through emails to remind them to fill in the questionnaire. These questionnaires were administered to the various participants, regarding the objectives and aims of the research. The questionnaire items were aimed towards "predicting the intention to implement green practices in small and medium-sized hotels".

The survey was conducted in the Capricorn district, Limpopo Province. After submitting the research proposal, together with a faculty approval letter and the questionnaire, the researcher received approval from Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) in the University of Limpopo. As soon as the researcher received approval, the formal arrangements were made to meet with the participants (owners or managers). The self-administered questionnaires were sent to the owners or managers of the sample of SMME hospitality establishments in the study area. Upon the questionnaire's return the completed ones were then examined or scrutinized at a later stage. The data was analysed after having counted the questionnaires. A cross sectional study was used.

Data was analysed using statistical methods, and the intention to implement sustainable practices by SMME hotels was analysed and calculated using percentages. In order to compute the standard deviation, mean, excess kurtosis and skewness of green practices, descriptive statistics were utilised to explain the demographic profiles of the respondents. The Partial Least Square Structured Equation Model (PLS-SEM) was utilised in this research to test the suggested structural relationships. The testing of causal relationships among multi-variables was done through the use of the above-mentioned multivariate statistical method called PLS-SEM. The benefit of PLS-SEM is its ability to measure the

relationship of model constructs instantaneously (Jang, Zheng & Bosselman, 2017). PLS-SEM was used in a wide range of challenges in the hospitality sector literature (Lee, Conklin, Cranage & Lee, 2014; Kang et al., 2012). Each construct's reliability was measured utilising the Cronbach's alpha. PLS-SEM was administered to assess the suggested relationships among the eight constructs as soon as the measurement model is validated.

### **1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

From a theoretical perspective, the research will contribute to knowledge by adding organisational factors as well as individual factors in the theory of planned behaviour in order to predict the intention, which, in turn, leads to behaviour. Empirically, the study is going to provide a clear understanding of the importance of fostering the intention to implement green practice. The results of this research will show whether organisational factors and individual factors are strategic tools that can positively affect “the intention to implement green practice in SMME hotels in Capricorn district, Limpopo province”. The results of the research will be relevant to hotel owners and managers. In addition, it will assist them to better understand factors that are linked with their context's level of green practice implementation. The researchers will also be able to use this study as a literature review for their studies.

This research predicts the intention to implement green practice in SMME hotels in the Capricorn district of the Limpopo Province in South Africa. This research focuses on SMME hotels in South Africa, a developing country where empirical studies on managers' intention to implement green practice are relatively few. The findings of previous empirical research on the intention to implement green practice are inconclusive. Empirical studies on green practice in hotels has, moreover, primarily focused on customers' intent to stay at sustainable hotels rather than on managers' intention to implement sustainable practice in their hotels. This research adopts a multidimensional measure green practice.

This research is significant, as it aims to fill the gap in the literature and will assist hotel managers or owners to predict their intention to apply sustainable practices. This research will confidently increase the competitiveness of firms. This study will add to the on-going research on green practices in hotels as well as stressing the importance of going green

in the hotel industry in South Africa. By predicting the intention to implement green practices in SMME hotels, the research will contribute to the body of knowledge that exists on the topic. The result of this study will provide hotel managers or owners with information they can use to attract customers to their businesses.

## **1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE**

There are six chapters in this study

### **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

This chapter introduces this research. It further highlights the study problem, the aim and objectives, and the hypotheses of this research. This chapter also deliberated on all the concepts related to this study. A brief research methodology was also given in order to highlight the procedures and methods followed in this research. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the importance of this research and describes the framework of the research.

### **CHAPTER TWO: A LITERATURE REVIEW ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT, SMMES AND TOURISM**

The chapter provides a discussion on sustainable development. It also focuses on Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs); both local and international definitions will be explained. Contributions as well as challenges will also be looked into. The tourism and hospitality industry also forms part of this chapter; hence both of them will be defined. The contribution of tourism will be discussed and the environmental challenges faced by the hospitality sector will also be discussed in this chapter.

### **CHAPTER THREE: A THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE DETERMINANTS OF GREEN PRACTICES**

The chapter outlines the theoretical and empirical framework of green practice intentions and the TPB as well as all its extensions. In addition, it discusses the practical literature to establish the deeper connection of the intention to apply environmental-friendly practices and TPB, and to construct the subsequent hypotheses.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter, the discussion is on the methods used in the research study. The focus is on the research design, the study's population, the sampling techniques; the data collection process followed in this research, and lastly, on the data analysis methods. This chapter also discusses the research instrument's reliability and validity. Moreover, the pre-test study and ethical considerations were also deliberated.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

The discussion in this section presents the overall outcomes of the research. The chapter further analyses the data collected in order to interpret the research outcomes. In addition, the analysis hypothesis testing is also discussed and why the researcher either accepts or rejects the proposed hypothesis.

## **CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The findings of the whole investigation were used to draw conclusions in this chapter. Deliberations are also presented regarding the suggestions of the research concerning its theoretical and empirical contributions, research techniques, the academic literature reviewed and business practices. Additionally, the constraints of the research and aspects for further research are outlined in this chapter.

### **1.10 SUMMARY**

The background of this study was illustrated by stressing the environmental challenges hotels face in the context of green practice and sustainability. In addition, the research problem, study questions, the aim and purposes of the research, and hypotheses were specified, indicating how the problem of the study will be addressed. Important research concepts were highlighted in this chapter. Lastly, the chapter outline was elucidated. The following section discusses sustainable development, green practice, small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) as well as tourism and hospitality.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT, GREEN PRACTICES, SMALL MEDIUM AND MICRO ENTERPRISES (SMMEs) AND TOURISM**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Environmental sustainability has turned out to be an important framework for considering socio-cultural and economic sustainability; however, it is also a subject for debating the concept sustainable development. Sustainable development refers to the growth that satisfies the needs of the present generations without having to compromise the future generations' capability to satisfy their needs. 'Going green' has become a vital ecological issue in modern business practice globally. To assist the implementation of green practices, businesses must look at the significant antecedents and drivers in their companies.

Economic growth and development in every country can be advanced through the significant part played by SMMEs. Economies are developed through tax provision, job creation and the contribution of employment to Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The importance of SMMEs is recognized worldwide. All the activities associated with tourism comprise of transportation and travel services, beverages and food services, accommodation, entertainment and recreation. Tourism can be defined as individuals going to and residing in areas that are different from their regular environment from a demand viewpoint.

This chapter analyses the key concepts, and compares and contrasts them to provide clarity on the subject. The first section discusses sustainable development. It covers a discussion on sustainable development. Sustainable development is a way of developing a country's economy by not harming the environment for the generations to come. In relation to economic development, environmental damage pays its price through deforestation, air and water pollution, soil erosion and land degradation. The damage created may exceed the benefits of having additional production of goods and/or services. The second section focuses on green practices. The third section covers the discussion on SMMEs; both local and international definitions will be explained in the study.

Challenges, as well as contributions, were explored. The last section covers the tourism and hospitality industry; both of which have been defined in this study. The contribution of tourism and hospitality are discussed, and the environmental challenges faced by the tourism and hospitality sector will also be discussed in this chapter.

## **2.2 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

Abubakar (2017) explains that sustainable development is the key concept in the universal development agenda and policy. Sustainable development offers a tool in which people can interrelate with the ecosystem without having to risk the future resources. Therefore, “it is a development paradigm as well as a concept that calls for improving living standards without jeopardising the earth’s ecosystems or causing environmental challenges such as deforestation and water and air pollution that can result in problems such as climate change and extinction of species” (Mensah, 2019:6; Browning & Rigolon, 2019).

Ben-Eli (2018:3) posits that ‘sustainability’ is a “dynamic equilibrium in the process of interaction between the population and the carrying capacity of its environment such that the population develops to express its full potential without producing irreversible adverse effects on the carrying capacity of the environment upon which it depends”. From this point of view one researcher carries on to say that ‘sustainability’ guides an individual’s activities and their capability to satisfy their wants and needs without having to exhaust or deplete the useful resources they have (Thomas, 2015). This, as a result, gives rise to opinions on the way that individuals must live their social and economic lives so that it leads to accessible environmental resources for human development. The concept of “sustainable development” has become the slogan in development dissertation, by being linked to various meanings, definitions and interpretations.

According to the Brundtland Report (1987), “sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. The concept of ‘sustainable development’ has played a significant role in policy-making since Brundtland released a report in 1987. According to Chang, Zuo, Zhao, Zillante, Gan and Soebarto (2017), the concept of sustainable societies which

appeared in 1974 can be linked to sustainable development. To fulfil the aim of sustainability, some worldwide political agendas have been established.

The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, as a result of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, sets three overarching goals and basic needs for global sustainability, i.e. “1) poverty eradication, 2) changing unsustainable patterns of production and consumption, and 3) protecting and managing the natural resource base of economic and social development”. Poverty alleviation is recognized by this document as “the greatest global challenge facing the world today and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development, particularly for developing countries” (Chang et al., 2017:50). *The Future We Want*, the final paper of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development held in Rio in 2012, restated the three overarching goals and basic requirements of sustainable development.

Yet, in growing literature, some practitioners, researchers and academics (Milne & Gray, 2013; Thomas, 2015; Tjarve & Zemite, 2016; Mensah & Enu-Kwesu, 2018) use the concept to propose the sustaining and refining of a healthy social, environmental and economic system for the development of humans. Hence, environmental sustainability has turned out to be an important framework for considering socio-cultural and economic sustainability, but also a topic for debate about the concept of sustainable development (Tomislav, 2018). With the vast majority of countries prioritizing economic growth over other pillars of sustainable development, it is clear that the other two (socio-cultural and environmental sustainability) have suffered, particularly with the environment's general health in a dangerously harmful state. Many countries agree with the Brundtland Commission's conceptual framework and desire to attempt to make a difference in their own countries, but it is challenging to translate these ideas about sustainability into concrete actions and programmes. Globally, implementing ‘sustainable development’ is still a problem, but progress has been made because to the Brundtland Commission's work (Cowan, Dopart, Ferracini, Sahmel, Merryman, Gaffney & Paustenbach, 2010; Changet al., 2017). The numerous structures of sustainability have emerged as a major priority for the business sector and all essential stakeholders in the many production chains, spurred by the increasingly pressing concerns voiced around environmental,

social, and economic challenges (Sancha, Wong & Thomsen, 2016). In this regard, the concept of organisational sustainability, which describes proactive behaviours targeted at contributing to sustainability equilibria, has received substantial interest from practitioners and researchers alike. Such equilibria pertain to the integration of socio-economic and environmental performance aspects, as well as underlying inter-relations within and throughout the time dimension while addressing the organisational system as a whole and its critical stakeholders (Lozano, 2012; Lozano, Carpenter & Huisingh, 2015). Nonetheless, not all SMMEs are able to achieve all three the factors or even have at their disposal the necessary resources to incorporate the three elements of sustainability as their mission and objectives (Goswami & Ha-Brookshire, 2015).

### **2.2.1 Social sustainability**

Social sustainability comprises descriptions of culture, community and society, and is gauged in the performance of the business in terms of corporate citizenship, donations, strategic philanthropy, and safety. Therefore, social sustainability requires businesses to participate in and grant additional duties to stakeholders and the society in which they run their daily operations (Ciasullo & Troisi, 2013; Høgevold, Svensson, Klopper, Wagner, Valera, Padin, Ferro & Petzer, 2015). Generally, the measurement of the social environment is through implemented measures, principles, and actions (Sy, 2016). SMMEs contribute to social sustainability in Africa, for example, by employing people with low levels of education and skills, as well as women from lower socioeconomic groups (Masocha, 2019).

### **2.2.2 Environmental sustainability**

Moldan, Janouskova and Hak (2012) state that the term 'environmental sustainability' as a component of sustainable development was presumably coined by the World Bank. Spence and Perrini (2010) define environmental sustainability as “a long-term perspective that aims to ensure that the economy can progress without damaging the environment”. The goal of environmental performance is usually to reduce the misuse of precious resources and the environment, as well as to reduce the development and operation of toxic substances, and to reduce pollution and the production of waste. Moreover, it is also

motivated by a desire to reduce dangerous substances, pollution, and waste (Zamfir, 2014; Kraus, Burtscher, Niemand, Roig-Tierno and Syrjä, 2017).

Vijfvinkel, Bouman and Hessels (2011) state that certain firms are gradually aware of the necessity to reduce ecological risks but the range of ecological initiatives they may assume is too wide. A limited number of companies have already made great progress in reacting to the environmental challenge, while others have a sluggish approach toward internalizing environmental challenges and are still driven by regulatory compliance and risk evasion (Jayeola, 2015). At the very least, being environmentally mindful in corporate operations should pay dividends. If long-term environmental sustainability is to be achieved, businesses should be rewarded for their efforts rather than receiving little or no value in return (Vijfvinkel et al., 2011). Some businesses concentrate on one area that they consider to be of greatest significance to them or where they have the most influence.

According to Natarajan (2012), the most common environmental sustainability measures include the Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI), the Ecological footprint (EF) and the Dashboard of Sustainability (DS). The ESI assesses how far countries have progressed in terms of environmental sustainability. It tracks a set of environmental, social, and institutional parameters that define and affect environmental sustainability at a national level as a composite index (Natarajan, 2012). An individual's or a population's ecological footprint is a measure of the resources required to generate the items they consume. Although data proposes that the EF falls short, it is utilised as an indicator of sustainability (Living Planet report, 2014). The DS is a free, unmarketable software tool that displays complicated links between environmental, social and economic problems. Shields and Shelleman (2020) state that “the software is designed to help developing countries to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and work towards sustainable development”.

### **2.2.3 Sustainable development goals**

The United Nations (UN) (2015) defined these goals as the plan to accomplish a healthier and more sustainable future for everyone. Some of the addressed problems we are facing worldwide include climate change, justice, inequality, peace, poverty and environmental degradation. According to UN (2015), “sustainable development goals and associated targets are integrated and indivisible, global in nature and universally applicable, taking

into account different national realities, capacities and levels of development besides respecting national policies and priorities”. Gabriela (2016) elucidates that the United Nations General Assembly approved the 2030 agenda for ‘sustainable development’ and the ‘17 goals of sustainable development’ together with 169 targets as a global and transformative development strategy on September 25, 2015. Lopes, Moreno-Pires and Costa (2020) indicate that it is this agenda as well as its objectives that the universal community is dedicated to accomplishing, namely, ‘sustainable development’ dimensions (environmental, social and cultural, and economic development). Sustainable development is achieved through these dimensions. The whole system is not sustainable when one of the pillars is weak (Purvis, Mao & Robinson, 2019).

Figure 2. 1: Sustainable development goals



Source: United nations (2015)

Figure 2.1 above depicts the 17 goals of sustainable development. The world faces major challenges which are included in the 17 goals of SDG. Abdou, Hassan, Dief and Moustafa (2020) point out that the main challenges in relation to tourism and hospitality industry are

goal numbers 6, 7, 12 and 13. Many green hotels have contributed to the achievement of these major environmental challenges. Sustainable development goal 8, 12 and 14 are linked to the tourism industry. Tourism might contribute directly or indirectly through its influence and spread over all the 17 goals (UN, 2015). SDG goal 6, 7 and 13 are closely related to this research. Few studies remark that the hospitality sector and tourism may contribute to achieving the sustainable development goals while market opportunities are developed (UN, 2015; Jones, Hillier & Comfort, 2014). This is in line with hospitality and tourism's contribution.

The previous section covered the discussion on sustainable development by various researchers and the description of 'sustainable development' by the Brundtland Commission Report. The discussion further included the three dimensions of sustainable development as well as the sustainable development goals. The next session will focus on the concept of green practices. Sustainability and green practices are closely linked concepts. Therefore, the researcher saw it fit to address them both as part of the study.

## **2.3 GREEN PRACTICES**

### **2.3.1 An overview of going green**

The extreme usage of natural resources caused by a quick growth in the economy has had a detrimental effect on the ecosystem and has raised several concerns for the environment (Qi, Shen, Zeng & Jorge, 2010; Panwar, Kaushik & Kothari, 2011). Many countries have come up with environmental regulations in order to preserve energy and decrease carbon emissions; the examples include limitations on the usage of particular hazardous, the sustainable development announcements of the Johannesburg World Summit's, as well as limitations on chlorofluorocarbons. Businesses had to implement pro-environmental practices in order to fit in with the new regulations on the environment. In the hope of sustaining and improving their competitive advantage and performance they also had to improve their environmental branding and images (Hillestad, Xie & Haugland, 2010)

According to Weng, Chen and Chen (2015), 'going green' has emerged as a vital ecological issue in modern firm practice globally. Over the past two decades coordinating green practice and methods of obtaining green abilities have increased attention and

pushed the discussion going forward (Schiederig, Tietze & Herstatt, 2012; Weng et.al., 2015). To assist the implementation of green practices, businesses must look at the significant antecedents and drivers in their companies. These comprise customers' concerns (Thøgersen & Zhou, 2012), business owners' preferences (Huang, Ding & Kao, 2009), the suppliers' capabilities (Chiou, Chan, Lettice & Chung 2011), government regulations (Qi et al., 2010) and the environmental, organisational and technological determinants of green practices (Lin & Ho, 2011). After having held a discussion of the overview of going green, it is vital to indicate how green practice is applied in businesses' globally. Below is the discussion of green practices in various countries.

### **2.3.2 Definitions and green practices**

Awaysheh and Klassen (2010) remark that green practice refers to the “strategies or activities executed by businesses to alleviate the impact on the environment”. Pollution has had an impact on every element of life on the planet (Dorantes, Fierro & Ruelas, 2018). It is important for hotels and lodges to sustain themselves by attracting the forces of the market, and this includes pro-environmental practices, as the competition is increasing on a global scale in the hospitality sector.

Dorantes et al. (2018) declare China as the most polluted country in the whole wide world, having contributed thirty percent (30%) of carbon dioxide emissions; while the United States is second with fifteen percent (15%) and Europe is in the third place with nine percent (9%). Conversely, Asian countries such as Japan and India were liable for roughly 4 and 7 percent toxic waste (Boden, Marland & Andres, 2017). The industrial sector is one of the major sources of pollution. Bradford (2015) showed that this was confirmed by the University of Utah in a study displaying that roughly 1.8m kg in resources are utilised yearly by organisations to satisfy the needs of a normal household in a country.

Mendon, Salins and Aithal (2019) point out that the United States Institute of cleaning showed a reduction of seven percent (7%) in greenhouse gas emission and also progress of approximately nine percent (9%) decrease in energy in the cleaning product from 2009 until 2017. Reasons for pro-environmental behaviour are considered as the most significant decision for buying behaviour in China. Various countries attempt to resolve the problems associated with pro-environmental decisions (Mendon et al., 2019). Various

schemes have already been introduced by the United Kingdom government to maintain ecological environments and to achieve the objective of reaching a target of reducing roughly 80% of carbon dioxide emissions in 2020 (Mendon et al., 2019).

The way we travel has already been changed by sustainable practices, which are part of our daily lives. New trends in the travel/ tourism sector and leisure activities are emerging all over the world. Customers' demands for corporate sustainability have driven the emergence of several environmentally friendly methods in the tourism industry over the past few decades. According to various authors (Dief & Font, 2010; Han, Hsu, Lee, & Sheu, 2011), corporate owners in a variety of areas have gone to great lengths to improve their business cultures/structures so as to care for the environment and change their present products/services to be more environmentally friendly.

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) (UNWTO, UNEP, WMO, 2012) reported that the hotel business accounts for around a quarter of all tourism-related carbon dioxide emissions. As tourists are increasingly worried about climate change, they are more inclined to choose an environmentally friendly hotel. An increasing number of hospitality firms have applied sustainable practices and environmental strategies (Han et al., 2011). This discussion was done globally; it is therefore significant to narrow it down to Africa. Below is the discussion of green practice in Africa. This will show whether African countries embrace green practice or not.

### **2.3.2.1 Green practice in Nigeria**

UNWTO (2015) asserts that 40% of the services trade is contributed by the hospitality and tourism industry. This industry contributed 1.7% (1,632.8 billion) to the aggregate gross domestic product in 2015 and 1.6% (651,000) of employment in Nigeria (UNWTO, 2015). The final result of the hospitality contribution to the environment was projected to increase the emissions of universal gas by 21%. Water and energy are the core resources that are utilised the most (Gössling, Hall & Scott, 2015).

In Nigeria, the hotel industry is growing quickly, and is causing distress with its repercussions on the environment (Muazu, Rashid & Zainol, 2017). Adesina and Ngozi

(2013) posit that “this attitude becomes an environmentally friendly issue for the industry because Nigerian hotels are beset with such environmental problems from the excessive utilization of available resources (water), waste disposal issues, noise, and energy issues”. The leading ecological problem of the hospitality industry and the country at large is refuse disposal; waste is generated when there is not enough space for it to be disposed of properly (Morakinyo, Iwuala, Nwoke & Ukomma, 2011).

Tourism involves travelling and staying in hotels, and ecological behaviour in hotels is seemingly the key concern for the achievement of sustainable growth, as it is a growing industry (Muazu et al., 2017). UNWTO (2015) tourism is increasing the revenue in evolving economies as it is a vital component of the worldwide economy. Conversely, Muazu et al. (2017) assert that several undesirable consequences go with the benefits gained. Nowadays, in numerous businesses, green practice is a broad issue that is being addressed (Muazu et al., 2017). As many businesses are now becoming concerned, they are moving their activities towards being ecologically friendly such as utilizing energy-saving bulbs. This has been suggested by the Commission on Energy Regulatory (2016) in Nigeria to explore energy conservation and water preservation.

#### **2.3.2.2 Green practice in Zimbabwe**

Zimbabwean hotels and lodges create plenty of waste and use a large amount of water and energy, which gives rise to their financial performance (Zengeni, Zengeni & Muzambi, 2013). This is similar to most hotels and lodges as shown by a research study that was conducted in Toronto between 1991-1993 which indicated that hotel waste contained 4.5% metals, 5.6% glass, 6.7% plastics, 11.7% cardboard, 25.3% paper and 46% food waste (Zengeni et al., 2013). Despite all the research and statistics in Zimbabwe, green tourism is still carried out at lower levels; however, as yet, no research has been conducted on green hospitality by the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (Zengeni et al., 2013).

#### **2.3.2.3 Green practice in Kenya**

Sibanda, Obange and Awuor (2017) state that Kisumu city, like many other developing cities in Kenya, is struggling with a rise in overflowing dumpsites, uncontrollable pollution from discarded disposal and waste generation. Cytonn (2016) and Murimi (2020) contend

that a contributing factor to the rising disposal charges of waste is an increase in waste caused by a growth in the hotel business, where numerous resorts, restaurants, lodges, hotels and restaurants are opening in the area. The extent and range of the effect that hospitality firms have on the environment suggest an urgent need to address this problem (Murimi, 2020)

Internationally, the greening of the hospitality sector and the utilization of different documentations, tools of green rating, green resorts emergence, lodges and hotels is increasing (Murimi, 2020). The researcher continues to indicate that new and existing hospitality firms' marketing businesses are now giving advice and reviews on where to discover the best green hotels around the world (Murimi, 2020). In Kenya, the hotel industry is slowly embracing green practices. Eco-tourism Kenya (2010) demonstrated that there has been pressure from many businesses that are pressuring tour operators and managers to obtain green certifications, and that if they do not, organisations will dissuade potential clients from doing business with them.

Nidumolu, Prahalad and Rangaswami (2009) indicate that numerous research studies on the hotel industry and environmental management have revealed how environmental management issues have an impact on the hotel industry's sustainability. Martineau (2011) conducted a research study more than a decade ago, which demonstrated that 90% of the visitors wish to stay in hospitality firms that are environmentally friendly. The majority of corporations consider the environment while selecting meeting locations. Other researchers found that international tourists along the Kenya Coast are prepared to pay a huge fee for a green hospitality firm (Mungai & Irungu, 2013). In addition, another researcher witnessed that the environmental management system and quality have favourable effects on the financial performance of lodges and hotels (Abou Kamar, 2013).

#### **2.3.2.4 Green practices in Tanzania**

Ihucha (2013) indicates that since gold earnings decreased significantly because of the lower value of gold in the world market, the tourism industry continued to be the biggest foreign earning entity in Tanzania. Qorro (2017) states that in 2015 Tanzania earned 2.01 billion USD in tourist arrivals which later increased by 11% in 2016 (with 2.23 billion USD). Sustainability of the overall hospitality firm and industry are the result of implementing

environmental management practices (Molina-Azorín, Claver-Cortés, López-Gamero & Tarí, 2009). The following support the previous statement: conservation of water (Molina-Azorín et al., 2009), sustainable buying (Bonilla-Priego, Najera & Font, 2011), social media and information sharing website (Deale, 2013), solid waste management (Ondieki, 2013) and energy saving (Oliver, Naar & Harris, 2015). The following discussion covers green practice in South Africa since a thorough discussion was made on green practice in Africa.

### **2.3.2.5 Green practices in South Africa**

The most compatible approaches to achieving sustainability are greening and tourism. South Africa has ecological regulations in place to offer guidance, while there are no particular laws and directions for the hospitality sector and tourism on going green. According to Lee, Wahid and Goh (2013), to achieve ecological compliance, the South African Government has put certain rules in place. Procedures on how government strives to encourage ecological sustainability with clearly defined objectives and goals to be achieved (The Waste policy, 2012; The Carbon Tax Policy, 2013). The government has indicated that to assure compliance with respect to the waste policy laws, the carbon tax laws and the renewable energy laws, they must be accountable and responsible to accomplish “sustainable development” and improve ecological governance (Leonard & Dlamini, 2014). In the case where one is found to be at fault for harming the environment, government demands that they make the party that is at fault to pay, ask for payment and reimbursement and/or restoration orders from the wrongdoers. The appropriate indicators differ according to the kind of certification, location factors as well as the geographical area (Green Globe Certification, 2013).

### **2.3.3 Green practices growth**

Buckley (2012) asserts that in the 1990s green practices had been growing in the hospitality industry for the last ten years. It gained considerable momentum, and continues to expand in significance and importance (Nicholls & Kang, 2012). The issue of green practices has turned out to be a topic of attention and investigation in the hospitality literature. Regardless of the considerable appreciation of its significance, studies concentrated on ecological practices in the hotel sector have been uneven (Jones

et al., 2014), resulting in vague study areas for hospitality researchers and practices for hospitality experts. Elucidating these two domains is important as a compromise confuses the growing nature of sustainable practices and might lead to failure to communicate effectively amongst interested parties; thus hindering productive and comprehensive contributions to green practices.

Stakeholder relations (Raub & Blunschi, 2014), financial benefits (Singal, 2014), and customer demand (Martínez & Del Bosque, 2013) are the three main foundations for applying environmentally-friendly practices that have been identified by researchers from different perceptions other than those who are in hospitality industry. The present focus is all about acquiring market benefits such as improved relations with shareholders (Esparon, Gyuris, & Stoeckl, 2014), whereas previously 'green practices' were primarily established as a method to decrease expenses (Hsieh, 2012). It has been found that consumers are interested in and take 'green practices' into consideration when assessing hotel businesses (Millar & Baloglu, 2011). Similarly, outcomes of the current Forbes survey (Bender, 2013) show that two-thirds of tourists highlight the significance of hotel greening.

Reducing waste, saving energy and preserving water are the main technical implementations of greening in the hospitality industry (Radwan, Jones and Minol, 2012). The application of greening in the hospitality sector differs according to external organisational factors such as environmental regulations, shareholder pressure, and internal business variables such as managerial attitudes and financial strength. The implementation of green practices corresponds with the existence of laws and strong shareholder pressure.

Explanations of green practice in the hospitality sector differ and are linked to various approaches. For instance, green practices are targeted towards reducing the effect on the environment by using ecologically preferred ways to utilise sustainable supplies and resources and to minimize waste (Myung, McClaren & Li, 2012). To report on the application of greening by accommodation outlets, Rahman, Reynolds and Svaren (2012) described these practices as caring for the environment, that is, running businesses in a manner that normally encourages environmental health, preserves energy, and

minimizes waste. In addition, there is a debate that sustainable practice is a general concept that covers matters such as pollution, sustainability, environmental effect, and resource management.

Green practices such as recycling or green-purchasing are activities that reduce a negative environmental effect. An eco-friendly hotel is a property with less effect on the environment, and is committed to different green practices such as minimizing solid waste, saving energy and conserving water. Although we are familiar with the significance of current meanings of green practices, our evaluation proposes that current meanings are widely based on the ideal and important nature of ecological practices. Consequently, this study attempts to develop a further practical meaning that reveals the present position of ecological practices in SMMEs and the hotel industry.

The section above discussed the concept of green practices. The discussion began by highlighting an overview of going green. In addition, the researcher used various researchers' explanations to indicate the meaning of green practices worldwide. Furthermore, the section included the discussion on green practices in Africa and South Africa. The last subsection discussed the growth of green practices. The next section will cover the context of this study, which is SMMEs. This section focuses on a thorough discussion of SMMEs in terms of local and international definitions. The section will further highlight the contributions of SMMEs and challenges faced by SMMEs. Lastly, the definition of tourism and hospitality industry applicable in this report will be given.

#### **2.4 INTERNATIONAL AND LOCAL DEFINITIONS OF SMMEs**

Whereas the significance of the informal sector and the SMME sector is recognised worldwide, defining an SMME is a thought-provoking task, as every country has its own meaning. Corporations vary according to their level of employment, sales and capitalisation. Therefore, explanations that use measures of size (for instance, profitability, sales, net worth and number of workers) when used for a single sector may cause all businesses to be categorised as small, whereas a similar size definition when it is applied to a different industry may cause a different outcome. According to the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO), the meaning of SMMEs is an important subject for developing strategy and execution; and it is dependent mainly on

the aim of the category. UNIDO usually guides nations to consider both qualitative and quantitative criteria for SMME explanations.

#### 2.4.1. Definition of SMMEs in the United States of America (USA)

A qualitative definition of SMMEs in USA refers to any organisation that is structured for turnover and primarily operates within its borders (United States Small Business Administration, 2015). Furthermore, the business should contribute to the economy by using material and labour to pay for taxes. A quantitative definition of SMMEs in the USA looks at the industry type. In manufacturing and non-exporting service firms, SMME is defined as an organisation with employees below 500, revenue is not applicable (United States Small Business Administration, 2015)

Table 2. 1: Quantitative definition of an SMME in the USA

	Manufacturing and non-exporting service firms	Exporting service firms		Farms
		Most	High value	
Number of employees	<500	<500	<500	<500
Revenue	Not applicable	<\$7m	<\$25m	<\$250, 000

**Source:** United States Small Business Administration (2015)

Table 2.1 above indicates that to define SMMEs in the USA we have to look at the type of industry the business operates. Moreover, revenue and the number of employees are also crucial in defining SMMEs in the USA. From the table, the first industry includes the manufacturing and non-exporting service firms, which appoints fewer than five hundred workers wherein the revenue is not stated. The second industry is the exporting service firms, which also employs fewer than five hundred workers and the revenue is below seven million dollars for most, while for high value firms the turnover is below twenty five million dollars. Lastly, farms employ fewer than five hundred workers as do the other industries, but the revenue is below two hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

### 2.4.2 Definition of SMMEs in the European Union (EU)

The EU definition of SMMEs takes into account different types of classifications, that is, workers, yearly sales and yearly balance sheet totals. According to the European Commission (2018), the classification of ‘medium-sized, small and micro enterprises’ consists of businesses that appoint two hundred and forty-nine employees, has yearly sales of below fifty million euros and/or an annual balance sheet total of below forty-three million euros.

Table 2. 2: The EU quantitative definition of an SMME

Company classification	Workers	Yearly sales (euros) in million	Yearly balance sheet total(euros) in million
Medium-sized	50-249	<50	< 43
Small	10-49	<10	< 10
Micro	0-9	<2	<2

**Source:** European Union (2018)

Table 2.2 above demonstrates that to define SMMEs in the European Union we have to look at the different types of categories, workers, yearly sales, and yearly balance sheet totals. Therefore, in medium-sized enterprises, the number of workers is less than two hundred and fifty, the yearly revenue is below fifty million euros and the balance sheet total is below forty-three million euros. In small firms, the number of employees is forty-nine, annual revenue and the total balance sheet is less than ten million euros. The last category is in micro firms where the number of employees is nine, annual turnover and the total balance sheet is less than two million euros.

### 2.4.3 Definition of SMMEs in Nigeria

The categories of SMMEs in Nigeria comprise the enterprise size, the number of workers, and assets not considering land and buildings (Small and Medium Enterprise Development Agency in Nigeria (SMEDAN), 2013). A quantitative definition of SMMEs in Nigeria is shown below.

Table 2. 3: Quantitative definition of an SMME in Nigeria

Enterprises size	Number of workers	Assets excluding land and building (naira)
Micro	<10	<5 million
Small	10-49	<50 million
Medium	50-199	<500 million

**Source:** SMEDAN (2013)

Table 2.3 above indicates that to define SMMEs in the Nigerian context one has to take into account the different sizes of the enterprise (micro, small and medium-sized enterprises), workers employed, and the properties (excluding land & buildings). Thus in micro firms, the number of employees is less than ten and the assets are worth less than five million naira. In small firms, the number of employees is more than ten but fewer than fifty and the assets are worth less than fifty million naira. The last category is medium-sized firms: the number of workers is between 50 and 199, and the assets are worth less than 500 million naira.

#### **2.4.4 Definition of SMMEs in Zimbabwe**

According to Magaisa and Matipira (2017), SMMEs in the Zimbabwean context focus on various sizes of the enterprise (micro, small and medium-sized enterprises), the number of workers, the total yearly sales, and the maximum gross value of assets (without immovable property). A quantitative definition of SMMEs in Zimbabwe is shown below.

Table 2. 4: Quantitative definition of an SMME in Zimbabwe

<b>Sectors or subsectors of the economy</b>	<b>Enterprise class or size</b>	<b>Total full - time equivalent paid employees</b>	<b>Maximum total annual turn over \$</b>	<b>Maximum gross value of assets (excluding immovable property) \$</b>

Tourism and Hospitality	Micro	5	30 000	10 000
	Small	30	500 000	250 000
	Medium	75	1 million	500 000
Transport	Micro	5	30 000	10 000
	Small	40	500 000	250 000
	Medium	75	1 million	500 000
Energy	Micro	5	50 000	10 000
	Small	40	500 000	1 million
	Medium	75	1 million	2 million

**Source:** Small Enterprise Development Corporation Bill, 2010

Table 2.4 above shows that to define SMMEs in the Zimbabwean context takes into account the different sizes of the enterprise (micro, small and medium-sized enterprises), number of employees, the total annual turnover, and maximum gross value of assets (excluding immovable property).

In the tourism and hospitality sector, micro firms have only five employees, the total annual turnover is thirty thousand dollars and the maximum gross value of assets are worth only ten thousand dollars. In small firms, the number of employees is more than thirty, the total annual turnover is five hundred thousand dollars and the maximum gross value of assets is worth only two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. In medium-sized enterprises, the number of employees is 75, the total annual turnover is one million dollars and the gross value of the assets is worth only five hundred thousand dollars.

In the transport sector, micro firms have only five employees, the total annual turnover is thirty thousand dollars and the maximum gross value of assets is worth only ten thousand dollars. In small firms, the number of employees is more than forty, the total annual turnover is five hundred thousand dollars and the maximum gross value of assets is worth

only two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. In medium-sized firms, on the other hand, the number of workers is 75, the total yearly turnover is one million dollars and the gross value of the assets are worth only five hundred thousand dollars.

In the energy sector, micro firms have only five employees, the total annual turnover is fifty thousand dollars and the maximum gross value of assets is worth only ten thousand dollars. In small firms, the number of employees is more than forty, the total annual turnover is five hundred thousand and the maximum gross value of assets is worth only two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. By comparison, in medium-sized firms the number of workers is 75, the total yearly turnover is one million dollars and the gross value of the assets is worth two million dollars.

**2.4.5 Definition of SMMEs in Kenya**

The Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development (Amendment) Bill, 2018 amended ‘section 7 of the Micro, Small and Medium Development Act, 2006’. The “amendment reclassifies the three enterprises which are micro, small and medium enterprises from the original Act” (Micro, Small Medium Enterprise Bill (MSME), 2018). The ancient Act utilised the next measure to describe what SMMEs are: “the number of people employed, the enterprise’s annual turnover, investment in plant and machinery for companies operating in the manufacturing sector, and investment in equipment for firms providing services” (MSME, 2009). Whereas the new explanation looked at“(1) investment in plant and machinery for businesses operating in the manufacturing of goods; (2) investment in equipment for enterprises providing services; and (3) an annual turnover of the enterprise” (MSME, 2018). A numerical definition of SMMEs in Kenya is illustrated below.

Table 2. 5: Quantitative definition of an SMME in Kenya

<b>Change in classification</b>		
	<b>MSME Act, 2006</b>	<b>MSME Bill, 2018</b>

kind of Enterprise	plant and machinery Investment	Equipment Investment	New category: Yearly Revenue
Medium	5(50M) to 10 crore(100M) KSh	2 (20M) to 5 Crore (50M) KSh	75 (750 M) to 250 (2500M) Crore KSh
Small	25lakh (2 500 000) to 5 crore (50M) KSh	10 lakh (M) to 2 crore(20M) KSh	5 (50 M) to 75 crore (750 M) KSh
Micro	25 lakh (2 500 000) KSh	10 lakh (1M) KSh	5 crore (50 M) KSh

**Source:** The Medium, Small and Micro Enterprises Development (Amendment) Bill (2018)

The above table explain that a medium firm is a business with a machinery and plant investment worth 250 million Kenyan shilling (KSh), 20-50 million KSh worth of investment in equipment with a yearly revenue of 750-2 million and 5 thousand KSh. In the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise Development Act of 2006, “medium enterprises employed more than fifty but less than hundred employees with an annual turnover between five million and eight hundred million Kenyan shilling” (MSME Bill, 2009).

A small enterprise is defined as a business with an investment in plant and machinery worth between two million five hundred thousand KSh and fifty million KSh, while between a million and twenty million KSh worth of investment is in equipment. The yearly revenue is between fifty million and seven hundred and fifty million KSh. The micro enterprises are defined as a business with an investment in plant and machinery worth between two million five hundred thousand KSh, while only a million KSh worth of investment is in equipment. The yearly revenue is between fifty million KSh.

#### **2.4.6 Definition of SMMEs in South Africa (SA)**

‘The National Small Business Act of 1996 as revised in 2003’, defines small business as “a separate business entity, with branches which consist of cooperatives and non-profit

organisations that are managed by one owner or more, primarily carried on in any sector of the economy”. To align with government policies small firms measure variations in the business sector and encourage persistence and durability. SMMEs are defined by categories such as small, medium and micro enterprises. According to the Government Gazette (2019), the aggregate yearly turnover and the aggregate full-time workers are added as proxies of SMMEs.

There have been changes in the definition of SMMEs in SA. ‘The National Business Act 102 of 1996’ used turnover and gross assets excluding fixed property, number of workers, and the size of the firm to define SMMEs. The Minister of Small Enterprise Development Lindiwe D. Zulu revised the ‘National Small Business Act no 102 of 1996’ in March 2019. Only two proxies are applied in the new definition, namely annual turnover (in total) and full-time workers (in total). The proxy that was removed from the definition was “the gross asset value (in total)” because it was too difficult to measure. The Government Gazette (2019) changed the classification of “very small enterprise” to “small enterprise” as it was deemed as inconsistent with global practices.

Table 2. 6: Quantitative definition of an SMME in SA

<b>Column 1</b>	<b>Column 2</b>	<b>Column 3</b>	<b>Column 4</b>
<b>Sectors or subsectors in accordance with the standard industrial classification</b>	<b>Size or class of enterprise</b>	<b>Total full -time equivalent paid employees</b>	<b>Total annual turn over (in million)</b>
Catering, Accommodation and other Trade	Micro	0-10	≤5,0
	Small	11-50	≤15,0
	Medium	51-250	≤40,0
Transport, Storage and Communications	Micro	0-10	≤7,5
	Small	11-50	≤40,0

	Medium	51-250	≤140,0
Electricity, Gas and Water	Micro	0-10	≤7,5
	Small	11-50	≤25,0
	Medium	51-250	≤80,0
Wholesale	Medium	0-10	≤20,0
	Small	11-50	≤80,0
	Medium	51-250	≤220,0

**Source:** Government Gazette (2019)

The table above shows that SMMEs are defined according to the different industry types. In the catering, accommodation and other trades, micro businesses are considered as businesses with a yearly turnover that is below or equal to five million rand and fewer than ten workers. Small businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to fifteen million rands and hire fewer than fifty employees. Medium-sized businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to forty million rands and hire fewer than two hundred and fifty equivalently paid workers.

Previously, the size of the business did not have an industry type, but in the new explanation, the firm's size is solely dependent on the industry type. The annual turnover and gross assets, and number of employees depends on the enterprise size, while previously the total turnover and the number of workers depended on the type of the industry. All this is applicable to the types of industry outlined in the above table.

In the transport, storage and communication sector, micro businesses are considered as businesses with a yearly turnover of ≤ 7, 5 million rands, and workers who are fewer than ten. Small businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to forty million rand and hire fewer than fifty employees. Medium-sized businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to one hundred and forty million rand and hire fewer than two hundred and fifty workers.

In electricity, gas and water, micro businesses are considered as businesses with a yearly turnover of  $\leq 7,5$  million rands and fewer than ten workers. Small businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to twenty five million rand and hire fewer than fifty employees. Medium-sized businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to eighty million rand and hire fewer than two hundred and fifty workers.

In wholesale, micro businesses are considered as businesses with a yearly turnover of below or equal to twenty million rands and fewer than ten workers. Small businesses have a yearly turnover below or equal to eighty million rand and hire fewer than fifty employees. Medium-sized businesses have a yearly turnover of  $\leq 250$  million rand and hire fewer than two hundred and fifty workers.

Previously, a medium-sized firm was considered a business with a turnover of four to five million rand and having hired between one hundred and two hundred workers depending on the industry type. On the other hand, gross assets were worth below two million rand; all this depended on the industry type as well. A business with a turnover below 2 million and 250 million rand, with a maximum of fifty workers is considered a small business. The Government Gazette (2003) pointed out that a micro firm was regarded as a business with fewer than five workers, a turnover below the VAT registration limit, and gross assets below one hundred thousand.

Firm size, industries, sectors, turnover, assets, and even employment all influence how SMMEs are defined, internationally and locally. SMMEs are classified in comparable ways throughout Europe, South Africa, and Nigeria. The company size, the number of workers, and the annual turnover (in total) are the three categories. SMMEs are classified according to their industry type in the United States. Plant and machinery investment and equipment investment have been added to the list of categories used to categorize SMMEs in Kenya. As a result, no commonly accepted definition of SMMEs exists.

There are significant distinctions in the descriptions of small and medium businesses in the literature. Different explanations and classifications of enterprises originate from international organisations, statistical agencies, and governments of independent countries, which do not show the variations between them. The similarity of the level and

nature of economic development is more random than the differences in SMME explanations. Small and medium businesses do not have a broadly acknowledged definition. Current standards have undergone numerous adjustments and are constantly being evaluated. Even among international organisations that meet as members of the same governments, there is no unanimity or proclivity towards approximation in terms of definitions. The statistical definition of small and medium firms is important for analysing economic performance within a country, between sectors, and across states. Therefore, it differs from one country to another, and frequently even between countries.

An analysis of different definitions of SMMEs from international and local perspectives demonstrates that reaching a consensus is extremely challenging. This indicates that universally there is no accepted definition of SMMEs. The definitions will continue to change depending on the country and the industry, as well as the size of the business, assets, and goods.

In developed countries like the European Union, SMMEs refer to small firms with a number of workers below 250 and an income below €50 million. In the USA, SMMEs are those firms with fewer than 500 workers and revenue below \$24 million. For developing countries (Africa included) like Angola, an SMME has a constraint of having fewer than 250 workers and a turnover of less than \$3 million. In South Korea, SMMEs refer to small businesses with fewer than 300 workers, whereas in Nigeria SMMEs are firms with a number of workers that does not exceed 100. In South Africa, SMMEs refer to small firms with fewer than 250 workers and an income of less than 50 million rand, depending on the industry. The most commonly used definitions are quantitative, focused on the revenue, size, assets and number of employees.

## **2.5 CONTRIBUTION OF SMMEs**

According to Peters and Naicker (2013), SMMEs were recognized by the government as one of the major means of creating and enabling the environment through world distribution needs and the creation of job opportunities. SMMEs, termed a small business, play a significant part in an economy. They can also be the main contributors to job creation, economic growth and innovation. Alert S.B.P (Small Business Project) (2014) state that similar to other growing countries, the South African socio-economic growing

strategy depends on utilising the capability of entrepreneurs and assisting SMMEs. The fact that SMMEs and entrepreneurship contribute to job creation and economic growth is supported in reputable literature (Eze & Okpala, 2015) with Craig Mitchell (2014) “conced[ing] that SMME growth and development may be the most potent way of bringing about sustainable development through reducing unemployment, and its concomitants, poverty and inequality in developing countries”. Other studies (Cant, Erdis & Sephapo, 2014; Real Economy Bulletin, 2017) suggest that SMMEs are at the vanguard of employment, economic growth and development, and the alleviation of poverty.

Godfrey Jacobs in an article written by Mohedeen (2019) adds that in SA, “the corporate sector has been shedding jobs over the past decade and the bloated public service has probably reached its maximum and will be under pressure to bring staffing numbers to more realistic levels”. These organisations have indeed increased the scope of challenges SMMEs have to deal with, such as tensions over race, lack of jobs and poverty, and so changing the economy and supporting positive residents’ national outlook across their behaviours.

### **2.5.1 Contributions of SMMEs to employment**

Furthermore, in 2015 it was reported that official small firms’ employment figures amounted to 5.8 million individuals compared to 3.6 million individuals hired by big firms (the Real Economic Bulletin, 2017). The failure of the public sector and large businesses to create jobs has resulted in attention shifting to entrepreneurship to deal with this problem in South Africa (Craig Mitchell, 2014). To support the numbers provided above, Business Unity South Africa (BUSA) (2019) also affirms that SMMEs generate sixty-five percent of employment opportunities, and that makes them the biggest sponsor of private employment in SA. These favourable accounts of SMMEs’ influence concur with results in international research.

According to Reginald and Millicent (2014) in SA, numbers indicate approximately 91% of formal business entities are SMMEs who bring roughly fifty-one to fifty-seven percent to the “gross domestic product” (GDP) as well as sixty percent in employment. Inverse numbers to these SMME statistics thus show how much South African businesses and state-owned enterprises bring to the economy. When it comes to calculating the

contributions of SMMEs, research conducted in Zimbabwe by Chikweche and Mujeyi (2015) postulates that the request for reputable national economic indicators such as figures of employment figures, GDP, or values of export particularly in growing nations, are still failing to capture and give truthful statistics about the SMME sector's contribution to the economy. Chikweche and Mujeyi (2015) praise the evaluation of SMME contributions to socio-economic development by utilising standards of measurement beyond the traditional axis levels of employment, including acknowledging the growing importance of the informal sector. Statistics South Africa (2013) shows that the informal sector hires roughly thirteen percent of the "labour force" (which is approximately 2.4 million). This contributes to the income of approximately 4.4 million of people who are unemployed and about 14.9 million grown-ups who are considered to be economically inactive. It is true that these statistics symbolise an important level of contribution to both economic and social growth in the country.

Table 2. 7: SMMEs' Contribution to employment creation in selected developed and developing countries

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Employment contribution</b>	<b>Unemployment Rate</b>	<b>Sources</b>
United States of America	±70%	8.4%	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2017; Trade Economics 2020
European Union	±70%	7.5%	World Trade Organization (WTO), 2016; Eurostat, 2019
Nigeria	25%	27.1%	Ibrahim and Shariff, 2016; Trade Economics, 2020
Kenya	50%	2.98	Statista 2020; Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), 2013

South Africa	65%	30.1%	Business Unity South Africa (BUSA), 2019; Trade Economics, 2020
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Table 2.7 above presents employment contributions and rates of unemployment in developed and developing countries. Both developed countries show high levels of employment contribution of ±70%, while in developing countries South Africa has the highest contribution, namely, 65%, followed by Kenya with 50% and lastly Nigeria with the lowest contribution of 25%. Examining the rate of unemployment it is still evident that developed countries are doing better compared to countries that are still developing with regards to curbing the unemployment rate. The rates for the USA and the EU are 8.7% and 7.5% respectively; whereas in developing countries, South Africa has 30.1% unemployment, followed by Nigeria with 27.1%. A decrease in the number of individuals working in agriculture and the formal sectors contributed to a decrease in total employment in South Africa (Statssa, 2020). During the same period, conversely, employment increased in the private households of the informal sector. Furthermore, 47.1 percent of young people who are 15 to 34 years of age are not employed.

**2.5.2 Contributions of SMMEs to Economic Growth and Development**

Alert S.B.P (2014) state that similar to other countries that are still developing, the South African socio-economic developing strategy depends on utilising the ability of entrepreneurs and assisting SMMEs. However, “the prior belief in SMMEs as engines of economic growth is challenged, primarily because no distinct evidence exists of the degree to which SMMEs deliver poverty alleviation, employment creation and economic growth”. Even if it is thus, in South Africa SMMEs are still considered an important part of the socio-economic development agenda. The public sector and big businesses have not been able to resolve big problems in the economy of the country and their promise to growing the socio-economic experiences of the people is suspect (Machirori & Fatoki, 2013).

SMMEs are widely acknowledged to have an important role in the economy, and this is according to numerous studies (Douglas, Douglas, Muturi & Ochieng, 2017; Magaisa &

Matipira, 2017). Research in the USA shows that regardless of the existence of big firms, SMMEs direct the economy (Edmiston, 2012). Lee, Herold and Yu (2016) state that ninety percent of international businesses are SMMEs that hire more than fifty percent of all workers in the private sector; whereas in Sweden 56% of economic wealth production is contributed by SMMEs. In one study done in India, it was evident that SMMEs positively affect economic growth through employment and reducing poverty (Nagaya, 2017). Similarly, it was reported that SMMEs behave as facilitators for the development of the Nigerian economy by increasing its economic growth (Bello, Jibir & Ahmed, 2018).

Despite the assertions that SMMEs are the main facilitators for economic growth (Turyakira, Venter & Smith, 2012), their influences on the economy continue to be unappreciated, discussed, and questioned (SEDA, 2018) in addition to being challenged and misinterpreted. Regardless of SMMEs' statistical account in the economy, there are studies available that confirm their impact on the growth of the economy (Fjose, Grünfeld & Green, 2010). SMMEs hamper rather than stimulate economic growth by drawing attention to limited resources from their bigger counterparts.

However, this opinion disregards the point that SMMEs truly depend on and use resources such as inexperienced employees considered additional and unproductive by the big firms, in order to yield goods and services. "It is oblivious to the fact that the presence of small business provides a conduit for the discovery of future managers of industry and entrepreneurs in communities". The above argument that SMMEs rather hamper than stimulate economic growth is contradicted by the prosperous "European Union economic block", where ninety-three percent of all businesses are small firms (Stanislous & Morna, 2012). On this basis the remedy being posited that big firms are instruments required for socio-economic growth, is questionable.

Table 2. 8: Contributions of SMMEs to GDP in selected developing and developed countries

Countries	Contribution to GDP	Sources

United States of America	44%	U.S Small Business Administration, 2019
European Union	55%	World Trade Organization, 2016
Nigeria	48%	Nigeria SME survey, 2017
Kenya	25%	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), 2013
South Africa	±57%	Reginald and Millicent, 2014

The table above indicates that as part of the countries that are still developing, South Africa plays a significant part in the economy as its SMMEs contribute ±57% to GDP, followed by Nigeria with 48% and lastly Kenya with the lowest contribution of 25%. In terms of African countries, this shows that South Africa is one of the fastest developing economies. In developed countries, in this case, the EU and the USA contribute 55% and 44%, respectively. SMMEs in Africa contribute to economic growth and development by increasing GDP, reduction of poverty and creating jobs. SMMEs account for more than 95% of all enterprises in the Sub-Saharan African region; they contribute fifty percent of GDP and sixty percent of job creation (Kamunge, Njeru & Tirimba, 2014).

SMMEs in South Africa account for approximately 57 percent of the country's GDP. When compared to other African countries, this is an average rate but a better contribution when compared to other developed countries. SMMEs contribute to employment and GDP by producing goods and services that customers will purchase, resulting in a higher standard of living and more investments (Onakoya, Fasanya & Abdulrahman, 2013).

Ninety percent of SMMEs are in the private industry and they contribute 75% of the GDP, which in turn improves the societal stability and standard of living (Tusubira and Nabeta, 2013). As a result, SMMEs contribute to an improved standard of living through employment, poverty alleviation, and job creation; as well as providing greater resource

mobilisation for guaranteeing smooth business operations, which leads to increased productivity, profitability, and employment.

### **2.5.3 Contributions to poverty alleviation and income inequality**

It can be argued that in terms of SA, when looking at the part that SMMEs play, two points must be considered: “the history of economic development in the country and secondly the application of limited measurement metrics that attempt to account for the SMME socio-economic impact”. During apartheid, SMMEs were on the margins of economic acknowledgement, and likely considered as an informal economy. The current state of things still continues even today. According to Buthelezi, Mtani and Mncube (2018:2), “Some of the high market concentration may be a result of the legacy of historic privileges, and some of it may be due to scale factors”. Tengeh’s (2013) study continue to show that, before 1994, black people who used to own their businesses were not included in business ownership and were controlled by law and social conventions. The Real Economic Bulletin (2017), if interpreted in another way, could be saying that the policies of apartheid meant the democracy of SA began with a little class of established small firms. The aforementioned viewpoint is supported by Craig Mitchell (2014) when he mentions “that even after the onset of democracy, not much changed in the local economic structure as SMMEs continue to experience economic exclusion from the mainstream economy as a result of distrust held by carryover apartheid institutions and the racially exclusive culture of business networks in the country”.

Furthermore, Cant et al. (2014) aver that SMMEs still do not have access to finance from commercial banks, and “are blocked from the mainstream economy through the setting up of industry standards that are unattainable” (Real Economy Bulletin, 2017). In many markets, strong oligopolies prevent SMMEs from growing since a few large firms dominate the competitive environment and create significant entry barriers (Urban, 2018). Consequently, SMMEs are propelled to go on to less secured sectors such as retail, trade, and business services.

Table 2. 9: SMMEs contribution to poverty alleviation in selected developed and developing countries

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Contribution to poverty eradication</b>	<b>Poverty rate</b>	<b>Sources</b>
USA	50%	11.8%	United State Census Bureau, (2018)
European Union	64.5%	29.1%	Eurostat 2020; European Commission, (2011)
Nigeria	30%	41%	Love and Roper, (2013) and Statista, (2020)
Tanzania	26.4%	26%	World Bank Tanzania (2019)
South Africa	42%	40%	Bureau for Economic Research (2016) and Living Condition Survey (2015) and Stats' SA (2019)

Table 2.9 shows the contribution of SMMEs to poverty alleviation as well as poverty rates in the USA, EU, Nigeria, Tanzania, and South Africa. In developed countries like the USA, SMMEs contribute 50% towards poverty alleviation, while in European countries, they contribute 64.5%. Developing countries like Nigeria contribute 30% towards poverty alleviation, while South Africa contributes 42%. SMMEs in developing countries show a low contribution towards poverty alleviation.

According to the World Trade Report (2013), the two categories of poverty are absolute and relative poverty. Absolute poverty refers to lack of resources to meet basic survival needs, that is, the lack of one or more characteristics that enable a person and households to accept basic duties and enjoy fundamental rights, and a lack of basic security. With respect to the economic condition of other members of society, relative poverty is defined as a lack of means to reach a standard of living that allows people to perform roles, participate in relationships, and live a life that is considered normative by the society to which they belong (World Trade Report, 2013).

In the case of Nigeria, SMMEs have had a particularly bad performance (Love & Roper, 2013). Cant and Wiid (2013) indicate that their poor performance has contributed to the country's poverty rate of 41%, as shown in the chart above, as well as to the county's low standard of living. The capacity of SMMEs has caused problems for Nigeria's existing challenges of unemployment, poverty and hunger (Subrahmanya, Mathirajan & Krishnaswamy, 2010). SMMEs are an important aspect of SA's solution to its high poverty rate since they provide jobs. In Alexandra, South Africa, researchers looked into the role of small businesses in alleviating poverty (Cant & Wiid, 2013). According to the findings, there is a link between poverty alleviation and the creation of SMMEs.

The World Trade report (2013) asserts that the role of the SMME sector as a driver of poverty reduction and economic growth has been accepted widely. Love and Roper (2013) proclaim that the contribution of SMMEs to national development is through a positive influence on income distribution in both nominal and functional terms. The South African government recognizes SMMEs as important to sustainable economic growth, poverty eradication, unemployment and income equality (Subrahmanya et al., 2010). Most SMMEs are situated in rural areas and are important in the establishment of employment for poor rural workers (Cant & Wiid, 2013). Ali and Ali (2013) advised that by creating jobs, SMMEs are an important component to address South Africa's high level of poverty.

## **2.6 CHALLENGES FACED BY SMMES**

### **2.6.1 Internal factors**

#### **2.6.1.1 Lack of entrepreneurial characteristics**

Most SMMEs do not have the necessary entrepreneurial abilities to improve their competitiveness and pursue investment opportunities (Sidik, 2012; Kazimoto, 2014; Chinonso & Zhen, 2016). Banks are also hesitant to lend money to SMMEs due to inappropriate managerial behaviour. Chinonso and Zhen (2016) state that SMMEs must develop the integrity of entrepreneurs through good business practices and financial management to boost their chances of obtaining loans. Islam, Khan, Obaidullah and Alam (2011) discovered that the increase in the success of SMMEs is promoted by entrepreneurial traits. Small business leaders must be more enthusiastic concerning their

products and services, as well as eager to get directly involved and adhere to their policies. SMMEs must develop strong business networks, which includes developing partnerships with government agencies. The manner in which business is conducted determines the outcome. Consultation, performance assessment, and inter-firm collaboration are also important for the success of the business (Sidik, 2012; Kazimoto, 2014).

#### **2.6.1.2 Lack of access to reliable information and use of technology**

One of the challenges facing SMMEs is the lack of adequate information. Kamunge et al. (2014) state that the challenge comes from a poor information environment, as well as from outdated communication infrastructures and technology and poor support systems in the business. Applicable and suitable technological systems such as software and hardware make it simple for firms to function effectively and efficiently where the services and processes of production run well as a result of easier and fast methods of operation. However, Benzing and Chu (2012) affirm that SMMEs have difficulties in accessing applicable technologies and information due to borrowed foreign technology which has been shared with other countries. Since payments are conducted using technological advancements such as electronic payments, this causes a conflict in business operations to access worldwide markets.

Ocloo, Akaba and Worui-Brown (2014) explain that due to the lack of technological communication tools such as emails, smart telephones and fax machines, SMMEs lack access to market information and do not know how to conduct online business transactions on the internet. Yoshino and Taghizadeh-Hesary (2016) proclaim that information technology has advanced significantly, and many customers now shop online utilising their tablets, smartphones and mobile phones. This is not the case with SMMEs. Mbonyane and Ladzani (2011) have shown that due to poor understanding of technology and the usage of internet for business transactions, SMMEs in South Africa have found it difficult to take advantage of these opportunities. It was found that in Japan, only 10% of SMMEs have websites and operate online, whereas 90% of homes had access to the Internet and mobile cellphones (Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, 2014; World

Bank, 2016). This puts Japanese SMMEs at the same disadvantage as South African SMMEs.

### **2.6.1.3 Lack of managerial skills and training**

Amra, Hlatswayo and McMillan (2013) reveal that the core cause of poor SMME performance (lack of managerial skills and training) in the local economy, as well as changes in the global economy, raises the essence and threshold of what has been termed "learning-led competitiveness" even higher. To solve the issue of competition, business owners must develop strategies aimed at enhancing individual employees' business skills and expertise. As a result, the importance of skills and training development is considered as critical for emerging SMME businesses to 'learn to grow.' Due to weaknesses in the education systems, in SA, SMMEs are faced with the problem of lack of managerial skills. As a result, ineffective company control systems and poor skills in leadership are among the other issues restricting SMMEs performance. Managerial abilities aid in generating a clear knowledge of the firm's vision and in providing directions. These skills can also help employees align with the company's vision and motivate them to perform. Management or leadership faults are some of the reasons for the failure of SMMEs. Some of the leading leadership faults that lead to business failures are miscalculating business time requirements, a lack of market awareness, going into business for the wrong reasons, a lack of financial responsibility, family pressure on funds and time, and an unclear focus.

### **2.6.1.4 Lack of access to finance**

SMMEs require a steady supply of cash to expand and develop, but they are limited by a lack of financial resources. Beck and Cull (2014) state that in comparison to other developed countries, where the problem is minor, most African countries consider financial support as the main problem that delays the expansion and operation of SMMEs. High rates of interest, security requirements and guarantees on loans make it tough for South African SMMEs to obtain funds from formal institutions (Muriithi, 2017). Shah, Nazir, Zaman and Shabir (2013) concur that banks often have a hard time lending to SMMEs since the costs of administering loans decrease their profits.

Many SMMEs in developing and developed countries are concerned about access to finance because financial institutions do not always provide SMMEs with adequate funds to help them expand and grow. SMMEs depend on friends and family for funding; this is unreliable and limits their ability to expand and grow their businesses (Haron, Said, Jayaraman & Ismail, 2013; Sitharam & Hoque, 2016). A study done in Tokyo revealed that many banks do not provide funding to SMMEs because financial institutions prefer granting money to big firms since they are well-established and have clear financial statements (Yoshino & Taghizadeh-Hesary, 2016). SMMEs in Uganda were found to be harmed by the difficulty to obtain financing from financial institutions and markets. Turyahikayo (2015) discovered that the majority of Ugandan SMMEs depend on informal financing sources such as family and friends. This results in a lack of long-term financing, growth, and greater investment opportunities.

#### **2.6.1.5 Poor management**

SMMEs in various parts of the world are confronted with internal challenges related to poor management. This is because many business leaders lack managerial experience. The majority of SMME owners lack the required experience, knowledge, training, and abilities to run their companies. Ramukumba (2014) indicates that SMME owners' management styles result in failure because they are motivated by short term goals with slight regard for strategic methods. Various aspects of mismanagement contribute to management failure. SMMEs are unable to manage marketing, human resources, credit, cash flow, finance, inventory, and accounting deficiencies, among other things. Businesses can run more successfully and smoothly when the manager has a good education, experience, and training. The management functions of planning, organising, leading, and controlling are critical to the sustainability and growth of SMMEs. Hence, Tusubira and Nabeta (2013) contend that SMME owners need to have the skills and knowledge of entrepreneurs, as well as qualified and competent workers, in order to manage their businesses effectively.

Poor managerial, human resource, and financial management skills were found to be barriers to the expansion of SMMEs in Iran (Arasti, Zandi & Talebi, 2012). SMME owners in South Africa do not have the necessary management skills that are associated with

marketing skills (Van Scheers, 2012). The research has shown that managers lack the funds and time to invest in marketing and managerial abilities to find out what it is that clients need or want. Most SMMEs face difficulties due to poor management. This is because the majority of SMME owners lack managerial experience. Owing to their inadequate management skills, SMMEs struggle to survive.

## **2.6.2 External factors**

### **2.6.2.1 Business development services**

Lekhanya (2015) maintains that states do not have adequate procedures in place to provision SMMEs and train owners on how to run their enterprises efficiently. Moos (2014) identifies business incubators and mentors as two types of business support services that can assist entrepreneurs in starting and running sustainable and successful firms. Consequently, Raiz (2014) asserts that the attention must be on developing the abilities of entrepreneurs rather than gaining access to capital. Raiz (2014) believes that rather than having access to cash, the focus should be on building entrepreneurial skills. Nevertheless, entrepreneurship experts point out that government involvement programmes have failed due to a lack of oversight, poor management and implementation, among other factors (Turton & Herrington, 2012).

### **2.6.2.2 Lack of government support**

Lack of support from government is among the issues that influence the success of SMMEs. Government's role in assisting and facilitating SMMEs is crucial globally. If the government does not pay attention to the SMME sector, it will suffer; SMMEs will not be able to survive. SMMEs face significant costs due to the processes and approvals required by various regulatory frameworks. Several researchers, for instance, Tvedten, Hansen and Jeppesen (2014), as well as Bouazza, Ardjouman and Abada (2015), discovered that unfair competition, unfavourable tax systems, cumbersome regulations, complicated laws, policies, the expense of complying with tax rates and regulations are all key obstacles to SMMEs' success.

The governments in Kenya and Nigeria have established strategies to promote SMMEs in the informal sector. They have also reduced interference in business operations, boosted credit facilities and increased credit facilities. SMME owners frequently lack

understanding of legal and regulatory issues, and as a result, they are subjected to fines and penalties. Due to the constraints of running a business in the country, most SMMEs are unable to enter the industry because of the labour regulations. Developing countries encounter legal and governmental challenges (Okpara, 2011). Furthermore, the new labour policies contain even more severe restrictions and laws than current labour policies, making it harder for SMMEs to grasp them and this subjects them to penalties. Complex regulations and processes, as well as red tape, were found to be obstacles to the growth of SMMEs (Al-Shanfari, Al-Said & Al-Busaidi, 2013).

### **2.6.2.3 High levels of crime and corruption**

Numbeo (2020) discovered that in comparison to other developing and developed countries, SA has a high rate of crime. In 2020, SA ranks third out of 133 countries in the world crime index with a crime rate of 77.29 percent. Xavier, Kelley, Kew, Herrington and Vorderwülbecke (2012) assert that the rate of corruption and crime is rapidly rising, poses a threat to an organisation's survival and growth. In SMMEs, corruption and crime are seen as a problem. For SMMEs, corruption means spending more money on non-business activities.

### **2.6.2.4 Inefficient government regulations**

It has been discovered that a challenging regulatory environment reduces the degree of entrepreneurial activity (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017). The second most challenging factor for running a firm in SA, after a poorly educated staff is preventive labour restrictions (Herrington et al., 2012). Small businesses face more challenges than large businesses in complying with government rules and regulations, and regulation impedes small business formation, job creation, and growth (Shane, 2014). Firms with high start-up expenses, such as registration requirements and licensing, may face excessive and unnecessary constraints (Kamara, 2017).

The Companies Act no.71 of 2008 governs business registration (World Bank's Doing Business in South Africa Report, 2015). Small business registration in SA also requires 6 processes and an average of fifty-three days. Moreover, post-registration also entails registering a business with the "Companies and Intellectual Property Commission" (CIPC) as well as the registration of the corporation for various taxes, such as corporate income

tax. Furthermore, employees must register with the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and the “Department of Labour for Occupational Injuries Compensation” (OIC). The lengthy procedure has a negative impact on the establishment and the sustainability of SMMEs, particularly micro and very small firms. Herrington and Kew (2013) indicate that SMMEs are frequently subjected to taxes and government regulations. Herrington, Kew and Mwangi (2016) and Nyamwanza, Paketh, Makaza and Moyo (2016) agree that rules and legislations are the most significant barriers to the growth of SMMEs in numerous countries that are still developing.

### **2.6.2.5 Competition**

Competition is another factor that is hindering the sustainability and growth of SMMEs. Competing with well-established enterprises remains a challenge on a local and worldwide scale (Urban and Naidoo, 2012). Chimucheka and Mandipaka (2015) assert that challenging factors such as financial support, competency, and poor human resource management delay the competitiveness of businesses in developing countries. Big firms regard the business’ strategies, products, brand and image as the major factors to achieve competitive advantage, whereas in SMMEs competitive advantage is identified through consistency and product quality (Islam & Karim, 2011).

## **2.7 TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY**

### **2.7.1 Definition of Tourism**

Due to its multidisciplinary nature, there is no consensus on how to define tourism (Yu, Kim, Chen & Schwartz, 2012). UNWTO (2010) indicate that tourism “comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes”.. Transportation, accommodation, travel services, food, recreation, beverage services, entertainment and recreation are all examples of activities related to tourism. From customers’ point of view, tourism refers to the actions of individuals traveling to and residing in areas outside of their typical environment. Travellers may visit for the day or stay for the night. Tourists require a variety of services and products, which are met by local businesses through, capital, material, and labour.

### **2.7.2 Definition of Hospitality**

The tourism industry's major segment is the hospitality industry. There is no universally accepted definition of hospitality, just as tourism. A commercial enterprise that provides lodging is described as hospitality (The Department of Labour of South Africa, 2016). Lodges, guesthouses, hotels, motels as well as bed and breakfast accommodation, pubs, restaurants, cafes and taverns all fall under this term. Discover Hospitality (2015) defined hospitality as “the business of helping people to feel welcome and relaxed and to enjoy themselves”. Hospitality can be studied from three perspectives, namely: commercial, social, and private (Golubovskaya, Robinson & Solnet, 2017). Profit is the driving force behind commercial hospitality. The supply of hospitality artifacts that are linked to traditions and cultural norms is the subject of social hospitality. Private hospitality refers to the welcoming of guests into private residences by hosts who are not motivated by monetary gain.

## **2.8 CONTRIBUTIONS OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY**

Globally, tourism has shown to be a significant sector in the economy in terms of job creation in both the informal and formal sectors, improving standards of living, and attracting foreign exchange. The sector also contributes to improving a region's or country's balance of payments, and to overall growth in economic activity. As a result of these factors, most developing countries have turned to tourism for economic growth (Kruja, Lufi & Kruja, 2012). Tourism has become increasingly vital in many developing countries. Hotels are a service-based industry that has made a substantial contribution to the economy's growth in the service sector. Reddy, Basha and Kumar (2014) assert that the industry contributes to income, job creation, and economic growth.

### **2.8.1 Contributions of tourism and hospitality to GDP**

At a macro level, the hospitality sector is anticipated to boost the economy through the generation of foreign exchange and increasing government revenue in various forms. In many economies of developing countries like Ghana, the hospitality industry is important, especially where the service sector is becoming more important and recognized. In recent years, the service sector's percentage contribution to GDP has fluctuated between 21% and 64% (Ampofo, 2020). One of the world's most important sectors is hospitality. It

encompasses various activities, comprising the hotel industry. The expansion of the service sectors has necessitated research into their marketing and operations.

Table 2. 10: Tourism and hospitality's contribution to GDP

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Contribution to G DP (Value)</b>	<b>Sources</b>
United States of America	10.4%	World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), 2019
European Union	9.5%	WTTC, 2019
Nigeria	1.6%	WTTC, Nigeria, 2014
Zimbabwe	11.7%	WTTC, 2012
Kenya	9%	Bitok, 2019
Tanzania	13.3%	WTTC, 2012
South Africa	8.9%	WTTC, 2018

Table 2.10 above shows the contribution of tourism towards GDP in the selected countries. The chosen countries include both developed and developing countries. Regarding the developed countries, USA is the highest with 10.4%, while the European Union is the lowest with 9.5%. Among the developing countries, Nigeria is the lowest, since it only contributes 1.6%, followed by South Africa with 8.9%. On the other hand, Kenya contributes only 9%, followed by Zimbabwe with 11.7%. The last country in the category of developing countries that contributes more than other countries is Tanzania with 13.3%.

### **2.8.2 Contributions of tourism and hospitality to employment**

On a local level, the hospitality business is supposed to facilitate revenue, income, and job creation by promoting development and, in turn, improve the citizens' quality of life.

As the world's biggest industry, tourism employed one out of every ten people in 2004, and one out of every eleven people in 2014 (UNWTO, 2014). The purpose of commercial hospitality is to satisfy guests and give them pleasure so that they repeat their visits. In SA, the hospitality industry makes a substantial contribution to economic growth and the creation of jobs. “The broad tourism industry including hospitality contributed 8.2% of total investment, 9.6% of total employment, and 8.9% of South Africa’s gross domestic product in 2017” (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018).

Table 2. 11: Tourism and hospitality’s contribution to employment

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Employment contribution</b>
United States of America	3.47%
Nigeria	1.77%
Zimbabwe	1.79%
Kenya	3.40%
Tanzania	3.44%
South Africa	4.53%

**Source:** World Travel and Tourism (2018)

Table 2.11 above depicts the contribution of tourism towards employment in the selected countries. The chosen countries include both developed and developing countries. The USA is the only one selected in the category of developed countries with a contribution of 3.47%. Shifting the focus to developing countries, Nigeria is the lowest, since it only contributes 1.77%, followed by Zimbabwe with 1.79%. On the other hand, Kenya contributes only 3.40%, followed by Tanzania with 3.45%. The last country in the category of developing countries that contributes more than other countries is South Africa with 4.53%.

## **2.9 ENVIRONMENTAL CHALLENGES OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY**

Although both the hospitality and tourism industries have positive contributions, they also have negative consequences such as high water and energy consumption, and greenhouse gas generation and emissions. Waste management, water conservation, and energy conservation are three of the most prevalent areas of sustainable environmental practice (Rahman et al., 2012). As a result, governments and customers have demanded sustainable or green hospitality. Sustainability is a key component of green hospitality's business model (Mbasera et al., 2016).

### **2.9.1 Energy**

Hotels and lodges use more energy than any sector in the tourism industry. Farrou, Kolokotroni and Santamouris (2012) point out that besides hospitals and shopping malls, hotels and lodges consume a great deal of energy. The main challenge facing the hospitality industry is the reduction of energy resources. Particularly, the hotel sector is connected with using more energy and as a result it is seen as the main producer of GHG (Cheung & Fan 2013; Lu, Wei, Zhang, Kong & Wu, 2013). The increasing number of tourists in the world unavoidably gives rise to more occupancy rates, rapid hotel development as well as greater utilization of energy (Reshma & Urmilla, 2014). Some studies shows that greater utilization of energy resources has then encouraged hotels to search for sustainable practices (Miao & Wei, 2013; Hsiao, Chuangb, Kuoc & Yu, 2014). Even though research studies have been conducted on the consumption of energy in the hotel sector, limited studies paid attention to measures used to conserve energy in the hotel sector (Reshma & Urmilla, 2014).

### **2.9.2 Air pollution**

Because the hotel sector consumes more energy, it then results in the release of detrimental gases and this leads to air pollution. According to Cheung and Fan (2013), UNWTO and WTTC formulated agenda 21 for the tourism and travel industry which recognizes GHG emissions and global warming as the key environmental challenges. In addition, several researchers are of the opinion that the tourism industry is the main cause of GHG emissions (Katircioglu, 2014; Sanyé-Mengual, Romanos, Molina, Oliver, Ruiz, Perez, Carreras, Boada, Garcia-Orellana, Duch & Rieradevall, 2014). Moreover, the

UNWTO, UNEP and WMO (2012) confirm that the tourism industry gives rise to GHG emissions globally by 5% and it is believed that this figure will grow significantly in the future.

The hotel sector is an essential part of the tourism industry. Globally, the hotel sector contributes almost 14.6 million accommodations with an estimated yearly growth rate of 3% in hotel rooms globally (Intercontinental Hotel Group (IHG), 2013). The increasing number of tourists in the world unavoidably gives rise to more occupancy rates, rapid hotel development as well as greater utilization of energy (Reshma & Urmilla, 2014). As such, the hotel sector cannot overlook its influence to GHG emissions (De Grosbois, 2012; Hsiao et al., 2014). These GHG emissions have an effect on the health of animals, plants and humans. Lack of indoor air quality (IAQ) as well as outdoor polluted air are connected to the comfort and level of stay and the health of tourists (Chan, Lee, Hon, Liu, Li & Zhu, 2015). Whenever visitors take a vacation to visit hotels and lodges, they want an environment that is comfortable.

### **2.9.3 Waste generation**

Waste generating is seen as one of the inevitable problems linked with urbanization. According to Mensah (2020), one of the main environmental problems faced by cities in countries that are still developing is waste management. This is amongst the major general challenges in the environment that always draw the attention of researchers, city administrators and policymakers. Kaza, Yao, Bhada-Tata and Van Woerden (2018) call attention to the World Bank having commissioned a report estimating that by 2050, tons of waste amounting to 3.40 billion is going to be created yearly across the world. It will increase dramatically from to date tons of waste amounting to 2.01 billion. This simply shows that city administrators will be battling with the challenge of waste generation.

Tourisms' biggest sub-sector is the hospitality industry; therefore, it absolutely has the largest effect on the environment (Mensah, 2020). Abdulredh, Al Khaddar, Jordan, Kot, Abdulridha and Hashim (2018) assert that the quantity of waste generation depends on the presence of waste management facilities, and type and size of the hotel. However, Radwan et al. (2012) opine that landfilling is seen as a key method for waste disposal as small hotels and lodges do not pay sufficient attention to their responsibilities to the

environment. Therefore, poor decision-making, lack of knowledge and funds have attributed to poor solid waste management by small firms (Malik & Kumar, 2012; Ghadban, Shames & Abou Mayaleh, 2016).

## **2.10 SUMMARY**

This chapter scrutinised the literature on the concept 'sustainable development', and gave overview of going green and green practice. The different types of SMMEs were described in this chapter, paying attention to the definition of local and international SMMEs, the contributions of SMMEs, and finally, the challenges faced by SMMEs. From this chapter it is clear that various countries around the world have various explanations for SMMEs but these explanations are somewhat similar. Lastly, the chapter also looked at how Tourism and Hospitality are defined, the contributions by tourism and hospitality firms, as well as the environmental challenges experienced or instigated by hospitality firms.

The literature reveals the importance of sustainable development and green practice. It also shows that SMMEs contribute positively to employment, poverty eradication, economic growth and development in a country. The literature has also identified challenges faced by SMMEs around the world, and classified these problems into external and internal factors. The following chapter will provide a thorough discussion of a theoretical and empirical literature review on the determinants of green practice.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE DETERMINANTS OF GREEN PRACTICES**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The first section in this chapter will focus on the theoretical literature of the study, which in this case is the TPB: the components are attitude, subjective norms (SN) and perceived behavioural control (PBC). In the second section, the empirical review will be covered. This is the part that extended the TPB in the form of organisational factors and individual factors. The organisational factors comprise leadership behaviour and organisational climate, whereas the individual factors comprise moral norms, response efficacy and environmental concern. The third section will discuss the moderating effect of demographic characteristics. These are characteristics such as the level of education, age and gender. Section five will cover the mediating variables and section six focuses on the summary of the chapter.

The first section of this chapter is the introduction of the theoretical and empirical literature review on the determinants of green practice. The next section is going to discuss the theoretical literature, which explains the theory that guides this study. The discussion starts with the stakeholder theory since it was the one that came into being earlier. The theory of reasoned action only looked at two aspects, namely attitudes and subjective norms, but it was later adjusted to the TPB by adding PBC.

#### **3.2 THEORETICAL LITERATURE**

##### **3.2.1 The stakeholder theory**

This work is based on the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). According to Parmar, Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Purnell and De Colle (2010), the concept “stakeholder” was used for the first time by the Stanford Research Institute in 1963 which is now referred to SRI international, Inc. The meaning of this word was to dispute the belief that shareholders are the only people that management must respond to with interest. Practitioners and researchers started working towards the end of 1970s and the beginning of 1980s to come up with theories in management to assist them in explaining

problems related to management, which included high levels of change and uncertainty. Moreover, since the study of Barnard (1938), little attention has been given to aspects of ethics in management or business. Management education was rooted in a quest for philosophies that accepted greater reliability, estimation and behavioural control.

According to Freeman (1984) and Freeman, Harrison and Wicks (2008), the word 'stakeholders' is elucidated as being people, groups and businesses which have an interest in the procedures and results of the organisation and on whom the business is dependent with regards to attaining its goals. Certain people, groups and businesses are simply clarified as 'stakeholders' due to their participation in the value-producing procedures of the organisation. This category comprises customers, employees, suppliers, managers, financiers and shareholders. Phillips (2003) affirms that the term legitimate stakeholders or primary stakeholders refers to the aforementioned stakeholders. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) on 'stakeholder theory' postulate that dealing with stakeholders comprises listening to their concerns and well-being at least.

Freeman (1984) and Freeman, Harrison and Wicks (2008) explain that 'stakeholder theory' encourages an empirical, logical, constructive and principled way to direct businesses in an environment that is extremely difficult and unstable. This is an empirical theory, as every business has to direct or control 'stakeholder' (Harrison, Freeman & Abreu, 2015). Various researchers have supported the use of stakeholder theory from different speculative viewpoints, comprising Kantianism (Evan & Freeman, 1988), the doctrine of fair contracts (Freeman, 1994), feminist ethics (Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman, 1994), the principle of common good (Argandoña, 1998), integrated social contacts theory (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1999), the principle of fairness (Phillips, 2003) and pragmatism (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar & deColle, 2010).

Prior studies focused on different elements that affect the innovation of green practice, such as environmental concerns, organisational characteristics and stakeholders' pressures (Guo, Xia, Zhang and Zhang, 2018; Borsatto and Amui, 2019). The study of Ha, Nguyen and Phung (2022) focused on and used Freeman's stakeholders' theory (1999) to discover the effect of organisational factors on green innovation. This study focused on using a combination of organisational and individual factors to extends its

theory in predicting the intention to implement green practices by small and medium sized hotels.

### **3.2.2 The Theory of Reasoned Action**

In order to clarify the association between attitude and behaviour, Ajzen and Fishbein developed the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which was initiated for the first time in 1967 (Tlou, 2009). According to Fishbein (1993), this theory came into existence due to the frustration emanating from repetitive failure in predicting behaviour from historical measures of attitude. This theory is rooted in the belief that people in their right minds make logical utilization of data accessible to them. Individuals think about the effects of their actions before making decisions that will enable them to carry out a particular behaviour or not. This theory was used in different populations, contexts and behaviours. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1977) outlined the connections amongst attitudes and behaviour, with “intention” as an important variable that reconciles this relationship (Hagger, 2019). A motivational variable that is regarded the most immediate driver of behaviour, is the primary component of the theory known as intention. Intention shows the degree to which a person intends to achieve something and puts in effort to do it. Attitudes and subjective norms are two belief-based variables that are used to define intention. TRA seeks to elucidate the association amongst attitudes, beliefs, intention and behaviour (Tlou, 2009). In this theory, behavioural intention is the instant determining factor of behaviour. Attitudes towards performing the behaviour are the undeviating determining factor of an individual’s behavioural intention and ‘subjective norms’ related to the behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980; Fishbein & Middlestadt, 1989; Montano & Kazprzyk, 2015).

A model which has the potential advantage to predict the intention to conduct a behaviour relating to a person’s normative and attitudinal beliefs is known as TRA (Southey, 2011). This theory elucidates behaviour by recognizing the key determining factors of behaviour and the bases of these determining factors, and by establishing the associations amongst these factors. Concerning TRA, encouragement, therefore, involves the influence of being exposed to a convincing message on beliefs regarding the conducting a behaviour, and via influences on the abovementioned beliefs on behaviour.

This theory was used by Bang, Ellinger, Hadjomarcou and Traichal (2000) to examine the relationship between beliefs and renewable energy awareness. In addition, several authors used TRA to study the use of water conservation in a residential area (Marandu, Moeti and Joseph (2010). Moreover, TRA was utilised to analyse attitude and subjective norm in internet banking (Shih & Fang, 2006). Furthermore, Lam, Cho and Qu (2007) studied “the links of IT beliefs, attitude and subjective norm self-efficacy, and behavioural intention towards the adaptation of technology in China hotel industry”.

### **3.2.3 The Theory of Planned Behaviour**

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) are the originators of a model called the Theory of Reasoned Action, which few years later led to the TPB as suggested by Ajzen in 1991. Yilmaz (2014) demonstrated that “the TPB model shows an individual’s performance of a specific behaviour is determined by his/her behavioural intention to perform the behaviour”. An individual’s attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control are the three components linked to the behaviour as determined in behavioural intention. PBC was added as a predictor of intention in TPB. PBC could ascertain the power of the intention-behaviour relationship in situations where people’s perceptions of control thoroughly indicate real control. Moreover, in order to account for factors that are external to a person’s control that might influence their intention and behaviour TPB added PBC to TRA (Ajzen, 1991). This addition was grounded on the impression that the performance of behaviour is determined by behavioural control or intention (Tlou, 2009). The difference between perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control must be clearly specified (Ajzen, 1991). According to Montano and Kasprzyk (2015), PBC denotes a person’s decision on how well he or she can conduct a behaviour under different circumstances; it is viewed the same way as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

Terry and O’Leary (1995) have distinguished these two concepts, whereas Ajzen (1985) and Ajzen and Madden (1986) failed to differentiate the aforementioned concepts. They believe that a measure of perceived control and a measure of self-efficacy are not the same thing. In trying to highlight the difference between TRA and TPB, one researcher proposed that intention might only be anticipated to predict an individual’s effort to conduct a behaviour, but not automatically its actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Although

TPB has been broadly used to explain green behaviour, numerous studies have improved the theory's explanatory power through additional relevant variables or factors (Chen & Tung, 2014). This study intends to extend the TPB by adding two organisational factors (leadership behaviour and pro-environmental organisational climate) and three individual factors (moral norms, response efficacy and environmental concern) to develop a model of "predicting the intention to implement green practices in hotels".

### **3.2.1.1 Attitude towards green practice and intention to implement green practices**

Attitude is the first determinant of behavioural intention. Ajzen (1991) describes attitude as the way that a person makes a positive or negative appraisal of the behaviour in question. Chen and Tung (2014) define attitude as a mental feeling and the favourable or unfavourable appraisal that appears as a person is involved in a particular behaviour. Individuals that have a positive attitude as the outcomes of behaviour are favourably appraised and as a result, are expected to take part in a particular behaviour (Yilmaz, 2014). Numerous researchers have seen that attitude is a vital precursor of every person's behavioural intention in different settings like the implementation of the consumption of green products (Yadav & Pathak, 2016a) and sustainable automobiles (Wang et al., 2016).

The environmental management of the hospitality firms is affected by the attitudes of owners towards pro-environmental behaviour. According to Lee, Kang, Choi and Olds (2020), the dedication towards pro-environmental behaviour is seen as a competitive advantage in organisations operating in the hospitality sector, it often leads to success in the long term. Huimin and Ryan (2011) opine that managers' attitude towards ecological behaviour of hotels and lodges is affected by the size of operations. From this study, it is clear that the only managers who are willing to implement green practices are those from big hospitality businesses because they have more resources at their disposal.

Conversely, because small and medium-sized hotels and lodges do not get enough pressure from stakeholders, they are still having challenges with regards to implementing ecological behaviour. Chan and Hawkins (2010) discovered that attitude positively impacts green practice intention. These results are the same as the outcomes of an empirical study, which showed that attitude has a positive significant relationship with

green practices intentions (Chen & Peng, 2012). However, the study by Chen and Chai (2010) found that attitude does not have a significant relationship with green practice intention. Therefore, in reference to the above empirical literature this study proposes that there is a significant positive relationship between attitude towards green practice and intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels.

### **3.2.1.2 Subjective norms and intention to implement green practices**

SN evaluates the chance that significant reference groups or persons, for example, family and friends will disapprove or approve of a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Individuals are not influenced by people around them only, but they are also influenced by the groups or individuals that they consult regarding beliefs, behaviours, attitudes and opinions (Wang & Ritchie, 2012). SN takes place when the person's behaviour, opinion and emotion are influenced by other people. Furthermore, it evaluates the effect of societal pressure on people, on whether or not to conduct a particular behaviour. Chan (2013) defined SN as a modification in the person's feelings, attitudes, thinking or behaviour as a result of other peoples' impact. Numerous researchers assert that there is a favourable link between SN and people's intention to conduct a behaviour (Han, 2015; Paul, Modi & Patel, 2016; Ko & Jin, 2017).

Several studies were undertaken years ago to analyse the association between SN and pro-environmental behaviour. Many prior studies have discovered the effect of SN on the intention to buy ecological products using the TPB (Wu & Chen, 2014; Yazdanpanah & Forouzani, 2017; Sreen, Purbey & Sadarangani, 2018). Prior ecological research proved that there is a positive link amongst SN and the intention to stay in ecological hotels (Suki & Suki, 2015), the intention to recycle (Tih & Zainol, 2012) and the intention to consume green products (Moser, 2015). Additionally, Yadav and Pathak (2017) discovered that there is a favourable association between SN and customers' intention to buy green products.

Although numerous results show the unswerving association amongst SN and intention, one study discovered that SN has a swerving influence on green practice intention as a mediating factor (Chen, Gregorie, Arendt & Shelley, 2011). Moreover, empirical studies by Chen and Peng (2012) and Verma and Chandra (2018) did not find a significant

positive relationship between SN and the intention to implement green practices. This means that the results between SN and ecological practice intention are inconclusive. Thus, this study proposes that there is a significant positive relationship between subjective norms and the intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels.

### **3.2.1.3 Perceived behavioural control and intention to implement green practices**

The apparent ease or difficulty of carrying out a behaviour is known as perceived behavioural control (PBC) (Ajzen, 1991). Choo et al. (2016) also confirm that the ease or difficulty to carry out a certain behaviour is referred to as PCB. However, factors such as knowledge, resource, opportunity, skill and time set are external; one may not be able to control them. Thus, the more people have the ability to control their resources and the chances to conduct a certain behaviour, the greater the type of behaviour is expected to be engaged in (Chen & Peng, 2012; Chen & Tung, 2014). Elements of perceived behavioural control comprises the possession of required skills or money and availability of time as well as self-confidence in the person's ability to implement the action (Kim & Han, 2010; De Freitas, Van Eeden & Christie, 2020).

Studies have been conducted to determine the association between PBC and pro-environmental behaviour in general. Considering the context of green consumers, Wang, Liu and Qi (2014) also conducted a study in China about "factors influencing sustainable consumption behaviours" and they came up with a hypothesis based on prior literature and established that the association between PBC and sustainable consumption behaviour is significant and positive. However, the study of Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker (2016) discovered that the association between perceived inconvenience and green products purchase intention is indirect. Likewise, Nguyen, Lobo and Greenland (2016) discovered an inverse relationship between the aforementioned variables.

Conversely, Ko and Jin (2017) showed that strong PBC often leads to a greater favourable green clothing products purchase intention. In contrast, the study of Arvola, Vassallo, Dean, Lampila, Saba, Lähteenmäki and Shepherd (2008) conducted an empirical study and found that there is no association between PBC and the intention to buy sustainable products. This phenomenon can be extended to sustainable hospitality firms. In the context of green hotels, empirical studies by (Chen & Peng, 2012; Chen &

Tung, 2014; Verma & Chandra, 2018) found that PBC has a significant positive link with the intention to implement ecological practices. In reference to the above arguments made by various researchers regarding the association amongst PCB and green practice intention from different contexts, this study concludes that there is a significant positive relationship between PBC and intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels.

The next section covers the empirical review. The discussion starts with the extensions made by different authors around the world in the context of green practice, pro-environmental behaviour and sustainability. It further discusses the extension of both organisational and individual factors employed in this study.

### 3.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

The TPB is flexible and can be broadened and expanded by the adding of different constructs considering that they advance the model's descriptive power (Ajzen, 1991). The purpose of the TPB's extended versions was to investigate the intention to implement green practices. Table 1 presents studies that have extended the TPB in the context of greening, pro-environmental behaviour and sustainability.

Table 3. 1: Studies that have extended the TPB in green practices

Author & Country	Title	Variable used to extent TPB	Summary of methodology	Findings
Chen and Tung 2014 (Taiwan)	“Developing an extended Theory of Planned Behaviour model to predict consumers’ intention to visit green	Environmental concern (EC) Perceived moral obligation (PMO)	Participants: 559 Model: SEM	The findings verify that the consumer’s attitude toward visiting green hotels and lodges is positively determined by his/her environmental concern. The

	hotels and lodges”			findings from this study also have several implications for the policy development and program implementation bearing on green hotels and lodges.
<b>De Freitas 2018 (South Africa)</b>	“Exploring and predicting South African consumers’ intended behaviour towards selecting green hotels and lodges: Extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour”	Perceived moral obligation (PMO) Anticipated regret (AR) Environmental knowledge (EK) Environmental concern (EC)	Participants: 402 Model: SEM	It was found that South African consumers’ intended behaviour towards selecting green hotels and lodges can statistically be best explained by all the variables used to extend the study within the TPB model respectively
<b>Shalender and Sharma 2021 (India)</b>	“Using extended theory of planned behaviour	Moral norm (MN) Environmental concern (EC)	Participants: 326 Model: SEM	It was found that even though the role played by MN is weak as compared to SN,

	(TPB) to predict adoption intention of electric vehicles in India”			it relates positively to intention to buy EVs. EC is positively related intention to adopt EVs.
<b>Wang, Wang, Wang, Li and Zhao 2018 (China)</b>	“Extending the theory of planned behaviour to understand consumers’ intentions to visit green hotels and lodges in the Chinese context”	Perceived consumer effectiveness (PCE) Environmental concern (EC)	Participants: 324 Model: SEM	The outcomes of this study showed that the connections amongst EC, PCE and attitude are all statistically and positively significant. Consumer’ attitude toward staying in ecological hotels is influenced by their EC and PCE.
<b>Zhang, Fan, Zhang and Zhang 2019 (China)</b>	“Extending the Theory of Planned Behavior to Explain the Effects of Cognitive Factors	Environmental concern (EC)	Participants: 223 Model: SEM	Estimated outcomes showed that TPB had significant influence on ecological products purchase

	across Different Kinds of Green Products”			intention. This simply means that all the components of TPB as well as the extended factors showed a positive influence to the intention to buying ecological products.
<b>Fatoki 2020 (South Africa)</b>	“Consumers’ intention to stay in green hotels and lodges in South Africa: the effect of altruism and green self-identity”	Altruism Green self-identity	Participants: 416 Model: PLS SEM	The outcomes showed serious direct associations between the determinants of TPB, “altruism and green self-identity” and the intention of customer to stay in ecological hotels. The association amongst altruism and intention was significantly mediated by attitude.

<p><b>Lim, Al Madhoun, Yee, Nair, Siong, and Isiyaka 2019. (Malaysia)</b></p>	<p>“Factors influencing customer intention to stay in green hotel in Malaysia”</p>	<p>perceived moral obligation (PMO)</p>	<p>Participants: 300 Model: SEM</p>	<p>This study demonstrated that consumers’ intention to stay in environmental friendly hotels is affected positively by both SN and PBC. Moreover, consumers’ intention of to visit environmental friendly hotels and lodges is affected positively by PMO. Similarly, this intention is affected positively by environmental awareness.</p>
<p><b>Brandão and da Costa 2021 (Portugal)</b></p>	<p>“Extending the theory of planned behaviour to understand the effects of barriers towards sustainable</p>	<p>Environmental apparel knowledge Perceived value Price sensitivity Product attributes and variety Availability Skepticism</p>	<p>Participants: 669 Model: PLS SEM</p>	<p>The outcomes of the research discovered that the all the determinants of TPB have a positive relationship towards SPC. It also revealed that</p>

	fashion consumption”			<p>attitude was considerably affected by environmental apparel knowledge; perceived value had a considerable influence on perceived behavioural control but not on attitude; both attitude and perceived behavioural control and attitude are affected conversely by price sensitivity; all the three constructs of TPB are influenced positively by product attributes and variety; perceived behavioural control is affected</p>
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				positively by availability; attitude was influenced conversely by scepticism.
<b>Nimri 2018 (Australia)</b>	“Anticipated Knowledge in Consumers’ Intentions to Visit Green Hotels and lodges: Extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour”	Green hotel knowledge (GHK)	Participants: 781 Model: SEM	The findings showed that attitude has a significant ability to predicts the outcome., subjective norm has a smaller effect on the intention. While perceived behavioural control had the greatest ability to predict the intention to visit ecological hotel. Moreover, the knowledge of environmentally friendly hotel was another considerable

				predictor of the intentions.
<b>Setyawan, Noermijati, Sunaryo and Aisjah 2018 (Indoneisa)</b>	“Green product buying intentions among young consumers: extending the application of theory of planned behaviour”	Willingness to pay Environmental concern Environmental knowledge	Participants: 326 Model: SEM	The outcomes of this study revealed that purchasing intentions of young customers’ concerning sustainable products is affected positively by only determinants of TPB (subjective norm and perceived behavioural control), willingness to pay, level of knowledge on environment and its sustainability, whereas their environmental concern and attitude don’t affect their intention to buy green products.

<p><b>Karimi and Saghaleini 2021 (Iran)</b></p>	<p>“Factors influencing ranchers’ intentions to conserve rangelands through an extended theory of planned behaviour”</p>	<p>Moral norms</p>	<p>Participants: 120 Model: PLS SEM</p>	<p>The findings of this study demonstrated that all the determinants of TPB are considerably connected to the intention of the ranchers in protecting rangelands. Moreover, moral norms are not connected directly and seriously to the intention of the ranchers’ to protect rangelands through attitudes in relations to doing so.</p>
<p><b>Botetzagias, Dima and Malesios 2015 (Greece)</b></p>	<p>“Extending the theory of planned behaviour in the context of recycling: The role of</p>	<p>Moral norms Socio demographics</p>	<p>Participants: 293 Model: SEM</p>	<p>The outcomes of the research revealed that there is a direct positive influence amongst attitude, PBC, MN and</p>

	<p>moral norms and of demographic predictors”</p>			<p>recycling intention. Moreover, age had a positive direct influence on subjective and moral norm; gender also had a direct and positive influence on the moral norm and attitude; education as well showed a direct positive influence on attitude. Conversely, there were direct negative influences as well in this study between age and attitude; gender and intention to recycle; education and the intention to recycle.</p>
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<p><b>Verma and Chandra 2018 (India)</b></p>	<p>“An application of theory of planned behaviour to predict young Indian consumers’ green hotel visit intention”</p>	<p>Moral reflectiveness Conscientiousness</p>	<p>Participants: 295 Model: CB SEM</p>	<p>The results firmly corroborate the adequacy of the model of TPB in cause of the intention to stay in environmental-friendly hotels. All the determinants of TPB significantly point to the developments of behavioural intention.</p>
<p><b>Wang et al. 2016 (China)</b></p>	<p>“Predicting consumers’ intention to adopt hybrid electric vehicles: using an extended version of the theory of planned behaviour model“</p>	<p>Environmental concern (EC) Personal moral norm (PMN)</p>	<p>Participants: 433 Model: PLS SEM</p>	<p>The experimental outcomes of this study showed that all the determinants of TPB in relation to customers’ seriously influence the intention to accept ‘hybrid electronic vehicles’ as postulated. They also discovered that the PMN of</p>

				consumers' has a direct influence on the intention to adopt as hypothesized.
<b>Yilmaz 2014 (Turkey)</b>	"The Influence of Hotel Managers' Intentions for Green Marketing Practices: An Application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour in Turkey"	Environmental attitude	Participants: 160 Model: EM	The results of the research revealed that the relationship between all the determinants of TPB towards Intention and behaviour is significant. Furthermore there was a significant relationship between environmental attitude and attitude towards green marketing and green marketing intention. Lastly, there was a non-significant relationship between

				environmental attitude and green marketing intention.
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Source: Author's review

### 3.3.1 Extension of TPB

This research extended the TPB by focusing on two organisational factors (leadership behaviour and organisational climate) and three individual factors (response efficacy, moral norms and environmental concern).

#### 3.3.1.1 Organisational factors

According to Ibrahim, Sundram, Omar, Yusoff and Amer (2019), organisational factors refer to those factors that are internal. This means that the intention is to implement environmentally friendly practices because one is concerned about the environment. These factors are mostly analysed in studies on green practice intention. Various factors, for instance, leadership behaviour (Boiral, Talbot & Paillé, 2015b; Younis, Sundarakani & Vel, 2016; Robertson & Carleton, 2017; Kim & Stepchenkova 2018; Lee, Kim & Kim 2018; Maas, Schuster & Hartmann, 2018; Zaid, Jaaron & Bon, 2018; Noorliza, 2020) and pro-environmental organisational climate (Ones and Dilchert, 2012; Subramanian & Shin 2013; Norton, Zacher & Ashkanasy, 2012) have already been conducted in relation to green practice. Thus in this study, only two organisational factors are going to be discussed, namely: leadership behaviour and organisational climate. They are discussed in detail below.

Table 3. 2: Studies that have used organisational factors

Author	Organisational factors	Findings
Noorliza 2020	Environmental leadership	The research found that the implementation of sustainable measures is greatly dependent on the variables of leadership behaviour to conserve nature

		and empower green practices. Furthermore, all the effective implementations of green practices starts with the positive intention of leadership behaviour or Chief Executive Officers
Boiral et al. 2015b; Robertson and Carleton 2017	Leadership behaviour	The results of empirical research have revealed that workers' sustainability has a significant positive effect on better environmental performance, sustainable innovation, pollution prevention and more efficient environmental management systems
Kim and Stepchenkova 2018; Lee et al 2018; Younis et al. 2016; Maas et al. 2018; Zaid et al. 2018	Leadership behaviour	There was an anticipation that ecological leadership has an effect on the company's environment-oriented strategic positions, which often leads to environmental practices generating strong pro-environmental behaviour
Subramanianand Shin 2013	Pro-environmental organisational climate	They has observed a favourable effect of businesses in increasing the success of businesses in the hotel industry.
Norton et al. 2012	Pro-environmental organisational climate	They recognized that climate and culture as significant effects on the company's results and personal behaviour in general and concerning ecological behaviour

Source: Authors review

- **Leadership behaviour**

Qureshi et al. (2019) define leadership as a determining factor for encouraging and applying innovations, initiatives, changes, or practices that make companies achieve

more favourable results. Walker et al. (2014) assert that leadership plays an important part in formulating the environmentally concerned business strategy that encourages pro-environmental behaviour. Sustainable behaviour by leaders can positively influence pro-environmental behaviour by employees. Therefore, when the behaviour of leaders supports green practices, employees become inspired to act in a sustainable manner (Grave, Sarkis & Zhu, 2013). Although green practice at the workplace has been researched many times, the outcomes of empirical research have shown that workers' sustainability has a significant favourable influence on better environmental performance, sustainable innovation, pollution prevention, and more efficient environmental management systems (Boiral et al., 2015b; Robertson and Carleton, 2017). Managers can encourage and motivate workers to take part in green practices rather than forcing them (Wesselink, Blok & Ringersma, 2017). For managers to achieve green practice, one of the ways is to show their dedication to the environment (Fatoki, 2019). Favourable signs can be sent to workers through environmental leadership by leaders or owners. Managers' environmental descriptive norms favourably influence pro-environmental behaviour and play an important part in the greening of public and private businesses (Robertson and Carleton, 2017).

Due to uncertainty in politics, poor regulations and renewable resources, Khan, Jianguo, Ali, Saleem and Usman (2019) demonstrated proof of poor ecological leadership concerning health problems and environmental sustainability. According to Park and Kim (2014), studies on strategic management highlight that more dedication from managers is important to engage productively in sustainable practices. All the effective implementations of green practices start with the positive intention of leadership behaviour or that of Chief Executive Officers (Noorliza, 2020). There was the anticipation that ecological leadership affects the company's environment-oriented strategic positions (Kim & Stepchenkova, 2018; Lee et al., 2018), which often leads to environmental practices generating strong pro-environmental behaviour (Younis et al., 2016; Maas et al., 2018; Zaid et al., 2018). According to Noorliza (2020), the implementation of green measures greatly depends on the variables of leadership behaviour to conserve nature and empower green practices. According to Lee et al. (2018), empirical research shows that green practice is adopted or that green practice is positively affected by the factors

of the environment. Therefore, this research hypothesised that there is a significant positive relationship between leadership behaviour and the intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels.

- **Pro-environmental organisational climate (PEOC)**

Datta and Singh (2018) point out that “climate is emphasized to be impermanent, subject to direct control and limited to characteristics that are deliberately perceived by the organisation's members whereas collectiveness of climate over a period of time results in culture and it is rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions of the organisational members”. Fairfield, Harmon and Behson (2011) explain that nowadays there is an increasing belief that pro-environmental behaviour will help a business to succeed in various aspects. Moreover, empirical evidence shows that sustainability relates to improved competitive advantage, greater profit margins and lower operating costs (Kane, 2011). For example, a current study denotes the monetary gains resulting from ecological behaviour as shown in corporate economic performance and increase in share price (Lourenço, Branco, Curto & Eugénio, 2012.). Hence, for several organisations, generating business settings that support ecological behaviour are perceived as a mandatory obligation to following sustainable development and to accomplish long-term success (Accenmre, 2013).

The accomplishment of the business, particularly that of hotels, relies on satisfying consumers (Tajeddini & Trueman, 2012; Johnston, Sharma & Spinks, 2013; Mohsin, Lengler & Kumar, 2013; Rahimi, 2017) wherein climate plays a significant part (Subramanian & Shin, 2013). Furthermore, according to Norton, Zacher and Ashkanasy (2012), these business settings for ecological behaviour must encourage ecological behaviours between workers. This study further suggests that establishing a pro-environmental organisational climate and culture might enhance the achievement of initiatives intended at supporting sustainability all over the company.

Various researchers have recognized climate and culture as significant effects on the company's results, on personal behaviour in general (Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013), and on ecological behaviour (Norton, Zacher & Ashkanasy, 2014). For instance, one study indicated the way board members affect pro-environmental organisational culture

by setting, analyzing, attending to, and understanding challenges in relation to environmental sustainability (Walls & Hoffman, 2013). Various researchers confirm that PEOC shows the opinions of workers regarding their firms' green practices, procedures and policies (Norton et al., 2012). In addition, another study found that PEOC has a favourable effect on organisational citizenship behaviour on the environment in hotels (Zientara & Zamojska, 2018). Furthermore, Fatoki (2020a) also found that a green organisational climate has a positive relationship with electronic saving intention. Conversely, one study discovered that an organisational electricity saving climate has no significant relationship with electricity saving intention (Zhang, Wang & Zhou, 2014). Thus, in this study it is assumed that the relationship between pro-environmental organisational climate and the intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels is significantly positive.

### 3.3.1.2 Individual factors

Various factors, for instance, environmental attitude (Yilmaz, 2014), environmental knowledge, environmental concern and willingness to pay (Setyawan et al., 2018) and moral norms (Botetzagias et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Karimi & Saghaleini, 2021) have already been conducted concerning green practice. These factors are mostly analysed in studies on green practice intention. Therefore, in this study, only two individual factors are going to be discussed, namely: moral norms and response efficacy. They are discussed in detail below.

Table 3. 3: Studies that have used individual factors

Author	Individual factors	Findings
Han 2015	Moral norms	The researcher found that there is a positive association between MNs and a person's intentions towards ecological behaviour.
Wang, Wang, Yang, Li & Zhou, 2020	Moral norms	They found that the association between MNs and an individual's

		intentions towards ecological behaviour is positive
<b>Bertoldo and Castro 2016</b>	Moral norms	They discovered that MNs are the greatest and significant precursor of a person's intention to conduct environmental actions in relation to responsibility
<b>Faisal, Chunping, Akhtar, Raza, Khan and Ajmal 2020</b>	Moral norms	They proved that the link between MNs and behavioural intentions is positive and significant in relation to environmental actions
<b>Shalender and Sharma 2021</b>	Moral norms	They found that people who have greater 'personal norm' have favourable intentions concerning buying electronic vehicles than those who do not.
<b>Ng, Law and Zhang 2018</b> <b>White, Habib and Hardisty 2019</b>	Response efficacy	They discovered that response efficacy affects the intention to buy electronic vehicles positively and customers tend to reflect about consuming ecological products if they think their behaviour is going to help protect the environment
<b>Pang, Tan and Lau 2021</b>	Response efficacy	They discovered that the link among response efficacy and customers intention to purchase organic foods is positive.
<b>Wang et al. 2016</b>	Environmental concern	They discovered environmental concern employ certain effects on people's behavioural intention via attitudes, beliefs and norms. They

		further explained that it environmental concern is a negative determining factor of behavioural intention.
<b>Smith &amp; Paladino 2010</b>	Environmental concern	They demonstrated that attitudes concerning organic products are affected positively by environmental concern; on the other hand, this study was unable to reveal that environmental concern has a favourable impact on purchase intention.
<b>Yadav and Pathak 2016b</b>	Environmental concern	This study presented the same findings regarding the intention to buy organic products. Moreover, empirical data revealed that environmental concern alone is affecting attitude in a positive way.
<b>Paul et al. 2016 Yadav and Pathak 2016a</b>	Environmental concern	They demonstrated that the favourable effect of environmental concern regarding the intention to buy ecological products not only was evident in the attitude of customers, but was also evident in the intention to buy as well.
<b>Albayrak, Aksoy and Caber 2013; Pagiaslis and Krontalis 2014; Suki 2016</b>	Environmental concern	Various researchers discovered that in explaining sustainable behaviour, the most important factor is environmental concern.

Source: Authors review

- **Moral norms**

The rules of morality that individuals should follow are known as moral norms. According to Nicolaidis (2019), Aristotle recommends in his “*Nicomachean Ethics* that morality is not simply learned by reading about it, but by witnessing the behaviour of a morally sensitive person who serves as a role-model”. A moral norm is a command for performing, an instruction for a specific kind of behaviour, or a prohibition against executing specific activities (Machura, 2013). Moral norms are known to be a specific guideline. According to Juvan and Dolnicar (2014), people utilise either individual attribution or outward situational attribution as a reason for their behaviour as well as things influencing them. People who are not accountable even though they are well informed with regard to the attitude behaviour gap show that they are not interested in green practice (Cohen & Higham, 2012). Fielding and Head (2012), state that studies on the environment suggest that individuals who feel as if they can control events that influence their lives have the desire to safeguard the environment.

Furthermore, based on studies conducted in the context of greening, moral norms are defined as an individual’s desire with regards to their own duties concerning the performance of a particular ecological behaviour as well as the argument that the conduct is morally correct (Ru, Qin & Wang, 2019). Wang et al. (2016) indicate that this means their choices are simply made based on standards and ethical principles. A moral norm refers to an observed responsibility. This concept indicates negative or positive feelings about an individual’s behaviour. Li et al. (2018) admit that when studying a person’s behaviour you have to consider his or her moral norms. Conversely, in spite of the growing support with regards to extending the TPB model with moral norms, there are ongoing discussions regarding the way the addition has to happen. Botetzagias et al. (2015) opine that for an independent variable (MN) to have positive or negative influence on behavioural intentions via psychological factors there has to be a significant association between MN and psychological factors of the aforementioned model.

Various researchers have done empirical reviews regarding the influence of moral norms, and they found that the association between MN and a person’s intention to exhibit ecological behaviour is favourable (Han, 2015; Bertoldo & Castro, 2016; Wang et al.,

2020). For instance, one study discovered that moral norms are the greatest and significant precursor of a person's intention to conduct environmental actions in relation to responsibility (Bertoldo and Castro, 2016). Moreover, it has been proved that the association between moral norms and behavioural intentions is positive and significant in relation to environmental actions (Faisal et al., 2020). Similarly, Shalender and Sharma (2021) found that people who have greater 'personal moral norms' have favourable intentions concerning buying electronic vehicles than those who do not. Therefore, this research has hypothesised that there is a significant association between MN and intention to implement green practices at SMME hotels.

- **Response efficacy**

Response efficacy is the extent of an individual's beliefs about how effective a response is in preventing a threat (Popova, 2012). Response efficacy refers to situations in which a person is of the opinion that a specific change in response will help to protect them and other people from the threat. The person's belief that an anticipated behaviour will succeed in eliminating threat is referred to as response efficacy (Almarshad, 2017). Response efficacy in simple terms means I believe that if my organisation does this it can help to protect environment. Response efficacy is different from self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is about the confidence of an individual in respect of the capacity to perform a task, while response efficacy is about whether the individual thinks that his/her actions will lead to the desired results.

Response efficacy as a cognitive construct is a useful extension of the TPB. According to Ng et al. (2018), response efficacy affects the intention to buy electronic vehicles positively and customers tend to reflect about consuming ecological products if they think their behaviour is going to help protect the environment (White et al., 2019). Moreover, Pang et al. (2021) have discovered that the association between response efficacy and customers intention to purchase organic foods is positive. Thus, this research hypothesised that there is a significant relationship between response efficacy and intention to implement green practices in SMME hotels.

- **Environmental concern**

Schuitema, Anable, Skippon and Kinnear (2013) defined EC as a common understanding and consciousness concerning issues in the environment. A broad attitude such as the EC has does not influence particular behaviour directly but indirectly (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980). Increased demand on the supply of energy, a growing burden of toxic waste on water bodies, and the toxic waste of solid waste management, air and soil are among the bigger levels of unfavourable influence on the environment in the hotel sector of the tourism industry (Mbasera et al., 2016). Rogerson and Sims (2012) point out that “owing to these effects, substantial uncertainty exists regarding the long-term implications of such negative environmental impacts, in particular, those relating to global climate change”. This calls for even more ‘greening’ of the hotel industry as well as the building of lodging houses that have no net release of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere in several places.

Chan and Hsu (2016) indicate that environmentally friendly concerns have encouraged an increasing niche market, specifically the pro- environmental hotel industry. EC is the result of the hotel industry's attempts to reduce the extreme use of non-durable water, energy, and goods while also opposing emissions into the soil, air, and water (Ogbeide, 2012; Chen & Tung, 2014). As a result, hotels have gradually started to accept worldwide environmental initiatives to come to be sustainable (Rahman et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2012). Operational and marketing procedures in hotels have been shown to be taking an initiative in pursuing sustainable practices and coming up with ways to look after the environment and match the demand of consumers while doing so (Chan, 2013; Han and Yoon, 2015).

According to Lin and Syrgabayeva (2016), various preceding studies conducted in relation to the framework of TPB revealed that environmental concern affects the ‘intention to’ but via attitudes in a positive way whether directly or indirectly. Daziano and Bolduc (2013) explain environmental concern as a vital determining factor for making personal changes from present behaviour to a greater sustainable behaviour. Conversely, Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) discovered that EC does not have a direct influence on certain sustainable behaviour; however, it has an indirect influence on other factors. These

researchers further found that the association between environmental concern and green practice is moderate. This outcome suggests that EC does not entirely rely on behaviour. In addition, environmental concern employs certain effects on people's behavioural intention via attitudes, beliefs and norms (Wang et al., 2016). They further explained that EC is a negative determining factor of behavioural intention.

A certain study contended that as long as EC is more, the greater an individual's attitude would be favourable towards environmental friendly products (Pagiaslis & Krontails, 2014). Similarly, an additional study presented the same findings regarding the intention to buy organic products (Yadav & Pathak, 2016b). Empirical data revealed that EC alone is affecting attitude positively. Moreover, the favourable influence of EC regarding the intention to buy ecological products was not evident in the attitude only of customers, but was also evident in the intention to buy as well (Paul et al., 2016; Yadav & Pathak, 2016a).

Conversely, Sang and Bekhet (2015) showed that the link between EC and the intention to buy certain ecological products is positive. Furthermore, another study also found that the association between EC and ecological products purchase intention is positive (Yadav & Pathak, 2017). In addition, Jaiswal and Kant (2018) discovered that there is a favourable connection between EC and sustainable products purchase intention. Similarly, Paul et al. (2016) discovered that the relationship between EC and the intention to buy ecological products is positive.

Various researchers discovered that in explaining sustainable behaviour, the most important factor is environmental concern (Albayrak et al., 2013; Pagiaslis and Krontalis, 2014; Suki, 2016). For example, one study constructed the extension of TPB by adding environmental concern in order to recognize customers' intentions in adopting 'hybrid electric vehicles'. The researchers revealed that the intention of customers to do so is influenced positively by environmental concern (Wang et al., 2016).

The next section discusses the moderating effect of demographic characteristics. The discussion contains three types of mediating variables, namely: level of education, age and gender. Deeper explanations of these mediating variables are also shown by the discussions made by various authors who have employed them in their studies.

### **3.4 MODERATING EFFECT OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS.**

#### **3.4.1 Gender**

According to Wang (2016), guidelines that address 'climate change' focus more on economic and scientific solutions instead of on gender and human aspects. Various researchers have debated that gender aspects were not detectable in guidelines related to 'climate change' (Magnusdottir & Kronsel, 2015). Moreover, another researcher explained that any effort to deal with climate change that does not involve the analysis of gender is inadequate, unfair, and thus unjustifiable (MacGregor, 2009). Therefore, more attention should be paid to gender in discussions about climate change.

The study by Wang (2016) has established that daily social practice and using resources, for example, food, transportation, and energy, are particularly gender differentiated. On the other hand, men tend to consume less energy than women do in categories containing household effects, hygiene, health and food. Pertaining to gender, various studies have shown a favourable relationship between a number of female managers and corporate social performance, the performance of the firm and firms that are socially responsible (Walls, Berrone & Phan, 2012; Kassinis, Panayiotou, Dimou & Katsifaraki, 2016). De Silva and Pownall (2014) assert that females play a more important role than males, in creating positive social welfare values and concerning the decrease of carbon emissions. Moreover, women who are more educated value going green greatly. Other researchers demonstrated that the diversity in a board gender is related to reporting on sustainability (Frias-Aceituno, Rodriguez-Ariza & Garcia-Sanchez, 2013; Fernandez-Feijoo, Romero and Ruiz-Blanco, 2014) or that the gender of Chief Executive Officers influences the organisation's corporate social responsibility performance (Huang, 2013). Conversely, a particular study discovered that there is a negative association amongst diversity in a board's gender and the strength of environmental performance, but only a weak statistical association was evident between the variables (Walls et al., 2012). Moreover, other researchers found the same results (Boulouta, 2013; Glass, Cook & Ingersoll, 2016).

#### **3.4.2 Age**

Mutual clichés shown in broadcasts and well-known newspapers stipulate that old people are supposedly less concerned about the environment than the youth (Irvine, 2012;

Twenge, Campbell & Freeman, 2012). Afacan (2015) postulates that most old employees have wellbeing problems that might impede sustainable behaviours. Davis-Peccoud (2013) opines that clichés concerning age have made numerous businesses demonstrate concern that the elderly employees might stand in the way of achieving organisational goals of environmental sustainability. The aforementioned concerns have started to affect management practice in many businesses.

Some researchers contend that continuous exposure to environmental crisis might give rise to greater levels of environmental consciousness amongst old people (Otto & Kaiser, 2014). Wiernik, Ones and Dilchert (2013) discovered that environmental awareness is greater amongst young people. They postulate that old people might not see the need for environmentally responsible actions. Hines et al. (1987) tested the association between age and green behaviour and found a moderate and negative relationship, showing that young people displayed greater green behaviour.

### **3.4.3 Level of education**

Current research has demonstrated that supporting worldwide education may help in decreasing 'climate change' (Lutz, Muttrarak & Striessnig, 2014; Muttrarak and Lutz, 2014). One study in Thailand found a significant green return in relation to education (Muttrarak & Chankrajang, 2015). Other studies affirm without a doubt that a good understanding of environmental concern at large might encourage green actions such as conservation behaviour, owning cars designed to prevent the wasteful consumption of fuel, and eating green products (Korkala et al., 2014). There are insufficient empirical studies studying the association between education and green behaviour, and not much has been done in the context of developing countries.

Previous studies have recognized education as a vital determining factor of green behaviour. De Silva and Pownall (2014) discovered a relationship between levels of higher education and environmental concern. Furthermore, another study (Ortega-Egea, García-de-Frutos & Antolín-López, 2014) also discovered a positive relationship between education and behaviour. Likewise, Meyer (2015) found that education is related to a greater possibility of green behaviours such as buying organic food and saving water. Another study discovered that people who attended colleges are willing to sacrifice their

financial well-being to improve environmental quality (De Silva & Pownall, 2014). Similarly, Xiao, Dunlap and Hong (2013) revealed that people who are more educated in China showed greater levels of concern for the environment. Hoffman and Muttrarak (2017) also found that the relationship between education and green practice is positive.

Conversely, this study found a negative relationship between education and green attitude or behaviour. Correspondingly, Kriström and Kiran (2014) found that there is a negative relationship between education and the consumption of energy. Furthermore, another study failed to prove the influence of education and recycling behaviour (Ayalon, Brody & Shechter, 2013). The study by Millock and Nauges (2014) failed to find influence of education on the consumption of organic products. In addition, Grafton (2014) showed that there is a negative link between education levels and green behaviour (for example conserving water).

The next section will discuss the mediating variable employed in this study. The selected mediating variable was Attitude. This mediator was selected because many authors in the context of green practice used it as a mediating variable between their latent constructs. Some studies discovered that the mediation of attitude has a positive effect whereas others found that it has a negative effect.

### 3.5 MEDIATING VARIABLE

Table 3. 4: Studies that have used attitude as a mediating factor.

Authors	Mediating factor	Findings
Verma and Sinha 2017	Attitude	The outcomes revealed from the research showed a partial mediation.
Domínguez-Valerio, Moral-Cuadra, Medina-Viruel and Orgaz-Agüera 2019	Attitude	The outcomes of the study indicated that there is full mediation of attitude between knowledge and behaviour.
Onurlubaş 2018	Attitude	The findings found from this study indicated a partial mediation of

		attitude on the association amongst EC and intention to purchase green products.
<b>Maichum, Parichatnon, and Peng 2017</b>	Attitude	The results of the investigation indicated a partial mediation of attitude on the link between EC and green products intention.
<b>Ibrahim, Mariapan, Lin, and Bidin 2021</b>	Attitude	The outcomes of this research showed a partial mediation of attitude on the association between EC and green products anti-littering intention.

Source: Author's review

### 3.5.1 Mediating effect of attitude

The most significant variable of TPB on human behaviour and intentions is attitude (De Leeuw, Valois, Ajzen & Schmidt, 2015). In the context of green hotels, one study conducted on 400 participants demonstrated that there is a favourable effect by attitude towards ecological hotels and intention to visit ecological hotels (Yarimoglu & Gunay, 2020). Ajzen (1991) defines attitude as a person's negative or positive assessment on how to perform a certain behaviour. If a person has a more favourable attitude, their intention to the behaviour will be more favourable too (Ibrahim et al., 2021). Onurlubaş (2018) discovered a partial mediation of attitude on the connection between EC and intention to buy green-products. In addition, another study discovered a partial mediation of attitude on the link between EC and green products intention (Maichum et al., 2017). Furthermore, one of the mentioned study's (Ibrahim et al., 2021) findings demonstrate that attitude towards anti-littering has a partial mediation on the association between environmental concern and anti-littering intention.

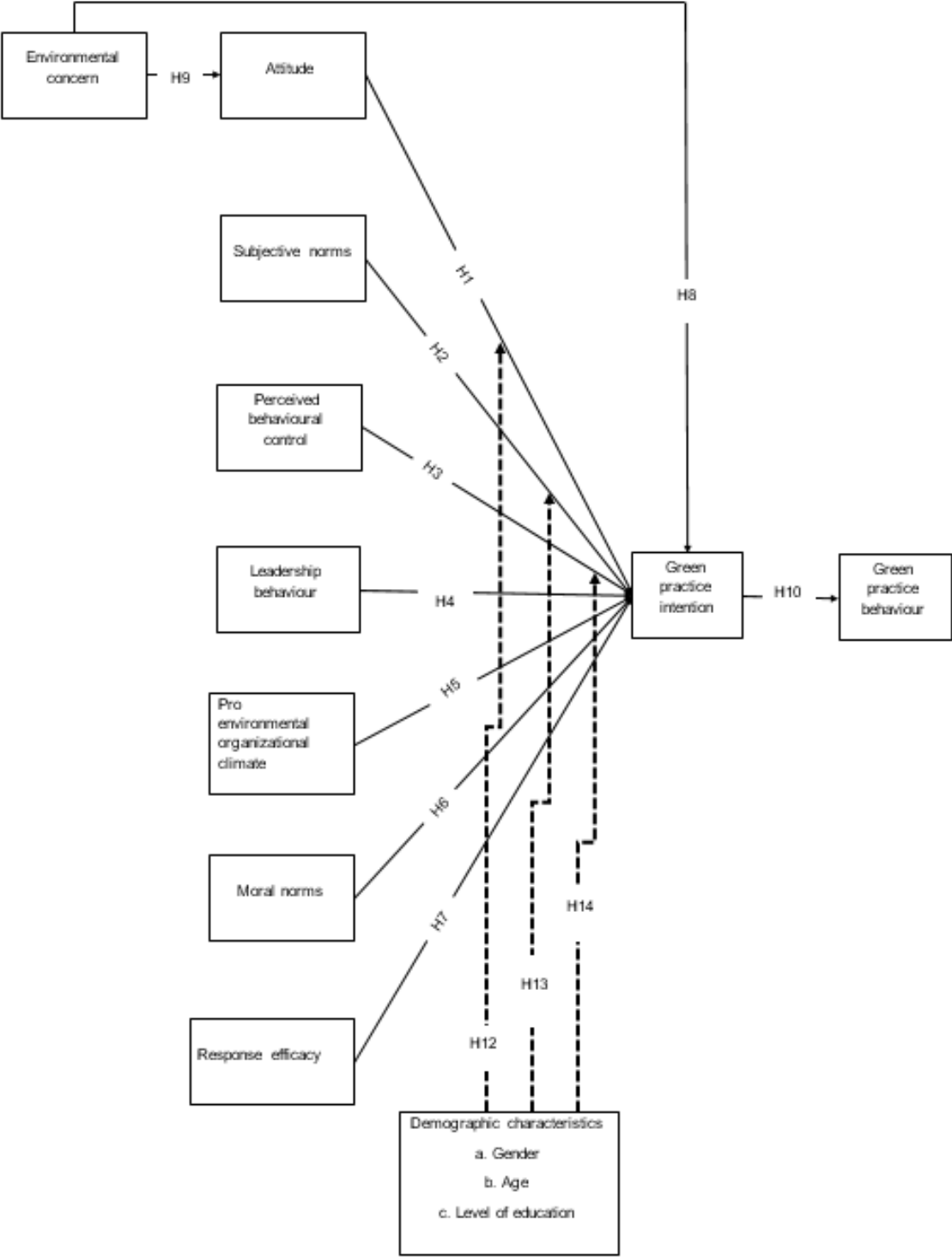
The discussion in the next section is about the effect of intention on the actual green practice behaviour. This discussion highlights that behaviour depends on intention and

that they have a favourable relationship. It further shows that in predicting the implementation of green practices intention is a significant indicator.

### **3.6 THE EFFECT OF INTENTION ON THE ACTUAL GREEN PRACTICE BEHAVIOUR**

The predecessor of the TPB is TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), which suggests that the subjective norm and attitude are the causes of intention, and that behaviour is directly affected by intention to some extent. The assumption of TRA is that the behaviour of a person is controlled by volition, while the skills, resources, or opportunities needed to carry out a particular action are not taken into consideration. In the TPB, the determinants of intention are perceived as behavioural concern, attitude and subjective norms. Behaviour is mainly dependent on intention and they have a positive relationship (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Intention is an important indicator in predicting the implementation of green practices (Chen & Tung, 2014; Yilmaz, 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Huang & Ge, 2019).

Figure 3. 1: The conceptual framework



Source: Author's review

Figure 3.1 above depicts the conceptual framework that is employed in this research. The first category shows TPB (attitude, SN and PBC) and its relation to intention. The second category includes organisational factors (pro-environmental organisational climate and leadership behaviour) and its relation to intention. The third category comprises individual factors, (moral norm, response efficacy) and their relation to intention. The fourth category shows the moderation effect of demographic characteristics (gender, age, and level of income) and their relation to intention. Attitude is used as a mediating factor between environmental concern and green practice intention. Lastly, we have green practice intention and its relation to green practice behaviour.

### **3.7 SUMMARY**

The first section in this chapter discussed the theoretical literature, which in this case consists of the theories used to guide this study by looking at it from the perspective of Stakeholders Theory, TRA and TPB. The key components are: attitude, SN and PBC. In section two, the empirical review was covered. This is the part that extended the TPB in the form of organisational factors and individual factors. The organisational factors comprise leadership behaviour and organisational climate, whereas the individual factors comprise moral norms and response efficacy. The third section discussed the moderating effect of demographic characteristics. These are characteristics such as level of education, age and gender. In section four the mediating variable was discussed, while section five focused on the influence of intention on the actual green practice behaviour. The next chapter is going to discuss the methodology of this study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter's purpose is to discuss the research methodology used in the study. 'Research methodology' is the general method of the process of research that begins with the theoretical foundation for collecting and analysing data (Collis & Hussey, 2013). This study's methodology follows a seven-step procedure. The research definition is outlined in the first step. Qualitative, quantitative, descriptive, explanatory, and the casual research design will be discussed in the second step. The research study's chosen type of design will be highlighted.

The primary data collection, which comprises experiment, survey, and observation will be presented in the third step. The study's data collection tool will be described. Then the study's sampling methods will be discussed in the fourth step. The fifth step will provide a summary of how the study's data was gathered. The methods of data analysis and the motivation for the selected research will be described in stage six. The final step will include a discussion of how the study findings will be presented.

The discussion above is the introduction of this chapter, that is, the research methodology. It also contains all the sections to be discussed in this chapter. Research is a systematic and organised way of getting feedback from a set of questions. The first section discusses the research definition.

#### **4.2 RESEARCH DEFINITION**

A number of definitions of the term research were considered. Research is a systematic attempt used by researchers to find answers to questions they have by analysing and interpreting data (Acharya, Prakash, Nigam & Saxen, 2012). Research is a two-consonant word (Maina, 2012). "Re" means "new," "again," or "over," whereas "search" means "to carefully examine, test, and try". Acharya et al (2012) states that research comes from the word "re-search" wherein "search" means to "look for", discover or examine. A research study might be the investigation of an old matter that is again

examined or else a new exploration. According to Tuckman and Harper (2012), research is a procedure used to solve problems and obtain new understanding by analysing and interpreting data.

### **4.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND APPROACH**

#### **4.3.1 Research Philosophy**

The nature of the study depends on different philosophies of research such as interpretivism, positivism, pragmatism and realism that are adopted. Interpretivism emerged as a subjectivist critique of positivism, emphasising that human beings are distinct from physical phenomena in a way that they construct meaning (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). Working with observation to social reality in order to develop factual and accurate information is what positivism entails. Rahi (2017) and Žukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitienė (2018) indicate that experiments and observations, according to positivists, provide precise knowledge. The philosophy of pragmatism suggests that human knowledge is publicly created, and that public constructions are formed by experiences people have. Morgan (2014) asserts that pragmatists believe that social experiences shape people's opinions and beliefs. The focus of realism is on accepting what we feel and see based on the fundamental reality structures that influence visible events. Haigh, Kemp, Bazeley and Haigh (2019) state that 'critical realism' is founded on the truth of existent nature that people examine in order to form local ideas and judgments based on their knowledge. Positivism is the philosophy adopted in this study. Positivism is appropriate to this research because the researcher will conduct the research by gathering information and then analyse it to draw conclusions from accurate and factual information.

#### **4.3.2 Research Approach**

According to Grove (2015), the process utilised in this research to gather information, analyse and interpret the outcomes is referred to as the research approach. The plan used to guide the study is the research approach (Mohajan, 2018). The research approach is made up of two main types, namely deductivism and inductivism. The inductive approach focuses on the creation of a new theory, whereas the deductive

approach focuses on examining an existing theory (Babbie, 2013; Collis & Hussey, 2013). The researcher expands the theory by looking at the factual observation. Rahi (2017) affirms that the researcher creates assumptions by assuming the hypothesis of a particular concept and later confirms the premise by analysing the hypothesis and confirming it with the factual theory. This study will adopt a deductive approach because the theory of planned behaviour is applied, hypotheses are developed and will be tested empirically to confirm the assumptions.

#### **4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A “research design” may be defined as a planning procedure that uses various methods to obtain and assess the study’s evidence. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) define research design as a plan for gathering, measuring, and analysing information, based on the research questions of the investigation. Moreover, a “research design” is a plan of how the researcher proposes to carry out the study project (Babbie & Mouton, 2011). A “research design” is an idea in research, which is established by a research problem, objectives and questions. Furthermore, a research design is a plan for carrying out the research project, and it indicates the procedure of attaining data that will be used to resolve the research problem. This procedure or process comprises what the researcher is going to do from constructing the research hypotheses and their effects upto the evaluation of the information collected. A “research design” is important because it assists the researcher to follow the correct processes and procedures when conducting research.

##### **4.4.1 Types of research**

The research design can apply three different methods: these are qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. The research nature, possible limitations, the setting and paradigms that guide the study project all influence the research design.

###### **4.4.1.1 Qualitative research**

The qualitative method is regarded as an inductive approach to research. Apuke (2017) states that the quantitative method is commonly used to assess knowledge and analyse social interactions. In this method, the information is obtained and evaluated in terms of objects, images or words and it is non-statistical or numerical. Qualitative research is used to discover or explore and construct, as the researcher creates a new hypothesis and

theory from the collected information. The variables are unknown studies in a qualitative approach, participants are fewer and they are not selected randomly. In this approach the researcher is entirely involved in the study as he/she is the tool that collects data (Langos, 2014). This research did not employ qualitative research as the aim is to predict the intention to implement green practice by small and medium sizes hotels and lodges.

#### **4.4.1.2 Quantitative research**

The quantitative research is regarded as a deductive approach in research. When applying this method information is gathered and interpreted by using statistical methods (Apuke, 2017). Conversely, Williams (2011) asserts that quantitative research includes gathering information so it may be measured or calculated and put through numerical analysis to accept or reject other claims made. The purpose of this approach is to view causes and effects, make predictions, and test hypotheses. Additionally, quantitative research is regarded as a study that focuses on the “traditional scientific research” that generates statistical information and normally seeks to prove or show a causal association between two or more variables by using numerical methods to investigate the validity and the significance of the relationships (Apuke, 2017).

In this approach, data is obtained and interpreted statistically and numerically. The objective of quantitative research is to predict, explain and describe, as the researcher tests the study’s hypotheses and theory with the collected data. Cooper and Schindler (2011) state that quantitative research is the study of research methods and the evaluation of relationships between variables. Only specific variables are studied, and there are more participants that are selected randomly. Quantitative research uses numerical models to interpret data and provide mathematical outcomes. Theory and data are separate, the setting is independent and the researcher is not actively involved (Moore, 2016; Mehrad & Zangeneh, 2019). This means that the theory is discussed based on previous studies, and data is collected and analysed separately from the theory, and conclusions are made later.

Moreover, the researcher can send out a survey instrument, for example a “questionnaire”, and fetch it as soon as the respondents have filled it without actively participating. This research used the quantitative method, as the aim is to predict the

intention of SMME hotels to implement green practice. The quantitative method is mostly applied to make predictions between variables.

#### **4.4.1.3 Mixed methods**

The “mixed methods research” approach comprises the collection and interpretation of a combination of “quantitative and qualitative data” (Almalki, 2016). The mixed method approach can be defined as a methodology that applies both a quantitative and a qualitative approach in gathering and interpreting data. This means it is an approach that employs the use of combined data (words and numbers) and a combination of tools (interpretations and statistics) thus using a parallel methodology. Mixed methods research is when the researcher mixes the various elements applied when using both the approaches of quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, Klassen, Plano Clark & Smith, 2011; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017).

Mixed methods is thus the type of study where the investigator applies the paradigms of quantitative research during one stage of the study and the paradigm of qualitative method during the other stage of the study. Additionally, because researchers utilise this approach to identify obstacles, answer questions that cannot be answered, and find solutions, this method assists researchers advance and expand their work plan. This research study did not employ the use of “qualitative research” as the aim is to predict the SMME hotels’ intention to implement green practice. Based on data needed by the “research problem”, several study methods can be employed in “quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods research”. These types of research are descriptive, exploratory and causal.

- **Descriptive research**

Descriptive research is gives a thorough description of the research problem and answers the following questions: who, what, when, where, and how, but the question ‘why’ cannot be answered by this method. This method is used to collect data that is appropriate to the present situation and to determine whether or not certain elements exist in that condition. A quantitative study employs this method as a predecessor because it provides valuable indicators for which components to use. Kaur, Stoltzfus and Yellapu (2018) state that descriptive tools are used to provide solutions for problems identified in the study. This

method helps gather ample data that leads to proper suggestions on aspects of the field because it collects abundant amounts of data for analysis. According to Nassaji (2015), descriptive research is mostly concerned with using tools for measuring numerical results. In this study, this method is employed to interpret data and it indicates the numerical outcomes of the gathered data by using measures of central tendency.

- **Explanatory research**

The process of researching a study problem where there have been few or no prior investigations to assist in predicting the results is referred to as an explanatory approach. When the study is in its initial phase of investigation, explanatory research uses familiarity and perception. Researchers apply this method when they want to decide on the type of methodology to employ in the research and how best they can collect data. This method is concerned with investigating a phenomenon not studied before. The focus is on the “why” component of the topic and this method is utilised to raise understanding of the parts that are not known (Akhtar, 2016). In this study, exploratory research is used to ascertain studies that relate to the problem of the study and to find gaps in the literature.

- **Causal research**

Babbie (2013) points out that research that investigates whether a single variable influences or causes the value of another variable is referred to as causal research. Causal research shows that dependent and independent variables have a cause-and-effect relationship. A “dependent variable” is a concept that an independent variable is supposed to explain or cause. A concept that the investigator has some influence over is referred to as an independent variable (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013). This research utilised causal research to predict the SMME hotels’ intention to implement green practices.

#### **4.5 PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION METHODS**

“Primary data” refers to the raw information gathered by the investigator since no previous records of the research are available. This information is gathered through interviews, surveys, and focus groups. Niraula (2019) affirms that experiments, observations and surveys are methods used to gather primary data. An independent variable is utilised in

an experiment, while the dependent variable, the cause, is measured and all irrelevant factors are controlled. Grabbe (2015) and Cash, Stanković and Štorga (2016) confirm that experiments are conducted to examine and test the study of casual relationships between variables in measurable situations. Observation is the process of gathering primary data about the behavioural patterns of people, things, or occurrences by observers (machines or humans). This simply means that the observer explicitly explains to an individual being observed how the observation is carried out. Ajayi (2017) and Ciesielska, Boström and Öhlander (2018) suggest that strategic modifications are needed to completely understand the observation. Below are the different types of data collection methods discussed in detail.

#### **4.5.1 Survey**

A procedure in which a researcher asks willing participants a series of questions is referred to as a survey (Yin, 2011). A survey is a method of asking participants questions and collecting their responses that will be examined at the end of the survey. In “survey research”, the investigator presents a structured questionnaire to a chosen sample of participants from a population. Since other methods of collecting data were not suitable for investigating the study's research problem, the survey research method was chosen. Furthermore, this study chose the survey method to conduct research because of its benefits: the costs are low; it is fast, and is a useful way of interpreting proof regarding a certain category (Cooper & Schinder, 2011).

#### **4.5.2 Observations**

A process whereby information is collected regarding the behaviour of people, events or objects is referred to as observation. Through observation, an individual being observed may or may not know they are being observed. Observation can be informal or formal, in a natural or artificial, setting. The observer explicitly explains to an individual being observed how the observation will be carried out. Ajayi (2017) and Ciesielska et al. (2018) suggest that strategic modifications are needed in order to fully comprehend the observation.

### **4.5.3 Experiments**

An experiment is a procedure whereby a hypothesis is tested scientifically, and consists of measurements, variables and identifying cause and effect. An independent variable is utilised in an experiment, while the dependent variable, the cause, is measured and all irrelevant factors are controlled. Experiments are objective, and the outcomes of the study are not affected by the researcher's personal ideas. Grabbe (2015) and Cash et al. (2016) confirm that experiments are used to examine and test the study of casual relationships between variables in measurable situations.

### **4.5.4 Methods of collecting data in surveys**

Yin (2011) pointed out that a researcher can use a variety of methods when conducting surveys, namely, computer assisted, self administered, mail, telephone and personal interviews. Participants receive questionnaires through email when using computer-assisted surveys. Moreover, Cooper and Schindler (2011) explain that a website may be developed where a questionnaire is presented for participants' consideration. A mail survey is one in which a researcher selects a sample of addresses and names to which to distribute questionnaires to collect data. When respondents are contacted by phone to acquire primary information for a particular research problem, it is termed telephone interview. A list of people with telephones is often available to the researcher. Compared to mailed questionnaires, it has a greater response rate. Yin (2011) states that telephone interviews take less time and are not expensive; the only time they are expensive is when the call is long distance. A personal interview (also known as face-to-face contact) is a reciprocal dialogue between an investigator and a participant to acquire data.

The principal research instrument in this research was computer-assisted surveys using self-administered questionnaires. A set of questions designed to elicit data from participants in a structured way is referred to as a questionnaire. A questionnaire is a pre-coded, structured research instrument with open-ended questions which are used to gather data from participants who record their own responses (Yin, 2011). Questionnaires are utilised to gather information from the participants since they assist in ensuring that data from various participants can be compared. Furthermore, responses acquired

through questionnaires are easy to code; hence, data processing becomes an easy task. Moreover, Cooper and Schindler (2011) indicate that questionnaires are affordable regarding money and time. A link containing the research questionnaire was sent through email to different hotels, where participants filled in survey on their own without the researchers' involvement.

#### **4.5.4.1 Questionnaires**

The primary data collection of this research adopted the use of self-administered questionnaires. The instrument that was utilised to gather the data was the questionnaire. The questionnaires were self-administered and issued to all participants in the study. A set of questions were administered to various participants, regarding the aims and purposes of the research. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) outline the following advantages and disadvantages. The key benefits of utilizing questionnaires is that “the researcher or a member of the research team can collect all the completed responses within a short period of time” while the drawback of utilising a questionnaire is that “the researcher may introduce a bias by explaining questions differently to different people”. The questionnaire items were aimed at understanding and “predicting the intention to implement green practices in small and medium-sized hotels”. Managers/owners participated voluntarily in this research.

#### **4.6 SECONDARY DATA COLLECTION METHODS**

According to Johnston (2017), the data gathered previously by other researchers is known as secondary data. It means that a researcher uses prior research conducted by other researchers to improve the quality and efficiency of their studies. Moreover, this is a cheap and quick method for collecting data. Ajayi (2017) outlined the following as examples of secondary data, namely, published sources, journals, books, newspapers, government reports and magazines. In this study, secondary data was acquired from books, dissertations, articles, theses, and journals related to this research.

## **4.7 DESIGN AND CONTENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

### **4.7.1 Questionnaire**

The researcher used the questionnaire as the principal research tool. A set of questions was completed by the participants by giving their own opinions. Additionally, the questionnaire was an arranged examination that allowed managers/owners to respond to their best knowledge and give their opinions. Questionnaires are usually designed to gather a large amount of quantitative data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1998) as cited by Mamali (2015), a questionnaire is a unique way of collecting data where participants will unswervingly provide their own responses to a set of structured questions. The researcher designed a structured questionnaire that was directed to selected respondents. In this research, the researcher used self-administered questionnaires to collect numerical information from the participants. The researcher used questionnaires as they guarantee that the data gathered from participants can be compared. The responses to the questions were coded, which enabled the processing of data. Two structured questionnaires, one in Sepedi and the other in English, were used in this research. To accommodate those who have difficulty understanding English, the Sepedi questionnaire (Letlakalapošišo) was made available. The English questionnaire contained the same set of questions and structures as the Sepedi questionnaire (Letlakalapošišo).

### **4.7.2 Survey questions**

Open ended and closed ended questions are the two types of survey questions used by researchers. In open ended questions participants are allowed to answer questions in their own words. This means the respondents are allowed to answer questions based on their understanding as these questions do not have a fixed set of responses. Kabir (2016) states that to obtain correct and intuitive answers, as well as unpredicted assumptions, researchers must use open-ended questions. These are questions to which respondents respond on their own terms, without being limited by possible responses (Roopa & Rani, 2012). While in close-ended questions, participants' responses are constrained by a fixed set of answers. These type of questions give the participants a range of answers to choose from (Kelly & Lesh, 2012). Participants are not allowed to justify their answers. The advantage of questions that are close ended is they are simple to create, code and

interpret (Kabir, 2016; Roopa & Rani, 2012). The survey method and self-administered questionnaires will be used to gather data for this study and they both contain close-ended questions. Close-ended questions incorporate the use of Likert scale questions. Participants indicate their agreement level to a statement when answering to a Likert questionnaire item. Joshi, Kale, Chandel and Pal (2015) explain that respondents must rate their agreement level according to a rating scale ranging from “strongly disagree to strongly agree”.

#### 4.7.3 Questionnaire content

This study’s research instrument consists of (5) sections, namely: (1) demographic information, (2) green practices, (3) the theory of planned behaviour, (4) organisational factors and (5) individual factors. Age, gender, level of education, years of operation, number of workers, the legal status of the company and the position comprised the demographic information. Green practice intention was measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “(1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree”.

Table 4. 1: Summary of questionnaire content from different authors.

Authors	Variable	No of items	Response category	Cronbach’s alpha	Composite reliability	Validity (AVE)
Fatoki 2021	Green practice intention	3	Five point Likert scale 1= strongly disagree 5= strongly agree	0.74	0.85	0.61
Chaudhary and Bisai 2018	Green practice behaviour	3	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.91	0.90	0.79

Hua and Wang (2019) Fatoki (2020)	Attitude towards green practice intention	7	Five point Likert scale 1= strongly disagree 5= strongly agree	0.74	0.88	0.64
Chaudhary and Bisai 2018	Subjective norm	4	Five point Likert scale 1= strongly disagree 5= strongly agree	0.88	0.87	0.64
Fatoki 2020	Perceived behavioural control	3	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.84	0.86	0.69
Fatoki 2020	Pro-environmental organisational climate	3	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.75	0.91	0.67
Fatoki 2019	Leadership behaviour	3	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.80	0.94	0.62

Shalender and Sharma 2021	Moral norms	3	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.81	0.83	0.74
Almarshad 2017	Response efficacy	4	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.74	0.73	0.51
Chen and Tung 2014 Yadav and Pathak 2015 Fatoki 2021	Environmental concern	7	Five point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree 5 strongly agree	0.73	0.90	0.56

Source: Authors review

## 4.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

### 4.8.1 Pilot study (pre testing)

Before using a research questionnaire to gather data, the questionnaire has to be tested (Lekhanya, 2015). A small scale investigation utilised to test the questions with a limited group of people to prepare for a larger scale investigation later is referred to as a pilot study (Fraser, Fahlman, Arscott & Guillot, 2018). The sustainability of the planned study is measured by first implementing a pilot study. The reason for the pilot study is to avoid any problems that may arise when administering a larger study (Lekhanya, 2015). Furthermore, it helps the investigator to evaluate and test the efficiency of collecting

information and the analysis methods. It also assists in answering questions of methodology and to guide the development of the study proposal by ensuring that appropriate approaches are used. According to Wolfe (2013), a pilot study helps the researcher by providing early warning indications of whether or not the study approaches will be effective. It also determines whether methodologies are inappropriate, complex, or expensive. This initial study was used to pre-test the questionnaire by selecting few managers or owners of SMME hotels, who were later excluded from taking part in the study.

#### **4.9 POPULATION AND SAMPLING**

The study area, population, and sample procedures are all discussed in this section. The importance of the selection of a sampling method is emphasised below.

##### **4.9.1 Study area**

The study area was Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. It was the chosen area of choice because of the large number of small and medium hotels and lodges and lodge establishments in the area. Therefore, this gave the investigator the required information needed to conduct the study.

##### **4.9.2 Population**

Population is a group of individuals who have the same characteristic (Creswell 2012: 142). According to Majid (2018), population is defined as the subject of the study, it involves people, groups or businesses. The individuals the research aims to pay attention to and explore is the target population. Broeck, Sandøy and Brestoff (2013) and Majid (2018) state that researchers usually collect a sample from the target population. The population of the research was made up of SMME hotels in the Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province. The research used the amended National Small Business Act of South Africa's definition of SMMEs from 2019. In defining SMMEs, the emphasis is on yearly sales, employee numbers, etcetera (see section 2.4.6, page 35). Thus, the SMMEs in this study need to be in line with the definition. The sampling frame was obtained from the Hotel Grading Association of South Africa, Trivago and Trip Advisor.

### **4.9.3 Sampling**

The term "sampling" refers to the procedure of selecting a subsection of the population for a research study. Moreover, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) state that sampling is the process of choosing the correct objects, events, or people as representatives of the whole population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The primary goal of sampling is to make a population prediction. Sampling permits the investigator to draw conclusions about the entire population because it is not possible to observe all the appropriate events or people in the population as a result of cost and time. The two well known types of sampling are non probability sampling and probability sampling (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013). Non probability sampling is a process where certain components of the population do not have a chance of being chosen, or where the likelihood of being chosen is not known. Probability sampling, often termed random sampling, is carried out by randomly selecting a sample from all subsections of the population.

Non probability sampling is usually used in a descriptive study, it includes snowball, convenience and quota sampling. Snowball sampling is defined as the process of choosing participants based on referrals made by others. This means that researchers have an idea of the type of participants to use in the study. As a result, they use these participants to recruit others to take part in the research. Moreover, Etikan and Bala (2017) indicate that this method is considered biased because other respondents' referrals can be based on what they enjoy in others; this could be due to particular qualities.

Convenience sampling is defined as the kind of sampling where the target group is chosen by using a particular criterion that enables respondents to be involved for the specific objective of the research. Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) also state that convenience sampling is considered as incidental sampling as the investigator can gather information at any given time because of proximity to the targeted elements and availability. Additionally, convenience sampling is easier to use and less costly as compared to other methods of sampling. The benefit of convenience sampling is that it is fast, appropriate, and inexpensive while the drawback is that the population cannot be generalized (Sekaran & Bougie,2016).

The goal of quota sampling is to create a sample with strata (groups) that are proportional to the population being researched. Daniel (2011) and Taherdoost (2016) define quota sampling as a way of choosing respondents based on similar categories or characteristics they represent in order to create a sample with a similar distribution of attributes. There are two types of quota sampling, namely controllable and uncontrollable quota sampling. In controlled sampling, the researcher is limited in her ability to select participants based on his or her suitable convenience. In uncontrollable quota sampling, on the other hand, the researcher is allowed to choose respondents at his or her own convenience (Showkat & Parveen, 2017).

According to Goodman (2011), probability sampling is a method of ensuring that each person in a population has a recognized non-zero chance of getting selected. There are four main types of probability sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). These include “stratified, systematic, simple random and cluster sampling”. In stratified sampling, most populations can be divided into various strata or subpopulations that are mutually exclusive. Stratified sampling is the process of constructing a sample to contain elements from each of the segments. The major benefit of stratified sampling is that it gives information that may be used to analyse and represent subgroups. The major drawback is that it gives rise to inaccuracy, resulting in subgroups that are then chosen at different rates. It is also time consuming.

Every  $k$ th element in the population is sampled using systematic sampling, which starts with a random element number between 1 and  $k$ . Systematic sampling begins by randomly selecting one element of the population, and then selects every  $k$ th element following the sample proportion. The major benefit is that it is easy to construct and also to conclude the sampling mean or proportion of the distribution. The drawback of this sampling method is that the sample and results may be skewed by the population's periodicity.

Each member of the population has the same opportunity of being involved in the sample when using simple random sampling. Cluster sampling entails dividing the population into collectively exhaustive and mutually exclusive subgroups or clusters, following which clusters are chosen for inclusion in the sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Cluster

sampling has the benefit of being cost effective and simple. Conversely, cluster sampling is frequently inaccurate, making computation and interpretation of results challenging. This research used the non probability sampling method. Because the researcher has no sampling frame of small and medium-sized hotels in the research area, the convenience-sampling methods was utilised to identify the participants.

#### **4.10 DATA ANALYSIS**

The procedure for modelling and interpreting evaluations and calculations in order to distinguish important information from collected data is known as data analysis (Ibrahim, 2015). Moreover, analysing data is considered as a complex, time consuming yet creative and interesting process. In this research, data was analysed using “partial least squares structural equation modelling” (PLS SEM). The PLS SEM (Rigdon, 2013; Garson, 2016; Hair et al., 2017) refers to a method using variances to estimate path models with latent variables (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a “multivariate statistical technique that allows researchers to estimate and test causal relationships” (Dakduk, González & Portalanza, 2019:3). There are two types of models in SEM namely, “measurement and structural model”. The outside model is known as the measuring model, whereas the inner model is known as the structural model. This research is going to use descriptive analysis and PLS SEM (measurement model and structural model) to analyse and interpret data (Fatoki, 2020a).

##### **4.10.1 Descriptive analysis**

Descriptive analysis is defined as the transformation of gathered material into comprehensible and interpretable information. Zikmund et al. (2013) and Kaur et al. (2018) assert that descriptive statistics organize and clarifies the findings of collected data and the relationships between variables. This research used the descriptive analysis method to analyse data. Descriptive analysis is the starting point in the data analysis process that is viewed as a summary of unprocessed data converted into information that can be understood and interpreted easily. The descriptive statistical analysis was used to explain the research constructs. This approach was utilised to numerically describe the data in this study.

## **4.10.2 Structural equation modelling (SEM)**

### **4.10.2.1 Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS SEM)**

SmartPLS version 3.0 has been utilised to analyse both the measurement model and the structural model (Fatoki, 2021). The testing of causal relationships among multi-variables was done through the use of a multivariate statistical method called SEM. One of the benefits of PLS SEM is the ability to build both models (structural and measurement) simultaneously and this is confirmed by Jang et al. (2017). “The advantage of this method is the ability to evaluate several model construct relationships simultaneously” (Jang et al., 2017). SEM was used to address a wide range of challenges in the literature on the hospitality sector (Kang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014). Each construct’s reliability was tested using the composite reliability and Cronbach’s alpha. The PLS algorithm was utilised to examine discriminant validity, construct (convergent) validity, and composite reliability (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019). SEM was administered to assess the suggested relationships between the constructs as soon as the measurement model was validated through discriminant validity and construct validity. Bootstrapping was utilised to measure the significance of the estimations (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015).

- **Requirement of the PLS SEM**

The measurement and structural models are two requirements of the PLS SEM. The evaluation of the measurement model was measured through factor loadings, composite reliability, Cronbach’s alpha, AVE, Fornell Larcker, Cross-loadings, and HTMT. The evaluation of the structural model is measured through  $R^2$ ,  $f^2$ ,  $Q^2$ , and model fit.

- **Measurement model evaluation**

The measurement model (outer model) was used to measure the validity and reliability of the variables (Dakduk et al., 2019). For the measurement model’s data to be confirmed as sufficient, the model fit statistics have to be tested (Demir, Rjoub & Yesiltas, 2021).

- ✓ **Factor loadings**

Hair et al. (2019) states that in reflective measurement model is the first step to analyse item loadings. The recommended value of these item loadings is 0.708. The threshold of

item loadings is significant when the value is 0.708 or greater (Fatoki, 2019; Hair et al., 2019; Fatoki, 2020; Fatoki, 2021a).

✓ Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha have almost the same thresholds. Greater levels of reliability are generated by higher values of observed variables; composite reliability's coefficient ranges from 0-1 (Hair et al., 2019). Zikmund et al. (2013) state that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used to assess how well each individual variable links to the other factors in a scale. Cronbach's alpha generates similar but lower values compared to composite reliability. The alpha coefficient varies from 0-1.

✓ Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Convergent validity shows whether the indicators are coming together to measure the underlying construct. Convergent validity refers to "the extent to which the construct converges to explain the variance of its items" (Hair et al., 2019:9). Moreover, Ginty (2013) states that convergent validity "tests the relationship between the construct and a similar measure; this shows that constructs which are meant to be related are related". This is evident when the AVE is greater or equal to 0.50. In addition, several studies have indicated that the minimum suggested value of AVE is 0.50 (Fatoki, 2019; Hair et al., 2019; Fatoki, 2020a)

✓ Fornell-Larcker

The criterion of Fornell-Larcker is simply the square root of AVE that is compared to the correlation of latent variables (Hair et al., 2019). It simply means that the latent variable must explain its own observed variables' variance more than compared to other latent variables. Ab Hamid, Sami and Sidek (2017) confirm that "the square root of each construct's AVE should have a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs".

✓ Cross-loadings

Cross-loadings is another criteria used to assess discriminant validity. "By looking at the cross-loadings, the factor loadings indicators on the assigned construct must be higher

than all loadings of other constructs with the condition that the cut-off value of factor loadings is higher than 0.70” (Ab Hamidet al., 2017).

✓ Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT)

The HTMT ratio of correlation is another measure of discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Voorhees, Brady, Calantone & Ramirez, 2016). The HTMT refers to “the mean value of the item correlations across constructs relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct” (Hair et al., 2019:9).

• **Structural model evaluation**

The structural model (inner model) was used to measure the suggested relationships amongst constructs (Dakduk et al., 2019). This research used the Smart PLS version 3.0 to assess the inner model and the assumptions. To assess the required quality of the outer model, it was tested by bootstrapping as recommended by several researchers (Henseler, Hubona & Ray, 2016) with a sample size of 500 (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015).

✓  $R^2$

Chin, Peterson and Brown (2008) as cited by Demir et al. (2021) outlined that a construct is considered weak when the value of  $R^2$  is 0.19, moderate when the value of  $R^2$  is 0.33 and significant when the value of  $R^2$  is 0.67. In addition, Kock (2015) validates that the  $R^2$  value is significant when it is 0.75, moderate when it is 0.50 and weak when it is 0.25.

✓  $f^2$

The  $f^2$  is used to test the significant effects of the research constructs (Demir et al., 2021). Jiang and Kim (2015) propose that the value of  $f^2$  is weak when it is 0.02, moderate when it is 0.15 and strong when it is 0.35.

✓  $Q^2$

Fatoki (2020a) suggests that when a  $Q^2$  value is greater than 0.5, the model is seen as predictive.

✓ Model fit

Model fit will be used to measure using standardised root mean residual (SRMR). Hair et al. (2016) recommended that a SRMR value greater than 0.10 demonstrates an adequate model fit. SMRM value greater than 0.20 suggests a good model fit (Fatoki, 2021a).

## **4.11 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

The reliability and validity of the data was discussed in this section. Below is the discussion of this research study's motivation for reliability and validity.

### **4.11.1 Reliability**

The extent to which a measurement gives accurate and consistent outcomes is referred to as reliability. In addition, the consistency of a measure of a concept is known as reliability (Bryman, Bell, Hirschsohn, Dos Santos, Du Toit, Masenge, Van Aardt & Wagner, 2014). Moreover, it is within the ability of a researcher to get a similar response each time a test is administered (Govender, 2011). Heale and Twycross (2015) define reliability as the consistency of assessments. Boet, Etherington, Larrigan, Yin, Khan, Sullivan, Jung and Grantcharov (2019) outlined three types of consistency, namely: inter-rater reliability, test-retest reliability and internal consistency.

#### **4.11.1.1 Inter-rater reliability**

The extent to which various observers are constant in their judgement is inter-rater reliability. Chaturvedi and Shweta (2015) affirm that inter-rater reliability is examined by employing Cronbach's alpha when judgements are numerical. Polit (2014:1) defines test-retest reliability as a "consistency of scores across two separate measurements over time, and is sometimes referred to as stability or reproducibility".

#### **4.11.1.2 Test-retest reliability**

To assess test-retest reliability the researcher must use the measure on one group of people the first time; use it again with a similar group of people later to see the correlation of test-retest amongst the set of scores assessed. Andersen (2016) confirms that test-retest is examined by showing Pearson's coefficient also known as (r). Inter-rater reliability and test-retest were not utilised in this research to assess the reliability. Below

is the discussion of the type of reliability that is utilised to test the reliability of constructs in this study, namely, internal consistency reliability.

#### **4.11.1.3 Internal consistency reliability**

Tang, Cui and Babenko (2014) stated the general factor saturation is how all the items of a test examine the similar variable is also known as internal consistency. The internal consistency reliability is divided into two measures, namely: composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2019; Soroya et al., 2021). Greater levels of reliability are generated by higher values of indicators. Composite reliability's coefficient ranges from 0-1. The values of reliability from 0.70 and 0.90 are seen as "satisfactory to good", while values between 0.60 and 0.70 are seen as "acceptable" (Hair et al., 2019). Zikmund et al. (2013) indicate that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is utilised to assess how well each individual variable links to the other factors in a scale. The alpha coefficient is a number that ranges between 0 and 1. The acceptable reliability coefficient is 0.7; the higher the score, the more reliable the generated scale is. The alpha coefficient that ranges between 0.5 and 0.7 is deemed as questionable and poor, while the alpha that is under 0.5 is deemed as unacceptable. An Alpha coefficient that ranges between 0.7 and 0.8 is moderate and acceptable, and one that lies between 0.8 and 0.9 is strong and good, and when an alpha coefficient is greater than 0.9 is deemed as very strong and excellent (Makhitha & Dlodlo, 2014; Šerbetar & Sedlar, 2016). This research used internal consistency by applying both "Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability" to generate the reliability of latent variables using SmartPLS 3.0.

#### **4.11.2 Validity**

Validity shows whether a research tool measures the variable that it is designed to assess, as well as the accuracy and certainty of study findings. Heale and Twycross (2015) state that validity is used to show that appropriate measures are taken into account. The process of attaining data that is suitable for the required use of the measuring tool is referred to as validity (Whiston, 2016; Sürücü & Maslakçi, 2020). Validity examines whether the instrument offers a suitable sample of items that portrays that idea (Mamali, 2015). Validity aims to demonstrate how free the assessment procedure is of both systematics and random errors. There are four main categories of validity. They

comprise “face, content, construct and criterion validity” (Drost, 2011; Pallant, 2011; Zohrabi, 2013).

#### **4.11.2.1 Content validity**

Face validity refers to the way that the research instrument provides acceptable content coverage. The content validity of an instrument is determined by how well its set of items matches the construct's content. Content validity refers to the “extent to which a research instrument accurately measures all aspects of a construct” (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Hence, the researcher must create a tool that adequately covers the explored construct. To test content validity senior researchers or a group of specialists in the study field or the investigator alone may be used to judge how well the instrument has met all the necessary standards. Content validity was not used in this study.

#### **4.11.2.2 Criterion validity**

Criterion validity is the extent to which a measure is associated to the result. It checks how adequately one measure predicts the result of the other measure. Criterion validity is defined as the “extent to which a research instrument is related to other instruments that measure the same variables” (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Construct validity is not going to be used to measure validity in this study.

#### **4.11.2.3 Construct validity**

Construct validity is the “extent to which a research instrument (or tool) measures the intended construct” (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Construct validity looks at how satisfactory a scale measures what it supposed to measure (Schindler, 2011; Heale & Twycross, 2015). The two subsets of construct validity are discriminant and convergent validity (Bamberger, 2017; Soroya et al., 2021).

Discriminant validity helps to assess whether constructs are different from each other. It is the way in which a construct is empirically dissimilar from other constructs in the inner model (Hair et al., 2019). Additionally, it tests the relationships between the unrelated measure and the construct; this reveals that constructs are not connected to something unanticipated. The degree of differences amongst the overlapping variables is also measured through discriminant validity. Ab Hamidet al. (2017) indicates that discriminant

validity can be measured in various ways, such as the “Fornell & Larcker criterion, cross-loadings and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT)”.

Fornell-Larcker criterion is simply the square root of AVE that is compared to the correlation of latent variables (Hair et al., 2019). It simply means that the latent variable must explain its own observed variables' variance when compared to other latent variables. Ab Hamidet al. (2017) confirms that “the square root of each construct's AVE should have a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs”. Cross-loadings is another criterion used to assess discriminant validity. In cross-loadings, the indicators of item loading on the allocated variable must be greater than any other loading of other variables, assuming the value for cut-off of the factor loadings is more than 0.708 (Ab Hamidet al., 2017). The HTMT ratio of correlation is another measure of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015; Voorhees et al., 2016). The HTMT is to “the mean value of the item correlations across constructs relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct” (Hair et al., 2019:9).

The excellent performance of this method through the study of the simulation of Monte Carlo reveals that HTMT is capable of achieving the highest sensitivity and specificity rates (97% to 99%) compared to the criterion of cross-loadings (0.00%) and Fornel Lacker (20,82%) (Henseler et al., 2015). When the HTMT value is close to 1, it means that discriminant validity is poor (Hair et al., 2019). To use the HTMT as a criterion in discriminant validity comprises of comparing it to a threshold that is predefined. Kline (2011) indicated that poor discriminant validity exists when the value of HTMT is more than its threshold. Several researchers recommended a threshold of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015; Ab Hamidet al., 2017). Conversely, Muqadas, Ilyas and Aslam (2016) recommended that the HTMT threshold is 0.90. The researcher used cross-loadings, Fornell-Lacker and HTMT to ensure that constructs are different from each other.

Convergent validity shows whether the indicators are coming together to measure the underlying construct. Convergent validity is “the extent to which the construct converges to explain the variance of its items” (Hair et al., 2019:9). Moreover, Ginty (2013) states that convergent validity “tests the relationship between the construct and a similar measure; this shows that constructs which are meant to be related are related”. This is

evident when the AVE is bigger or equivalent to 0.50. In addition, several studies have indicated that the minimum suggested AVE value is 0.50 (Fatoki, 2019; Hair et al., 2019; Fatoki, 2020a). This research utilised AVE to ensure that items in the research construct measure what they are intended to measure.

#### **4.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

- The researcher ensured that the managers or owners' confidentiality and privacy has been well protected, hence all questionnaires were de-identified to ensure confidentiality. The participants were not forced to take part in the questionnaire. They were all granted an opportunity to withdraw from the process should they feel any discomfort. After submitting the research proposal, together with a Faculty approval letter and the questionnaire, the researcher received approval from the University of Limpopo's TREC. The questionnaire was developed before the collection of data. Participants' personal information was respected at all times; the anonymity of the participant was ensured. The analysis of data was fair and was used for academic purposes. The following are ethical considerations:
- Voluntary involvement: Respondents were requested to take part in the study by volunteering to avoid being coerced to participate in any way. The participants were not coerced or forced to participate in the survey. Participants were not paid for participating in the survey. Participants were allowed to withdraw at any time from participating in the survey without any negative consequences. The consent letter contained this information.
- Anonymity of participants and confidentiality of information: All the identities of the participants who took part in the research were protected by the researcher. The information collected was kept private. The researcher ensured anonymity by not collecting any unique identifiers of a participant (for example, physical address, name, phone number, email address). The identities of the participants were never revealed to a third party. The consent letter and the cover page of the questionnaire contained information on anonymity and confidentiality.

- Informed consent: The researcher created an informed consent form that contains information about the research study and requests the consent of the participant. The participant signed the indemnity form. It was written in language that the participant understands; it reduced the likelihood of coercion, and the participant had enough time to think about taking part in the study.
- Respect and dignity: The researcher recognised that each person has the right and capacity to make his or her own decisions. By respecting the participant, the researcher ensured that their dignity was valued. The researcher was polite and not forceful in her dealings with participants and all participants were fairly and equally given the same questionnaire to complete.
- Risk and harm: There was no probability of risk and harm (physical, psychological, social, legal, or economic) as a result of participating in this study.
- Permission letter: The researcher developed a permission letter that was given to the owner or manager of small and medium-sized hotels to request their consent to carry out the study. Permission was obtained before the questionnaire was distributed.

#### **4.13 SUMMARY**

The research methodology was discussed in this chapter. To develop a conceptual framework to understand the methodology applied, the research method and the philosophy were discussed. In addition, the motivation for using the research design was shown in the sampling method, methods of collecting data, quantitative approach, and the method of analysing data. In this research, the “research design” was utilised to help the researcher in determining the type of research questions that should be developed. The research method assisted the researcher to make the correct choice about the methods to be utilised in the collection of information and for the purpose of analysis. Ethical considerations were explored to ensure that the data collected from respondents was not biased. Privacy and confidentiality were strictly adhered to. The outcomes of the research are discussed in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter shows the results of the research on “predicting the intention to implement green practices in SMME hotels”. The chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the outcomes of the empirical study. The chapter consists of various sections. The response rate of the participants is presented in this chapter. This is followed by the presentation of the demographic characteristics of the participants. SmartPLS version 3.0 was utilised to analyse both the measurement model and the structural model. “As with most statistical methods, PLS-SEM has rules of thumb that serve as guidelines to evaluate model results” (Chin, 2010; Götz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2010; Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012; Hair et al., 2017). A PLS algorithm was used to examine construct (convergent) validity, composite reliability, and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2019). Bootstrapping was utilised to measure the significance of the estimations (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015).

#### **5.2 RESPONSE RATE**

Five hundred and seventy (570) questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and four hundred and three (403) questionnaires returned were found to be usable, whereas 12 were not usable. When utilising PLS SEM to test a model, the smallest sample size should be ten times the total number of structural routes directed at the variable at a time (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011; Fatoki, 2021a). In this research, there are 40 question items (see appendix one) and so a minimum of 400 participants were required. However, 403 useable questionnaires were obtained. Below is the response rate of the hotels that participated in this research. Table 5.1 discusses the rate of response to the study.

Table 5. 1: Response rate

<b>Participants</b>	<b>No sent out</b>	<b>No returned</b>	<b>% of response rate</b>	<b>No not returned</b>	<b>% of no not returned</b>
Managers and owners of SMME hotels.	570	403	70.7%	167	29.3%

Source: author’s data analysis

The table above summarises the rate of response to the survey questionnaire. Only four hundred and three (403) of the five hundred and seventy (570) questionnaires sent out were returned. The percentage rate of response from the respondents and the percentage of questionnaires not returned is 70.7% and 29.3%, respectively.

### **5.3 NORMALITY OF DATA**

To test the normality of data skewness and excess kurtosis, Cain, Zhang and Yuan (2017) indicate that the distribution deviates from symmetry when skewness differs from zero, while on the other hand, the distribution deviates from normality in tail mass and shoulder when kurtosis differs from zero. Similarly, “the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis less than 1.0 is considered as slight non-normality, the values between 1.0 and about 2.3 as moderate non-normality, and the values beyond 2.3 as severe non-normality” (Orcan, 2020:257). The normality of data in this study was tested using excess kurtosis and skewness.

### **5.4 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE**

The purpose of this section was to obtain a demographic profile of participants. The demographic variables for data collected comprised gender, age (how old are the participants), level of education (how far has the participant gone in terms of studies), level of business status, years of operation, how many people are employed in the business and the position of the participant in the business. The charts and tables below show the numerical distributions of demographic variables.

### 5.4.1 Gender

It is important to find out the gender of participants in every study. Below are the results of the number of respondents who participated in this study.

Table 5. 2: Respondent's gender

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	218	54%
Female	185	46%

Source: author's data analysis

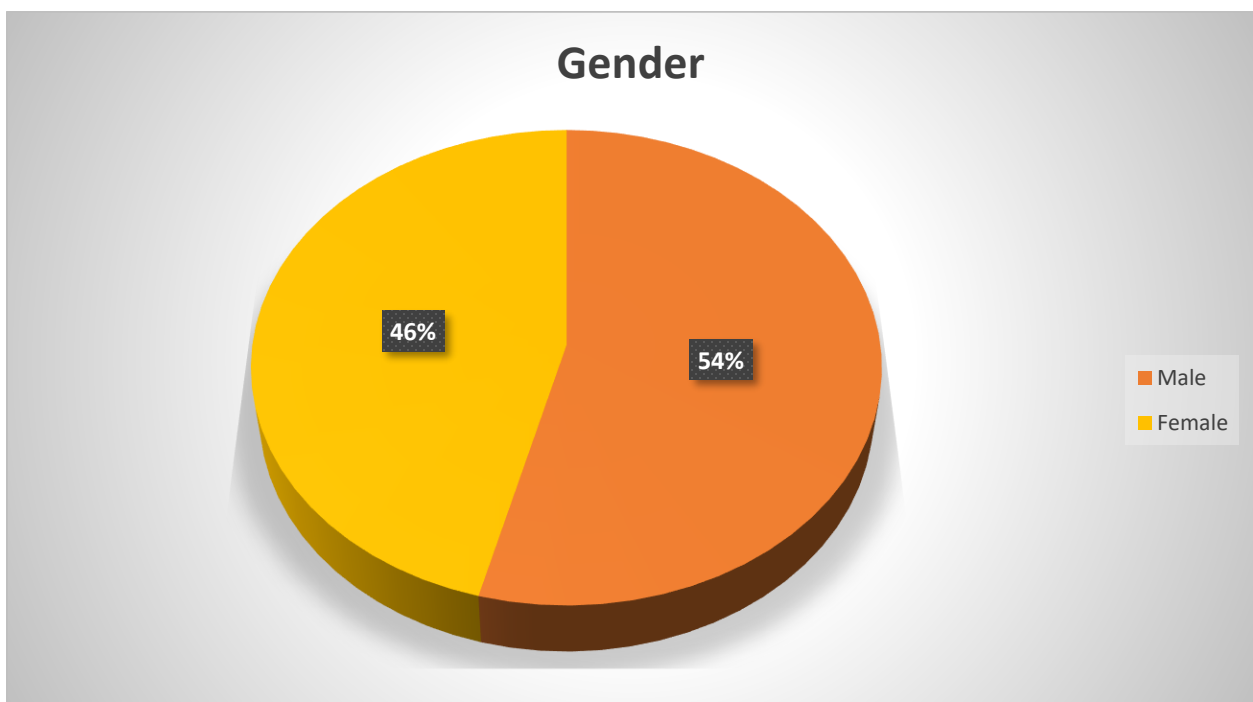


Figure 5. 1: Gender

Figure 5.1 illustrates that in respect of gender 54% were males, while 46% of the participants were females. This outcome shows a significant difference between the genders, and it submits that more males than females actively own/manage SMME hotels. Prior empirical data on the gender of entrepreneurship in SA support these conclusions. Farrington, Gray and Sharp (2012) discovered that in South Africa the SMME sector is dominated by males. Moreover, another study also found that only 29%

of the respondents were female, while 71% of the respondents were male (Brijlal, Naicker & Peters, 2013).

### 5.4.2 Age

The table below shows the percentage and frequency of six (6) different age groups of owners or managers of hotel/lodges/guesthouses/BnBs who participated in this research.

Table 5. 3: Respondent’s age(years)

	Frequency	Percentage
Below 20	0	0%
21-30	83	21%
31-40	91	22%
41-50	169	42%
51-60	49	12%
Above 60	11	3%

Source: author’s data analysis

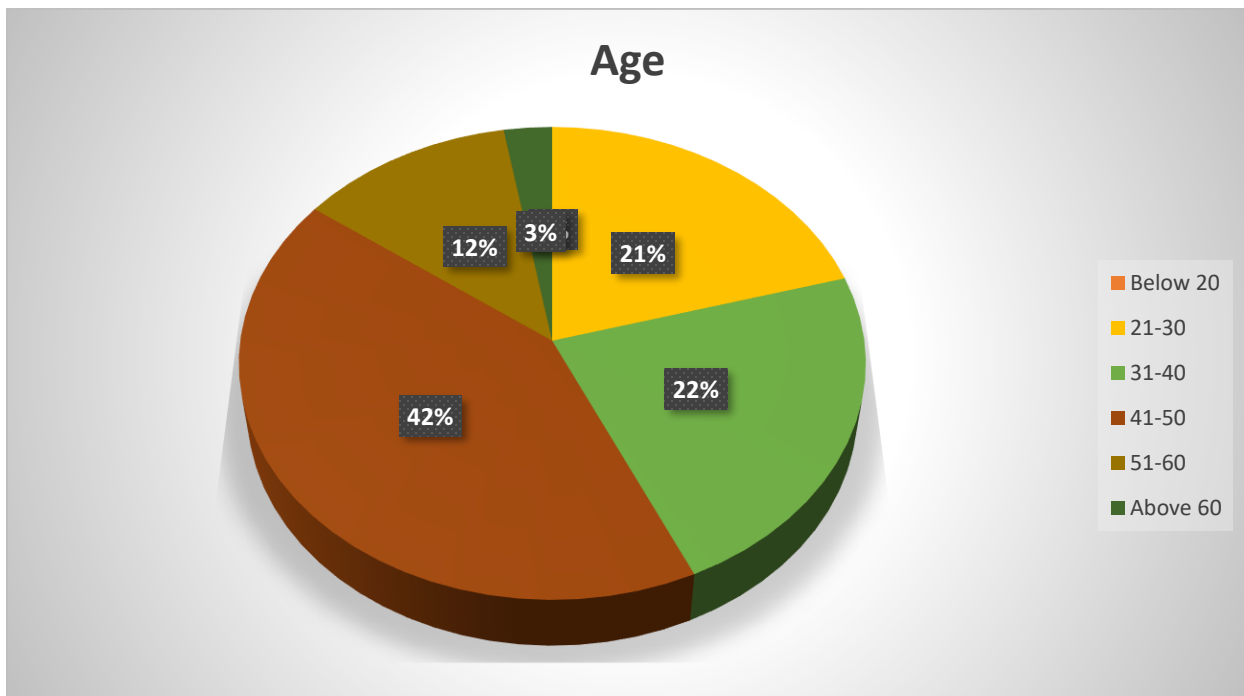


Figure 5. 2: Age

An analysis of age indicates that no manager or owner was below 20 years of age. For the rest, there were 21% of respondents between the ages 21-30, 22% were between the ages of 31-40, 42% were between the ages of 41-50, 12% were between the ages of 51-60, while only 3% were above 60 years. The results in table 5.2 are inconsistent with prior empirical studies. In South Africa, the majority of owners/managers are between the ages of 40 and 49 years (Farrington et al., 2012; Dubihlela 2013:33). In addition, SEDA (2019) indicates that there is an increment of 25% in the number of SMME owners/managers between the ages of 45 and 49 years.

### 5.4.3 Level of education

In this research study, the level of education was addressed to establish whether its contribution influences the failure or success of SMMEs. The findings are demonstrated below.

Table 5. 4: Respondent's level of education

	Frequency	Percentage
Pre matric	44	11%
Matric	129	32%
Post matric	230	57%

Source: author's data analysis

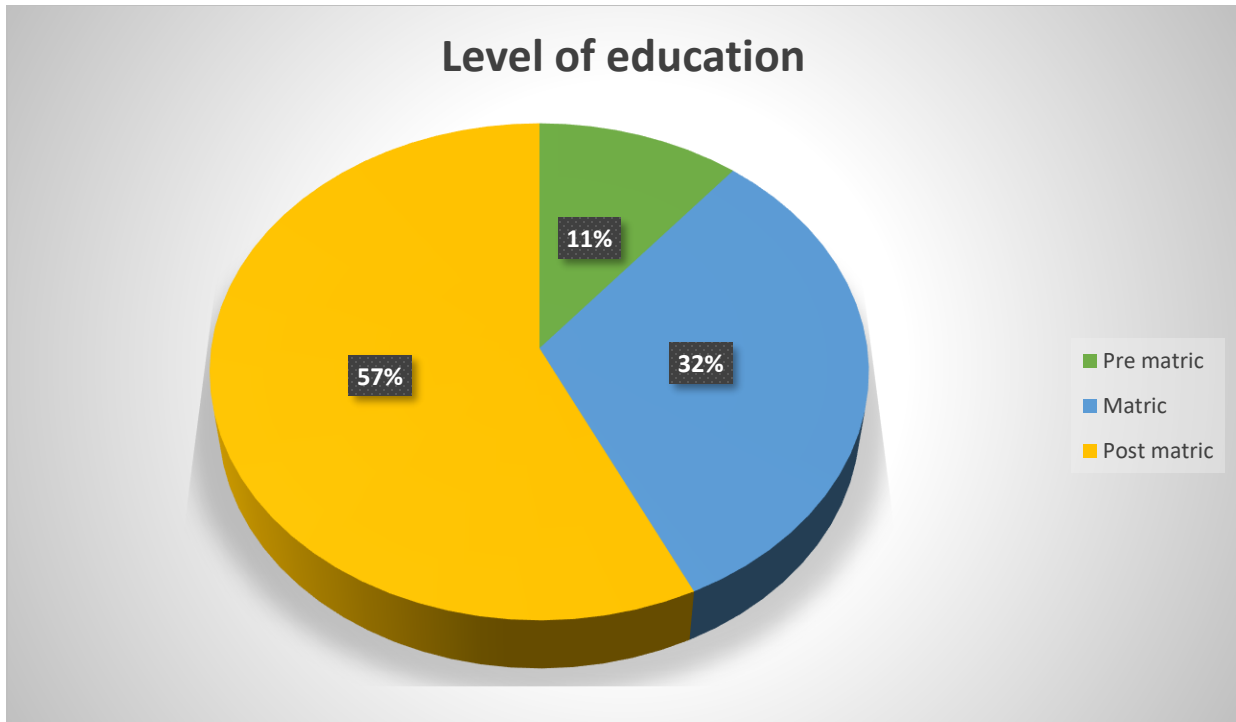


Figure 5. 3: Level of education

In relation to education, only 11% of the participants do not have matric, while 32% and 57% were those who have matric and post matric, respectively. The overall outcomes of the study showed that the majority of the participants have an educational background. One study elucidates that the business is positively affected by the owner /manager’s level of education (Umidjon, Shuhua, Jayathilake & Renyan, 2014). In addition, Chazireni (2017) discovered that the majority (56.2%) of SMME owners/managers had either a diploma or a degree, 25% had a postgraduate degree, whereas only 16.8% had a matric. These outcomes indicate that the majority of respondents who own or manage successful SMME hotels are educated. This research study continues to contend that education has a significant impact on an individual (owner/manager) since it provides guidance and insight on how to run a successful firm.

#### 5.4.4 Business status

The table below illustrates the different categories on the level of business status.

Table 5. 5: Respondent's level of business status

	Frequency	Percentage
Sole proprietor	0	0%
Partnership	127	32%
Close corporation	145	36%
Private	131	32%

Source: author's data analysis

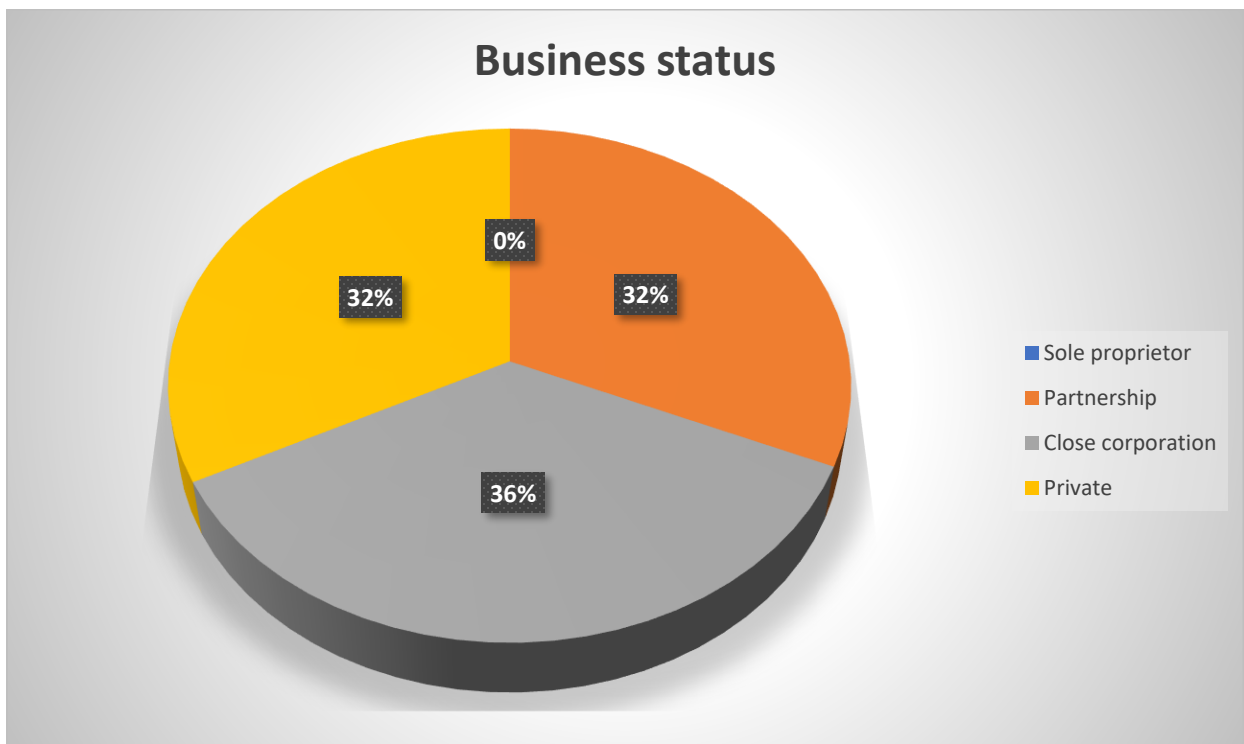


Figure 5. 4: Level of business status

The analysis of the business status revealed that 32% were in partnership, whereas 36% and 32% were close corporations and private, respectively. This outcome demonstrates that most respondents in this research were close corporations with the highest percentage of 36%, followed by private companies with 32%, and lastly, partnerships with 32%. The results in table 5.2 are inconsistent with the study that discovered major participants to be sole proprietors (Mankgele and Fatoki, 2018). In addition, Blackburn, Kitching and Saridakis (2015) also revealed that the majority of participants were sole

traders with the highest percentage of 68.3%. These outcomes are inconsistent with the present study. This shows that firms are registered as close corporations, companies, and partnerships, and so this research discloses a larger percentage in businesses operating under close corporations, partnerships and companies as a legal status.

**5.4.5 Number of employees**

Table 5.6 below represents the number of workers within a company. It indicates the frequency and percentage number of workers within a company. Figure 5.5 was created using the information from the table.

Table 5. 6: Number of employees

	Frequency	Percentage
0-10	115	28%
11-50	229	57%
51-250	59	15%

Source: author’s data analysis

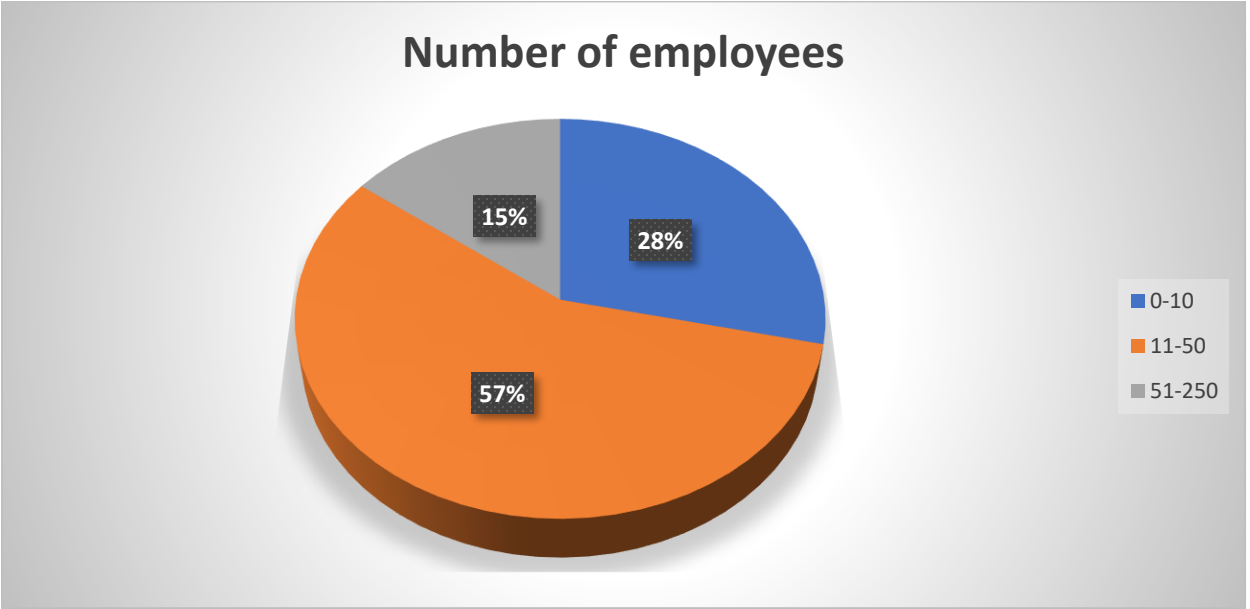


Figure 5. 5: Number of employees

The participant's responses depicted that 28% of the employees in the hotels and lodges were between 0-10, 57% employees in the hotels and lodges were between 11-50 and only 15% employees in hotels and lodges were between 51-250. The results in table 5.2 indicates that most SMME hotels hire 11 to 50 workers in their organisations. The findings are inconsistent with the research which showed that the most respondents had 2-5 workers, which accounts for 47%; while owner with no workers and those with 21-50 workers were 39% and 1% respectively (Small Business Landscape Report, 2019). Therefore, it is crucial for businesses to have workers who will assist in executing various tasks in a business to improve its performance.

#### 5.4.6 Years of operation

Table 5.7 below indicates the business's years of operation. It depicts the frequency and percentage of the business's years of operation. Figure 5.6 was created using the information from the table.

Table 5. 7: Years of operation

	Frequency	Percentage
Below 5	54	14%
6 to 10	126	31%
11 to 15	150	37%
Above 15	73	18%

Source: author's data analysis

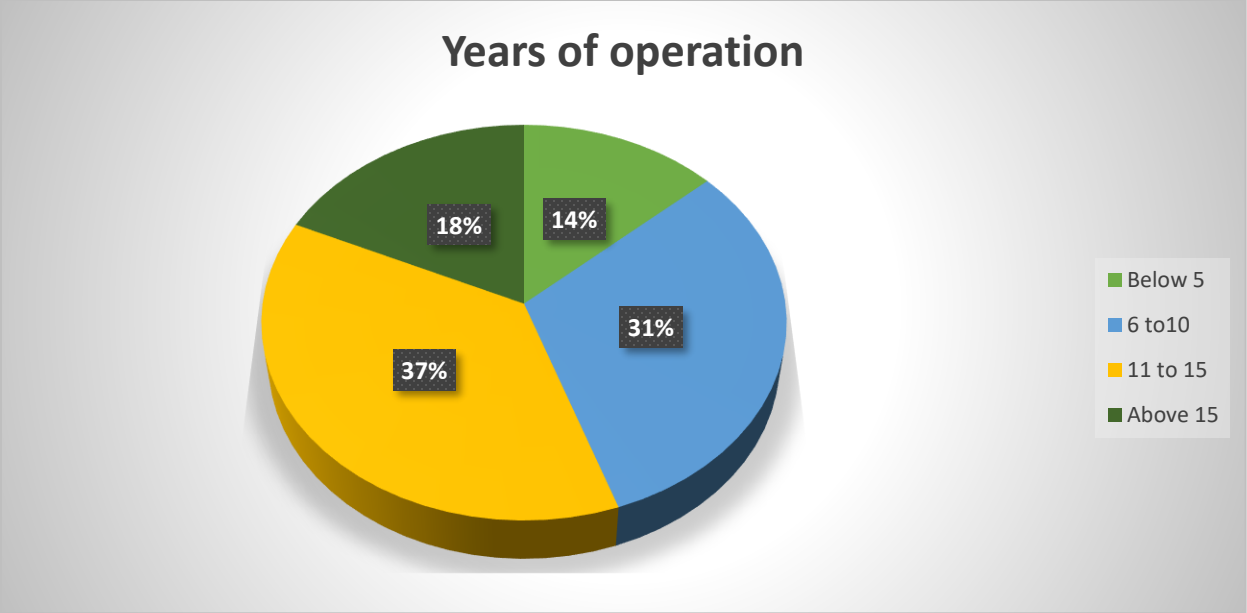


Figure 5. 6: Years of operation

From the figure above only 13% had been in operation for fewer than 5 years, 31% were hotels and lodges with between 6 and 10 years of operations, 37% of hotels had been in operation between 11 and 15 years, and 18% were those who have been in operation for more than 15 years. The outcomes show that the major participants of this study were SMME hotels that have been in operation between 6 to 10 years. Chazireni (2017) indicates that over 80% of SMMEs have been in existence for more than 11 years. Conversely, one study demonstrated that many SMMEs that took part in their surveys had been operating for 6 to 10 years (Dzansi & Okyere, 2015). The research continues to contend that those organisations that had been operating for many years are the ones whose strategies are reviewed timeously, have goals, plans, and experience of the way things should be done for the organisations to be successful.

**5.4.7 Position**

Table 5.8 below indicates the position held by the participants. The table demonstrates the frequency and percentage of the position held by the participants. Figure 5.7 was created using the information from the table.

Table 5. 8: Respondent's position

	Frequency	Percentage
Owner	258	64%
Manager	145	36%

Source: author's data analysis

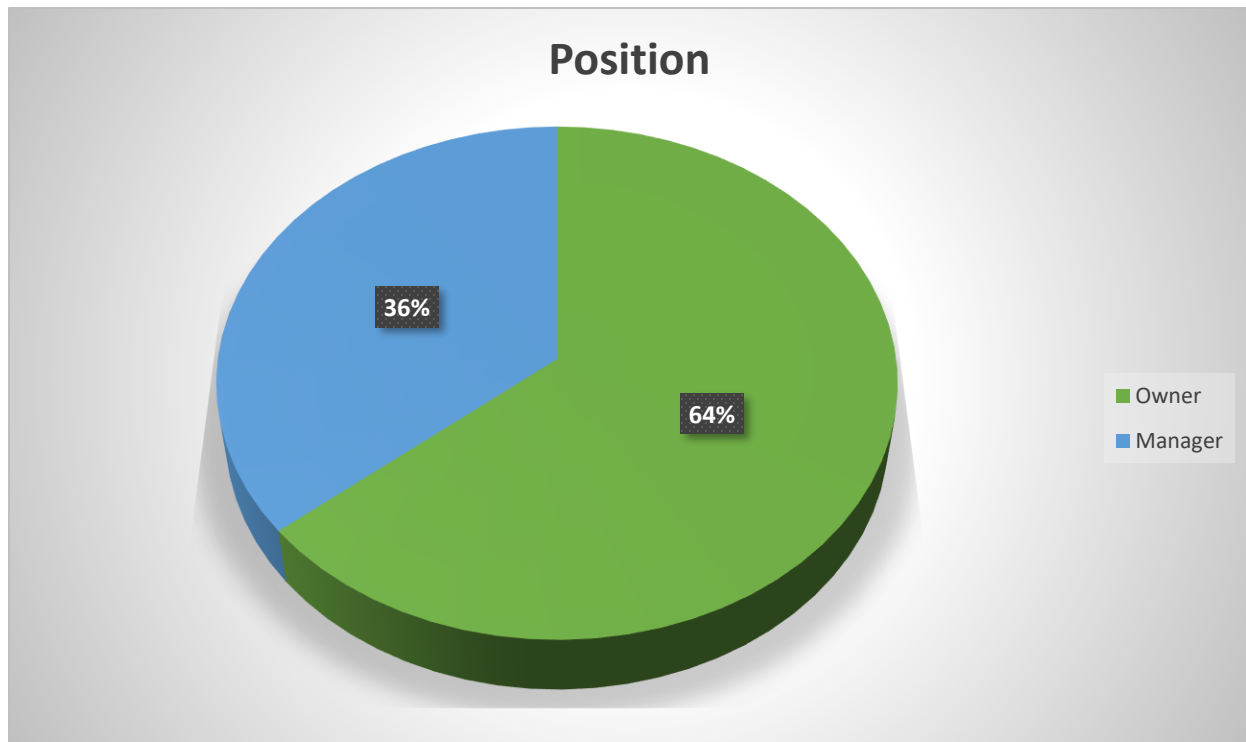


Figure 5. 7: Position

Figure 5.7 above shows the analysis of the respondent's position or rank. It shows that 64% of them were owners while 36% were managers. The results indicate that most participants in this research were SMME hotel owners.

## 5.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics of the research constructs have been tested using mean, standard deviation, excess kurtosis, and skewness. The descriptive statistics are discussed below.

Table 5. 9: Descriptive statistics

Constructs	Mean	Standard deviation	Excess Kurtosis	Skewness
Attitude towards green practice behaviour	4.041	0.742	1.350	-1.266
Subjective norms	3.971	0.773	-0.352	-0.442
Perceived behavioural control	3.936	0.839	0.837	-0.909
Pro-environmental organisational climate	3.884	0.893	-0.070	-0.591
Leadership behaviour	3.504	0.964	-0.647	-0.264
Moral norms	4.271	0.678	0.558	-0.759
Response efficacy	4.123	0.729	1.370	-0.961
Environmental concern	4.108	0.766	0.635	-1.093
Green practice intention	4.207	0.740	-0.330	-0.669
Green practice behaviour	3.429	1.146	-0.853	-0.401

Source: author's data analysis

Table 5.9 above displays the findings of the descriptive statistics of the research constructs. These results were measured in terms of mean, standard deviation excess kurtosis and skewness. Attitude towards green practice intention has a mean of 4.041, standard deviation of 0.742 and excess kurtosis of 1.350 and skewness of 1.266. Subjective norms has a mean of 3.971 and standard deviation of 0.773 and excess kurtosis of -0.352 and skewness of -0.442. Perceived behavioural control has a mean of 3.936, standard deviation of 0.839 and excess kurtosis of 0.837 and skewness of -0.909. Pro-environmental organisational climate has a mean of 3.884, standard deviation of 0.893 and excess kurtosis of -0.070 and skewness of -0.591. Leadership behaviour has a mean of 3.504, standard deviation of 0.964 and excess kurtosis of -0.647 and skewness of -0.264. Moral norms has a mean of 4.271, standard deviation of 0.678 and excess kurtosis of 0.558 and skewness of -0.759. Response efficacy has a mean of 4.123, standard deviation of 0.729 and excess kurtosis of 1.370 and skewness of -0.961.

Environmental concern has a mean of 4.108, standard deviation of 0.766 and excess kurtosis of 0.635 and skewness of -1.093. Green practice intention has a mean of 4.207, standard deviation of 0.740 and excess kurtosis of -.330 and skewness of -0.669. Green practice behaviour has a mean of 3.429, standard deviation of 1.146 and excess kurtosis of -0.853 and skewness of -0.401.

## 5.6 PLS SEM

### 5.6.1 Measurement model evaluation

Hair et al. (2019) indicates that to assess the outcomes in PLS-SEM the first step is to test the measurement model. This model comprises two subsets, namely, the reflective and the formative measurement model.

#### 5.6.1.1 Assessing the reflective measurement model

- **Factor loadings**

Table 5. 10: Factor loadings

Constructs	Measurement Item	Item Loading
Green practice intention		
	GPI1	0.768
	GPI2	0.902
Green practice behaviour		
	GPB1	0.931
	GPB2	0.966
Attitude towards green practice intention		
	ATGPI1	0.803

	ATGPI2	0.821
	ATGPI3	0.827
	ATGPI4	0.746
	ATGPI5	0.759
	ATGPI6	0.754
	ATGPI7	0.830
Subjective norms		
	SN1	0.869
	SN2	0.817
	SN3	0.878
	SN4	0.747
Perceived behavioural control		
	PBC1	0.879
	PBC2	0.895
	PBC3	0.890
Pro-environmental organisational climate		
	PEOC1	0.882
	PEOC2	0.897
	PEOC3	0.927
Leadership behaviour		
	LB1	0.917
	LB2	0.897
	LB3	0.919
Moral norms		

	MN1	0.837
	MN2	0.745
	MN3	0.842
Response efficacy (RE)		
	RE1	0.717
	RE2	0.903
	RE3	0.793
	RE4	0.709
Environmental concern		
	EC1	0.816
	EC2	0.846
	EC3	0.798
	EC4	0.795
	EC5	0.801
	EC6	0.801
	EC7	0.804

Source: author's data analysis

The outcomes shown in table 5.10 above indicate that the loadings have a value more than the required threshold of 0.708. The item loading for all the different variables range from the lowest value of 0.710 to the highest value of 0.966. Several authors confirm that the threshold of item loadings is significant when the value is 0.708 or greater (Fatoki, 2019; Hair et al., 2019; Fatoki, 2020a; Fatoki, 2021a).

- **Reliability**

The measure of internal consistency reliability in this research was conducted using composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha. The table below depicts the findings of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5. 11: Reliability

	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability
GPI	0.812	0.889
GPB	0.947	0.966
ATGPI	0.902	0.922
SN	0.853	0.898
PBC	0.867	0.918
PEOC	0.890	0.929
LB	0.897	0.936
MN	0.740	0.851
RE	0.822	0.864
EC	0.914	0.930

Source: author's data analysis

The above table indicates the internal consistency through composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha value for all the latent variables ranges from 0.740 to 0.947. An Alpha coefficient that ranges between 0.7 and 0.8 is moderate and acceptable, and one that lies between 0.8 and 0.9 is strong and good, and when the coefficient of alpha is larger than 0.9 it is deemed as very strong and excellent (Makhitha & Dlodlo, 2014; Šerbetar & Sedlar, 2016). Composite reliability values are more than 0.80 as shown above in the table. Hair et al. (2019) confirm the previous statement by pointing out that the values of reliability from 0.70 and 0.90 are seen as "satisfactory to good". Thus, the outcomes indicate that all the constructs' internal consistency are reliable.

- **Convergent validity**

AVE is utilised to test the study's constructs' convergent validity. Tabled 5.12 below shows the results.

Table 5. 12: Average Variance Extracted AVE

	AVE
GPI	0.729
GPB	0.904
ATGPI	0.627
SN	0.688
PBC	0.789
PEOC	0.814
LB	0.830
MN	0.655
RE	0.615
EC	0.654

Source: author's data analysis

The results above show the results of AVE. AVE is used to measure convergent validity. The findings presented in Table 5.4 also reveal that GPI, GPB, ATGPI, SN, PBC, PEOC, LB, MN, RE and EC have an AVE value of 0.729, 0.904, 0.627, 0.688, 0.789, 0.814, 0.830, 0.655, 0.615 and 0.654, respectively. Therefore, it is evident from the outcomes presented that all the values are above 0.5 which is considered an acceptable minimum threshold (Henseler et al., 2016).

- **Discriminant validity**

Fornell-Larcker and HTMT are measures utilised to measure the discriminant validity of the constructs. The table below represents the results of discriminant validity.

Table 5. 13: Discriminant validity (Fornell-Larker criteria)

	ATGPI	EC	GPB	GPI	LB	MN	PBC	PEOC	RE	SN
ATGPI	0,792									

<b>EC</b>	0,147	<b>0,809</b>								
<b>GPB</b>	0,248	0,058	<b>0,951</b>							
<b>GPI</b>	0,317	0,179	0,385	<b>0,854</b>						
<b>LB</b>	0,268	0,198	0,395	0,348	<b>0,911</b>					
<b>MN</b>	0,299	0,137	0,231	0,340	0,438	<b>0,810</b>				
<b>PBC</b>	0,303	0,147	0,494	0,255	0,355	0,392	<b>0,888</b>			
<b>PEOC</b>	0,290	0,012	0,516	0,261	0,506	0,241	0,530	<b>0,902</b>		
<b>RE</b>	0,124	-0,007	0,052	0,057	-0,002	0,154	0,046	-0,019	<b>0,784</b>	
<b>SN</b>	0,312	0,105	0,418	0,252	0,269	0,227	0,384	0,480	0,070	<b>0,830</b>

Source: author's data analysis

The findings depicted in Table 5.13 above show that the square root of ATGPI, EC, GPB, GPI, LB, MN, PBC, PEOC, RE and SN are 0.792, 0.809, 0.951, 0.854, 0.911, 0.810, 0.888, 0.902, 0.784 and 0.830, respectively. Each construct's square root of AVE is larger compared to the values in the same column with it. These results are consistent with the study conducted by Ab Hamidet al. (2017) who confirm that "the square root of each construct's AVE should have a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs".

Table 5. 14: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	<b>ATGPI</b>	<b>EC</b>	<b>GPB</b>	<b>GPI</b>	<b>LB</b>	<b>MN</b>	<b>PBC</b>	<b>PEOC</b>	<b>RE</b>	<b>SN</b>
<b>ATGPI</b>										
<b>EC</b>	0,147									
<b>GPB</b>	0,258	0,064								
<b>GPI</b>	0,357	0,194	0,431							
<b>LB</b>	0,294	0,222	0,427	0,402						
<b>MN</b>	0,364	0,165	0,275	0,429	0,524					
<b>PBC</b>	0,332	0,161	0,538	0,301	0,400	0,488				
<b>PEOC</b>	0,312	0,057	0,557	0,287	0,546	0,277	0,595			
<b>RE</b>	0,152	0,055	0,060	0,077	0,032	0,211	0,082	0,057		

<b>SN</b>	0,351	0,117	0,460	0,278	0,303	0,268	0,444	0,544	0,089	
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Source: author's data analysis

The results presented in table 5.14 above show that HTMT values for all the constructs are less than one. The findings of this study are consistent with several authors who proposed a threshold of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015; Ab Hamidet al., 2017). Furthermore, the study of Kline (2011) asserts that poor discriminant validity exists when the value of HTMT is more than its threshold.

### 5.6.1.2 Evaluation of formative assessment

- **Collinearity statistics (VIF)**

Table 5. 15: Collinearity statistics

	<b>VIF</b>
<b>ATGPI1</b>	<b>2,639</b>
<b>ATGPI2</b>	<b>2,945</b>
<b>ATGPI3</b>	<b>2,909</b>
<b>ATGPI4</b>	<b>1,849</b>
<b>ATGPI5</b>	<b>1,967</b>
<b>ATGPI6</b>	<b>1,914</b>
<b>ATGPI7</b>	<b>2,564</b>
<b>EC1</b>	<b>2,060</b>
<b>EC2</b>	<b>2,393</b>
<b>EC3</b>	<b>2,225</b>
<b>EC4</b>	<b>2,443</b>
<b>EC5</b>	<b>2,492</b>
<b>EC6</b>	3,162
<b>EC7</b>	3,121
<b>GPB1</b>	3,868
<b>GPB2</b>	<b>5,925</b>

<b>GPB3</b>	<b>5,520</b>
<b>GPI1</b>	<b>1,439</b>
<b>GPI2</b>	<b>2,328</b>
<b>GPI3</b>	<b>2,350</b>
<b>LB1</b>	<b>2,885</b>
<b>LB2</b>	<b>2,526</b>
<b>LB3</b>	<b>2,916</b>
<b>MN1</b>	<b>1,685</b>
<b>MN2</b>	<b>1,414</b>
<b>MN3</b>	<b>1,449</b>
<b>PBC1</b>	<b>1,977</b>
<b>PBC2</b>	<b>2,434</b>
<b>PBC3</b>	<b>2,612</b>
<b>PEOC1</b>	<b>2,820</b>
<b>PEOC2</b>	<b>2,459</b>
<b>PEOC3</b>	<b>2,571</b>
<b>RE1</b>	<b>1,815</b>
<b>RE2</b>	<b>1,569</b>
<b>RE3</b>	<b>1,773</b>
<b>RE4</b>	<b>1,795</b>
<b>SN1</b>	<b>2,259</b>
<b>SN2</b>	<b>1,865</b>
<b>SN3</b>	<b>1,975</b>
<b>SN4</b>	<b>1,794</b>

Source: author's data analysis

Table 5.15 above shows the indicator collinearity. Preferably. The values of VIF should be 3 or less. The values of VIF that are 5 or above show serious issues of collinearity amid the indicators (Rodrigues, Menezes & Ferreira, 2018). The table shows that most values are close to 3 or below. It also shows that some values are above 3. Only two

values on GPB 1 and GPB 2 are above 5, thus this shows that serious collinearity issues exists.

### 5.6.2 Structural model evaluation

Hair et al. (2017) suggest that the structural model can only be measured when the required criteria for the measurement model are met.

#### 5.6.2.1 R square (R<sup>2</sup>)

This research study used the Smart PLS version 3.0 to assess the structural model and the hypotheses. To assess the required quality of the outer model, the model was tested by bootstrapping as suggested by Henseler et al. (2016) with a sample size of 500 (Ringle et al., 2015). Chin et al. (2008) as cited by Demir et al. (2021), outlined that a construct is considered weak when the value of R<sup>2</sup> is 0.19, moderate when R<sup>2</sup> is 0.33 and significant when R<sup>2</sup> is 0.67. In addition, Kock (2015) validates the assertion that the R<sup>2</sup> value is significant when it is 0.75, moderate when it is 0.50 and weak when it is 0.25.

Table 5. 16: R square (R<sup>2</sup>)

	R Square
<b>ATGPI</b>	0,021
<b>GPB</b>	0,148
<b>GPI</b>	0,219

Source: author's data analysis

The above table presents the findings of R square. It is clear that ATGPI, SN and PBC are able to explain about only 2.1% of owners/managers' perception of attitude towards green practice intention (R<sup>2</sup>=0.021). The results also show that the theory of the planned behaviour variable, organisational factors and individual factors employed in this study explain 14.8% of owners/managers perceptions of green practice intention (R<sup>2</sup>=0.148). In addition, the outcomes indicate that green practice intention is able to explain 21.7% of the owners/managers views on green practice behaviour (R<sup>2</sup>=0.219). From the above

table, it can be said that all the outcomes are weak as confirmed by several authors who have indicated that when  $R^2=0.19$  and  $0.25$  it is deemed as weak (Chin et al., 2008; Kock, 2015; Demir et al., 2021).

### 5.6.2.2 Effect size ( $f^2$ )

Table 5. 17: Effect size ( $f^2$ )

	ATGPI	EC	GPB	GPI	LB	MN	PBC	PEOC	RE	SN
ATGPI				0.029						
EC	0,022			0,009						
GPB										
GPI			0,174							
LB				0.021						
MN				0,027						
PBC				0,000						
PEOC				0,001						
RE				0,000						
SN				0,006						

Source: author's data analysis

The outcomes depicted in Table 5.17 show the  $f^2$  that is used to test the significant effects of the research constructs (Demir et al., 2021). Jiang and Kim (2015) propose that the value of  $f^2$  is weak when it is 0.02, moderate when it is 0.15 and strong when it is 0.35. The results in table 5.8 indicate that ATGPI, EC, LB, MN PBC, PEOC, RE and SN on GPI is weak since all the values are  $\leq 0.02$ , EC on ATGPI is also weak because the value is 0.022. When GPI on GPB has a value of 0.174, this effect is considered moderate (Jiang & Kim, 2015; Fatoki, 2019).

### 5.6.2.3 Q square

Fatoki (2020a) observes that a suggested measure is the model's predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ), which is in addition to the size of  $R^2$ . There are two techniques for  $Q^2$  used to

measure this prediction, namely, cross validated redundancy and cross validated communality. A certain study recommends that the former one should be used (Chin, 2010).

Table 5. 18: Q square (Q<sup>2</sup>)

	<b>SSO</b>	<b>SSE</b>	<b>Q<sup>2</sup>(=1-SSE/SSO)</b>
<b>ATGPI</b>	2821.000	2764.492	0.020
<b>GPB</b>	1209.000	1051.395	0.130
<b>GPI</b>	1209.000	1031.944	0.146

Source: author's data analysis

The results provided in Table 5.18 above show that the Q<sup>2</sup> values for all the research variables are more than 0. Fatoki (2020a) suggests that when a Q<sup>2</sup> value is greater than 0.5, the model is seen as predictive. The Q<sup>2</sup> values for ATGPI, GPB and GPI are 0.020, 0.130 and 0.146, respectively. This shows that the model's predictive accuracy is small.

#### 5.6.2.4 Model fit

Table 5. 19: Model fit

	<b>Saturated Model</b>	<b>Estimated Model</b>
<b>SRMR</b>	0,050	0,113

Source: author's data analysis

Table 5.19 above illustrates the model fit, which was measured using SRMR. Hair et al. (2016) recommend that a SRMR value greater than 0.10 demonstrates an adequate model fit. The results presented above show that the value of SRMR is 0.050.

### 5.6.2.5 Path coefficient ( $\beta$ ) and T-statistics

Dijkstra and Henseler (2015) point out that the significance of a hypothesis is tested through bootstrapping. In addition, the value of standardised beta is also utilised to assess the significance of every estimation. Demir et al. (2021) indicate that the larger the value of the standardised beta, the larger the effect on the endogenous variable.

Table 5. 20: Path coefficient ( $\beta$ ) and T-statistics

Hypothesized path	Standardised Beta	T-statistics	P value	Decision
H1 ATGPI→GPI	0.167	3.070	0,002**	Accepted
H2 SN→GPI	0.082	1.429	0.154	Rejected
H3 PBC→GPI	0.012	0.231	0.817	Rejected
H4 LB→GPI	0.163	3.263	0.001**	Accepted
H5 PEOC→GPI	0.042	0.712	0.477	Rejected
H6 MN→GPI	0.172	3.326	0.001**	Accepted
H7 RE→GPI	0.006	0.083	0.934	Rejected
H8 EC→GPI	0.088	1.751	0.081	Rejected
H9 EC→ATGPI	0.147	2.872	0.004**	Accepted
H10 GPI→GPB	0.385	9.801	0.000*	Accepted

\*P<.001, \*\*P<0.01, \*\*\*P<0.05

Source: author's data analysis

Table 5.20 above presents the findings of hypotheses testing. The results demonstrate that ATGPI has a significant positive relationship with GPI ( $\beta=0.167$ ,  $t= 3.070$ ,  $p=. 002$ ). This is in line with the research conducted by Chan and Hawkins (2010) who discovered that attitude positively impacts the intention to implement green practices. Moreover, these outcomes are consistent with the results of other empirical research studies that attitude has a positive significant relationship with intentions to implement green practices (Kim& Han, 2010; Han et al., 2010; Chen & Peng, 2012). Thus, Ha1 is accepted.

Conversely, SN does not have a significant association with green practice intention ( $\beta=0.082$ ,  $t= 1.429$ ,  $p=0.154$ ). Moreover, these outcomes are consistent with empirical studies by Chen and Peng (2012) and Verma and Chandra (2018) who found a significant negative association between SN and GPI. Therefore, Ha2 is not accepted.

Furthermore, the results demonstrate that PBC has no significant positive relationship with GPI ( $\beta=0.012$ ,  $t= 0.231$ ,  $p =0.817$ ). The findings presented above are inconsistent with prior empirical studies, which have found that PBC has a significant positive relationship with GPI (Han & Kim, 2010; Han et al., 2010; Chen & Peng, 2012; Chen & Tung, 2014; Verma & Chandra, 2018). As a result, Ha3 is rejected in this study.

The presented findings above show that LB has a significant positive relationship with GPI ( $\beta= 0.163$ ,  $t= 3.263$ ,  $p=. 001$ ). The results are the same as those of the study by Noorliza (2020) who indicates that the implementation of green measures greatly depends on the variables of leadership behaviour to conserve nature and empower green practices. In addition, Lee et al. (2018) empirical research shows that green practice adoption or green practice is positively affected by the factors of the environment. Thus, Ha4 is accepted.

It was hypothesised that pro-environmental organisational climate and green practice behaviour have a positive relationship. The results shows that there is no significant link among PEOC and GPI ( $\beta= 0.042$ ,  $t= 0.712$ ,  $p=0.477$ ). Thus, Ha5 is rejected.

H6 projected that there is a significant positive association between MN and GPI. The outcomes in table 5.19 confirm that there is a significant positive association between MN and GPI ( $\beta= 0.172$ ,  $t= 3.326$ ,  $p=.001$ ). The findings are consistent with various researchers having done empirical reviews regarding the influence of moral norms and, they found that there is a positive link between MN and a person's intentions towards ecological behaviour (Han, 2015; Bertoldo & Castro, 2016; Wang et al., 2020). In addition, Bertoldo and Castro (2016) affirm that MNs are the greatest and most significant precursor of a person's intention to conduct environmental actions concerning responsibility. Moreover, Faisal et al. (2020) indicated that the link between MN and

behavioural intentions is positive and significant in relation to environmental actions. As a result, Ha6 is not rejected.

H7 hypothesized that RE has a significant positive effect on GPI ( $\beta = .006$ ,  $t = .083$ ,  $p = 0.934$ ). The results are inconsistent with the previous empirical study by Ng et al. (2018), who discovered that response efficacy affects the intention to buy electronic vehicles positively and customers tend to reflect about consuming ecological products if they think their behaviour is going to help protect the environment (White et al., 2019). Moreover, Pang et al. (2021) have discovered that the relationship between RE and customers' intention to purchase organic foods is positive. Therefore, Ha7 is not accepted.

Conversely, there is no significant relationship between EC and GPI ( $\beta = 0.088$ ,  $t = 1.751$ ,  $p = 0.081$ ) with regards to the results presented in table 5.19. These outcomes are not the same as the study of Sang and Bekhet (2015) who indicate that the relationship between EC and the intention to buy certain green products is positive. Furthermore, another study also found that the association between EC and the intention to purchase ecological products is positive (Yadav & Pathak, 2017). In addition, Jaiswal and Kant (2018) discovered that there is a favourable connection between EC and the intention to purchase sustainable products. Similarly, Paul et al. (2016) discovered that the link between EC and the intention to buy ecological product is positive. Thus, Ha8 is not accepted.

H9 shows that there is a significant positive relationship between EC and attitude. Table 5.19 above proves this hypothesis. The outcomes indicated the following values  $\beta = 0.147$ ,  $t = 2.872$ ,  $p = 0.004$ . These outcomes are the same as those by Chen and Tung (2014) who in their study found that EC successfully affects customer attitude towards green hotels. Therefore, Ha9 is not rejected.

Lastly, H10 proposed that there is a significant positive relationship between GPI and GPB. Table 5.19 above confirms this hypothesis. The results showed the following values  $\beta = .385$ ,  $t = 9.801$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . These results are consistent with empirical literature, which pronounces that behaviour is mainly dependent on intention and they have a positive

relationship (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Intention is the main indicator in predicting the implementation of green practices (Chen & Tung, 2014; Yilmaz, 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Huang & Ge, 2019). As a result, Ha10 is accepted.

### 5.6.2.6 Mediation analysis

The analysis of mediation was done to assess the mediating role of ATGPI on the relationship between EC and GPI.

Table 5. 21: Mediation analysis

Total effect		Direct effect (path coefficient)		Mediation path	Indirect effect (specific indirect effects)				Bias corrected confidence interval	Decision
Co Efficient	p-value	Co Efficient	p-value		Co efficient	SD	T-value	p-value	BI[2.5%;97.5]	
.147	.004	.088	.081	H11 EC → ATGPI →GPI	.024	.012	2.019	.044	.006-.050	Accepted (full mediation)

Source: author's data analysis

Table 5.21 depicts the results on the total effect of EC on GPI as significant (H11:  $\beta=.147$ ,  $t=2.872$ ,  $p=.002$ ). With the inclusion of the mediating variable (ATGPI), the impact of EC on GPI became insignificant ( $\beta= .088$ ,  $t= 1.751$ ,  $p=.081$ ). The indirect effect of EC on GPI through ATGPI was found to be significant ( $\beta= .024$ ,  $t= 2.019$ ,  $p= .044$ ). This indicates that there is a full mediation of ATGPI on the association between EC and GPI.

### 5.6.2.7 Moderation analysis

An analysis of moderation was done to assess the mediating role of gender, age, and level of education on the relationship between TPB variables (ATGPI, SN and PBC) and GPI.

Table 5. 22: The moderation effect of gender

	<b>Path coefficient original (male) n=218</b>	<b>Path coefficient original (female) n=185</b>	<b>Path coefficient difference (female-male)</b>	<b>Decision</b>
ATGPI→GPI	0.189	0.130	-0.059	Rejected
SN→GPI	-0.056	0.183	0.239	Accepted
PBC→GPI	-0.001	0.131	0.131	Rejected

Source: author's data analysis

Because the moderating variable is not continuous, the moderating effect was determined by using multi-group analysis (MGA) with the permutation approach (Fatoki, 2020b). The dichotomisation technique was utilised as the moderating variable gender was categorised as "1 male" and "2 female" (Hair et al., 2019; Fatoki, 2020b). Table 5.22 above depicts that owners' or managers' gender does not moderate the link between ATGPI and GPI. Conversely, owners' or managers' gender moderates the associations between SN and GPI. On the other hand, the gender of owners or managers does not moderate the link between PBC and GPI.

Table 5. 23: The moderation effect of age

	<b>Path coefficient original (below 36) n=174</b>	<b>Path coefficient original (36 and above) n=229</b>	<b>Path coefficient difference (below 3-36 and above)</b>	<b>Decision</b>
ATGPI→GPI	-0.065	0.273	-0.338	Accepted
SN→GPI	0.067	0.191	-0.124	Rejected
PBC→GPI	0.070	0.053	0.017	Rejected

Source: author's data analysis

Because the moderating variable is not continuous, the moderating effect was determined by using multi-group analysis (MGA) with the permutation approach (Fatoki, 2020b). Table 5.23 above depicts that owners' or managers' age moderates the connection between ATGPI and GPI. Conversely, owners' or managers' age does not moderate the link between SN and GPI. In addition, the age of owners or managers does not moderate the association between PBC and GPI.

Table 5. 24: The moderation effect of level of education

	<b>Path coefficient original (below matric and matric) n=173</b>	<b>Path coefficient original (post matric) n=230</b>	<b>Path coefficient difference (below matric and matric-post matric)</b>	<b>Decision</b>
ATGPI→GPI	0.268	0.075	0.193	Rejected
SN→GPI	0.071	0.148	-0.076	Rejected
PBC→GPI	0.055	-0.027	0.082	Rejected

Source: authors' data analysis

The researcher had three categories for the level of education, namely; pre matric, matric, and post matric. When the moderating variables were separated into two categorical values, dichotomisation was a popular strategy used (Genevie, Ungku-Fatimah, Samuel, Nuzul, New & Son, 2020). Therefore, it was necessary to convert the level of education into categorical variables (Genevie et al., 2020). Table 5.24 above shows that owners' or managers' level of education does not moderate the association between ATGPI, SN, PBC, and GPI.

## 5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter covered the analysis of data using SmartPLS version 3.0. The first section covered the study's response rate; this outlined the number of participants who participated in this research. The second section covered the demographic profile of the

research, which showed the frequency and percentage of the participant's gender, age, level of education, business status, number of employees, years of operation, and position. The third section covered descriptive statistics, which outlined excess kurtosis and skewness. Section four focused on SEM, which evaluated the measurement model as well as the structural model. The reliability and validity of the research variables measurement model assessed the reliability and validity of the research constructs, whereas the structural model assessed the association amongst constructs. Mediation and moderation analyses were also covered in this chapter. The next chapter presents a summary of the results, conclusions reached and recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the analysis of data, interpretations, and findings. This chapter summarises the research on predictions on the intention to implement green practices in SMME hotels in the Capricorn district municipality, Limpopo Province. Each construct used in this research was concluded in this chapter. The research objectives were discussed, the research hypotheses made and the problems outlined. This chapter includes conclusions of the findings as well as recommendations. In addition, recommendations will be provided to encourage SMME hotel owners/managers to take care of the environment by implementing green practices in their businesses. Furthermore, the study's limitations are also discussed, as well as possible areas for further research.

#### 6.2 CONCLUSIONS

##### 6.2.1 Conclusions on demographic characteristics

The research study concludes that men dominate the SMME industry, with many owners between the ages of 31 and 40. These findings contradict those of prior investigations such as by Farrington et al. (2012) and Dubihlela et al. (2013:55). They discovered that many SMME owners in SA are 40 to 49 years old. This is because SMME hotel owners or managers have been operating in the industry for many years and therefore they have experience. This study also indicated that the majority of SMME hotels and lodges have between 11 and 50 employees, and many of them have been operating for 11 to 15 years. These findings show that SMMEs employ workers according to the “National Small Enterprise Act 1996 (Act no 102 of 1996”) definition of SMMEs that was amended and is detailed in Table 2.6 of Chapter 2.

##### 6.2.2 Conclusion on the relationship between TPB (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and green practice intention

The study concludes by indicating the key important items of ATGPI, SN and PBC. The items of attitude influence the business to consider green practice intention. These are

items such as protecting the environment, reducing GHGs, reducing pollution, and others. All these items of attitude help businesses protect and conserve the environment. It is also evident that the items of subjective norms are not influenced to implement green practices by people's opinions. Similarly, items of perceived behavioural control do not influence the business to consider green practice intention. These comprise items such as capable of implementing green practices, skills to implement green practices, and the decision to implement green practices.

### **6.2.3 Conclusion on the relationship between organisational factors and green practice intention**

The results of the research study conclude by indicating the key important items of leadership behaviour and pro-environmental organisational climate. The items of leadership behaviour influence the business to consider green practice intention. These are items such as employees showing green behaviour, influencing the way employees act, and so forth. All these items of leadership behaviour show that when owners or managers implement green practices employees are also ready to comply; this will help to protect the environment. Conversely, this study revealed that the items of pro-environmental organisational climate do not influence the business to consider green practice intention. These items comprise encouraging green practice, valuing green practice and being actively committed to green practices. This shows that many SMME hotels and lodges do not encourage green practices in their operations and this might end up affecting the environment in a negative way.

### **6.2.4 Conclusion on the relationship between individual factors and green practice intention**

The study concludes by indicating the key important items of moral norms, response efficacy and environmental concern. The items of moral norms influence the business to consider green practice intention. These are items such as moral responsibility to decrease GHG emissions and pollution on the environment, the moral obligation to implement green practices and awareness to prevent negative environmental consequences. All these items of moral norms demonstrate that owners or managers feel that they are responsible for implementing green practices.

Conversely, this study showed that the items of response efficacy do not influence the business to consider green practice intention. These comprise items such as conserving, preventing and preserving cultural and physical resources, stopping the reduction of plant and animal species, protecting the environment, and preventing danger to the safety of the current and upcoming human generations. The results also revealed that EC does not have an impact on GPI. This shows that many SMME hotels do not encourage green practices in their operations and this might end up affecting the environment adversely.

#### **6.2.5 Conclusion on the relationship between green practice intention and green practice behaviour**

This research concludes that there is a significant positive association between GPI and GPB. This was confirmed by a variety of authors who indicate that intention is a significant indicator in predicting the implementation of green practices (Chen & Tung, 2014; Yilmaz, 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Huang & Ge, 2019).

#### **6.2.6 Conclusion of the relationship between EC and green practice intention when attitude is a mediator**

This research concludes that there is a significant association between EC and GPI when attitude is a mediator. The research concludes that there is a full mediation of ATGPI on the relationship between EC and GPI. This conclusion was derived from the significant total effect of EC and GPI, and the insignificant impact on EC and GPI when ATGPI was included as the mediating variable and the significant indirect effect of EC on GPI through ATGPI.

#### **6.2.7 Conclusion of the relationship between TPB (ATGPI, SN and PBC) and GPI when demographic characteristics (gender, age, level of education) are moderators.**

This research concludes that there is only a significant positive association between SN and GPI when gender is a moderator. In contrast, the link between ATGPI and GPI when gender is a moderator is not significant. In addition, the link between PBC and GPI when gender is a moderator is not significant. Conversely, this study concludes that there is an association between ATGPI and GPI when age is a moderator. On the other hand, this research also concludes that SN and PBC do not have a relationship with GPI when age

is a moderator. Furthermore, the study continues to conclude that there is no relationship between ATGPI, SN, PBC and GPI when education is a moderator.

## **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.3.1 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers**

#### **6.3.1.1 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers on attitudes towards green practice intention and green practice intention**

SMME hotel owners or managers must have half-yearly workshops so that they can be taught about the importance of living in harmony with the environment and taking care of it. Therefore, it is suggested that green practice should be incorporated as a course in entrepreneurial programmes at institutions of higher learning so that these managers or owners can take them as their subjects or modules, which will prepare them to take care of the environment when running their day-to-day operations. The programme implementation will assist in outlining green practice in detail, its meaning, approaches and dimensions and relate it to GPB.

#### **6.3.1.2 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers on leadership behaviour and green practice intention**

To create a competitive advantage, SMME owners or managers need to be knowledgeable about the impact of organisational factors on green practice. To do this is critical to improving the knowledge of owners or managers regarding the concept. They must clearly understand the influence of organisational factors on green practice and its importance to increase the performance of SMME hotels. SMME hotel owners or managers must constantly obtain green practice education for themselves and their workers. In addition, they must add to the level of green practice knowledge that they have to obtain more skills to operate efficiently to gain a competitive advantage. Moreover, SMME hotel owners or managers need to be able to familiarise both existing staff and recruits on how organisational factors can affect green practice.

### **6.3.1.3 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers moral norms and green practice intention**

SMME hotel owners or managers are also recommended to exploit their strong ties as individuals to increase performance, and are advised to focus on developing stronger ties to achieve green practice. It is further suggested that SMME hotel managers or owners must create workshops in conjunction with other owners or managers. This will mutually benefit both parties. Owners or managers of hotels should be involved in workshops to enhance their organisations. Moreover, based on various kinds of individual factors studied in this research, SMME managers and owners are recommended to focus on individual factors such as moral norms, response efficacy, and environmental concern.

### **6.3.1.4 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers environmental concern and attitude towards green practice intention**

Once an individual is concerned about the environment, he or she will have a positive attitude towards green practice intention, or vice versa. Therefore, it is recommended that we care about the environment.

### **6.3.1.5 Recommendations for SMME owners/managers green practice intention and green practice behaviour**

Green practice intention usually leads to green practice behaviour. All the intentions to help SMME hotel managers or owners end up encouraging business owners to take part in the behaviour. In this study, most participants showed that they have the intention towards green practice, which later demonstrated that they have been applying green practice behaviour in their SMME hotels.

## **6.4 STUDY LIMITATIONS**

This research has produced appropriate proof concerning the association amongst TPB, organisational factors, individual factors and green practice intention.

The researcher discovered limitations such as obtaining full and appropriate information from SMME hotel owners and managers was not easy because it is difficult to reveal the private information of the business. This restricted the research with regards to reaching

managers or owners to ask them questions that had not been answered. The researcher chose not to include such information in the data analysis as she was unable to code the results of the missing answers to certain questions. Other respondents failed to return the questionnaires within the required date and were excluded from this study. The research focused on 403 hotel managers and/or owners in a single province, which limited the findings' generalizability. Only convenience sampling was used in this research, which might lead to sampling bias. The study's cross-sectional survey method cannot be utilised to examine behaviour over a longer period. The study's ability to determine cause and effect is hindered as a result of this limitation.

In addition, the research was conducted in a single district, namely, Capricorn District Municipality in Limpopo Province. Other provinces and districts were not allowed to take part in the research. This prevents the researcher from drawing broader conclusions about the intention to implement green practices in various districts. Outcomes cannot be generalised throughout SMME hotels that are in similar scale as findings might differ because of disparate countries, provinces, and districts.

## **6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This research on predicting the intention to implement green practices in small and medium-sized hotels can be carried out in the province or throughout the nation. Other researchers can investigate GPI in other industries. Longitudinal studies focusing on the same concepts will assist in determining the cause-and-effect relationship. It is therefore suggested that research with a focus on qualitative research methodology should be applied by upcoming academics to enlarge the sample of the research in other districts and countries to increase the findings' generality. Using qualitative data collection instruments such as interviews or focus groups could be a constructive approach in investigating this issue.

Many organisational factors can help predict green practice intention. Other researchers could differentiate between various organisational factors concerning green practice intention that will enable them to run their businesses effectively. In this study, only two organisational factors were discussed. They were leadership behaviour and pro-environmental factors. Leadership behaviour showed that when the owners or managers

behave in a way that supports green practices, employees become inspired to also act in a sustainable manner. Pro-environmental behaviour indicated that business settings for green behaviour must be able to encourage ecological behaviours among employees. Therefore, other organisational factors must be explored to predict green practice intention by allowing employees to become research participants and so reduce self-report bias.

In addition, there are also different types of individual factors which can help researchers envisage GPI. In this research, only three individual factors were discussed in detail. These individual factors were moral norms, response efficacy, and environmental concern. Moral norms demonstrate that it is individuals' desire to perform a particular ecological behaviour as well as concur with the argument that the conduct is morally correct. This means their choices are simply made based on standards and ethical principles. A moral norm refers to an observed responsibility. Response efficacy is the extent of an individual's beliefs about how effective a response is in preventing a threat. Environmental concern is a common understanding and consciousness about issues in the environment. Thus, there are many individual factors which can be used to extend TPB. Green practice intention was the study's dependent variable and not green practice behaviour. Other research studies must further investigate the determinant of green practice behaviour, even though intention predicts behaviour. Researchers must explore other individual factors in predicting the intention to implement green practices.

## **6.6 SUMMARY**

The restrictions of the research and areas for further study were discussed. The limitations recognised comprise obtaining full and appropriate information from SMME hotel owners and managers. This was a difficulty because it is problematic to reveal the private information of the business. Some respondents failed to return the completed questionnaires within the relevant period and were excluded from this research. In addition, the research was conducted in one district only, Capricorn District Municipality in Limpopo Province. Other provinces and districts were constrained from taking part in the research. This prevented the investigator from drawing broader conclusions about the intention to implement green practice in different areas.

Furthermore, suggestions to improve the relationship between organisational, individual, and green practice intention were indicated. Some of the suggestions comprised the Small Business Development Agency (SEDA) and government agencies arranging workshops to encourage SMMEs to increase their level of green practice knowledge. Another recommendation is that to create a competitive advantage, SMME managers or owners must be knowledgeable about the impact of organisational factors on green practice. In order to do this, it is critical to improve the knowledge of owners or managers regarding the concept. They must clearly understand the influence of organisational factors on green practice and its importance to increase the performance of SMME hotels.

SMME hotel owners or managers are also recommended to exploit their strong ties as individuals to increase performance, and are advised to focus on developing stronger ties to achieve green practice. It is further suggested that SMME hotel managers or owners create workshops with other owners or managers to mutually benefit both parties.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE



**TOPIC: PREDICTING THE INTENTION TO IMPLEMENT GREEN PRACTICE IN SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOTELS AND LODGES AND LODGES IN CAPRICORN DISTRICT, LIMPOPO PROVINCE.**

Dear Participant

My name is Proceed Lerato Masebe. I am a Masters student in the Department of Business Management at the University of Limpopo. I am conducting a study on the topic: **Predicting the intention to implement green practice in small and medium sized hotels and lodges and lodges in Capricorn district, Limpopo province.** Would you

kindly give me a few minutes of your time and assist me by answering the following set of questions and by completing the questionnaire to the best of your ability. The questionnaire will only be used for academic purposes only and complete confidentiality is assured as all responses are anonymous and no one will have access to raw data. The outcomes of this research will help the scholar to analyse and make recommendation that will help small and medium sized hotels and lodges to consider green practices in their businesses.

Yours sincerely

Masebe P.L (cell- 0823946607/0640927507, e-mail- proceed.lerato@gmail.com)

**Request: Please answer the questions by marking with an X in the space provided**

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE**

1. Gender

Male		Female		Other	
------	--	--------	--	-------	--

2. Age

Below 20		21- 30		31-40		41-50		51-60		Above 60	
-------------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	-------	--	-------	--	----------	--

3. What is the level of your Education?

Pre matric		Matric		Post matric	
------------	--	--------	--	-------------	--

4. What is the level of your business status?

Sole proprietor		Partnership		Close corporation		Private	
-----------------	--	-------------	--	----------------------	--	---------	--

5. How many employees are there in the business?

0-10		11-50		51-250	
------	--	-------	--	--------	--

6. How many years has your organisation been running?

Below 5		6-10		11-15		Above 15	
---------	--	------	--	-------	--	----------	--

7. What is your position in the business?

Owner		Manager	
-------	--	---------	--

## SECTION B: GREEN PRACTICES

This section seeks your opinions regarding the intention to implement green practice in small and medium sized hotels and lodges/lodges in Capricorn district, Limpopo province. Please read and indicate how strongly you agree or disagree by marking with an X. 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree.

Statement	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
<b>Green practice intention</b>					
1. We are willing to implement green practices in our hotel/lodge in the future					
2. We intend to implement green practices in our hotel/lodge in the future.					

3. We plan to implement green practices in our hotel/lodge in the future.					
<b>Green practice behaviour</b>					
4. We have implemented green practices in our hotel/lodge in the past six months.					
5. We have implemented green practices in our hotel/lodge in our daily operation.					
6. We have implemented green practices in our hotel/lodge on a regular basis.					

**SECTION C: TPB VARIABLES**

Statement	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
<b>Attitude towards green practice intention</b>					
1. I think that implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge is useful to protect the environment.					
2. I think that implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge is significant to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.					
3. I think that implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge is valuable to reduce pollution.					

4. I think that implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge is a wise decision.					
5. I think that the implementation of green practice in my hotel/lodge is desirable.					
6. I think that the implementation of green practice in my hotel/lodge is pleasant					
7. I think that the implementation of green practice in my hotel/lodge will make a positive impact on the environment					
<b>Subjective norm</b>					
8. Most people who are important to me think I should implement green practices.					
9. Most people who are important to me would want me to implement green practice.					
10. People whose opinions I value would prefer that I implement green practices.					
11. My friend's positive opinion influences me to implement green practice.					
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>					
12. I think that I am capable of implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge.					

13. I have the knowledge and skill to implement green practice in my hotel/lodge.					
14. Whether or not I implement green practice in my hotel/lodge is completely up to me.					

#### SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS AND GREEN PRACTICES

Statement	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
<b>Pro-environmental organisational climate</b>					
1. Green practice is encouraged in my Hotel/lodge.					
2. My hotel/lodge puts value on green practice.					
3. My hotel/lodge is actively committed to green practice.					
<b>Leadership behaviour</b>					
4. When I implement green practice in my hotel/lodge, employees show green behaviour.					
5. It is important for employees that I implement green practice in my hotel/lodge.					

6. Implementing green practice in my hotel/lodge will influence the way that employees act.					
---	--	--	--	--	--

**SECTION E: INDIVIDUAL FACTORS AND GREEN PRACTICES**

Statement	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
<b>Moral norms</b>					
1. I believe it is my moral responsibility to reduce environmental pollution and greenhouse gases emissions.					
2. I feel morally obliged to implement green practices irrespective of what others think of me.					
3. I take into account environment consequences while I implement a practice.					
<b>Response efficacy</b>					
4. I am sure that green practice is effective in preventing, conserving and preserving physical and cultural resources.					
5. I am sure that green practice will help prevent depletion of animal and plant species.					

6. I am sure that green practice will help protect the environment.					
7. I am sure that green practice will help prevent threat to safety of present and future human generations					
<b>Environmental concern</b>					
8.I am extremely worried about the state of the world's environment and what it means for the future					
9. Mankind is severely abusing the environment					
10. When mankind interferes with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences					
11.The balance of nature is delicate and easily upset					
12.Human must live in harmony with nature in order to survive					
13.I think that environmental problems are important					
14. I think that we should care about environmental problems.					

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!!!**

## APPENDIX B: LETLAKALAPUTŠIŠO



**Hlogo: polelopele ya maikemišetšo a go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala dihoteleng tše dinnyane le tša magareng seletang sa Capricorn, profenseng ya Limpopo.**

### **Thobela motšeyakarolo**

Leina laka ke Proceed Lerato Masebe. Ke nna moithuti wa Unibesithi ya Limpopo, ke ithutela dithuto tsa Master of Commerce ya business management. Ke dira dinyakišišo ka polelopele ya maikemišetšo a go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala dihoteleng tše dinnyane le tša magareng seletang sa Capricorn, profenseng ya Limpopo. Ka kgopelo mpheng metsotso e sego ye mekae ya nako ya lena gomme le nthuše go araba dipotšišo tšeo di latelago le ka go tlatša letlakalapotšišo le goya ka bokgoni bja lena. Letlakalapotšišo le le tliile go šomišwa dithutong tša ka fela ebile sephiri ka botlalo se netefaditšwe ka ge dikarabo ka moka di sa tsejwe, go ka sebe le motho yo mongwe yoo a tlogo go fihlelela data ye tala. Ditshedimošo tšeo di kgobokeditšwego di tla thuša monyakišiši go sekaseka

le go botša borakgwebo (beng ba dihotele tše di nnyane le tša magareng) gore ba nagane ka tlwaelo ye tala dikgwebong tša bona.

Wa lena

Masebe PL (mogala-0823946607, imeili-proceed.lerato@gmail.com)

**Kgopelo: Ka kgopelo araba dipotšišo ka go beya X sekgobeng se o filwego sona.**

**KAROLO YA A: TSHEDIMOŠO YA TŠA TEMOGRAFIKI**

1. Bong

Monna		Mosadi		Ye nngwe	
-------	--	--------	--	----------	--

2. Mengwaga

Ka fase ga 20		21-30		31-40		41-50		51-60		Ka godimo ga 60	
------------------	--	-------	--	-------	--	-------	--	-------	--	-----------------	--

3. Maemo a tša thuto

Ka fase gamarematlou		Marematlou		Ka godimo ga marematlou	
----------------------	--	------------	--	-------------------------	--

4. Maemo a tša kgwebo

Kgwebo ya mong		Kgwebo ya go pataganelwa		Kgwebo ka sebokana (cc)		Phoraebete	
-------------------	--	-----------------------------	--	----------------------------	--	------------	--

5. Kgwebo ya lena e nale bašomi ba bakae?

0-10		11-50		21-250	
------	--	-------	--	--------	--

6. Kgwebo ya lena e nale mengwaga ye mekae e šoma?

Ka fase ga 5		6-10		11-15		15 le go feta	
--------------	--	------	--	-------	--	---------------	--

7. Maemo ka kgwebong

Mongkgwebo		Molaodi	
------------	--	---------	--

### KAROLO B: TLWAELO YE TALA.

Karolo ye e nyaka megopolo ya lena malebala le maikemišetšo a go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala dihoteleng tše di nnyane le tša magareng seleteng sa Capricorn, profenseng ya Limpopo. Ka kgopelo bala dipotšišo gomme o šupetse ka X gore o dumela goba o ganetša ga kaakang. 1=ke dumela kudu, 2=key a dumela, 3=ke magareng, 4=ga ke dumele, 5=ke tloga ke sa dumelelane le yona.

Polelo	Ke dumela kudu 1	Ke ya dumela 2	Ke magareng 3	Ke ya gana 4	Ke tloga ke ganana le yona 5
<b>Maikemišetšo a tlwaelo ye tala</b>  1. Re ikemišeditše go beya ditirong mekgwa ye metala hoteleng ya rena nakong yeo e tlogo.					

2. Re beakantšhitše go beya ditirong mekgwa ye metala hoteleng ya rena nakong yeo e tlogo.					
3. Re rera go beya ditirong mekgwa ye metala hoteleng ya rena nakong yeo e tlogo.					
<b>Maitshwaro a tlwaelo ye tala</b> 4. Re setse re beile ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng ya rena dikgweding tse tshela tsa go feta.					
5. Re setse re beile ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng ya rena letsatsi ka letsatsi.					
6. Re setse re beile ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng ya rena ka mehla.					

### KAROLO C: KGOPOLO YA MAITSHWARO AO A BEAKANTŠHITŠWEGO

Polelo	Ke dumela kudu 1	Ke ya dumela 2	Ke magareng 3	Ke ya gana 4	Ke tloga ke ganana le yona 5
<b>Maikutlo mabapi le maikemišetšo a tlwaelo ye tala</b> 1. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala					

hoteleng yaka go tla thuša kudu ka go tšhireletša tikologo.					
2. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go bohlokwa kudu ka go fokotša go ntšhwa ga dikgase tša go tutetša lefase.					
3. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go bohlokwa kudu ka go fokotša tšhilafatšo.					
4. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka ke sephetho sa bohlale.					
5. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go a dumiša.					
6. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go monate.					
7. Ke nagana gore go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go tla dira gore go be le tšhušumetšo ye botse tikologong.					
<b>Ditwaelo tša goikemela</b>					
8. Batho ba bantšhi bao ba lego bohlokwa go nna ba					

nagana gore ke swanetše go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala.					
9. Batho ba bantšhi bao ba lego bohlokwa go nna ba ka nyaka gore ke beye ditirong tlwaelo ye tala.					
10. Batho bao maikutlo a bona ke a bonago a le bohlokwa ba ka kgetha gore ke beye ditirong tlwaelo ye tala.					
11. Maikutlo a mabotse a mogwera waka a ntšhušumeletsa gore ke beye ditirong twaelo ye tala.					
<b>Taolo ya maitšhwaro ao a bonwago.</b>					
12. Ke nagana gore kena le bokgoni bja go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala ka hoteleng yaka.					
13. Kena le tsebo le bokgoni bja go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala ka hoteleng yaka.					
14. Gore naa ke beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala ka hoteleng yaka go tšwa go le mo gonna.					

## KAROLO D: DINHLA TŠA KGWEBO

Polelo	Ke dumela kudu 1	Ke ya dumela 2	Ke magareng 3	Ke ya gana 4	Ke tloga ke ganana le yona 5
<b>Boema bja tikologo ya mokgahlo</b>					
1. Tlwaelo ye tala e ya hlohleletšwa ka hoteleng yaka.					
2. Hotele yaka e beya boleng mo go tlwaelo ye tala.					
3. Hotele yaka e ikemišeditše go itlwaetša botala.					
<b>Maitshwaro a baetapele</b>					
4. Ge ke beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka, bašomi ba bontša matšhwaro a matala.					
5. Go bohlokwa go bašomi gore ke beye ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka.					
6. Go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala hoteleng yaka go tla šušumetsa tsela yeo bašomi ba šomago ka yona.					

#### KAROLO D: DINHLA KA BOMONG

Polelo	Ke dumela kudu	Ke ya dumela	Ke magareng	Ke ya gana	Ke tloga ke ganana le yona

	1	2	3	4	5
<p><b>Tlwaelo ya maitshwaro</b></p> <p>1. Ke dumela gore ke maikarabelo a ka a maitshwaro go fokotša tšhilafatšo ya tikologo le go ntšhwa ga dikgase tša go tutetša lefase.</p>			.		
<p>2. Ke ikwa ke swantetše go beya ditirong tlwaelo ye tala go sa kgathaletsege gore ba bangwe ba nagana eng ka nna.</p>					
<p>3. Ke ela hloko ditlamorao tša tikologo ge ke ntše ke beya ditirong tlwaelo.</p>					
<p><b>Karabo ya go šoma gabotse</b></p> <p>4. Ke nale bonnete bja gore tlwaelo ye tala e kgona go thibela, go boloka le go boloka didirišwa tša mmele/senama le tša setšo.</p>					
<p>5. Ke nale bonnete bja gore tlwaelo ye tala e tla thuša o thibela go fokotšega ga mehuta ya diphoofolo le dimela.</p>					

6. Ke nale bonnete bja gore tlwaelo ye tala e tla thuša go šireletša tikologo.					
7. Ke nale bonnete bja gore tlwaelo ye tala e tla thuša go thibela go tšhošetšwa ga polokego ya meloko ya gona bjale le yeo e tlogo ya batho					
<b>Go tšhwenyega ka tikologo</b>					
8.Ke tšhenyegile kudu ka boemo bja tikologo ya lefase le seo bo se bolelago sebakeng sa bokamoso					
9. Moloko wa batho o šomiša tikologo bošaedi kudu.					
10. Ge moloko wa batho o tsena-tsenana le hlago, gatšhi o tliša ditlamorago tša kotsi.					
11. Tekanyetšo ya hlago e tiea ebile e ferekana gabonolo					
12. Motho o swanetše go phedišana gabotse le hlago gore a kgone go phela.					
13. Ke nagana gore mathata a tikologo a bohlokwa.					
14. Ke naganag gore re swanetše go kgathalela mathata a tikologo.					

## KE LEBOGA NAKO YEO LE MPHILEGO YONA!!!

### APPENDIX C: PERMISSION LETTER

Masebe Proceed Lerato

Stand No: 12687 Ext 71

Seshego

0699

The Manager/Owner

#### **Request for permission to conduct a research study in your business.**

I am a masters of commerce student in business management at the University of Limpopo. As part of my studies, I have to conduct a research on **predicting the intention to implement green practice in small and medium sized hotels and lodges in Capricorn district, Limpopo province.**

I hereby request permission to conduct a research using a questionnaire which will be distributed to you, a manager or the owner of the business. The questionnaire will have questions relating to my study, where you will be required to fill it with answers. Once I have received a permission from you, the study will be submitted to the University of Limpopo's Research Ethical committee for final approval. The findings of this research will remain confidential and anonymous. The names, addresses and contact details of the participant and institution will not be mentioned in the research report.

For any additional information you can contact me or contact my study supervisor, Professor Olawale Fatoki, tell no: (015)268-2646 and email: [olawale.fatoki@ul.ac.za](mailto:olawale.fatoki@ul.ac.za) for the confirmation of my research.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Ms Masebe Proceed Lerato

Cell no: 082 394 6607

[proceed.lerato@gmail.com](mailto:proceed.lerato@gmail.com)

**APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT  
UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO**

**DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT**

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND LAW**

**CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH STUDY.**

**Predicting the intention to implement green practice in small and medium sized hotels and lodges in Capricorn district, Limpopo province.**

Research conducted by:

Ms Masebe P.L

Cell no: 082 394 6607

Email: [proceed.lerato@gmail.com](mailto:proceed.lerato@gmail.com)

Dear participant

You are invited to participate in an academic study conducted by Proceed Lerato Masebe, a Masters of commerce student in Business management at the University of Limpopo.

**Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study is to predict the intention to Implement green practices in small and medium sized hotels and lodges, taking into consideration the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), extending it with organizational factors as well as individual factors.

**Kindly note the following:**

- This study will include a distribution of a self-administered questionnaire, where you will be required to fill in answers in the given questionnaire. Your participation in this study is important to me because it will help to know and see the results of predicting the intention to implement green practices in small and medium sized hotels and lodges.
- Your responses in the research will be anonymous. Your names and addresses will not appear in the research report and the answers you give will be kept confidential. Your identity cannot be revealed because of the provided answers in your questionnaire.
- Your participation in this study is voluntarily. You may choose to take part in this research or withdraw from participation without any negative concerns. The results of this research will be used for academic purpose only and may be published in an article. A summary of the findings will be provided on request.
- Respect and dignity will be ensured when participating in this study, politeness, obedience and following the rules will ensure a good communication between the participant and the researcher. The information and comments given will be respected and used effectively.
- There will be no physical risks, economic risks or social risks involved when participating in this study.
- If you have further queries or comments regarding this study, please contact my study supervisor, Professor Olawale Fatoki, tell no: (015) 268-2646 and email: [olawale.fatoki@ul.ac.za](mailto:olawale.fatoki@ul.ac.za).

**Consent**

I have read and I understand the information provided above. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I give my permission to take part in this research.

Participant's signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

I agree that the partaker is giving permission to take part in this research.

Researcher's signature\_\_\_\_\_

Date\_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX E: EDITORIAL REPORT

---

RMC LANGUAGE PRACTITIONER  
117 OOSTVALLEI VILLAGE  
657 COLEY STREET  
GARSFONTEIN  
PRETORIA 0081

---

### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have proofread and edited the master's dissertation entitled *Predicting the intention to implement Green Practices by Small and Medium-Sized hotels in the Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province* as researched by Proceed Lerato Masebe (Student number: 201417276 ).

I applied Microsoft Office Word track changes to the document and have suggested certain changes and corrections to language usage, syntax, and general style which I trust will be effected to make it adhere to the editorial principles demanded of a formal research report.

Signed:



Date: 23 MAY 2022

---

Dr RV McCabe  
MA in Applied Linguistics (NWU)  
MPPS - Masters in Public Policy Studies (UP)  
PhD in English Language Studies (NWU)

- CELLPHONE: 0827730282
- EMAIL: rvmccabe@oostvallei.co.za

## APPENDIX F: TURNITIN REPORT

### PREDICTING THE INTENTION TO IMPLEMENT GREEN PRACTICES BY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOTELS IN CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE

#### ORIGINALITY REPORT

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