MOTIVATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL TROPHY HUNTERS CHOOSING TO HUNT IN SOUTH AFRICA

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STUDY SUPERVISOR: Prof L Radder

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DECLARATION

I, Attilia Cesira Mulder, hereby declare that:

- the work in this dissertation is my own original work;
- all sources used or referred to have been documented and recognised; and
- this dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised education institution.

Attilia Cesira Mulder

January 2011

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ABSTRACT

In travel research, it is generally accepted that push factors are the motivations that prompt an individual to travel, and pull factors are those by which the individual is enticed by the attractiveness of the destination, once the decision to travel has been made. Having this been said, this research examined the motivations of international trophy hunters and why they chose to hunt in South Africa.

The empirical data were collected by means of a postal survey. Two thousand self-administered questionnaires were distributed to overseas hunters who had previously visited South Africa to participate in a hunting safari. One hundred and ninety one questionnaires were suitable for the data analysis.

Results of the principal component factor analysis yielded six push motivational dimensions that influenced an individual to participate in trophy hunting, and three pull motivational dimensions that encouraged hunters to hunt in South Africa. Multivariate analyses (MANOVA) were conducted to examine differences between the push and pull factors across various socio-demographic characteristics. Where differences in the MANOVA were found, additional analyses were conducted to examine differences between push and pull factors on the socio-demographic subgroups. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to measure the degree of interrelationships among push and pull factors for socio-demographic factors.

To address the objectives of the current study, five postulations were formulated. The first postulation revealed that personal, psychological needs and values, such as status, family, social interaction, exercise and challenge, were the main factors that push individuals to participate in trophy hunting. Postulation 2 indicated that a number of factors pull overseas hunters to hunt in South Africa namely, nature/scenery, fantasy and information sources - particularly recommendations by other hunters. The third postulation was confirmed namely that country of residence, age, gender, occupation and income have an influence on push and pull factors of motivation. Postulation 4 partly confirmed that a positive relationship exists between a number of push and pull factors of motivation. Lastly, postulation 5 verified that socio-demographics do have an influence on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation.

Results of the study thus provide destination/tourism/marketing managers and/or professionals within the hunting industry with a better understanding of hunters' travel motivation and behaviour.

Keywords: motives, push-pull theory, socio-demographics, special interest tourism, travel motivation, trophy hunting.

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CHAPTER 1

RATIONALE AND RESEARCH DESIGN

1.1 BACKGROUND, RATIONALE AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

South Africa, as one of the most outstanding nature-based tourist destinations in Africa (Allen & Brennan 2004:18), offers dependable sunshine and hot summers, long beaches and widely accessible wildlife parks, reserves and private game ranches. "No other country in the world offers such diverse landscapes, ranging from coasts to mountains, from lakes to deserts, from steppes to bushveld, like South Africa does. This veritable kingdom is the ideal habitat for the manifold animal world known as South Africa. More than 290 mammals and 450 types of birds are at home with more than 24 000 species of plants" (Hunting in South Africa no date:¶1).

This provides numerous opportunities for all kinds of special interest tourism. Tourists can engage in whale watching, white water rafting, deep-sea fishing, bird-watching, water sports and various wildlife viewing and hunting activities. According to Dorrington (2007:3), South Africa has become a favourable trophy hunting destination worldwide due to its ideal combination of first world infrastructure and extensive areas under wildlife.

According to Statistics South Africa (2006:2), 219 466 overseas travellers visited South Africa during October 2006. This represents a 7.1% increase in the number of overseas travellers as compared to October 2005 when there were 205 010 overseas travellers. Ninety three percent of these travellers visited South Africa for holidays and represented countries such as the United Kingdom (46 814 or 21.3%), Germany (31 151 or 14.2%), the United States of America (21 072 or 9.6%), the Netherlands (18 631 or 8.5%), France (11 824 or 5.4%), Australia (8 444 or 3.8%), Japan (6 261 or 2.9%) and Switzerland (5 417 or 2.5%). More recently however, the number of overseas travellers who visited South Africa in October 2009 for holidays, increased to 632 104 (Statistics South Africa 2009:2). While no official figures are available indicating how many of these visitors engaged in specific types of special interest tourist activities, it is known that at least 6 000 to 7 000 international trophy hunters annually undertake a hunting safari in South Africa (Damm 2005:4; Patterson & Khosa 2005:35). Patterson and Khosa (2005:50) highlight that South Africa hosts a large and complex hunting industry which annually caters to approximately 200 000 foreign recreational, trophy and traditional hunters.

Although as a proportion of total visitors, the number of hunters appears to be small; their annual contribution to the wildlife industry in South Africa is significant. More specifically, the total economic value for tourist hunting is US$68.3 million or R469,541,664 (relevant exchange rate during 2006) (Damm 2005:4). The investigation of trophy hunters, as travellers, is thus worth more attention.

Trophy hunting is defined as “the selective seeking of wild game. While parts of the slain animal may be kept as a trophy or memorial, the carcass itself is often used as food” (Trophy hunting no date:¶1). Patterson and Khosa (2005:35) confirm that during 2003 and 2004, 53 453 animals were harvested by the 6 673 foreign hunters who visited South Africa for a hunting safari.

Wildlife observation (and hunting) in its natural habitat has been an attractive focus for tourism since the colonial time. Novelli (2005:171) substantiates that over the past century, the African continent has encompassed substantial growth in nature-related tourism activities, particularly in the modern wildlife tourism context of tourism safaris, hunting/consumptive tourism (trophy hunting), and conservation tourism (Novelli 2005:171).

Demand for tourism, and by implication for hunting, at the individual level can be treated as a consumption process which is influenced by a number of factors. These may be a combination of needs and desires, availability of time and money, or images, perceptions and attitudes (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill 1993:20). Needs and desires are often expressed as motivations, which could be influenced by images, perceptions and attitudes.

Motivation for travel has received considerable attention in tourism literature (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32; Cooper et al 1993:20; Kim, Lee & Klenosky 2003:169-180; Page, Brunt, Busby & Connell 2001:64; Yoon & Uysal 2005:46). Although in all probability not being the only variable explaining tourist

behaviour, motivation is regarded as one of the most important ones, as it is both an impelling and a compelling force behind all behaviour (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32). Impelling and compelling forces are also described as push and pull factors, characterised as relating to two separate decisions made at two separate points in time – one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go (Klenosky 2002:385).

The majority of discussions in the tourist motivation literature have revolved around the concept of push and pull factors (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32). Flucker and Turner (2000:381) authenticate that push factors are the socio-psychological needs that encourage a person to travel, and pull factors are those motives by which the person is aroused by the destination. Essentially, push factors are useful for explaining the desire for travel while pull motivations are useful for explaining the actual destination choice (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32; Kim et al 2003:170; Klenosky 2002:385; Kozak 2002:222; Yoon & Uysal 2005:48).

An important distinction needs to be made between the factors that stimulate the desire to travel (push factors), and those which direct individual destination choice and preference (pull factors). It is thus important to understand not only why individuals choose to become tourists (push motivational factors), but also why they choose one destination over another (pull motivational factors) (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:68).

Dellaert, Ethema and Lindh (in Ryan 2003:85) provide evidence that travel choice decisions in addition to push and pull factors also take into account restrictions due to time and money budgets, as well as coupling constraints caused by work, family and friendship relationships. Furthermore, life stages characterised by the presence of young children imposes restraints on choice of travel dates and travel duration. Equally, income is a differentiator in terms of the numbers of trips being made; however, both high-income and low-income groups do make similar choices in terms of the destinations visited. In short, economic *and* social factors influence the actual psychology of the decision making (Ryan 2003:85). The choice of the final trip might be limited as numbers of holidays are too expensive, are not suited to the time available for travel, are too far away or may even involve over-challenging activities (Page et al 2001:64). This statement is supported by Kozak (2002:222) who affirms that each destination offers a variety of products and services to attract visitors and each tourist may choose from a selection of destinations. Fundamentally, different factors such as age, income, personality, cost, distance, motivation, image, information and risk, may have an influence on travel choice.

According to Sung (2004:343), travel and tourism markets are changing in that socio-demographic trends marked by an active aging population, two-income families, childless couples, and a rising population of single adults, have led to significant changes in travel and leisure demand and patterns of travel markets.

While motivations are critical to understand travel behaviour, insufficient information has been documented about travel motivations to South Africa for the purpose of trophy hunting. Beh and Bruyere (2007:1465) confirm that Africa-specific studies on tourist motivations have largely been used to determine destination quality or overall tourist satisfaction rather than identifying specific motivation dimensions. However, these studies have been consistent in realising that the primary motivation for visitation is to view wildlife and cultures.

Having this been said, numerous database searches failed to locate any studies done on the factors pushing and pulling tourists to travel to South Africa for the purpose of hunting, or the influence of socio-demographic variables on these decisions. The current study is therefore expected to make an important contribution in this regard.

In light of this, the research question for the current study is thus as follows:

"What motivates foreign hunters to travel to South Africa to hunt?"

1.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Based on the background, rationale and research question, the aim of this research was to determine which factors motivate individuals to participate in hunting and which factors motivate them to do so specifically in South Africa.

The following objectives were set to help attain the aim of the research, namely to:

- explain why individuals travel;
- differentiate between various types of travellers;
- discuss the socio-demographic factors that might influence the decision to travel;
- discuss factors that push travellers into participating in activities that necessitate travel and those that pull them to a specific destination; and
- determine why individuals participate in hunting and why they choose to hunt in South Africa.

1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

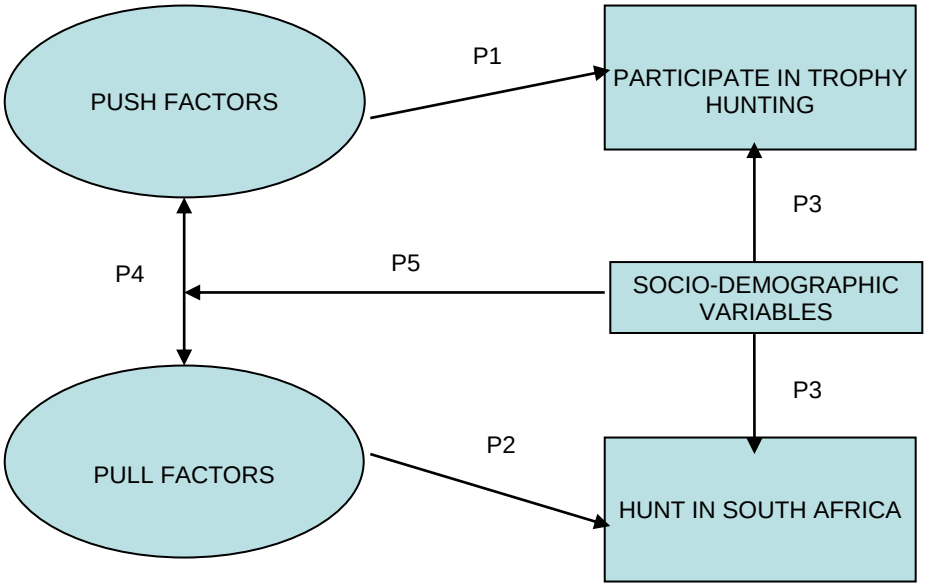
A conceptual framework is needed to theorise or make logical sense of the relationships among the factors identified as important to the research problem (Sekaran 2003:87). Moreover, a conceptual framework discusses the interrelationships among the variables that are considered to be fundamental to the dynamics of the situation being investigated (Sekaran 2003:87). Developing a conceptual framework thus assists the researcher in postulating or hypothesising and testing certain relationships, improves the understanding of the dynamics of the situation and examining whether the theory formulated is valid or not (Sekaran 2003:87).

Sekaran (2003:87) affirms that since the conceptual framework is none other than identifying a network of relationships among the variables considered relevant to the study of any given problem situation, it is vital to understand what a variable means and what the different types of variables are. A variable is defined as a characteristic or condition which has different values, or varies from one individual to another (Gravetter & Wallnau 2011:5; Rees 1990:1).

Figure 1.1 exemplifies the composition of travel motivation and shows the relationship between these variables. An explanation follows the figure.

FIGURE 1.1

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



Source: Own construction

From the conceptual framework illustrated above, the following is postulated:

- P1: a number of factors push individuals to participate in trophy hunting;
- P2: a number of factors pull these hunters to hunt in South Africa;
- P3: various socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on push as well as on pull factors of motivation;
- P4: a positive relationship exists between push factors and pull factors of motivation; and
- P5: various socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation.

The research methodology as discussed in the next section was applied to verify these postulations. A detailed discussion is presented in Chapter 2.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In an attempt to address the objectives of the research, a literature review was conducted to provide a conceptual framework for the study in terms of the concept travel motivation, and the causative factors thereof. The secondary data were collected from books, journals, articles and electronic databases.

Aside from the literature study employed, an appropriate research design includes consideration to sampling, data collection methods and techniques and the data collection instrument (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:27-40). These elements are subsequently discussed.

1.4.1 Choice of research design

The research design represents the master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing required information (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & van Wyk 2005:82). Furthermore, Hair et al (2000:37) maintain that research objectives can be addressed by employing one of three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive or causal. The use of descriptive research was deemed appropriate for uncovering facts regarding the motivations and socio-demographic variables of foreign hunters.

1.4.2 Type of investigation

Primary data are collected for the purpose of addressing the research problem at hand; generalise about a specific population; and to recommend a final course of action (Malhotra 2010:170-171) based on the results of a representative sample of that population (Tustin et al 2005:89). Furthermore, primary data may be either quantitative or qualitative in nature. The type of investigation applicable to this research study was quantitative in nature. This

arises from the fact that quantitative research involves methodologies that seek to quantify the data by applying statistical analyses (Malhotra 2010:171).

1.4.3 The sample, sampling method, technique and sample size

Tustin et al (2005:337) suggest that when dealing with sampling, the researcher should first define the population of interest. Malhotra (2010:370) defines a population as the collection of all the elements, sharing a common set of characteristics, comprising the universe as a function of the marketing research question. Therefore, the population relevant to the current research was comprised of foreign hunters who come to South Africa to hunt.

According to Wegner (2003:170), sampling is a process of selecting a representative subset of observations of a population to determine the characteristics of the variable under study. Malhotra (2010:376) differentiates between non-probability and probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is a method in which the observations are selected based on the personal judgement of the researcher. On the other hand, probability sampling includes all selection methods where the observations to be included in a sample have been selected on a purely random (or by chance) basis from the population (Wegner 2003:170). The current research made use of a non-probability sample, selected through convenience sampling.

Sekaran (2003:295) suggests that if a population consists of 10 000 members or more, a sample of approximately 384 respondents is sufficient. Despite the suggestion made by Sekeran (2003:295), a sample size of 2 000 respondents has been selected for the current study for the purpose of accommodating the low response rate usually associated with postal surveys.

1.4.4 Data collection and data collection procedure

Lamb et al (2002:260) single out survey research as the most common method for gathering primary data when following a quantitative approach. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:35) elaborate further, and state that surveys are applicable if researchers wish to ask consumers about their purchase preferences, and/or consumption experiences. The current study sought to obtain facts regarding the motives, as well as the socio-demographics, of international trophy hunters.

Lamb et al (2002:260) suggest seven traditional forms of survey methods, namely in-home personal interviews, mall intercept interviews, telephone interviews, mail/postal surveys, executive interviews, focus group interviews and cyber focus groups. The data collection procedure for conducting the formal investigation of the current research was in the form of a postal survey as postal surveys give the respondent the opportunity to respond attentively and anonymously, and are relatively low in cost (Lamb et al 2002:262).

1.4.5 The research instrument

"All forms of survey research require a questionnaire" (Lamb et al 2002:264). Two thousand surveys, which consisted of a questionnaire, cover page and pre-paid return envelope, for the current research were mailed to hunters from Germany, the United States of America and various other European countries (see Appendix B). These questions formed part of a comprehensive investigation and only those questions pertinent to the research reported here are contained in Appendix B.

1.4.6 Data analysis techniques

Descriptive statistics were computed to report respondents' socio-demographics and level of hunting experience. Inferential statistics were used to test the postulations by means of principal component factor analyses, multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA), one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's alternate procedure [otherwise known as Tukey's (HSD) honestly significant difference], Wilks' lambda and Pearson's correlation coefficient.

1.5 DELIMITATION AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

Conceptually, the current study was limited to the impelling and compelling motives of trophy hunters. It thus excluded other special interest tourism activities. Geographically, the study was limited to trophy hunting in South

Africa. It thus excluded factors motivating or pulling trophy hunters to hunt in other countries.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher of the current study experienced difficulties in locating recent secondary data in terms of motivations linked to special interest tourism, more specifically, in terms of trophy hunting and the interrelationship(s) of the relevant factors. Hereby, the findings of the study contribute in this regard.

The findings of the current study also provide adventure travel marketers with a better understanding of why special interest travellers choose South Africa as their destination. This knowledge can assist marketers in formulating strategies to cater to target segments effectively, and hence contribute to the growth of these tourist segments. More explicitly, knowledge on the motivations of hunters and their perceptions of the attributes of South Africa as a hunting destination can be used to better position the country as a destination for trophy hunters.

1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

This segment of work does not include the defining of concepts as the concepts of travel motivation, push and pull variables, socio-demographic variables, and trophy hunting were already provided in section 1.1.

1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This dissertation is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the introduction and orientation of this study. The chapter presents information regarding the research question, sub-problems and objectives of the study at hand. A brief discussion of the research design and methodology is included. The chapter also elaborates on the significance of this research study.

Chapter 2 affords a detailed description of both the primary and secondary research processes conducted. More precisely, the chapter describes the research design and methodologies applicable to the study.

Chapters 3 and 4 explicate a detailed literature review, expanding on the conceptualisation. More exclusively, Chapter 3 provides an overview of the concept travel motivation and the factors that may influence travel. Conversely, Chapter 4 relates to the push and pull factors as a derivation of travel motivation, within a hunting context, and furthermore explicates the factors that may influence the motivation to hunt, as well as those that may influence the choice of destination. This literature assessment is used as the framework for the empirical study, reported in Chapter 5.

Chapter 6 expounds a synopsis of the research study, and lists the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the literature and empirical findings.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the research study at hand. More specifically, it dealt with the background and rationale, problem statement and objectives, and highlighted the significance of the research. Chapter 1 also introduced the research methodology implemented in the study.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed exposition of the choice of methodologies used for the current study. More explicitly, it describes the literature study, the research design considered for the primary research, the research methods and techniques followed to collect the data, the choice of research instruments, the sampling procedure and the data analysis. It also describes the problems experienced during the course of the investigation.

2.2 LITERATURE STUDY

Secondary data is defined as existing data that have already been collected for purposes other than the problem at hand, and furthermore, can be obtained quickly and inexpensively (Malhotra 2010:132). Essentially, secondary research

may be used to explore the background to a problem, to assist in defining the problem, or to generate hypotheses or postulations (McGivern 2006:61).

Secondary sources from related subject disciplines such as marketing, consumer behaviour, travel, tourism, and hospitality management were first consulted. International and national databases were used to identify information related to travel motivation, push and pull factors of motivation and the hunting industry. These databases include: EBSCO Host, Emerald, Google Scholar, JSTOR, and OPAC. The information obtained from the abovementioned databases could not ascertain that prior research answering the research question has been published.

Secondary sources pertaining to the research design and methodology of the current research consulted, included *inter alia*.

- Books by Hair et al (2000); Gravetter and Wallnau (2011); Lamb et al (2002); Malhotra (2010); Mimmack, Meyer and Manas (2001); McGivern (2006); Rees (1990); Sekaran (2003); Schiffman and Kanuk (2004); Statistics South Africa (2006); Tustin et al (2005) and Wegner (2003).

Sources focusing on special interest tourism and tourism related topics found to be of particular importance to this research included the following.

- Books dealing with tourism related topics, for example by Allen and Brennan (2004); Cooper et al (1993); Kelly and Nankervis (2001); Hall and Boyd (2005); Novelli (2005); Page et al (2001); and Pearce (1995).
- Research reports and articles dealing with special interest tourism and tourism related topics, for example by Bauer and Herr (no date); Beh and Bruyere (2007) and Sung (2004).

In addition to the secondary sources listed above, applicable information was obtained from sources dealing with specific topics related to this research, such as the following.

- Research reports and articles dealing with the motivation to travel, for example by Baloglu and Uysal (1996); Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991); Flucker and Turner (2000); Kim et al (2003); Kozak (2002); Lee and Crompton (1992); Mansfeld (1992); Yoon and Uysal (2005) and Yuan and McDonald (1990).
- Research reports and articles dealing with hunting and trophy hunting, for example by Bauer and Herr (no date); Patterson and Khosa (2005) and Radder (2004).

This secondary study made it possible to design a new research instrument to give effect to the stated objectives of this research study, thereby contributing to the body of knowledge on the motivations of international trophy hunters visiting South Africa.

2.3 PRIMARY RESEARCH

According to Tustin et al (2005:89), primary data is collected to address the research problem and objectives, as well as when the value of secondary research is assessed as being inadequate for the research problem and objectives. To obtain data concerning the motivations of international trophy hunters visiting South Africa, an empirical survey was undertaken.

2.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Malhotra (2010:102) defines a research design as a developed structure or framework which details the procedures essential for obtaining the information needed to solve marketing research problems. The following sections identify and describe the various categories of research designs, the type of investigation, the various sampling designs, and the choice of data collection method and technique used for the empirical research, accompanied by the advantages and disadvantages of the choice of method and technique.

2.4.1 Categories of research

In essence, three categories of research designs exist namely, exploratory, descriptive and causal research. Malhotra (2010:102) identifies two broad categories of research designs namely, exploratory, and conclusive - which consists of descriptive and causal research. Table 2.1 shows the differences between exploratory and conclusive research in terms of their objectives, characteristics, findings/results and outcome.

TABLE 2.1

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
EXPLORATORY AND CONCLUSIVE RESEARCH

	EXPLORATORY	CONCLUSIVE
Objective	To provide insights and understanding	To test specific hypotheses and examine relationships
Characteristics	• Information needed is defined loosely • Sample is small and non-representative • Analysis of primary data is qualitative	• Information needed is clearly defined • Research process is formal and structured • Sample is large and representative • Data analysis is quantitative
Findings/results	Tentative	Conclusive
Outcome	Generally followed by further exploratory or conclusive research	Findings used as input into decision making

Source: Adapted from Malhotra (2010:103)

Tustin et al (2005:82) substantiate that there is no single preeminent research design, and that the three types of research approaches (exploratory, descriptive and causal) have a divergent and complementary role to play in many research studies. It is suggested that the first step is to use exploratory techniques to establish all the possible causes of the problem. Thus, exploratory research is regarded as tentative or as input to further research (Malhotra 2010:103). Thereafter, a combination of descriptive and causal approaches may be used to narrow down the possible causes (Tustin et al 2005:87).

Tustin et al (2005:83) describe how research designs differ in terms of the following:

- research purpose;
- research questions;
- precision of hypotheses that are formed; and
- data collection methods that are used.

The following sections define exploratory, descriptive and causal research designs, with the inclusion of the types of data collection techniques associated with each design, as well as the type of designs that were pertinent to this study.

2.4.1.1 Exploratory research

Tustin et al (2005:84) explicate that exploratory research is a design that is used when searching for insights into the general nature of the problem, the possible decision alternatives and relevant variables that need to be considered (research purpose). According to Malhotra (2010:103), exploratory research is used when the problem has to be defined more precisely. The research methods used under an exploratory research design are highly flexible, unstructured and qualitative. Typical exploratory approaches include individual and group unstructured interviews, for example, focus groups and panels, and observation. Exploratory research is highly useful for establishing precedence among research questions (Tustin et al 2005:85) and is intuitive in that it is used by decision-makers who monitor market performance measures pertinent to their company or industry.

The use of exploratory research did not apply to the current study as the basis of the research problem had previously been established and was not of a generalised nature. In addition, a clear understanding of the decision-problem had initially been established by the researcher, hence only the redefinition of the specific information requirement was deemed necessary.

2.4.1.2 Descriptive research

According to Hair et al (2000:38); Malhotra (2010:106) and Tustin et al (2005:86), descriptive research studies are implemented to answer who, what, when, where, why and how questions. Descriptive research aims to gather data without any manipulation of the research context. In other words, descriptive research is low on the 'control or manipulation of research context' scale. It is non-intrusive and deals with naturally occurring phenomena (Descriptive research no date:¶4). Furthermore, Hair et al (2000:38) and Malhotra (2010:104) are in accord that descriptive research is marked by the prior formulation of specific hypotheses, which uses a set of scientific methods and procedures to collect data and create data structures that describe the existing attributes of a defined target population or market structure.

Descriptive research may focus on individual subjects and go into great detail in describing the subjects, and therefore, individual variation is studied (Descriptive research no date:¶7). Due to the data collection and analysis procedures it may employ, descriptive research can also investigate large groups of subjects. Often, these are pre-existing classes. In these cases, the analytical procedures tend to produce results that show average behaviour of the groups (Descriptive research no date:¶8). Having this been said, Hair et al (2000:38) confirm that descriptive studies generally enable decision-makers to draw inferences about their customers, competitors, target markets, environmental factors, and to determine the perceptions of product characteristics (Malhotra 2010:106).

Hair et al (2000:38) affirm that the data and information engendered through descriptive designs can provide decision-makers with evidence that can lead to a course of action. The use of descriptive research was employed in this research study for the purpose of uncovering facts regarding the motivations and overall opinions of international trophy hunters visiting South Africa.

2.4.1.3 Causal research

Tustin et al (2005:87) attest that in causal studies the researcher investigates whether one variable causes or determines the value of another variable. Causal research is used if the objective is to determine which variable may be causing certain behaviour – whether there is a cause and effect relationship between variables (Hair et al 2000:38; Malhotra 2010:104). To determine causality, it is important to hold the variable that is assumed to cause a change in the other variable(s) constant and then measure the changes in other variable(s). This type of research is complex and the researcher can almost never be completely certain that there are no other factors influencing the causal relationship, especially when dealing with people's attitudes and motivations (Tustin et al 2005:87).

The use of causal research was unsuitable for the current study, as there were no variables that had to be tested or manipulated to obtain the necessary information.

2.4.2 Type of investigation

Parasuraman, Grewal and Krishnan (2007:178) state that quantitative marketing research is structured, and involves the collection, analysis and interpretation of primary data from large numbers of individuals with the intention of projecting the results to a wider population. Furthermore, the aim is to generalise about a specific population, based on the results of a large representative sample of that population. Malhotra (2010:171) and Tustin et al (2005:89) confirm that the research findings may then be subjected to mathematical or statistical manipulation to produce broadly representative data of the total population and forecasts of future events under different conditions.

In contrast, Parasuraman et al (2007:178) and Tustin et al (2005:90) are in agreement that qualitative research generates, analyses and interprets data that are frequently difficult to quantify or summarise in numbers. Hair et al (2000:216) define qualitative research as research that is used in exploratory designs to gain preliminary insights into decision problems and opportunities. According to Malhotra (2010:171), the objective of qualitative research is to specifically gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations of the research. Furthermore, Hair et al (2000:217) state that in most exploratory research studies, the raw data will be gathered through qualitative data collection practices.

Hair et al (2000:215) emphasise that although there are vast differences in qualitative and quantitative research methods, there is no single agreed on set of factors that distinguishes them as being mutually exclusive. Table 2.2 lists the differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods.

TABLE 2.2

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

CHARACTERISTIC	QUALITATIVE METHODS	QUANTITATIVE METHODS
RESEARCH GOALS	Discovery of new ideas, thoughts, feelings; preliminary insights on and understanding of ideas and objects	Validation of facts, estimates, relationships, predictions
NATURE OF RESEARCH	Normally exploratory designs	Descriptive and causal designs
TYPE OF QUESTIONS	Open-ended, semi-structured, unstructured, deep probing	Mostly structured
REPRESENTATIVENESS	Small samples, limited to the sampled respondents	Large samples, normally good representation of target populations
SCOPE OF ANALYSIS	Debriefing, subjective, content, interpretive, semiotic analyses	Statistical, descriptive, causal predictions and relationships
GENERALISABILITY OF RESULTS	Very limited, only preliminary insights and understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations	Usually very good, inferences about facts, estimates of relationships, generalizes the results from the sample to the population
RESEARCHER TRAINING	Psychology, sociology, social psychology, consumer behaviour, marketing, marketing research	Statistics, decision models, decision support systems, computer programming, marketing, marketing research

Source: Adapted from Hair et al (2000:215); Malhotra (2010:171); Tustin et al (2005:91)

This research study made use of quantitative research.

2.4.3 Sampling design

In defining a sampling design, reference is given to the importance of its structure and is based on two grounds: it offers practicality in terms of the time and costs in executing it; and its methodological ability to ensure that a sample may be representative of the population, or deliver external validity (McGivern 2006:276).

According to Malhotra (2010:369), constructing sampling procedures is one of the components of a research design that involves the identification of the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling technique, the sample size and execution. These components are subsequently discussed.

2.4.3.1 Target population

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the researcher must primarily define the population when dealing with sampling (Tustin et al 2005:337), as the target population is that from which the results are required (McGivern 2006:276). Wegner (2003:168) states that a population consists of all the possible observations of the random variable under study. The population relevant to this research study consisted of international trophy hunters who had previously travelled to South Africa for their hunt.

2.4.3.2 Sampling frame

Parasuraman et al (2007:333) define a sampling frame as an index or listing that is used to identify the population units from which a sample is chosen, for example databases, directories or records. It is imperative for a sampling frame to be effective and reliable, and is considered so if the sample drawn is representative of the population; and it is accurate, complete and up to date (McGivern 2006:297).

An updated mailing list of foreign trophy hunters was inaccessible due to confidentiality reasons. Thus, a reliable sampling frame was unattainable and the researcher relied on a formal industry expediter to assist with the distribution of the questionnaires.

2.4.3.3 Sampling technique

As previously mentioned, sampling is a process of selecting a representative subset of observations of a population to determine the characteristics of the random variable under study. There are two basic methods of sampling, namely probability sampling methods and non-probability sampling methods.

Probability sampling is defined as a procedure whereby each element of the population has a known probabilistic, or non-zero chance of being selected for the sample (Malhotra 2010:376). There are four methods of probability

sampling, namely simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster/area sampling.

On the other hand, any sampling method in which the observations are not selected randomly is called non-probability sampling (Wegner 2003:170). Criteria other than randomness are the basis for selecting observations from the population. In other words, the interviewer has substantial control over the elements being selected for the sample (McGivern 2006:33). Furthermore, there are three types of non-probability sampling procedures. These procedures are named and briefly described below.

- Convenience sampling – this represents a sample drawn on the basis of being readily available/accessible.
- Judgement sampling – is used at the researcher's discretion of what constitutes a representative sample of the population of interest.
- Quota sampling – sample members are selected on the basis of satisfying some pre-specified criteria thought to apply to the population (Tustin et al 2005: 346 – 347).

The sampling method relevant to this study consisted of a non-probability sample, specifically by means of convenience sampling.

2.4.3.4 Sample size

A sample is a representative or subgroup of the population that is selected for participation in the study (Malhotra 2010:371; McGivern 2006:276). *Sample size* simply refers to the number of elements that will be included in the sample (McGivern 2006:283). The size of the sample is crucial as the accuracy and unbiased nature of the results are not guaranteed when in isolation, and rather, should be chosen in accordance with the sampling technique used, alongside the sampling frame (McGivern 2006:283).

Malhotra (2010:374) suggests that the following factors be considered when determining the sample size.

- *The importance of the decision:* Larger quantities of accurate data are required where decisions with higher levels of importance are implicated, thus, a large sample size should be obtained.
- *The nature of the research*: Exploratory designs which use qualitative research commonly have small sample sizes. However, where descriptive quantitative surveys are used, a large sample size is required.
- *The number of variables*: Large sample sizes are generally necessary where data on a large number of variables are being collected. This should be achieved to reduce the cumulative effects of sampling error across variables.

- *The nature of the analysis*: Large sample sizes should be chosen if the analysis of the data requires multivariate techniques, or if data are to be analysed in pronounced detail at the subgroup or segment level.
- *Sample sizes used in similar studies*: Previous studies may act as a guideline for determining the average sample size required, based on experience. This is particularly advantageous when non-probability sampling techniques are used. Based on previous/similar studies, Malhotra (2010:375) suggests that the minimum sample size for problem-identification research should consist of 500 respondents; however, the typical range is between 1 000 and 2 500 respondents.
- *Incidence rates and completion rates*: Sample sizes may be adjusted accordingly with respect to the incidence rate [the percentage of the general population that is subject of the research (Hair et al 2000:270)] of eligible respondents, and the completion rate.
- *Resource constraints*: Time, cost and the availability of qualified personnel for the data collection may affect the determination of the sample size.

In light of the aforesaid discussion, a sample size of 2 000 international trophy hunters who had previously travelled to South Africa for a hunting safari was selected for participation in the survey of the current research.

2.4.4 Data collection method

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:32) confirm that a quantitative study is to be undertaken if descriptive information is needed for a research study. Furthermore, there are three basic designs used in quantitative research, namely observation, experimentation and survey.

According to Malhotra (2010:230), observation research "involves recording the behavioural patterns of people, objects, and events in a systematic manner to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest". Lamb et al (2002:266) define observational research as a research method that relies on three types of observation – people watching people, people watching an activity and machines watching people. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:32) state further that observational research is an important tool to gain an in-depth understanding of the relationship between people and products by watching consumers in the process of buying and using products.

Observational research was not chosen as a data collection method for the current study due to the fact that a simple observational exercise would not suffice regarding the level of detail and information required from each respondent.

An experiment is described by Lamb et al (2002:267) as a method a researcher can use to gather primary data, by which the researcher alters one or more variables while observing the effects of those alterations on another variable. Similarly, Malhotra (2010:253) defines an experiment as a method whereby a researcher manipulates one or more independent variables and measures their effect on one or more dependent variables, while controlling for the effect of superfluous variables. Experimentation was not appropriate to this study as no variables were sought to be tested, manipulated, or altered. It was hereby evident that no cause and effect was being established.

Lamb et al (2002:260) single out survey research as the most popular technique for gathering primary data in which a researcher interacts with people to obtain facts, opinions and attitudes. Wegner (2003:15) attests that survey methods are the most common form of data collection in the field of marketing and market research, and typically, applies some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra 2010:171). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:35) elaborate further that surveys are applicable if researchers are required to ask consumers about their purchase preferences and consumption experiences. In essence, the survey method involves the use of a structured questionnaire which is distributed to a sample of a population and designed to elicit specific information from respondents (Malhotra 2010:211).

The advantages associated with surveys, which were conducive to the current research, are described by Hair et al (2000:254) as follows.

- The ability to accommodate large sample sizes increases generalisability of results. The method accommodated the sample size of 2 000 respondents and enabled the researcher to make generalised inferences about the target population regarding their motivations for hunting, and more specifically, for hunting in South Africa.
- The ease of administering and recording questions and answers in line with surveys made it possible for the researcher to collect common data and make direct comparisons between responses.
- The data obtained are reliable as the responses are limited to the alternatives stated (Malhotra 2010:211), and was determined by the structure of the questionnaire of the current research. The questionnaire is discussed in more detail further in this chapter.
- Surveys rely on using advanced statistical analyses and thereby have the ability to tap into factors and relationships not directly measurable.

It is apparent that the use of survey research was applicable to this study. The survey method was used to deduce relevant responses from international trophy hunters regarding their motivations for choosing South Africa as their hunting destination.

2.4.5 Data collection technique

The technique for the data collection that was assigned to this study was a self-administered questionnaire, by means of a mail survey. Tustin et al (2005:186) define a mail survey as one whereby the researcher sends a structured paper questionnaire to a group of respondents who complete it in their own time and return it to the research unit.

Malhotra (2010:222) and Tustin et al (2005:197) associate the following advantages with mail surveys. These were consistent with the current research.

- The unit costs are relatively low, as they are usually limited to design and development, printing, postage and re-mailings.
- There is a high perception of anonymity of the respondent and are thus superior when sensitive topics, such as finances, are covered.
- They are useful when the geographical area covered by the research is extensive.
- The majority of the information is already categorised and little time is required to process it on computer, since the surveys are usually fully structured.
- There is little potential for interviewer bias.

There are also a number of disadvantages associated with mail surveys. These disadvantages include: an absence of control over who completes the questionnaire and whether the answers are true or not; lack of up-to-date and complete mailing lists; and a time delay before receipt of a questionnaire via regular mail, which can make the responses vulnerable to external events during the study. Regardless of how well the sample has been designed, a high non-response rate remains a problem (Malhotra 2010:22). Since the public are subjected to opinion polls and surveys, many people are not interested in participating in research surveys. Without personal contact, this may also lead to non-response or little or no commitment to completing the questionnaire adequately. Tustin et al (2005:193) emphasise that the response rate [the percentage of the total attempted interviews that are completed (Malhotra 2010:225)] is very low, usually no more than 10% to 20% (Tustin et al 2005:193), with the exception of when there is a particular interest in the research topic or where an incentive is offered.

Two thousand survey packages which included the cover letter (see Appendix A), questionnaire (see Appendix B), and pre-paid return envelopes, were sent to prospective respondents, of which 191 useable questionnaires were returned.

The response rate can be calculated by using the method proposed by the Council of American Survey Research Organizations (Malhotra 2010:415):

$$\text{Response rate} = \frac{\text{Number of completed questionnaires}}{\text{Number of eligible units in sample}}$$

$$= \frac{191}{2000 - 215}$$

$$= 0.107 \times 100$$

$$= 10.7\%$$

The number of eligible units is calculated by subtracting the number of returned (due to unknown reasons, incomplete, incorrect or change of address) questionnaires (215), from the total number of sent questionnaires (2 000). This calculation indicated a response rate of 10.7% in the current study.

2.4.6 The data collection instrument

A questionnaire is a survey instrument used to elicit information about the population by questioning a sample of respondents (Malhotra 2010:211). Prior to the final questionnaire construction, an informal pre-test survey was distributed to various professionals within the hunting industry, to assess the elements of the questionnaire. The *informal* survey was conducted, as a *formal* pilot study to overseas respondents would not have reasoned viable in terms of cost and time.

The three paged questionnaire consisted of three sections and a cover letter. Section A referred to socio-demographic factors, and was used to obtain the biographical details of the respondents. The 11 questions within the section related to country of residence, current and childhood environments, age, gender, income, occupation, education, and personal hunting experience.

Questions 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 were closed-ended dichotomous and multiple choice questions, otherwise regarded as structured data collection (Malhotra 2010:211). This method of questioning is easier to administer, reduces the variability in the results, and simplifies the coding, analysis and interpretation of the results (Malhotra 2010:211).

Questions 4, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were unstructured or open-ended and enabled the respondents to answer in their own words. This form of questioning is ideal for introductory questions relating to the topic; it enables respondents to liberally express their general attitudes and opinions; and it assists the researcher with interpreting responses to structured questions (Malhotra 2010:343).

Question 11 contained a six-point Likert scale (another form of closed-ended question), and was used to assess respondents' level of hunting experience (1 = novice; 6 = experienced).

Section B was constructed by means of six-point Likert scale (1 = disagree; 6 = agree) statements. Generally, the use of a Likert scale requires that

respondents indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a series of mental belief or behaviour related statements about a given subject (Hair et al 2000:415). In this instance, the scale was used for identifying the motives of respondents for engaging in hunting activities. This category was comprised of 29 items, with the final question being an open-ended “other” option.

Section C was used to establish the reasons for respondents’ choosing South Africa as a hunting destination. The section consisted of 13 six-point Likert scale (1 = disagree; 6 = agree) items. The last item was an open-ended “other” option.

2.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Once the primary data has been collected from a large representative sample of respondents, the research findings are subjected to statistical manipulation to produce broadly representative data of the total population (Hair et al 2000:253; Tustin et al 2005:89). Fundamentally, the data collected is analysed to derive information related to the components of the marketing research problem and objectives (Malhotra 2010:42).

In line with this, the researcher was able to:

- establish the socio-demographic details of respondents;
- make predictions about the relationships between the travel motivations and behaviour of 191 international trophy hunters;
- understand the relationships and differences of responses; and
- verify and validate the existing relationships.

Descriptive statistics are procedures used to summarise, organise and simplify data (Gravetter & Wallnau 2011:6), for the purpose of identifying essential characteristics of a random variable and produce a profile of its behaviour (Wegner 2003:5). In addition, Mimmack et al (2001:3) clarify that descriptive statistics are data that are summarised by means of single numeric quantities which show how the data are spread over the entire range of values, for example, the mean and range, or by frequency distributions. These statistical procedures were used to describe the socio-demographic details of respondents, as well as hunting-related information (most recent visit to South Africa, region where most hunting has taken place, and level of hunting experience).

In addition, inferential statistics are statistical techniques used to generalise (or draw inferences) about the population to the actual environment, from which the samples were drawn (Malhotra 2010:7; Wegner2003:5).

The statistical techniques that were used to conduct the data analysis are subsequently discussed.

2.5.1 Factor analysis

A principal component factor analysis was undertaken to identify the variables underlying the push and pull data. Tustin et al (2005:668) explain that a factor analysis is used to locate latent variables or factors among observed variables. In other words, the technique is used to reduce the data (Malhotra 2010:643). The interpretation of a factor analysis is facilitated by identifying the items that have sufficient loadings on the same factor. In essence, that factor can then be interpreted by means of the items that load high on it (Malhotra 2010:645). Furthermore, only in the case of principal component factor analysis is it possible to compute exact factor scores, by which the scores are uncorrelated and can be used instead of the original variables in the subsequent multivariate analysis (Malhotra 2010:646).

2.5.2 Eigenvalues

Determination of the number of factors used in the principal component analysis was based on eigenvalues. Only factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 are included (Malhotra 2010:643). According to Beh and Bruyere (2007:1467), two-item factors are less preferable than factors with three or more items. However, if the factor has an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1.0, then a two-item

factor may be generally accepted. The factor analysis resulted in six push factors (see Table 5.5) and three pull factors (see Table 5.8). All factors in the current research had acceptable eigenvalues.

2.5.3 Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the push and pull motivational items. Flucker and Turner (2000:384) substantiate that Cronbach's alpha is the preferred measure of internal reliability and as such, measures the correlations between the items describing the same concept. In other words, coefficient alpha measures the extent to which the different items being analysed, measures the same trait (Flucker & Turner 2000:384). Furthermore, coefficient alpha assumes the presence of a single, homogenous dimension for sample items; hence, if a study is multidimensional, a separate reliability test is needed for each dimension (Flucker & Turner 2000:384). This was applicable to the current research. The resulting Cronbach alpha's ranged from 0.62 to 0.87 as shown in Tables 5.5 and 5.8.

2.5.4 Multivariate analyses

To examine overall differences between the mean scores of the push and pull factors across socio-demographic factors, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) statistical techniques were used. Malhotra (2010:551) affirms that MANOVA examines differences across two or more dependent variables

simultaneously – and as such, is an appropriate technique to implement when there are two or more dependent variables that are correlated.

2.5.5 Wilks' lambda (λ)

The determination of the Wilks' lambda statistic followed the MANOVA analysis (see Table 5.9). According to Tustin et al (2005:683), Wilks' lambda is a traditional test used where more than two dependent groups are formed by the independent variables, and is a measure of the difference between groups of the centroid of means of the independent variables.

2.5.6 Analyses of variance

Where statistical significance in the MANOVA analysis was found, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were subsequently undertaken for example, to examine differences between push and pull factors on the socio-demographic subgroups. If multiple dependent variables are uncorrelated, ANOVA on each of the dependent variables is an appropriate technique to apply (Malhotra 2010:531-548).

2.5.7 Tukey's alternate procedure

Where significant differences in one-way ANOVA tests were found, Tukey's alternate procedure, otherwise known as Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test, was used to examine the source of differences, such as by the relevant socio-demographic factors. Tukey's alternate procedure enables the researcher to construct generalised confidence intervals that can be used to make comparisons of all treatment means (Malhotra 2010:548).

Similarly, Gravetter and Wallnau (2011:398) refer to Tukey's alternate procedure, and explain that the post hoc test (one that is done after an ANOVA to determine exactly which mean differences are significant and which are not) is used to compute a single value that determines the minimum difference between treatment means that is necessary for significance. Furthermore, if the results of Tukey's alternate procedure are exceeded by the mean difference, then it is concluded that a significant difference between the treatments exists. The results of the Tukey's alternate procedure performed in the current research are reported in Tables 5.11 and 5.14.

2.5.8 Pearson's correlation coefficient

To measure the degree of interrelationships among push and pull factors for socio-demographic factors, Pearson's correlation coefficient (refer to Tables 5.18 to 5.22) was used. Malhotra (2010:562) defines Pearson's correlation

coefficient as a statistic which measures the strength of association between two metric (interval or ratio scaled) variables (X and Y), and furthermore, indicates the degree to which the variation in one variable, X, is related to the variation in another variable, Y.

2.6 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED DURING THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Few problems were encountered whilst conducting the current research. The following section reports on the problems experienced.

- Initially, it took extended time to gain access to the mailing list for the respondents as updated databases of foreign trophy hunters are usually retained for confidentiality reasons.
- A number of the returned questionnaires were unusable for the data analysis, and thus diminished the anticipated number of respondents for the sample.
- The time respondents took to complete and return the questionnaires was protracted, and thus delayed the data analysis procedure.
- The response rate was fairly low.

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter gave reference to the secondary sources used for the literature study. Chapter 2 also described the research design (sampling, data collection method, data collection technique, the questionnaire and data analysis) and methodology, relevant to the primary research. The chapter also listed the problems experienced during the research process.

The literature contained in Chapter 3 will introduce the concept of travel motivation. The chapter aims to provide a basis for the understanding of the travel behaviour of trophy hunters.

CHAPTER 3

TRAVEL MOTIVATION: AN OVERVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provided a précis of the research design and methodology of the research study at hand, and described the literature search process.

Chapter 3 explains the concepts, motivation, travel motivation, the factors that motivate individuals to travel, and travel typologies. Motivation is commonly viewed as the driving force behind all actions and is therefore used as a starting point for understanding travel behaviour (Pearce & Lee 2005:226). The current chapter aims to create a foundation for understanding the travel motivation of trophy hunters visiting South Africa for a hunting safari.

3.2 THE CONCEPTS MOTIVATION AND TRAVEL MOTIVATION

Etymologically, motivation is derived from the Latin word ‘movere’, which means to move. Philosophically, “movement is a property of matter, some of it human ‘materia prima’, indicative of a dependent existence in time (the latter defined in terms of the movement of matter) upon an unmoved mover” (Ross in Dann 2004:67).

Pearce and Lee (2005:226) define motivation as “the driving force within individuals that impels them to action”. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:87) elaborate that this driving force is produced by a state of tension, which exists as the result of an unfulfilled need.

According to Pearce and Lee (2005:226), motivation is commonly used as a starting point for studies of tourist behaviour, and beyond that, for understanding systems of tourism. Crompton (in Pearce & Lee 2005:226) poses that it is possible to describe the who, when, where, and how of tourism but more difficult to answer the question ‘why?’, or rather, the wherefores of travel in general, or of a specific choice in particular (Parrinello 2002:75). These are the fundamental factors to understanding tourist behaviour.

Motivation is a complex phenomenon. Chapter 1 explicated that travel and the motivations thereof is an equally complex proposition to investigate, and it is therefore not surprising to find different perspectives in this regard. According to Crompton (in Ryan 2003:67), “…to expect motivation to account for a large variance in tourist behaviour is probably asking too much since there may be other inter-related forces operating”. These forces have been identified as being economic, social and psychological (Ryan 2003:87). Ryan (2003:88) elucidates that the motives for travel are diverse. In part, people travel because that is what is expected as a norm on their holidays. Unlike the frequently measured *purpose* of travel (for example, ‘for business’ or ‘for leisure’), which is considered

to be overt, the *motivations* or underlying *reasons* for travel are covert in that they represent an individual's wants and needs (Pearce & Lee 2005:226).

Travel is furthermore stimulated by curiosity, relaxation needs and purposes of social interaction (Ryan 2003:88). In addition, the traveller can play out different roles at the destination, namely adjust and adapt, change motives, and absorb not only that which is sought, but that which is provided (Ryan 2003:88).

Dann (2004:62) furnishes that motivation, as a classified purpose, is often linked with a definition of the traveller. In light of this, Cohen (in Dann 2004:62) defines travellers as those individuals who visit a country other than their own (hence movement is involved) for a period of at least 24 hours for "the purpose of leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, sport) or business (family, mission, meeting)". Cohen (in Dann 2004:62) criticises this definition of the traveller as being too broad for sociological treatment. The author argues that failing to distinguish between traveller, visitor and vacationer, highlights the fact that purpose and motivation, linked to travelling, are often used interchangeably. A number of definitions listed in Table 3.1 describe motivation in the travel context.

TABLE 3.1

DEFINITIONS OF AND PERSPECTIVES ON MOTIVATION
(IN THE CONTEXT OF TRAVEL)

PERSPECTIVE	DESCRIPTION	AUTHOR(S)
Anthropological	Tourists are motivated to escape the routine of everyday life, seeking authentic experiences	MacCannell (in Yoon & Uysal 2005:46)
Classic dictionary definition	A motive stimulates interest/causes a person to act in a certain way	Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill 1993:20
Psychological/biological needs & wants	Integral forces arouse, direct, and integrate a person's behaviour and activity	Yoon & Uysal 2005:46
Psychological & sociological	Motivation is directed toward emotional & cognitive motives	Ajzen & Fishbein (in Yoon & Uysal 2005:46)
	Motivation is directed toward internal (drives, feelings & instincts) & external (mental representations such as knowledge or beliefs) motives	Gnoth (in Yoon & Uysal 2005:46)
Socio-psychological	Motivation is linked to seeking or avoidance of some kind	Iso-Ahola (in Yoon & Uysal 2005:46)

Source: Own construction

In essence, travel motivation includes the following (Cooper et al 1993:23).

- Travel is initially need-related and this manifests itself in terms of a motivational push as the initial point of action.
- Motivation is grounded in sociological and psychological norms, attitudes, cultures and perceptions, which lead to person-specific forms of motivation.

- The image of a destination will influence motivation and subsequently affect the type of travel undertaken.

3.3 FACTORS THAT MOTIVATE INDIVIDUALS TO TRAVEL

Factors that motivate individuals to travel can be divided into two categories: travel as a response to what is lacking yet desired, and travel as a response to individual's needs. These factors are subsequently discussed.

3.3.1 Travel as a response to what is lacking yet desired

Travel motivation may result from a desire for something new or different that cannot be provided in individuals' home environments, or are not culturally acceptable in their home environments (Dann in Page et al 2001:63).

Dann (2004:61) distinguishes between the normative controls of the home environment and the perceived absence thereof in the destination area. Furthermore, Rivers (in Dann 2004:61) states that: "Tourists abroad aim to free themselves from the mores that inhibit their capacity for enjoyment at home and this is one of the *prime motives* for travel". Such fantasy is thus considered to be escapist, as it gives way for flight from the real to the unreal world (Rivers in Dann 2004:61).

Fantasy could be in the form of a name or colour, or have a noise, sexual, political, religious, educational, sporting or economic dimension, pushing the individual to travel. Individuals are thus motivated to travel by what they expect to experience in contrast to their home area and other holiday experiences (Dann in Page et al 2001:63).

Expected experiences could be experiential, experimental or existential (Cohen 2004:7), depending on the travellers' desire for authenticity and meaning. The traveller who engages in experiential activities often seeks alternative meanings in the life of others. This type of traveller passively observes others and experiences them vicariously, but remains unconverted.

Experimental travel experiences offer travellers the opportunity to sample different lifestyles. These travellers actively try these lifestyles out on a trial and error basis in the hope that one or the other will match their specific, though often unfulfilled, needs and desires (Cohen in Dann 2004:64).

Existential travelling is characterised by commitment to an alternative to the mainstream ideals of the traveller's own culture, actively pursued elsewhere (Cohen in Dann 2004:64).

"Phenomenological variation in types of tourist experience is attributable to a parallel differentiation in tourist motivation" (Dann 2004:65). In other words, travelling for pleasure (as opposed to necessity) outside the boundaries of an

individual's normal environment assumes that there is some experience available 'out there', which cannot be found within the individual's normal environment, and which makes travel worthwhile (Cohen in Dann 2004:64). Furthermore, Cohen (2004:18) confirms that depending on the mode of the tourist experience, travel spans the range of motivations between the desire for mere pleasure characteristic of the sphere of 'leisure' and the quest for meaning and authenticity.

3.3.2 Travel as a response to individuals' needs

Travellers engage in travel behaviour to realise certain benefits (Beh & Bruyere 2007:1464). Behaviour is considered a process of internal psychological factors (needs, wants, goals, values) which can generate tension, and furthermore, lead to behaviours designed to release this tension in various forms (Beh & Bruyere 2007:1464).

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:94), the dynamics of motivation are highly complex and are constantly changing in response to life experiences. Furthermore, needs and goals change in reaction to an individual's physical condition, environment, interactions with others, and overall experiences. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:94) identify three reasons as to why need-driven human activity is continuous:

- needs are never fully satisfied (needs continually impel actions designed to maintain or attain satisfaction);
- as needs become satisfied, new and higher-order needs emerge that cause tension and induce activity; and
- individuals who achieve their goals set new and higher goals for themselves.

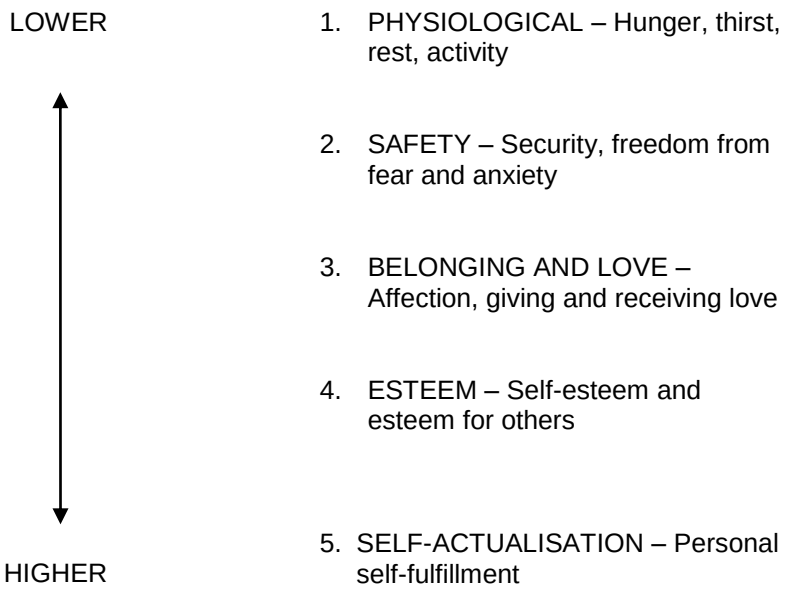
In addition, Cooper et al (1993:23) highlight that although motivation can be stimulated and activated in relation to a product, needs in themselves, cannot be created. Needs are dependent on the human element through the psychology and circumstance of the individual. Moreover, Cooper et al (1993:23) state that "while some types of motivation may be innate in us all [curiosity, need for physical contact], other types are learned [status, achievement] because they are judged as valuable or positive". Kozak (2002:222) emphasises that needs and motivations *are* interrelated, and the existence of the former generates the latter. For example, individuals may intend to take a trip to fulfill their physiological needs such as food, climate and health, and psychological needs such as adventure and relaxation.

Several researchers used needs, particularly according to the model proposed by Maslow (1970), to explain travel behaviour (Page et al 2001:61). According to Maslow (1970:284), individual needs fall into five broad categories, forming a hierarchy, beginning with lower order physiological needs and moving through to

higher order self-actualisation needs. Figure 3.1 illustrates Maslow's theory of motivation and is followed by an explanation thereof.

FIGURE 3.1

MASLOW'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION



Source: Page et al (2001:61)

Maslow (1970:38) argues that each of the needs expressed in a category would be satisfied before the individual sought motivation from the next category of need. "It can be seen that once the basic human requirements of thirst and hunger have been met the need for these to motivate the behaviour and actions of an individual may no longer apply. At this point, the individual may be

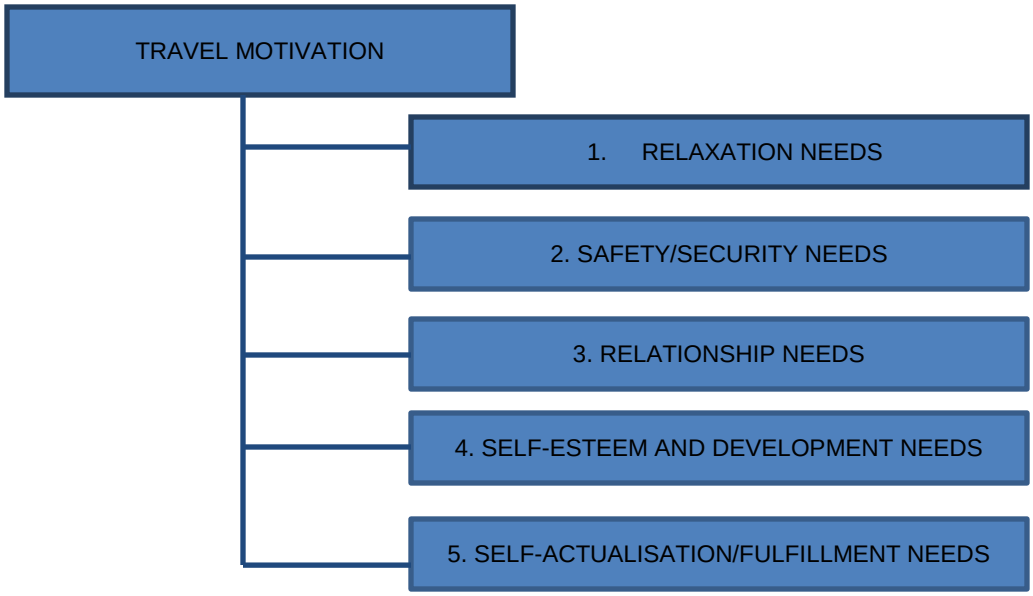
motivated by higher order classification until that of self-actualisation" (Page et al 2001:61).

In analogy to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Kozak (2002:222) argues that tourists' motivations are multiple and individuals might have different reasons to take either domestic or international trips. For example, leisure travel would not normally be related to basic physiological requirements, yet new friendships (social needs) and prestige (esteem needs) could be reasons for motivating this activity.

Furthermore, Pearce (1982:53) elucidates that the use of Maslow's theory in explaining travel behaviour is appealing on two grounds. Firstly, it provides a comprehensive reporting of human needs organised into a hierarchical framework which is based on the immediacy of the need. Secondly, the concept of self-actualisation contains an inherent conception of individual choice and self-determination. However, the use of Maslow's approach alone is inadequate in explaining travel motivation, and should in fact be used in combination with attribution motivation and achievement motivation – which in turn will serve as dovetailing set of ideas which should be considered in accounting for travel motivation (Pearce 1982:53). The travel career ladder (see Figure 3.2) is a travel motivation theory based in part on Maslow's needs hierarchy of motivation, and aids in addressing the insufficient adequacy of Maslow's hierarchy.

FIGURE 3.2

PEARCE'S TRAVEL CAREER LADDER



Source: Adapted from Pearce & Lee (2005:227)

The travel career ladder (TCL) describes tourist motivation as consisting of five different levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self-actualisation/fulfillment needs. This is in line with Maslow – who states that the needs of travellers are organised into a hierarchy or ladder with the relaxation needs being at the lowest level, followed in order by safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and at the highest level, fulfillment needs. However, Pearce and Lee (2005:227) exemplify that travellers do not have only one level of travel motivation, but rather have one set of needs in the ladder at a

particular level which may be dominant. Furthermore, people's motivation changes with their travel experience, their life span and/or accumulated travel experiences (Pearce & Lee 2005:227).

The travel career ladder concept has received sustained attention in terms of leisure travel research en bloc, rather than in terms of the specific applicability to travel motivation (Pearce & Lee 2005:227). In light of this, Bryan (in Pearce & Lee 2205:227) suggests that there are distinct classes of participants who exhibit unique styles of involvement for a given recreational activity. Furthermore, for any given activity, the participants exhibit a continuum of behaviour from general interest to a more focused involvement. Previous experience, knowledge about the activity, and the level of interest in the activity are all important in classifying a person as having a specialist interest.

3.4 MOTIVATIONAL TYPOLOGIES

Dann (in Page et al 2001:63) holds that there is a link between the motivation to travel and the type of traveller. Personality traits help to classify travellers into traveller types and explain individuals' choice of destination (Dann in Page et al 2001:63). Psychographic segmentation suggests that travellers with different personalities will seek different travel experiences, select particular forms of travel and prefer specific destinations. This perspective is supported by Plog's (in Page et al 2001:63) tourist-type theory shown in Table 3.2. An explanation follows the table.

TABLE 3.2

PLOG'S TRAVELLER TYPES

TRAVELLER TYPE	CHARACTERISTICS
Allocentric	• Enjoys travelling independently • Explores various cultures • Seeks adventurous holiday experiences • Often in above average income groups
Mid-centric	• The majority of the population • Go to known destinations • Do not go for exploration and adventure • May travel to destinations previously 'found' and made popular by allocentrics
Psychocentric	• Tend to be rather unsure and insecure about travel • Go to places similar to their home environment

Source: Plog (in Page et al 2001:63)

Page et al (2001:63) define allocentrics as those individuals who seek adventure on their holiday and are prepared to take risks. As such, allocentrics prefer holidays in exotic locations and prefer to travel independently. At the other extreme, psychocentrics are those travellers "who look rather inwardly and concentrate their thoughts on the small problems in life" (Plog in Page et al 2001:63). While on holiday, psychocentrics are not adventurous, but prefer locations that are similar to their home environment. Psychocentrics may repeatedly return to the same destination where they have experienced a satisfying occurrence, safe in the knowledge of the familiar (Page et al 2001:63).

Other categories of travellers exist in between these two extreme groups of traveller types, such as, near-allocentric, mid-centric and near-psychocentric. The classification of traveller types and motives provides various advantages to understanding travel decision making behaviour, however, the evidence increasingly shows that travellers are not consistent in their wants, and hence in the type of trip selected (Ryan 2003:85). Based on Plog's terminology, Ryan (2003:85) states that the traveller may engage in allocentric behaviour at one time, and in psychocentric behaviour at another. Furthermore, given increased incomes (for example) and travel opportunities, individuals can increasingly meet a series of needs simultaneously.

In addition to the abovementioned theory, Gray (in Pearce 1995:22) suggests that two distinctive forms of travel exist, namely wanderlust and sunlust travel. Wanderlust is differentiated from sunlust travel by the extent to which they are likely to generate international rather than domestic travel (Pearce 1995:22). Table 3.3 lists the main attributes of wanderlust and sunlust travel.

TABLE 3.3

ATTRIBUTES OF WANDERLUST AND SUNLUST TRAVEL

WANDERLUST	SUNLUST
• Tourist business • Probably multi-country visited • Travellers seek different culture, institutions & cuisine • Special physical attributes likely to be manmade: climate less important • Travel an important ingredient throughout visit • Neither restful nor sportive: ostensibly educational • Relatively more international travel	• Resort vacation business • One country visited • Travellers seek domestic amenities and accommodations • Special natural attributes a necessity (especially climate) • Travel a minor consideration after arrival at destination • Either relaxing and restful or very active • Relatively more domestic travel

Source: Gray (in Pearce 1995:22)

Mansfeld (1992:329) recapitulates that wanderlust is the “simple desire to go from a known to an unknown place, to discover new vistas”. On the other hand, sunlust engenders a trip to a place that can provide specific facilities to the traveller which do not exist in his or her own place of residence (Mansfeld 1992:329), for example, coral reefs which attract scuba divers, or high-altitude slopes covered with snow, which attract skiers, or the ‘Big 5’, which attract hunters.

Pearce (1995:22) elucidates that wanderlust tourism is more likely to be manifested in international travel than sunlust tourism, which in many cases can be realised elsewhere in an individual’s country. This however, will depend, among other factors, on the size and geographical and cultural diversity of the

country in question (Pearce 1995:22). Furthermore, Gray (in Pearce 1995:22) suggests that the difference between the degree of travel associated with wanderlust and sunlust is particular to an analysis of travel patterns and motivations.

3.5 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS THAT MIGHT IMPACT TRAVEL MOTIVATION

In addition to the traveller's personality types, as explained in section 3.4, travel motivation may also be influenced by the traveller's socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, income, education and the like. These characteristics are subsequently discussed.

3.5.1 Age

An individual's age has an important influence on the nature of travel participation (Page et al 2001:65). To some extent, travel participation could be viewed as wage earning representations of adulthood for young individuals. By the time of old age, there is a foreseeable reduction in an individual's physical and mental abilities and as such, a reduction in the more active holiday pursuits (Page et al 2001:65). However, retirement should not be equated with old age. Page et al (2001:65) verify that travel opportunities might even expand as the individual enters retirement (in some cases this being the early fifties) and only retract when the individual becomes elderly.

A study conducted by Radder (2003:3) reveals that the majority of international trophy hunters visiting South Africa are between the ages of 40 and 60 years. The study also suggests that there would be a higher possibility of securing repeat visits of hunters to South Africa by attracting those between the age group of 20 to 40 years.

3.5.2 Gender

According to Clarke and Crichter (in Page et al 2001:65), women have less leisure time than men, engage in fewer leisure activities and spend a higher proportion of their time on household and family activities. If this is accepted, then there are clear implications for gender to have an influence in travel participation and motivation (Page et al 2001:65).

On the other hand, Ryan (2003:67) notes the implications of the evolution of the career woman. More than two thirds of women prefer to travel without men and without children for the purpose of revitalising, re-evaluating, self-defining, and/or resting (Ryan 2003:67). Since 1999, in the United States of America alone, there has been a 77% increase in the pairs of women booking for trips, a 280% increase in trios, and a 400% increase in groups of four (Hopkinson in Ryan 2003:67).

Sung (2004:2346) confirms, however not referring to any specific gender, that travelling with a companion is highly influential where the decision to travel for the purpose of engaging in special interest/adventure tourism is concerned.

Hunting is generally considered as a male-dominated activity that is initiated primarily by males. Radder (2003:3) confirms that female hunters comprise only 4% of total hunters in the industry.

3.5.3 Occupation

It is stated by Page et al (2001:65) that work provides a means for travel and similarly, provides the motivation for travel. Regardless of the balance, leisure, travel and work are inseparable (Page et al 2001:65) as leisure and work are competitors of every individual's time (Parker in Page et al 2001:65). Quintessentially, if the one increases, the other decreases.

Page et al (2001:65) validate that the nature of work has an important influence on travel. For example, if an individual's work is tedious or onerous, then travel may represent an escape. On the other hand, if an individual's work is exciting or enjoyable, then one may find it difficult to dissociate from their leisure. In this instance, travel may be regarded as a means to extend one's work interests. In addition, the desire for leisure experiences that contrast with the norms of everyday routine may also manifest in a destination choice that fulfills other, more apparent needs (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:123).

Patterson and Khosa (2005:9) confirm that with modern day work pressures and other commitments, the time spent on hunting trips has been considerably reduced to no longer than three weeks. Furthermore, with hunts typically packaged into seven-, 10-,14- and 21-day safaris, there is greater pressure on the hunter to find the required huntable wildlife species in the allocated time (Barnett & Patterson in Patterson & Khosa 2005:9). Patterson and Khosa (2005:35) confirm that hunters generally spend an average of 11 days on safari. As other factors, for example economic conditions change, the period of time spent on hunting trips, might also change.

3.5.4 Income

Disposable income is the most evident contributor to leisure travel, and furthermore, is an important macroeconomic demand indicator and principal determinant in facilitating tourist activity (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:27).

Pearce (1995:23) affirms that due to a general increase in incomes, more individuals are able to afford travel and take advantage of extended holidays. Spending on travel is usually regarded as discretionary spending, however, according to Pearce (1995:23), evidence shows that travel is nowadays regarded by many as part of the household budget and in an overall hierarchy of needs, usually comes after more basic ones such as food, housing and clothing have been satisfied.

The impact of economic factors on travel behaviour is also reinforced by the socio-demographic profiles of travellers – the most significant discriminating and interrelated factors being occupation and income (Pearce 1995:24). According to Pearce (1995:24), the propensity for travel, especially to multiple destinations, is to a great extent higher in the upper occupation and income categories. Occupation is a socio-demographic factor generally linked to education.

3.5.5 Education

According to Kelly and Nankervis (2001:122), an individual's level of education often governs work seniority (and thereby income), which furthermore translates into higher degrees of responsibility. In turn, this may heighten personal stress and a desire for relaxation, or the desire for various travel experiences.

Individuals with higher levels of education may also be more inquiring and more selective in terms of seeking out destinations which are hedonistic (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:122). Similarly, as the number of individuals pursuing higher education increases, so does the demand for tourism products that engage rather than simply divert (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:123).

3.5.6 The home environment/socio-cultural influences

Traditional hunters are those introduced to hunting by family, usually from child age and who tend to remain active hunters (Decker, Brown & Siemer no date:10). Decker et al (no date:8) substantiate that the participation of traditional hunters is a significant element of their cultural heritage, many of them coming from a rural background and who have peer as well as family reinforcement for hunting. Thus, the level of hunting experience may motivate hunters to travel for a safari.

Hunting is primarily a rural tradition transmitted intergenerationally, usually from father to son, in environments conducive to participation (Decker et al no date:9). Many individuals of who were raised in rural areas have relocated to urban areas and as such, the hunting as a tradition has decreased over the past 20 to 30 years (Decker et al no date:8). By examining data, Brown and Connelly (in Decker et al no date:8) confirm that non-farm employment (an indicator of broad change from a rural or small town environment to an urban or suburban environment), is negatively correlated with hunting.

In light of the foregoing discussion on the socio-demographic factors, Sung (2004:346) provides a profile of special interest tourists, and maintains that they are typically affluent, middle aged men, who are well educated, and engage in managerial or professional occupations.

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter examined the literature regarding the concept of motivation and thereby constructed an understanding of the factors which contribute to or influence an individual to travel.

The assessment of the different motivations for travel established that a number of traveller types exist – each with specific needs, goals and preferences. In addition to the various types of personalities identified, this chapter also established that socio-demographics (age, gender, occupation, income, education, the home environment/socio-cultural influences) may influence travel motivation. This understanding of travel motivation will thus assist in determining whether travel motivation and destination choice are interrelated.

The following chapter elaborates on travel motivation by introducing the concepts of push and pull motivational factors. The chapter particularises on the needs associated with push factors, and the destination attributes linked to that of push factors. In addition, these factors will be described in context with that of trophy hunters. Chapter 4 will also provide theory highlighting by what means push and pull factors of motivation may be interrelated.

CHAPTER 4

TRAVEL MOTIVATION: PUSH AND PULL FACTORS AND THE RELATIONSHIP THEREOF

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 provided a theoretical background of the concepts motivation and travel motivation, and further identified that certain traveller types and socio-demographic factors might influence travel options. Chapter 4 provides an enlightenment of the push and pull factors of motivation. The existence of these factors within a hunting context was verified in the empirical study. The results thereof are reported in Chapter 5. These are expected to enhance the understanding of the travel motivation of trophy hunters travelling to South Africa for a hunting safari.

4.2 PUSH FACTORS OF MOTIVATION

According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996:32), push factors are classified as socio-psychological motivations that prompt the individual to travel. Furthermore, push factors can be viewed as being intangible, intrinsic desires of individual travellers such as the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, adventure, prestige, social interaction (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32), authentic experiences, family togetherness and excitement (Yoon & Uysal 2005:46). It is

thus clear that push factors has some relationship with needs and motives. This concept was introduced in Chapter 3.

4.2.1 Needs and motives as push factors

The desire to travel is described as a means to fulfill an unmet need (Yuan & McDonald 1990:42). Following the proposition that needs translate into wants, wants into expectation and expectation into motives or actions to satisfy needs, identifying certain needs and motives may contribute to the understanding of why travellers want to travel (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:72).

Implicit in Maslow's needs theory (discussed in Chapter 3) is the suggestion that such needs involve the elimination of a deficit or the rectification of an unacceptable set of personal or environmental conditions (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:71). Similarly, deficiencies in lifestyle and/or environment, or the conflict between the prevailing and desired states of work and rest, exertion and relaxation, risk and security, freedom and dependence may be overcome or reduced by participation in tourism activity (Schmidhauser in Kelly & Nankervis 2001:71). Table 4.1 shows how individual needs and motives can translate into possible push factors of travel motivation.

TABLE 4.1

MASLOW'S NEEDS AND MOTIVES LISTED WITH RELEVANT PUSH MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

NEED	MOTIVE	PUSH MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS
Physiological	Relaxation	• Escape • Relaxation • Relief of tension • Sunlust • Physical • Mental relaxation of tension
Safety	Security	• Health • Fitness • Recreation
Belonging	Love	• Family togetherness • Enhancement of kinship relationships • Companionship • Facilitation of social interaction • Interpersonal relations • Getting in touch with one's roots • Show one's affection for family members • Maintain social contacts
Esteem	Achievement status	• Convince oneself of one's achievements • Prestige • Social recognition • Ego-enhancement • Professional/business • Personal development • Status and prestige
Self-actualisation	Be true to one's own nature	• Exploration and evaluation of self • Self-discovery • Satisfaction of inner desires

Source: Adapted from Morrison (in Kelly & Nankervis 2001:73)

In addition to the likely push factors identified in Table 4.1, literature suggests a further set of push factors as summarised in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2

SUMMARY OF PUSH MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

AS IDENTIFIED BY VARIOUS AUTHORS

AUTHOR	ESCAPE / NOVELTY	EXPLORATION & EVALUATION OF SELF	RELAXATION / REST	PRESTIGE	REGRESSION	ENHANCEMENT OF KINSHIP RELATIONSHIPS	FACILITATION OF SOCIAL INTERACTION	WISH FULFILLMENT / FANTASY / RECREATION LEISURE	LEARNING ABOUT NATURE / EDUCATION	FAMILY
Ryan (2003:74-75)	√		√	√			√	√		√
Pearce (1995:19)	√	√	√	√	√	√	√			
Dann (in Pearce 1995:19)	√			√	√	√	√			
Crompton (in Yoon & Uysal2005:19)	√		√	√			√	√	√	√
Leiper (in Pearce 1995:19)			√					√		
Iso-Ahola (in Pearce 1995:19)			√	√			√		√	
Kozak (2002:229)			√					√	√	
Yoon & Uysal (2005:46)				√				√	√	
Pearce & Lee (2005:230)	√	√	√			√				
Kim, Lee & Klenosky (2003:177)	√					√	√	√		√

Source: Own construction

According to Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991:227), seeking and escaping are the basic motivational dimensions of leisure behaviour which simultaneously influence an individual's travel decisions. Leisure activities are sought because they provide novelty or change to daily routine (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola 1991:227). This is indicated by 'escape/novelty' in Table 4.2.

The manner in which tourists view destinations in terms of their potential for offering new sources of information is likely to be influenced by their predispositions toward a particular range of novelty. Thus, the desire for novel experiences among tourists will range along a continuum from novelty seekers to novelty avoiders (Lee & Crompton 1992:737). According to Lee and Crompton (1992:737), novelty seeking travellers are likely to be individuals who prefer destinations perceived as being different or unusual; impressive; adventuresome; refreshing; a change of pace; and exciting. On the other hand, novelty avoiding travellers are likely to prefer familiar, responsible and planned experiences. Even so, this may be a form of escape.

Lee and Crompton (1992:736) define the escape motive as a temporary distraction from reality represented by a dull routine, environment and/or lifestyle. Lee and Crompton (1992:736) confirm that travel provides the opportunity to escape from life's problems, and to live out fantasies in a novel environment.

In the tourism context, a traveller's desire for novelty/change may also imply an "urge to escape to some new form of stimulation" (Berlyne in Lee & Crompton 1992:736), rather than escaping from something or someone. Escaping to novel places, may however, also be associated with the desire for prestige, status or recognition from others (indicated as 'prestige' in Table 4.2). It is thus possible that trophy hunters might travel to South Africa on a trophy hunt, not only to satisfy a novelty motive, but also to achieve status.

According to Lee and Crompton (1992:736), thrill is defined as an experience in which excitement is the essential element, while adventure is defined as an exciting experience created through the medium of a strange, dangerous and unusual event, or as an activity involving unknown risks. These variables may be represented by 'exploration/evaluation of self' and 'wish fulfillment/fantasy/recreation leisure' in Table 4.2.

Individuals tend to seek psychological (intrinsic) rewards from participation in leisure activities (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola 1991:228). Intrinsic rewards pursued through leisure can be divided into personal and interpersonal rewards. Personal rewards include:

- self-determination ('evaluation of self');
- sense of competence ('regression' and/or 'wish fulfillment/fantasy/recreation/leisure');

- challenge (‘regression’ and/or ‘recreation/leisure’);
- learning (‘education’);
- exploration (‘exploration’); and
- relaxation (‘rest/relaxation’).

Interpersonal rewards include social interaction in terms of the elements labelled in Table 4.2 as ‘enhancement of kinship relationships’, ‘facilitation of social interaction’, ‘family’ and/or ‘prestige’.

4.2.2 Needs and motives associated with hunting

Travelling hunters engage in hunts for different reasons. Radder (2005:1142) confirms that hunting is associated with the need to escape from everyday routine, as well as a search for self-fulfillment and excitement since hunting encourages participation in physically and mentally stimulating activities in remote destinations.

Radder (2004:526) conducted a study amongst international trophy hunters visiting South Africa and found six broad dimensions of motives. These motives are spiritual, emotional, intellectual, self-directed, biological and social. Table 4.3 shows these dimensions and their motivational variables.

TABLE 4.3

DIMENSIONS REFLECTING INTERNATIONAL HUNTERS' MOTIVES

DIMENSIONS	MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES
Spiritual motives	• Be in nature • Reconnect with the land • Experience majesty of nature • Submerge in something greater than the self • Recommit to life
Emotional motives	• Challenge of the hunt • Thrill of the chase • Fun and enjoyment • Excitement • Adrenaline rush • Conquer and kill • Heightened senses
Intellectual motives	• Satisfy curiosity • See animals in the natural environment • Learn about wildlife • Experience new places, people and cultures • Search for new adventure • Contribute to conservation
Self-directed motives	• Trophy collection • Reward for alertness, patience, self-restraint • Testing of required skills • Self-actualisation and achievement • Live out a dream
Biological motives	• Exercise and recreation • Getting away from work problems • Relaxation • To provide food • Instinct
Social motives	• Fellowship and camaraderie • Being with family and friends • Heritage/family tradition

Source: Adapted from Radder (2004:526-532)

The spiritual dimension does not necessarily correspond with religious aspects, but may relate to the need to connect with others, or, the need to disconnect from the routine of everyday life (Radder 2004:526). Fundamentally, the spiritual fulfillment forms part of emotional motives, while experiencing inner peace and harmony. This represents the top level in the travel career ladder (discussed in Chapter 3) as elements of fulfillment needs (Swarbrooke & Horner in Radder 2004:526).

Radder (2004:528) confirms that the emotional motives of hunters include that of emotional challenge, excitement, exhilaration, a competence-mastery component, adventure, escapism and fantasy.

Intellectual motives include the need for stimulation, exploration, understanding and learning. Furthermore, these motives are most likely to be applicable to self-esteem and development needs in the travel career ladder (Radder 2004:529).

In addition to intellectual motives, hunters also have self-directed motivations such as the sense of self, recognition, and the testing of one's skills; along with motives of self-esteem and fulfillment in terms of the travel career ladder (Radder 2004:530).

Biological motives are based on physical needs such as relaxation, exercise and health, but exclude the need for hunting as a means of food provision (Radder 2004:531).

The social needs of hunters consist of the interaction or relationship with other hunters, family (sense of belonging) and/or friends (the need for friendship) in the form of camaraderie (Radder 2004:532). However, some hunters may feel compelled to hunt due to heritage or family tradition (Radder 2004:532).

Another study conducted by Radder (2003:7) investigated the personal motivations of foreign trophy hunters particularly visiting the Eastern Cape in South Africa. The findings concluded (from a list of 30 reasons) that the primary motivations to hunt were: to be outdoors/in nature/enjoying wildlife (26%); to seek a challenge (10,3%); enjoyment (5,7%); for the collection of trophies (5,2%) and other various reasons (42,5%).

Neither of the studies by Radder, however, endeavoured to classify motives in terms of push and pull factors.

4.3 PULL FACTORS OF MOTIVATION

Chapter 1 explicated that push and pull factors may influence travel motivation. In an attempt to understand why South Africa is chosen as the preferred hunting destination, it is necessary to first provide an overview of pull factors in general. Dann (in Flucker & Turner 2000:381) suggests that a traveller's decision to visit a destination is a result of that individual's prior need for travel, and so the push factors are logically and often temporarily antecedent to the pull factors.

Pull factors are connected to external, situational or cognitive aspects and are believed to stimulate and reinforce inherent push motivations (Yoon & Uysal 2005:47). These factors are “useful for explaining the actual destination choice…and are the factors that attract the individual to a specific destination once the decision to travel has been made” (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32). Pull factors are therefore embedded in the attractiveness of a destination as perceived by the traveller. Specific attractions include tangible resources such as beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, natural scenery and historic resources, and provision of information facilities (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32). Table 4.4 shows a list of likely pull factors.

TABLE 4.4

SUMMARY OF PULL MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS
AS IDENTIFIED BY VARIOUS AUTHORS

AUTHOR	INFORMATION	WARM CLIMATE / PREDICTABLE WEATHER	NATURAL SCENERY / WILDLIFE RESOURCES	POLITICAL STABILITY / SAFETY	HISTORIC / CULTURAL RESOURCES	ACCOMMO-DATION	TRANSPOR-TATION	INFRASTRUC-TURE	RECREA-TION / ENTERTAIN-MENT
Ryan (2003:74-86)		√	√	√					
Pearce (1995:19)	√	√	√						
Jeong (in Kim, Lee & Klenosky 2003:171)			√		√	√			√
Kim, Crompton & Botha (in Kim, Lee & Klenosky 2003:171)			√					√	√
Iso-Ahola (in Pearce 1995:19)									
Kozak (2002:229)									
Yoon & Uysal (2005:46)									
Pearce & Lee (2005:230)									
Fakeye & Crompton (in Kim, Lee & Klenosky 2003:171)			√		√	√	√	√	√
Turnbull & Uysal (in Kim, Lee & Klenosky 2003:171)	√	√	√		√				
Kim, Lee & Klenosky (2003:174)	√		√		√	√	√	√	

Source: Own construction

Pearce and Lee (2005:226) confirm that it is widely suggested that various tourist visitation patterns are the result of a destination choice process that in turn, is influenced by tourists' motives and backgrounds, as well as values and preferences (Kozak 2002:22). For example, in the case of trophy hunting in South Africa, push motivation may be the need to be closer to the natural environment and a pull factor may be the need to be close to the specific natural environment found on a game ranch.

Kozak (2002:222) attests that preference sets and destination attributes can be linked to specific psychographic profiles of travellers. For example, the escape-relaxation group prefers destinations where nightlife, entertainment and water sports are provided. On the other hand, the social status group may prefer destinations where golf, tennis, hunting, nightlife and entertainment are provided.

The importance of the different destination pull factors is related to travellers' assessments of destination attributes and their perceived utility values (Kozak 2002:222). An understanding of the attitudes, values, preferences, perceptions and importantly, the expectations of the visitor are therefore important elements of the destination selection process (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:69).

Flucker and Turner (2000:381) define an expectation as the perceived likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. For example, an individual choosing to go on a hunting trip may have an expectation that the experience will be exciting. In this example, the 'act' is going on a hunting trip and the 'outcome' is excitement.

Travellers tend to adjust their expectations on the basis of both past experience and other types of non-experiential information (Anderson, Fornell & Lehmann in Flucker & Turner 2000:381). For example, if potential hunters are unfamiliar with, or have no hunting expertise, then their expectations are likely to be different to those of hunters with a higher level of familiarity and expertise.

Schreyer and Roggenbuck (in Flucker & Turner 2000:381) draw the following conclusions with regard to expectancy research in recreation:

- travellers have a variety of expectations for participating in recreational activities;
- the expectations for participating in one recreation activity are usually different from the expectations for participating in another activity;
- travellers engaged in the same activity often seek different outcomes;
- different types of recreationists using the same environment often seek different outcomes; and

- antecedent conditions such as demographic, socio-economic and environmental variables have seldom, in isolation, been useful in explaining and predicting the motivations of recreationists.

Tourists' expectations are frequently influenced by their perceptions. Greenberg and Baron (in Flucker & Turner 2000:382) define perception as the process through which individuals select, organise, and interpret information gathered by their senses and by which they ascribe meaning(s) to a setting (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:145).

Tourists' expectations and perceptions of a destination, its image and the likelihood of it being capable of satisfying their needs, are frequently influenced by the information available regarding the destination. Mansfeld (1992:329) states that travel information has not received thorough attention in the academic tourism literature, and only few studies have examined the interrelationships of information and image creation. Mansfeld (1992:330) emphasises that it is important to discuss the role of travel information in the destination choice process. Kelly and Nankervis (2001:147) concur that through reliable sources of travel information, visitor destinations are capable of evoking powerful images in the minds' of potential travellers.

In forming an image of a destination, individuals, consciously or unconsciously simplify and condense data which is derived from a number of sources (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:144). Tourist information is usually available from two types of

sources (Mansfeld 1992:330): formal (the commercial environment) and informal (the social environment). Formal sources consist predominantly of travel agents, brochures, travel logs, travel-guide books, magazines, newspapers, maps, and radio and television programs. On the other hand, informal sources are comprise recommendations by friends, relatives and social groups, based on their own past travel experiences and long-term personal knowledge acquired during previous travel.

The information that influences destination choice may derive from an individual's previous experience, from promotional literature, travel articles and other media sources; or from the reports of family, friends and/or acquaintances. Moreover, Kelly and Nankervis (2001:65) confirm that the majority of destination choices are based on personal recommendations which are perceived to be more reliable than other sources of information.

However, in terms of information source credibility, Nolan (in Mansfeld 1992:331) states that information from friends and relatives proves to be lowest in credibility, however highest in quality. In contrast, information provided by that of formal sources proves to be high in terms of credibility and quality. According to Mansfeld (1992:331), travel brochures are major sources of information, in terms of creating favourable images, consumer choice and travel behaviour. To some extent, travel brochures and/or internet sources replace travel agents as both an information source as well as a booking clerk. Mansfeld (1992:331) corroborates that just over 50 percent of tourist's base their

destination choice solely on the information provided in travel brochures. This suggests that tourists rely heavily on commercial sources of information and less on formal sources such as the travel agent. However, Mill and Morrison (in Mansfeld 1992:331) argue that although the role of the travel agent has diminished over recent years, the agent's role is still vital when tourists consider trips to remote destinations.

The differential importance placed on formal and informal travel information has been shown to shift from the intensive use of sales persons, travel catalogues and advertisements in early stages of the travel sequence, to advisory sources such as travel agents toward the actual undertaking of the trip (Mansfeld 1992:331).

Patterson and Khosa (2005:42) confirm that information on hunting in South Africa may be obtained from hunting magazines, word-of-mouth (for example, recommendations by other hunters), hunting conventions, the internet and travel agents. Previous studies confirm that international hunters visiting South Africa prefer hunting magazines as their primary source of information, followed by word-of-mouth and the Internet (Patterson & Khosa 2005:44). The current research sought to verify this finding.

According to Kozak (2002:222), numerous attempts have been made to classify the major constituents of destinations. Having this been said, Dickman (in Kelly & Nankervis 2001:41) refers to the '5As' as the essential components of a destination:

- attractions;
- accessibility;
- amenities;
- accommodation; and
- activities.

The following sections will describe the abovementioned components in the context of tourism, as well as in relation to South Africa as a trophy hunting destination.

4.3.1 Attractions

According to Kelly and Nankervis (2001:42), a visitor destination exists when it is recognised as having an attraction that individuals travel to see, use, or enjoy in some or other way. It is often claimed that attractions are the principal components of a tourism system, and that the existence of tourist services are due to the presence of attractions (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:42).

Attractions are referred to as the elements of a destination that draw visitors (pull factors), and are categorised according to the attractions' resource base (for example, a natural feature or historic site); and/or their purpose (for example, entertainment, education or hunting) (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:42).

Moreover, given the number and variety of attractions at many visitor destinations, it is essential to distinguish between the *primary attractions* which entice individuals to specific destinations, the secondary attractions that influence the decision to visit, and the tertiary attractions travellers become aware of only while at the destination (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:44).

The attractiveness of the destination, as perceived by the traveller, includes tangible resources such as the natural environment, as well as travellers' perception and expectation such as novelty (for example, hunting the 'Big 5' – lion, leopard, elephant, rhino and buffalo), benefit expectation (for example, the reward, such as the trophy) and marketed image of the destination (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32).

South Africa is arguably the most sought after destination for travelling trophy hunters since the country offers a variety of diverse habitats and landscapes, a selection of trophy animals, a highly developed professional hunting and game ranching industry, a well-developed infrastructure and cultural opulence (Damm 2005:1).

More than 60 species are available for hunting in South Africa – the highest number worldwide (Damm 2005:3). A major benefit for South Africa is that it is one of only two countries in Africa whereby all of the 'Big 5' can be hunted [throughout eight provinces: the Eastern Cape; Northern Cape; Western Cape; Free State; Kwa-Zulu Natal; Limpopo; North Province; and North West], making South Africa one of the most popular hunting destinations for international hunters (Damm 2005:3).

Furthermore, South Africa boasts approximately 5 000 game ranches and more than 4 000 mixed game and stock ranches – covering 13% of the country's total land area, compared with 6% for all officially declared conservation areas and 3% for national parks (Radder 2004:524).

4.3.2 Accessibility

Another destination component is accessibility, which refers to the facilitation of movement within a destination as well as the location factors contributing to the success of its component attractions (Kelly & Nankervis 2001:44). Accessibility is determined by factors such as the nature and extent of the transport network, the degree of tour operations, costs within the destination itself and promotion activities (Pearce 1995:166). At the local level, accessibility is also a key factor in the sense that travellers will seek to be as close as possible to the attractions they desire. However, land rents, planning restrictions, pre-existing activities and site factors may limit the extent to which accommodation, or certain types of

accommodation can locate close to the attractions. According to Pearce (1995:166), at the international, national and regional levels, distance plays a vital role in influencing which attractions and destinations are accessible to particular travellers - whether in terms of time, money or specific services that are offered to the traveller.

4.3.3 Amenities

Kelly and Nankervis (2001:45) refer to amenities as the basic services that developed tourist areas are expected to provide visitors with, for example, the provision of electricity, water, sewage disposal, fire, police and ambulance.

However, in terms of wildlife and hunting amenities, reference is given to specific services that are expected to be provided to potential hunters/clients to overcome special hardships, inconveniences and even danger (Bauer & Herr no date:67). The following amenities are cared for by either the Professional Hunters' Association of South Africa (PHASA), hunting outfitter, or by the professional hunter.

- Transportation: Transporting the client to/from the airport to/from the game ranch.
- Hunting and importation permits: Obtaining the clients' temporary firearm permit on their arrival at the relevant airport (Professional Hunters'

Association of South Africa: Temporary firearm import permits – PHASA service no date:1).

- Taxidermy: It is the responsibility of the professional hunter to attend to the client's trophies, and to make certain that a taxidermist prepares the trophies according to regulation. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the hunting outfitter to obtain the necessary permits to convey and export the client's trophies and ensure that the trophies are delivered in an appropriate condition (Professional Hunters' Association of South Africa: Taxidermist's and trophy transportation no date:1).

4.3.4 Accommodation

According to Kelly and Nankervis (2001:45), destination managers encourage the development of accommodation to attract visitors, and to meet the requirements of a variety of market segments. Kelly and Nankervis (2001:45) emphasise the importance of the level of service offered by accommodation providers, and further suggest the necessity of a licensing or accreditation system to ensure the quality of accommodation services. Furthermore, the provision of accommodation and accommodation services is a foremost channel through which visitor spending is transmitted to the host community.

4.3.5 Activities

Kelly and Nankervis (2001:212) substantiate that travellers often visit a destination based on what activities they are able to engage in *rather* than the attractions they can view. However, Kozak (2002:222) authenticates that the destination choice process may be a combination of a tourists' assessment of destination attributes and their perceived utility values.

Kelly and Nankervis (2001:45) confirm that it is often difficult to distinguish between activities and attractions. The reason hereof is that the ability to participate in an activity is often the foremost reason for visiting a destination.

Hunting is a form of adventure tourism taking place in a natural or wild setting, and is classified alongside activities such as white-water rafting, skydiving, wilderness hiking, sea-kayaking, mountain climbing, diving and caving (Radder 2004:524). These activities share the natural environment as a common denominator, which in turn serves as a venue and suitable level of challenge to the participants. While South Africa offers a wide variety of wildlife as an attraction, the value lies in the fact that trophy hunters will have an opportunity to get close to the wild animals and to hunt them, thus taking part in the activity.

Radder (2004:524) corroborates that hunters tend to be repeat or regular participants in the sport. Although the skill and expertise of the hunter is crucial when either hunting alone or in a group, the supervision of a professional hunter is compulsory when on a South African trophy hunt.

4.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

Push and pull motivational factors have generally been characterised as two separate decisions made at two separate points in time – one focusing on whether to go, the other on where to go. However, although push and pull factors have been viewed as two distinct decisions; they should not be viewed as operating entirely independent of each other (Klenosky 2002:386).

Baloglu and Uysal (1996:32-38) highlight the relationship between push and pull factors and maintain that "if several destinations have the same attraction attributes, preference is likely to be given to a destination which is perceived as most likely to match push motivations with pull destination attributes". However, Yuan and McDonald (1990:44) maintain that individuals may have similar reasons or motivations to travel, yet the reasons for choosing a particular destination may differ.

As mentioned in Chapters 1 and 3, demand for travel to a particular destination is viewed as the relationship between an individual's motivation to travel and their *ability* to do so (Pearce 1995:18). Once the motivation to embark on a trip

has been recognised (push factors) and the destination has been identified, numerous other factors could possibly still influence the final decision (Page et al 2001:64). These factors, or moderating variables (for example age, income, cost and gender), include personal and external influences which may affect the nature of the trip and the final selection of a particular destination.

According to Dann (in Kim et al 2003:171), “once the trip has been decided upon, where to go, what to see or what to do [relating to the specific destinations] can be tackled. Thus, analytically, and often both logically and temporally, push factors precede pull factors”.

Kim et al (2003:171) reiterate that push and pull factors should not be viewed as being entirely *independent* of each other but rather as being fundamentally *related* to each other. In particular, it has been noted that while internal forces push people to travel, external forces of the destination itself simultaneously pull them to choose that particular destination (Kim et al 2003:171). Similarly, Dann (in Kim et al 2003:172) comments that “potential tourists in deciding where to go may also take into consideration various pull factors which correspond adequately to their motivational push”.

Research examining the relationship between push and pull factors is sparse. Past research has primarily focused on examining if and to what degree particular sets of destination pull attributes are associated with particular sets of motivational push items – as opposed to how and why the concepts are

interrelated. The *interrelationship* between push and pull forces has only recently been reported in the travel and tourism literature and only a few number of studies, which have focused on travel decisions linked to nature-based destinations, could be found. The push-pull relationship in the case of trophy hunting is reported in Chapter 5.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter affirmed that push and pull motivations have been primarily used in studies of tourist behaviour. The push-pull framework identified the underlying factors of motivation, and thus, gave insight to understanding a variety of dimensions, or more specifically, different needs and desires, perceptions and expectations which can motivate and influence tourist behaviour. Moreover, Chapter 4 revealed possible travel motivations of trophy hunters and additionally, described the factors which may induce an individual to travel to a particular destination. Furthermore, this chapter also gave acumen to how the push and pull factors may be interrelated and thus, may have an effect on travel related behaviour.

The push-pull framework (and the relationship thereof) depicted in this chapter forms the basis of the empirical investigation and findings that are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 3 and 4 presented an overview of travel motivation and the push and pull factors of motivation respectively. The chapters described the influences which may affect the nature of the trip, and ultimately, those influences which may affect the final selection of a particular destination. Chapter 5 reports on the findings derived from the investigation of push and pull factors and the personal and external influences thereof, as applicable to international trophy hunters who have hunted in South Africa.

The data reported in this chapter were collected from 191 respondents (n), via open- and closed-ended (dichotomous, multiple choice and Likert scale) questions comprising the questionnaire. The data collection and analysis was explained in Chapter 2.

5.2 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DEPICTION OF RESPONDENTS

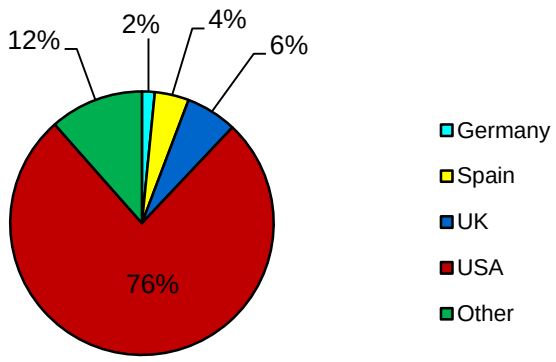
Eleven socio-demographic variables were investigated, namely: country of residence, age, occupation, level of education, current home environment, childhood environment, gender, annual gross income, date of most recent

trophy hunting safari to South Africa, region within South Africa in which most hunting has taken place, and the hunters' level of hunting experience.

The residential country of the 191 respondents is illustrated in Figure 5.1.

FIGURE 5.1

RESPONDENTS' COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE



Of the 191 respondents, more than three quarters (76%; n = 146) were from the United States of America, 6% (n = 12) were from the United Kingdom, 4% (n=8) were from Spain, and 2% (n = 3) were from Germany. The other 12% (n = 22) were predominantly from Australia and New Zealand, as well as European countries such as Norway, Denmark, Austria, Belgium, France and Italy.

Table 5.1 shows the distribution of respondents' ages. It should be noted that the total number of respondents indicating their age was 190, as one respondent did not answer the question.

TABLE 5.1

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

AGE CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
20 – 29 years	1	0.53
30 – 39 years	14	7.37
40 – 49 years	36	18.94
50 – 59 years	82	43.16
60 – 69 years	40	21.05
70 – 79 years	16	8.42
80 – 89 years	1	0.53
TOTAL	**190**	**100**

More than a third of the respondents (43%; n = 82) were between the age of 50 and 59 years. The second largest proportion, or, less than a quarter of the respondents (21%; n = 40) fell within the 60 to 69 years of age category. Following this group with only a difference of four respondents (19%), the age category with the third highest frequency was that of 40 to 49 years. It thus indicates that more than 80% (n = 173) of the respondents were 40 to 69 years of age. Interestingly, one respondent was over 80 years of age.

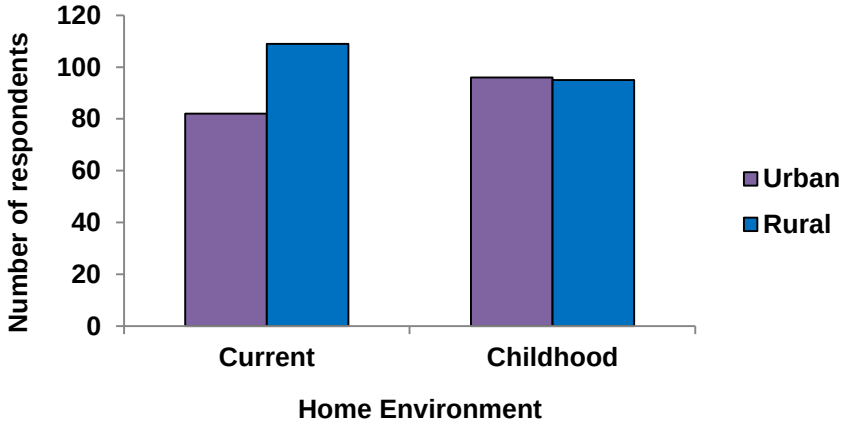
The results of the data analysis showed 77 different occupations, as indicated by the respondents. Occupations ranged from that of business persons, civil servants, professionals, sales representatives/executives, healthcare professionals and retired. The majority of respondents had occupations within the environmental sector, and consisted predominantly of geologists, miners, farmers, professional hunters, hunting outfitters/safari agents and foresters.

Respondents were requested to indicate the number of years of post-school education they had. Based on the determination of mean scores, the 191 respondents showed an average of five years post-school education. More specifically, the results of the frequency distribution showed that slightly more than half (51%; n = 24) of the respondents had between one and five years post-school education. Only 24 respondents (13%) had no post-school education, and on the other end of the scale, 69 respondents (36%) had more than five years post-school education.

Respondents were requested to indicate their current home environment (rural or urban) as well as the environment in which they were raised. Figure 5.2 shows the distribution of respondents' current and childhood residency, in terms of rural and urban home environments.

FIGURE 5.2

CURRENT AND CHILDHOOD HOME ENVIRONMENT
OF RESPONDENTS

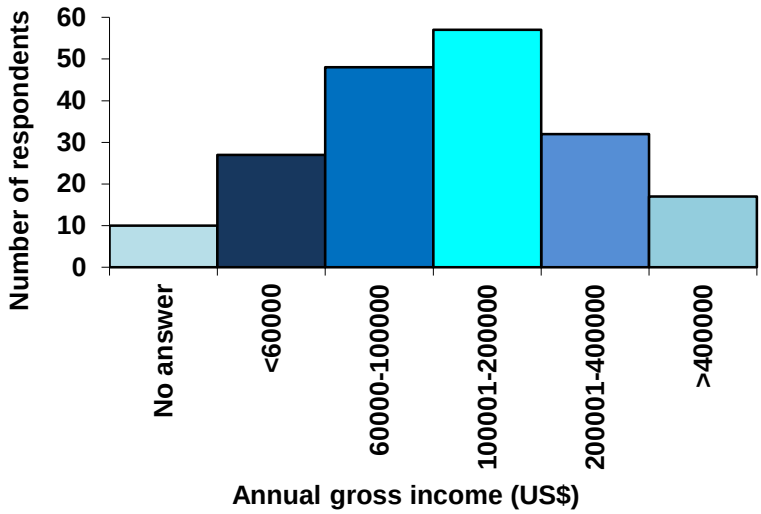


More than half (57%; n = 109) of the respondents currently reside in a rural environment. On the other hand, the childhood environment distribution showed to be almost equal in terms of urban (n = 96) and rural (n = 95).

With regards to income levels, the largest proportion (30%; n = 57) of the respondents had a gross income of between US$100 001 and US$200 000 per annum. Figure 5.3 illustrates the income distribution of the respondents. It should be noted that the before tax income levels were indicated by respondents in American Dollars (US$).

FIGURE 5.3

RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF INCOME

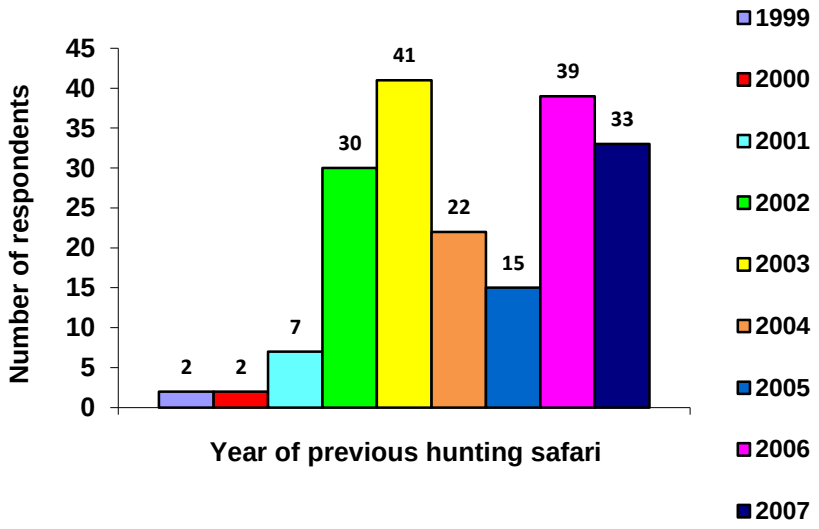


Ten respondents failed to indicate their annual income. This could possibly be because they regarded this as sensitive information.

Respondents were also requested to indicate the year in which their most recent hunting safari trip to South Africa took place. Figure 5.4 illustrates the percentage distribution of hunting trips to South Africa from 1999 to 2007.

FIGURE 5.4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HUNTING SAFARI TRIPS TO SOUTH AFRICA FROM 1999 TO 2007



The largest proportion of the hunters visited South Africa during 2003 (21%; n = 41), 2006 (20%; n = 39) and 2007 (17%; n = 33). The most popular areas visited are listed in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2

SOUTH AFRICAN REGIONS WHERE THE MAJORITY OF RESPONDENTS HUNTED PREVIOUSLY

REGION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
NO ANSWER	10	5.24
FREE STATE	6	3.14
EASTERN CAPE	141	73.82
NORTH WEST	2	1.05
NATAL	8	4.19
WESTERN CAPE	4	2.09

REGION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
LIMPOPO	10	5.24
NORTH PROVINCE	7	3.66
NORTHERN CAPE	1	0.52
ALL REGIONS	2	1.05
TOTAL	**191**	**100**

Almost three quarters (74%; n = 141) hunted in the Eastern Cape. The region with the second highest number of visitors was that of Limpopo (n = 10). The region with the least number of visitors was the Northern Cape (n = 1). Of the 191 respondents, two (1%) had visited all of the hunting regions on their safari trip to South Africa.

Finally, respondents were requested to indicate their level of hunting experience by means of a six-point Likert scale (1 = novice; 6 = experienced). Of the 191 respondents, slightly less than half (47%; n = 90) considered themselves to be highly experienced (score of 6 on the Likert scale). More than one quarter (29%; n = 55) chose a 5 on the Likert scale to indicate their level of experience. Of the 191 respondents, only 1% (n = 2) considered themselves to be novice hunters (score of 1 on the Likert scale). Interestingly, the majority (98%; n = 187) of the 191 respondents were male. Thus, due to the small proportion of female hunters, further statistical analyses relating to gender was warranted non-viable.

5.3 PUSH FACTORS OF MOTIVATION

Respondents were requested to indicate their motivations for engaging in hunting activities. A list of motivations was provided, by which respondents could show their responses on the six-point Likert scale (1 = disagree; 6 = agree). Table 5.3 provides the frequency of responses for each of the push motivational items.

TABLE 5.3

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES:
PUSH MOTIVATIONAL ITEMS

ITEM NO.	MOTIATIONAL ITEM	LIKERT SCALE 1	2	3	4	5	6	n TOTAL
1	Hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation	0	1	1	20	41	128	191
2	Hunting is in my blood	1	7	5	25	33	120	191
3	Hunting is part of my heritage	7	6	6	24	34	114	191
4	Hunting provides me with good exercise	1	2	6	27	41	114	191
5	Hunting is a means to escape from the stress of daily life and work	0	0	4	23	37	127	191
6	Hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones	5	4	17	28	33	104	191
7	Hunting reinforces my male identity	58	24	34	37	14	24	191
8	Hunting should not be practiced by women	168	12	4	2	0	5	191
9	Hunting shows that a man can care for his family	76	25	30	32	11	17	191
10	Hunting allows me the opportunity to share time with like-minded people	7	4	10	36	52	82	191
11	To me, hunting is the most exciting type of adventure sport	0	3	10	33	45	100	191
12	Hunting trips allow me the opportunity to meet new people	3	7	10	41	50	80	191
13	Hunting allows people to get rid of their frustrations	47	36	33	36	14	25	191
14	Hunting is instinct	7	21	22	55	38	48	191
15	Hunting satisfies man's need to be in control	77	36	37	23	9	9	191
16	Hunting improves my knowledge of nature	2	0	2	13	52	122	191

ITEM NO.	MOTIATIONAL ITEM	LIKERT SCALE 1	2	3	4	5	6	n TOTAL
17	Hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food	26	15	31	41	32	45	**190**
18	I like the “thrill of the chase”	6	2	7	37	59	80	191
19	My trophies show that I am a successful hunter	23	21	32	59	24	32	191
20	I enjoy the challenge of having to outwit the animal	3	1	12	27	63	85	191
21	Every hunt is unique and gives me a new story to tell	1	1	5	36	42	106	191
22	I like it when others admire my trophies resulting from my hunts	13	15	29	47	38	49	191
23	I enjoy showing off my hunting skills	39	25	27	51	20	29	191
24	I enjoy testing my skills against that of the animal	6	4	10	35	45	91	191
25	I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip	3	4	10	39	61	74	191
26	I do not mind going on a hunting trip and returning empty-handed	3	9	12	27	46	94	191
27	Killing the animal puts me off hunting	105	34	14	22	7	9	191
28	Stalking the animal successfully is more important to me than killing it when hunting	6	7	21	32	51	74	191

It should be noted that the total number of respondents for item 17 was 190 as one respondent omitted the question. It should also be noted that the list of push factors also included “other” as an option. Of the 191 respondents, 14 respondents provided information relating to the “other” option. Almost a quarter (21%) of respondents indicated that a motivation to hunt is to share the experience with others, such as a son or family member. For some reason these respondents added the response, in addition to completing item 6. Hunting is also regarded as a life experience and existential experience, as it was shown that hunters sustain numerous enterprises, particularly as a component of game management.

Table 5.4 shows the mean score (M) and standard deviation (SD) for each push motivational item (categorised from highest to lowest mean score).

TABLE 5.4

MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION
FOR PUSH MOTIVATIONAL ITEMS

ITEM NO.	MOTIVATIONAL ITEM	M	SD
1	Hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation	5.54	0.75
16	Hunting improves my knowledge of nature	5.51	0.81
5	Hunting is a means to escape from the stress of daily life and work	5.50	0.79
2	Hunting is in my blood	5.31	1.09
4	Hunting provides me with good exercise	5.31	0.96
21	Every hunt is unique and gives me a new story to tell	5.28	0.95
11	To me, hunting is the most exciting type of adventure sport	5.20	1.01
3	Hunting is part of my heritage	5.17	1.30
20	I enjoy the challenge of having to outwit the animal	5.10	1.06
6	Hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones	5.05	1.29
26	I do not mind going on a hunting trip and returning empty-handed	5.02	1.25
24	I enjoy testing my skills against that of the animal	5.00	1.25
18	I like the “thrill of the chase”	4.99	1.17
25	I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip	4.95	1.12
10	Hunting allows me the opportunity to share time with like-minded people	4.93	1.27
12	Hunting trips allow me the opportunity to meet new people	4.93	1.19
28	Stalking the animal successfully is more important to me than killing it when hunting	4.76	1.33
14	Hunting is an instinct	4.26	1.43
22	I like it when others admire my trophies resulting from my hunts	4.20	1.51
17	Hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food	3.91	1.68
19	My trophies show that I am a successful hunter	3.71	1.55
23	I enjoy showing off my hunting skills	3.39	1.69
13	Hunting allows people to get rid of their frustrations	3.05	1.69
7	Hunting reinforces my male identity	2.98	1.72
9	Hunting shows that a man can care for his family	2.62	1.67
15	Hunting satisfies man’s need to be in control	2.36	1.47
27	Killing the animal puts me off hunting	2.05	1.48
8	Hunting should not be practiced by women	1.27	0.91

Twelve of the push motivational items had a mean score of five or higher on the Likert scale. Thus, respondents “agreed” to “strongly agreed” with the statements.

Item 1 (‘hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation’) showed the highest mean score (M = 5.54), indicating the most significant motivation for engaging in hunting activities. The factor with the second highest mean score (M = 5.51) was also a nature related motivation (item 16 – ‘hunting improves my knowledge of nature’).

Although item 8 (‘hunting should not be practiced by women’) shows the lowest mean score, the result will not be considered as relevant to push motivational factors due to it being dogmatic in nature. Thus, with the elimination of item 8, the factor with the lowest mean score was item 27 (‘killing the animal puts me off hunting’).

Interestingly, respondents indicated item 17 (‘hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food’) as being a more important motivation than item 19 (‘my trophies show that I am a successful hunter’). Item 6 (‘hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones’) shows a mean score of 5.05, while item 9 (‘hunting shows that a man can care for his family’), also a family related motivation, ranked fairly low, and showed a mean score of 2.62. Items 10 and 12 were both related to *other people* and ranked exactly the same, each with a mean score of 4.93. Another item related to *other*

people was that of item 25 (‘I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip’), and showed a mean score (M = 4.95) similar to that of items 10 and 12. The average mean score for the 28 push motivational items was 4.15.

To examine the dimensions underlying the push factor items, a principal component factor analysis was undertaken. The 28 push factor items yielded six factorial dimensions. These dimensions had eigenvalues equal to one or higher, explained 49% of the total variance and were labelled ‘personal values’ (Factor 1), ‘ego enhancement/status’ (Factor 2), ‘caring for family’ (Factor 3), ‘evaluation of self/self-awareness’ (Factor 4), ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ (Factor 5) and ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ (Factor 6). Table 5.5 shows the six factorial groups, with their item loadings (loadings > 0.3), mean scores (M), Cronbach alphas, and the variances explained. It should also be noted that the “other” items have been omitted from the factor analysis. It should be noted that push factor 4 (‘caring for family’) was based on the results from 190 respondents (remaining factors were based on n = 191).

TABLE 5.5

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR PUSH ITEMS

PUSH ITEM	ITEM LOADING	ITEM M
FACTOR 1: *PERSONAL VALUES*		
Hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation (item 1)	0.47	5.54
Hunting is in my blood (item 2)	0.36	5.31
Hunting is part of my heritage (item 3)	0.54	5.17
Hunting provides me with good exercise (item 4)	0.73	5.31
Hunting is a means to escape from the stress of daily life and work (item 5)	0.66	5.50
Hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones (item 6)	0.42	5.05
Hunting improves my knowledge of nature (item 16)	0.33	5.51
GRAND MEAN		**5.35**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.75**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**10%**	
FACTOR 2: *EGO ENHANCEMENT/STATUS*		
My trophies show that I am a successful hunter (item 19)	0.69	3.71
I like it when others admire my trophies resulting from my hunts (item 22)	0.80	4.20
I enjoy showing off my hunting skills (item 23)	0.77	3.39
GRAND MEAN		**3.77**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.82**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**10.4%**	
FACTOR 3: *CARING FOR FAMILY*		
Hunting shows that a man can care for his family (item 9)	0.58	2.62
Hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food (item 17)	0.51	3.91
GRAND MEAN		**3.26**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.64**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**4.8%**	
FACTOR 4: *EVALUATION OF SELF/SELF AWARENESS*		
Hunting reinforces my male identity (item 7)	0.36	2.98
Hunting allows people to get rid of their frustrations (item 13)	0.54	3.05
Hunting is an instinct (item 14)	0.59	4.26
Hunting satisfies man's need to be in control (item 15)	0.66	2.32
GRAND MEAN		**3.16**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.70**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**7.4%**	
FACTOR 5: *EXCITEMENT/CHALLENGE/SKILLS*		
To me, hunting is the most exciting type of adventure sport (item 11)	0.54	5.20
I like the "thrill of the chase" (item 18)	0.61	4.99
I enjoy the challenge of having to outwit the animal (item 20)	0.68	5.10
Every hunt is unique and gives me a new story to tell (item 21)	0.44	5.28
I enjoy testing my skills against that of the animal (item 24)	0.69	5.00
GRAND MEAN		**5.11**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.80**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**11.3%**	
FACTOR 6: *SOCIAL INTERACTION/ENHANCEMENT OF KINSHIP RELATIONSHIPS*		
Hunting allows me the opportunity to share time with like-minded people (item 10)	0.41	4.93
Hunting trips allow me the opportunity to meet new people (item 12)	0.57	4.93
I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip (item 25)	0.54	4.95
GRAND MEAN		**4.94**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.68**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**6.1%**	

Twenty four of the initial 28 items loaded onto the six factors. The four items that did not load successfully are item 8 (‘hunting should not be practiced by women’), item 26 (‘I do not mind going on a hunting trip and returning empty-handed’), item 27 (‘killing the animal puts me off hunting’) and item 28 (‘stalking the animal successfully is more important to me than killing it when hunting’).

Items loading on Factor 1 were characterised by personal values related to hunting. Seven items loaded on the factor and produced the highest overall mean score (M = 5.35). The three items that loaded on Factor 2 focused on ego and status related motivations to hunt, and had a mean score of 3.77. Two items loaded on Factor 3. These items referred to caring for one’s family. Factor 4 focused on motivations related to the evaluation of self and self-awareness. This factor produced the lowest overall mean score of all the factors (M = 3.16). The five items that loaded on Factor 5 produced the second highest mean score (M = 5.11), and described excitement, challenge and skills related to trophy hunting. Factor 6 was characterised by items relating to interacting with other people. The three item factor produced a mean score of 4.94.

The fact that an acceptable six factor solution resulted, shows that postulation P1 (‘a number of factors push individuals to participate in trophy hunting’) is confirmed.

5.4 PULL FACTORS OF MOTIVATION

Respondents were requested to indicate their reasons for choosing South Africa as their trophy hunting destination. A list of motivations was provided, by which respondents could verify their responses on the six-point Likert scale (1 = disagree; 6 = agree). Table 5.6 provides the frequency of responses.

TABLE 5.6

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES:
PULL MOTIVATIONAL ITEMS

ITEM NO.	MOTIVATIONAL ITEM	LIKERT SCALE						n
		1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
1	South Africa has an abundance of game	1	0	4	19	58	109	191
2	Costs and fees are lower than in other countries	4	14	26	52	51	44	191
3	The country has exceptional natural beauty	0	1	4	22	72	92	191
4	Brochures and other marketing material persuaded me to return to South Africa to hunt	25	32	30	45	35	24	191
5	Exhibitions at a convention persuaded me to hunt in South Africa	37	28	26	41	25	34	191
6	Recommendations by other hunters	20	6	8	27	65	65	191
7	The country has the best variety of species to hunt	0	4	21	51	57	58	191
8	South Africa offers many cultural attractions apart from hunting	6	9	20	51	48	57	191
9	The country offers a wide variety of hunting habitats and therefore many different hunting regions	3	0	7	28	74	79	191
10	Hunting is a novelty	84	29	30	20	14	14	191
11	Hunting in south Africa is a truly unique experience	2	4	15	25	62	83	191
12	Hunting in South Africa is a dream come true	4	4	8	36	54	85	191

Of the 191 respondents, 20 respondents provided information relating to the “other” option of the questionnaire. Within the open-ended question, respondents regarded safety and stability, for example, better medical facilities, strict government regulation, and less crime and corruption, as important

motivations to visit South Africa in comparison to visiting other African countries. Other pull motivations as indicated by respondents included the diversity of the South African people, culture and heritage – and their acceptance of hunting.

Table 5.7 shows the mean scores (M) and standard deviation (SD) for each motivational item (categorised from highest to lowest mean score).

TABLE 5.7

MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION
FOR PULL MOTIVATIONAL ITEMS

ITEM NO.	MOTIVATIONAL ITEM	M	SD
1	South Africa has an abundance of game	5.41	0.82
3	The country has exceptional natural beauty	5.31	0.80
9	The country offers a wide variety of hunting habitats and therefore many different hunting regions	5.13	0.97
11	Hunting in South Africa is a truly unique experience	5.04	1.11
12	Hunting in South Africa is a dream come true	5.03	1.15
7	The country has the best variety of species to hunt	4.75	1.07
6	Recommendations by other hunters	4.60	1.57
8	South Africa offers many cultural attractions apart from hunting	4.55	1.31
2	Costs and fees are lower than in other countries	4.38	1.29
4	Brochures and other marketing material persuaded me to hunt in South Africa	3.55	1.58
5	Exhibitions at a convention persuaded me to hunt in South Africa	3.48	1.75
10	Hunting is a novelty	2.44	1.63

The average mean score for the 12 pull motivational items was 4.47. Items 1, 3 and 9 had the highest mean scores, and were all related to the natural resources in South Africa. Item 1 ('South Africa has an abundance of game') showed the highest mean score (M = 5.41), and can possibly be regarded as the most influential reason for hunters to travel to South Africa. Item 7 ('the

country has the best variety of species to hunt') produced a lower mean score (M = 4.75). Although item 11 ('hunting in South Africa is a truly unique experience') had a fairly high mean score (M = 5.04), the respondents did not attach a high score to item 10 ('hunting is a novelty') (M = 2.44). The information source that attracted the highest mean score, was item 6 ('recommendations by other hunters'), whereas items 4 and 5, also relating to information sources, showed much lower mean scores of M = 3.55 and M = 3.48 respectively.

To examine the dimensions underlying the pull motivational items, a principal component factor analysis was undertaken. The analysis yielded three factorial groupings. These factors explained 49% of the variance and were labelled 'nature/scenery' (Factor 1), 'Fantasy' (Factor 2), and 'information sources' (Factor 3). Table 5.8 shows the three factors with their item loadings, item mean scores (M), Cronbach alphas, and the variance explained by each factor. It should be noted that the "other" items were omitted from the factor analysis given their low frequencies.

TABLE 5.8

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR PULL ITEMS

PULL ITEMS	ITEM LOADING	ITEM M
FACTOR 1: *NATURE/SCENERY*		
South Africa has an abundance of game (item 1)	0.67	5.41
The country has exceptional natural beauty (item 3)	0.55	5.31
The country has the best variety of species to hunt (item 7)	0.60	4.75
South Africa offers many cultural attractions apart from hunting (item 8)	0.54	4.55
The country offers a wide variety of hunting habitats and therefore many different hunting regions (item 9)	0.66	5.13
GRAND MEAN		**5.03**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.76**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**21%**	
FACTOR 2: *FANTASY*		
Hunting in South Africa is a truly unique experience (item 11)	0.91	5.04
Hunting in South Africa is a dream come true (item 12)	0.80	5.03
GRAND MEAN		**5.04**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.87**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**15%**	
FACTOR 3: *INFORMATION SOURCES*		
Brochures and other marketing material persuaded me to return to South Africa to hunt (item 4)	0.56	3.55
Exhibitions at a convention persuaded me to hunt in South Africa (item 5)	0.68	3.48
Recommendations by other hunters (item 6)	0.46	4.60
GRAND MEAN		**3.88**
CRONBACH ALPHA	**0.62**	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED	**13%**	

Of the 12 pull items, 10 loaded satisfactorily. Two items were deleted, namely item 10 ('hunting is a novelty'), and item 2 ('costs and fees are lower than in other countries'). Item 10 was omitted due to an unacceptably low item loading. Item 2 was omitted as it did not correspond to any of the factor group characteristics. It should be noted that the 10 pull items indicated above had loadings equal to or greater than 0.46. The factors all had eigenvalues equal to one or higher.

Items loading on Factor 1 were related to the attractiveness of South Africa as a hunting destination. Five items loaded on this factor and produced a mean score of 5.03. Factor 2 contained the highest overall mean score of 5.04, and comprised two items related to 'fantasy'. The final factor gathered three items, and described information sources. This factor had the lowest mean score (M = 3.88) of the three factors.

The fact that a three factor solution resulted from the data analysis, confirmed postulation P2, namely 'a number of factors pull these hunters to hunt in South Africa'.

5.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUSH AND PULL FACTORS AND SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS

The following section reports on the relationship between the push and pull factors and the socio-demographic variables namely, hunting experience, age, income, country of residence, home environment, and post-school education.

To determine whether a relationship exists between the push and pull factors and the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, the differences between the factor mean scores of the socio-demographic variables was examined using a Wilks' lambda (ʎ) test. Table 5.9 shows the results.

TABLE 5.9

RELATIONSHIP OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS AND PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR	Λ	F	p
PUSH FACTORS			
Home environment	0.940	1.962	0.073
Income	0.912	0.665	0.886
Post education	0.942	0.915	0.532
Age	0.850	1.244	0.196
Hunting experience	0.817	2.103	0.005*
PULL FACTORS			
Home environment	0.976	1.561	0.200
Income	0.949	0.770	0.682
Post education	0.980	0.614	0.719
Age	0.920	1.290	0.221
Hunting experience	0.905	2.100	0.028*

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

The results show that the only socio-demographic variable with a relationship between either push or pull factors was that of hunting experience. Given this finding, hunting experience was investigated in more detail.

5.5.1 Comparison of push and pull factors by level of hunting experience

Univariate analysis (ANOVA) was performed on hunting experience, for each individual push and pull factor. For data collection purposes, respondents were requested to indicate their level of hunting experience by means of the six-point Likert scale of (1 = novice; 6 = experienced). However, given the low frequencies for ratings 1 to 3, these intervals were combined and re-labelled on

a new scale, with 1 and 4 as end points (1 = novice; 4 = experienced). Table 5.10 shows the mean scores according to the new scale.

TABLE 5.10

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS
BY LEVEL OF HUNTING EXPERIENCE

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEANS (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)								F	p
NEW SCALE	1		2		3		4			
Push factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	4.73	0.65	5.13	0.79	5.35	0.65	5.51	0.51	7.547	0.000**
Ego enhancement/status (2)	3.56	1.14	3.69	0.99	3.64	1.35	3.91	1.51	0.621	0.602
Caring for family (3)	3.00	1.26	2.91	1.27	3.15	1.37	3.50	1.54	1.758	0.157
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.13	1.11	3.12	1.06	3.30	1.16	3.10	1.19	0.346	0.792
Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	4.67	0.65	4.83	0.83	5.16	0.86	5.25	0.76	3.673	0.013*
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	4.75	0.89	4.99	0.89	4.85	0.82	5.99	1.02	0.466	0.707
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	4.97	0.60	5.12	0.53	4.88	0.82	5.10	0.73	1.343	0.262
Fantasy (2)	4.75	1.01	5.47	0.72	5.07	1.08	4.88	1.14	2.877	0.037*
Information sources (3)	3.58	0.87	4.06	0.90	3.68	1.07	3.96	1.45	1.063	0.366

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

**Statistically significant at $p < 0.01$

The results in Table 5.10 indicate that 'personal values' (Factor 1) and 'excitement/challenge/skills' (Factor 5) showed significant differences in the mean scores of the push factors, while 'fantasy' (Factor 2) was the only factor showing a significant difference in the case of the pull factors. While ANOVA indicates the existence of differences between means, it does not indicate between which means these differences exist. For this reason, a post hoc test, such as the Tukey test is performed. The results are shown in Table 5.11.

TABLE 5.11

CORRELATIONS FROM TUKEY'S ALTERNATE PROCEDURE
FOR PUSH AND PULL FACTORS ACROSS
LEVELS OF HUNTING EXPERIENCE

HUNTING EXPERIENCE CATEGORY	PUSH FACTOR 1 (PERSONAL VALUES) *STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT AT p < 0.001			
	Level 1 (novice) M = 4.73	Level 2 M = 5.13	Level 3 M = 5.35	Level 4 (experienced) M = 5.11
Level 1 (novice)		0.208	0.009	0.000*
Level 2	0.208		0.381	0.011
Level 3	0.009	0.381		0.398
Level 4 (experienced)	0.000*	0.012	0.398	
	PUSH FACTOR 5 (EXCITEMENT/CHALLENGE/SKILLS) **STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT AT p < 0.05			
	Level 1 (novice) M = 4.67	Level 2 M = 4.83	Level 3 M = 5.16	Level 4 (experienced) M = 5.25
Level 1 (novice)		0.930	0.204	0.079
Level 2	0.929		0.218	0.042**
Level 3	0.204	0.218		0.918
Level 4 (experienced)	0.079	0.042**	0.918	
	PULL FACTOR 2 (FANTASY) **STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT AT p < 0.05			
	Level 1 (novice) M = 4.75	Level 2 M = 5.47	Level 3 M = 5.07	Level 4 (experienced) M = 4.88
Level 1 (novice)		0.174	0.771	0.976
Level 2	0.174		0.307	0.029**
Level 3	0.771	0.307		0.720
Level 4 (experienced)	0.976	0.029**	0.720	

Differences with respect to 'personal values' exist between respondents classified as novice hunters (level 1) and experienced hunters (level 4). In the

case of ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ and ‘fantasy’, differences were found between experience levels 2 and 4.

5.5.2 Comparison of push and pull factors by age category

Table 5.12 shows the differences in the importance of each of the push and pull factors for the seven age groups identified. However, for comparative purposes, it should be noted that these age groups were combined into five new categories.

It should be noted that the F- and p-values were not included as there was no significance found between the push and pull factors by age, and hence, no post hoc test was required.

Respondents within the age group 40 to 45 years produced the highest mean score for the push factors at ‘personal values’ (M = 5.45). The highest mean scores for the pull factors were produced at ‘fantasy’ (M = 5.35) by respondents in the 70 to 89 years age group.

TABLE 5.12

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY AGE

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEAN (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)										GRAND MEAN	GRAND STANDARD DEVIATION
AGE CATEGORY	20-39 YEARS		40-49 YEARS		50-59 YEARS		60-69 YEARS		70-89 YEARS			
Push factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	5.34	0.68	5.45	0.68	5.36	0.64	5.18	0.58	5.42	0.72	5.34	0.65
Ego enhancement/status (2)	4.18	1.41	3.59	1.41	3.84	1.32	3.35	1.19	4.31	1.58	3.76	1.36
Caring for family (3)	3.30	1.58	3.23	1.50	3.23	1.50	3.14	1.27	3.71	1.63	3.26	1.44
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.22	1.15	3.31	1.18	3.06	1.18	3.05	0.99	3.50	1.47	3.16	1.15
Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	5.44	0.47	5.18	0.84	5.13	0.71	4.87	0.95	5.13	1.05	5.11	0.81
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	4.51	1.35	5.12	0.71	4.96	0.95	4.83	0.88	5.02	0.92	4.93	0.93
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	5.00	0.76	4.89	0.75	5.07	0.68	4.98	0.77	5.25	0.70	5.03	0.72
Fantasy (2)	5.00	1.36	5.18	1.10	4.90	1.09	5.04	0.97	5.35	0.77	5.03	1.07
Information sources (3)	3.51	1.20	3.86	1.14	4.04	1.29	3.56	1.07	4.06	1.39	3.86	1.23

5.5.3 Comparison of push and pull factors by income

Table 5.13 shows the differences in the scores of the push and pull factors for the five income groups. It should be noted, for comparative purposes, that these income groups were reconfigured into three new income groups.

TABLE 5.13

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS
BY INCOME GROUP

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEAN (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)						F	p
	US$ 100 000 or less		US$ 100 001 - 200 000		US$ 200 001 - or more			
Push factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	5.35	0.64	5.33	0.67	5.43	0.62	0.383	0.683
Ego enhancement/status (2)	3.86	1.37	3.57	1.42	3.90	1.35	0.952	0.388
Caring for family (3)	3.45	1.61	3.13	1.28	3.13	1.41	1.037	0.357
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.31	1.26	2.96	0.96	3.21	1.19	1.538	0.218
Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	5.23	0.84	4.98	0.78	5.15	0.82	1.599	0.205
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	4.88	1.00	4.83	0.94	5.16	0.76	1.930	0.148
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	5.14	0.68	5.04	0.73	4.90	0.76	1.634	0.198
Fantasy (2)	5.27	0.98	4.97	1.00	4.77	1.20	3.630	0.029*
Information sources (3)	4.05	1.30	3.87	1.25	3.84	1.08	0.569	0.567

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

Although the results of the MANOVA analysis for pull factors showed no overall differences, results of an ANOVA analysis showed a significant difference (F-value = 3.630; p-value = 0.029) at the $p < 0.05$ level, for Factor 2 ('fantasy').

To examine the significant differences found for Factor 2 ('fantasy') in the ANOVA analysis, the Tukey's alternate procedure was performed. Table 5.14 shows the results hereof.

TABLE 5.14

CORRELATIONS FROM TUKEY'S ALTERNATE PROCEDURE
FOR FANTASY FOR CATEGORIES OF INCOME

INCOME CATEGORY	PULL FACTOR DOMAIN WITH p-VALUE		
	US$100 000 OR LESS (1) M=5.27	US$100 000 – 200 000 (2) M=4.97	US$200 001 – OR MORE (3) M=4.77
US$100 000 or less (1)		0.237	0.023*
US$100 001 – 200 000 (2)	0.237		0.566
US$200 001 or more (3)	0.023*	0.566	

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

The results show the agreement with the extent to which 'fantasy' as a pull factor differed from those with an income level of US$100 000 or less and US$200 001 or more.

5.5.4 Comparison of push and pull factors by country of residence

As reported previously in this chapter, the majority of respondents were from The United States of America. Therefore, for statistical purposes, the original five country of origin groups were recategorised into two groups namely, USA and non-USA. Table 5.15 shows the comparison of push and pull factors across the USA, and other countries.

TABLE 5.15

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS
BY COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEAN (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)				F	p
COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	USA		NON-USA			
PUSH FACTORS	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	5.47	0.57	4.93	0.72	27.101	0.000**
Ego enhancement/status (2)	3.84	1.37	3.52	1.31	1.987	0.160
Caring for family (3)	3.51	1.36	2.48	1.41	19.263	0.000**
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.15	1.14	3.19	1.20	0.046	0.830
Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	5.18	0.80	4.88	0.82	4.797	0.030*
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	5.01	0.92	4.69	0.94	4.187	0.042*
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	5.05	0.74	4.98	0.67	0.273	0.602
Fantasy (2)	5.13	1.03	4.72	1.15	5.119	0.025*
Information sources (3)	3.91	1.23	3.76	1.24	0.560	0.455

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

**Statistically significant at $p < 0.001$

The results in Table 5.15 indicate significant differences in the mean scores of push factors, 'personal values' (Factor 1), 'caring for family' (Factor 3), 'excitement/challenge/skills' (Factor 5), and 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (Factor 6). Only 'fantasy' (Factor 2) is shown to be significantly different in the pull factor group. Although there are significant differences between the means, no post hoc test is performed as there are only two groups (USA and non-USA) that exist.

5.5.5 Comparison of push and pull factors for home environment

Table 5.16 shows the mean scores for each of the push and pull factors for the current home environment.

TABLE 5.16

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS
BY HOME ENVIRONMENT

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEAN (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)				F	p
HOME ENVIRONMENT	URBAN		RURAL			
Push factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	5.31	0.62	5.37	0.67	0.489	0.485
Ego enhancement/status (2)	3.63	1.40	3.87	1.33	1.567	0.212
Caring for family (3)	3.01	1.48	3.45	1.38	4.469	0.036*
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.23	1.15	3.11	1.15	0.480	0.489
Excitement//challenge/skills (5)	5.03	0.86	5.18	0.77	1.572	0.211
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	4.80	1.00	5.03	0.87	2.846	0.093
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	5.10	0.64	4.98	0.77	1.301	0.255
Fantasy (2)	5.07	0.97	5.00	1.14	0.192	0.662
Information sources (3)	3.74	1.17	3.98	1.27	1.866	0.174

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

Table 5.16 showed that significant differences were found in the push factor group at 'caring for family' (Factor 3). However, no post hoc tests were required as only two groups (urban and rural) exist.

5.5.6 Comparison of push and pull factors by level of post-school education

Table 5.17 shows the comparison of push and pull factors by level of post-school education. No significant differences between the means were found.

TABLE 5.17

COMPARISON OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY LEVEL OF POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS	INTERVAL MEAN (M) AND STANDARD DEVIATION (SD)						GRAND MEAN	GRAND STANDARD DEVIATION
NO. OF YEARS OF POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION	NONE		1-5 YEARS		> 5 YEARS			
Push factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Personal values (1)	5.24	0.72	5.32	0.66	5.42	0.61	5.35	0.65
Ego enhancement/status (2)	3.68	1.35	3.91	1.40	3.59	1.31	3.77	1.36
Caring for family (3)	3.31	1.61	3.23	1.47	3.30	1.35	3.26	1.44
Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	3.32	1.47	3.26	1.19	2.97	0.94	3.16	1.15
Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	5.03	0.80	5.14	0.82	5.11	0.82	5.11	0.81
Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	5.06	0.96	4.89	0.95	4.96	0.91	4.94	0.93
Pull factors	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
Nature/scenery (1)	5.05	0.80	5.01	0.76	5.05	0.65	5.03	0.72
Fantasy (2)	5.29	0.92	5.03	1.10	4.95	1.07	5.03	1.07
Information sources (3)	3.93	1.45	3.95	1.18	3.76	1.24	3.88	1.23

It should be noted that the F- and p-values were not included as no significant differences were found.

The highest mean score (M = 5.42) for the push factors was produced at ‘personal values’ for respondents with more than five years post-school education. For the pull factors however, the highest mean score (M = 5.29) was produced at ‘fantasy’ for respondents with zero post-school education.

5.6 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUSH AND PULL FACTORS OF MOTIVATION

The following sections report on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation, as well as the moderating effect of socio-demographic variables on the interrelationship between push and pull factors.

5.6.1 The interrelationship between push and pull factors

To determine whether a relationship among the push and pull factor domains exists, Pearson’s correlation coefficient was calculated. Table 5.18 shows the results, as well as the interrelationship between the individual push factors and between the individual pull factors.

TABLE 5.18

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

VARIABLE	CORRELATIONS (r)								
	PUSH FACTOR DOMAIN						PULL FACTOR DOMAINS		
	Personal values (1)	**Ego enhance-ment/ status (2)**	**Caring for family (3)**	**Evaluation of self/ Self-awareness (4)**	**Excite-ment/ challenge/ skills (5)**	**Social interaction/ enhance-ment of kinship relation-ships (6)**	**Nature/ scenery (1)**	**Fantasy (2)**	**Information sources (3)**
Push factor (1)	1.00	0.20*	0.45*	0.32*	0.47*	0.35*	0.23*	0.13	0.06
Push factor (2)	0.20*	1.00	0.32*	0.35*	0.38*	0.32*	0.14	0.15*	037*
Push factor (3)	0.45*	0.32*	1.00	0.41*	0.38*	0.30*	0.15*	0.08	0.07
Push factor (4)	0.32*	0.35*	0.41*	1.00	0.32*	0.41*	0.12	0.07	0.13
Push factor (5)	0.47*	0.38*	0.38*	0.32*	1.00	0.49*	0.31*	0.29*	0.16*
Push factor (6)	0.35*	0.32*	0.30*	0.41*	0.49*	1.00	0.39*	0.31*	0.25*
Pull factor (1)	0.23*	0.14	0.15*	0.12	0.31*	0.39*	1.00	0.53*	0.32*
Pull factor (2)	0.13	0.15*	0.08	0.07	0.29*	0.31*	0.53*	1.00	0.29*
Pull factor (3)	0.06	0.37*	0.07	0.13	0.16*	0.25*	0.32*	0.29*	1.00

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

The results from the analysis showed in Table 5.18, indicated moderate correlations between push factor ‘ego enhancement/status’ (Factor 2) and pull factor ‘information sources’ (Factor 3) (r = 0.37); and between push factor ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ (Factor 6) and pull factor ‘nature/scenery’ (Factor 1) (r = 0.39).

A number of interrelationships among the push factors and among the pull factors are also indicated in the results. Although the majority of the correlations are weak, a number of strong correlations (p > 0.4) exist. The push factor ‘personal values’ (Factor 1) is correlated with ‘caring for family’ (Factor 3) and with ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ (Factor 5). The pull factors ‘nature/scenery’ (Factor 1) and ‘fantasy’ (Factor 2) also showed a fairly strong correlation.

5.6.2 Moderating effect of socio-demographic variables on the interrelationship between push and pull factors

To determine whether the observed relationships indicated above were moderated by the socio-demographic variables; correlations were calculated for each pair of push and pull factors and socio-demographic subgroups (country of residence, age, level of post-school education and level of hunting experience). The results of the analysis are shown in Tables 5.19 to 5.24.

TABLE 5.19

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
Country of residence		Nature/scenery (1)	Fantasy (2)	Information sources (3)
USA residents	Personal values (1)	0.17*	0.10	-0.02
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.13	0.16	0.36*
	Caring for family (3)	0.14	0.08	0.07
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.08	0.15	0.13
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.25*	0.29*	0.16*
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.40*	0.34*	0.24*
Non-USA residents	Personal values (1)	0.42*	0.04	0.21
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.17	0.07	0.39*
	Caring for family (3)	0.16	-0.11	-0.01
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.24	-0.11	0.11
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.51*	0.19	0.11
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.34*	0.17	0.25

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

Similar patterns of significance were found to exist for USA and non-USA residents in the case of ‘nature/scenery’ and the push factors. The strength of the correlations were however different. Correlations for USA residents were moderately effected ($r = 0.40$) by country of residence at push factor ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ and pull factor

'nature/scenery'. However, for non-USA residents, the correlations were moderately effected (r = 0.42) by country of residence at push factor 'personal values' and pull factor 'nature/scenery'. For both groups, USA and non-USA, country of residence had a significant effect on the interrelationship between 'ego enhancement/status' and 'information sources'. In other words, where high scores were obtained on 'information sources', similar high scores were also obtained on 'ego enhancement/status'. Table 5.20 shows the results of the correlation analysis of push and pull factors across the various age categories.

TABLE 5.20

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY AGE CATEGORIES

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
Age category		Nature/scenery (1)	Fantasy (2)	Information sources (3)
20 – 39 years	Personal values (1)	-0.00	0.18	-0.29
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	-0.22	-0.21	0.39
	Caring for family (3)	-0.10	0.02	-0.44
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.41	0.48	-0.21
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.09	0.17	-0.27
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.66*	0.56*	-0.17
40 – 49 years	Personal values (1)	-0.11	-0.07	-0.06
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.03	0.08	0.34*
	Caring for family (3)	-0.02	-0.22	0.05
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	-0.26	-0.25	-0.04
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.04	-0.03	-0.10
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.31	0.10	0.23

TABLE 5.20 (CONTINUED)

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY AGE CATEGORIES

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
50 – 59 years	Personal values (1)	0.34*	0.22	0.16
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.11	0.16	0.46*
	Caring for family (3)	0.31*	0.28*	0.15
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.21	0.06	0.25*
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.47*	0.43*	0.43*
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.27*	0.25*	0.34*
60 – 69 years	Personal values (1)	0.28	-0.05	-0.06
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.19	0.27	0.19
	Caring for family (3)	-0.14	-0.23	-0.16
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.05	-0.07	0.16
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.31*	0.40*	-0.11
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.57*	0.34*	0.22
70 years or older	Personal values (1)	0.57*	0.46	0.07
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.45	0.52*	0.25
	Caring for family (3)	0.47	0.23	0.35
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.27	0.48	0.01
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.41	0.38	0.19
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.43	0.57*	0.18

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

Strong correlations were found to exist between the push factor 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships' and the pull factors, for the age groups 20 to 39 years, 60 to 69 years and 70 years or older. A particularly strong correlation ($r = 0.66$) at the age group 20 to 39 years was found to exist

for push factor ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ and pull factor ‘nature/scenery’.

Correlations for respondents in the age group 50 to 59 years were moderately effected by the push factor ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ for each of the pull factors namely, ‘nature/scenery’ (r = 0.47), ‘fantasy’ (r = 0.43) and ‘information sources’ (r = 0.43). Table 5.21 shows the results of the correlation analysis of push and pull factors across number of years of post-school education.

TABLE 5.21

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY YEARS OF POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
Years of post-school education		Nature/scenery (1)	Fantasy (2)	Information sources (3)
0 years	Personal values (1)	0.51*	0.39	0.03
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	-0.08	0.02	0.16
	Caring for family (3)	0.27	0.05	0.14
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.40	0.06	0.16
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.34	0.08	0.46*
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.53*	0.15	0.35

TABLE 5.21 (CONTINUED)

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY YEARS OF POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
1 - 5 years	Personal values (1)	0.10	0.16	0.06
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.24*	0.21*	0.51*
	Caring for family (3)	0.09	0.05	-0.02
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.07	0.13	0.15
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.31*	0.34*	0.09
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.45*	0.39*	0.33*
More than 5 years	Personal values (1)	0.32*	0.02	0.10
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.07	0.10	0.26*
	Caring for family (3)	0.18	0.13	0.16
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.05	-0.05	0.05
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.31*	0.27*	0.13
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.22	0.23	0.11

*Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

Significance was found to exist for post-school education in the case of pull factors ‘nature/scenery’ and the push factors, as well as in the case of ‘information sources’ and the push factors.

Correlations for respondents with zero years post-school education had two strong significant effects ($r = 0.51$ and $r = 0.53$ respectively) at ‘nature/scenery’

and ‘personal values’, as well as at ‘nature/scenery’ and ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ respectively. Similarly, respondents with 1 to 5 years post-school education were moderately effected (r = 0.45) by the interrelationship between ‘nature/scenery’ and ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’.

Post-school education had a strong significant effect (r = 0.51) on the interrelationship between ‘information sources’ and ‘ego enhancement/status’ for respondents with 1 to 5 years post-school education. However, correlations for respondents with zero years post-school education were moderately effected (r = 0.46) by post-school education at ‘information sources’ and ‘excitement/challenge/skills’.

No moderate or strong significant effects were found to exist for respondents with more than five years post-school education.

Table 5.22 shows the results of the correlation analysis of push and pull factors across level of hunting experience.

TABLE 5.22

CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF PUSH AND PULL FACTORS BY LEVEL OF HUNTING EXPERIENCE

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE	PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS		
Level of hunting experience		Nature/scenery (1)	Fantasy (2)	Information sources (3)
Level 1 (novice)	Personal values (1)	-0.32	0.05	-0.38
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.30	0.04	0.10
	Caring for family (3)	-0.26	0.29	-0.26
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	-0.42	-0.09	-0.18
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.33	-0.18	0.04
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.18	0.28	-0.16
Level 2	Personal values (1)	0.48*	0.31	-0.11
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	-0.05	-0.02	0.09
	Caring for family (3)	0.29	0.09	0.04
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.51*	0.17	-0.33
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.32	0.31	-0.16
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.52*	0.41*	-0.04
Level 3	Personal values (1)	0.13	0.18	0.19
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.05	0.10	0.30*
	Caring for family (3)	-0.09	-0.04	0.05
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	-0.05	-0.15	0.05
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.45*	0.57*	0.08
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.42*	0.31*	0.15
Level 4 (experienced)	Personal values (1)	0.31*	0.15	0.07
	Ego enhancement/status (2)	0.20	0.23*	0.45*
	Caring for family (3)	0.29*	0.17	0.10
	Evaluation of self/self-awareness (4)	0.21	0.19	0.29*
	Excitement/challenge/skills (5)	0.23*	0.24*	0.30*
	Social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (6)	0.36*	0.31*	0.36*

*Statistically significant at p > 0.05

Level of hunting experience did not have an effect on the interrelationship between the push and pull factors for novice hunters (level 1).

For levels 2 to 4, level of hunting experience showed that moderate to strong correlations exist between the push factor ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ and the pull factor ‘nature/scenery’, as well as for the push factor ‘ social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ and the pull factor ‘fantasy’.

Level of hunting experience showed that significant effects exist only at levels 3 and 4 for the interrelationship between ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ and most of the pull factors.

For respondents with the most hunting experience (level 4), level of hunting experience showed to have a significant effect on the interrelationship between the majority of the push and pull factors.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter reported on the empirical findings of the primary research for the current study. Primarily, the socio-demographic details of respondents were described, whereby it was found that the majority of respondents resided in the United States of America, were male, between 40 and 60 years of age, had an average of five years of post-school education and earned an annual gross

salary of between US$100 001 and US$200 000 before tax. The socio-demographic depiction also showed that the majority of respondents' had predominantly hunted previously in the Eastern Cape region of South Africa.

The results of the principal component factor analysis yielded six push motivational factor dimensions (generated from 28 push factor items) and three pull motivational factor dimensions (generated from 12 pull factor items). 'Personal values' (Factor 1) produced the highest mean score (M = 5.34) of all the push factors, and 'fantasy' (Factor 2) produced the highest mean score (M = 5.04) in the pull factor dimensions. Both push and pull dimensions had eigenvalues equal to or greater than one, and explained 49% of the total variance.

Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) revealed that level of hunting experience was the only socio-demographic factor to have a significant impact on the combined push and pull factors. Subsequent analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the extent of significant differences of the push and pull factors by the level of hunting experience.

Pearson's correlation coefficient procedure established two moderate relationships between the push and pull factors. Firstly, a correlation (r = 0.37) between 'ego enhancement/status' (push Factor 2) and 'information sources' (pull Factor 3) was found. The second correlation (r = 0.39) was between that of

‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships (push Factor 6) and ‘nature/scenery’ (pull Factor 1).

The findings of this chapter will form the basis of the conclusions and recommendations presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

SYNOPSIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 reported the statistical findings required for the empirical study. Chapter 6 reports on the implications of the findings contained in Chapter 5, from which relevant conclusions and recommendations will be deduced.

6.2 SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provided a conspectus of the study in terms of the rationale, problem statement, objectives and postulations. In light of the research question and problem statement, eight research objectives were established. The chapter presented a conceptual model to construct a postulated understanding of the travel motivation and behaviour of trophy hunters. Chapter 1 also provided a brief overview of the methodologies applicable to the literature and empirical studies, and lastly, it highlighted the significance of the research.

Chapter 2 presented a detailed exposition of the design and methodologies that were relevant to the current research. More specifically, the chapter commenced with a discussion regarding the collection of secondary data. This was followed by a description of the primary research which enumerated the

various categories of research, the type of investigation implemented in the study, the sampling design (identification of the target population, sampling frame, sampling technique and sample size), data collection method and technique, data collection instrument, and finally, the data analysis. The statistical methods and procedures included: principal component factor analysis; multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA); analyses of variance (ANOVA); and Pearson's correlation coefficient. Chapter 2 also gave reference to the problems experienced during the course of the research investigation.

Chapters 3 and 4 provided the basis of the theoretical study. Chapter 3 contained literature regarding the concept of travel motivation and the factors that may influence individuals to travel. The chapter also elaborated on the socio-demographics that may have an impact on an individual's decision to travel.

Chapter 4 introduced the push-pull motivational framework. The chapter accentuated that push motivations are regarded as the factors that initiate individuals to travel and that pull motivations are those factors which encourage individuals to travel to a particular destination. Possible push and pull motivations were listed. The chapter also expounded that push and pull motivational factors may be interrelated.

Chapter 5 reported the findings derived from the empirical study. A depiction of the respondents was provided, based on socio-demographic information. Following this was the report on push and pull factors of motivation and their relevant mean scores. Principal component factor analysis was then performed to identify push and pull factor dimensions. To test for relationships among the push and push factors across the socio-demographic subgroups, multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were performed and the results reported. Analyses of variance (ANOVA) reported the significant relationships found among the push and pull factors for relevant socio-demographic variables. Finally, Pearson's correlation coefficient showed the interrelationships that existed among the push and pull factors.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following section provides the conclusions and recommendations of the study based on a comparison between the findings of the literature and empirical studies. Five pairs of conclusions and recommendations will be presented, and are based on the postulations proposed in Chapter 1. The postulations were established to address the objectives of the study, and consisted of determining: the factors that push individuals to participate in trophy hunting (P1); the factors that pull these hunters to hunt in South Africa (P2); the various socio-demographic characteristics that have an influence on push as well as on pull factors of motivation (P3); the relationship that exists between push and pull factors of motivation (P4); and the various socio-

demographic characteristics that have an influence on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation (P5).

6.3.1 Postulation 1: A number of factors push individuals to participate in trophy hunting

The theoretical study indicated the presence of six motivational dimensions among international trophy hunters visiting South Africa, namely spiritual, emotional, intellectual, self-directed, biological and social (Radder 2004:526). The current research found six push factor dimensions ('personal values'; 'ego enhancement/status'; 'caring for family'; 'evaluation of self/self-awareness'; 'excitement/challenge/skills'; social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships').

The literature contained in Chapter 4 described the initial desire to travel as a means to fulfill an unmet need (Yuan & McDonald 1990:42). It was confirmed by Radder (2005:1142) that hunting is associated with the need to escape from everyday routine, as well as a search for self-fulfillment and excitement since hunting encourages participation in physically and mentally stimulating activities. According to Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991:227), seeking and escaping are the basic motivational dimensions of leisure activities which simultaneously influence an individual's travel decisions, and are furthermore sought because they provide novelty or change to daily routine.

The empirical findings of the current study confirmed the existence of similar motives, which were classified as push factors. More specifically, these factors were identified by Factor 1, 'personal values' which contained the motivation items: 'hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation; hunting is in my blood; hunting is part of my heritage; hunting provides me with good exercise; hunting is a means to escape from the stress of daily life and work; hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones; and, hunting improves my knowledge of nature'.

Chapter 4 advocated that escaping to novel places may also be associated with the desire for prestige, status or recognition from others. Similar motives became evident in the factor analysis of the current study, where Factor 2 ('ego enhancement/status') contained the motivational items: 'my trophies show that I am a successful hunter; I like it when others admire my trophies resulting from my hunts; and, I enjoy showing off my hunting skills'. It thus confirmed that individuals engage in hunting to achieve status. South Africa acts as a novel place for these activities.

Furthermore, the theoretical findings of this research revealed intrinsic desires of individual travellers such as the desire for rest and relaxation, health and fitness, adventure, prestige, social interaction (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32), authentic experiences, family togetherness and excitement (Yoon & Uysal 2005:46). This was confirmed by the current empirical study whereby the following push factor groups were inferred:

- ‘caring for family’ (hunting shows that a man can care for his family; hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food);
- ‘evaluation of self/self-awareness’ (hunting reinforces my male identity; hunting allows people to get rid of their frustrations; hunting is an instinct; hunting satisfies man’s need to be in control);
- ‘excitement/challenge/skills’ (to me, hunting is the most exciting type of adventure sport; I like the “thrill of the chase”; I enjoy the challenge of having to outwit the animal; every hunt is unique and gives me a new story to tell; I enjoy testing my skills against that of the animal); and
- ‘social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships’ (hunting allows me the opportunity to share time with like-minded people; hunting trips allow me the opportunity to meet new people; I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip).

Chapter 4 described how the personal needs (based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory) of the individual can be translated into relevant push motivations (refer to Table 4.1). Based on the mean scores (in order of highest to lowest score) of the push factor domains produced in the empirical study, the above statement could be confirmed, and are coherent with the various motivational items as identified by Morrison (in Kelly & Nankervis 2001:73).

This suggests that individual underlying motivations for engaging in trophy hunting may vary from one individual to another, in terms of a system of hierarchical needs that could fulfill the personal preferences of each individual. It is hereby apparent that the most important reason that may push individuals to hunt is related to personal, physiological needs and values.

According to the findings of the study conducted by Radder (2003:7), the primary motivations of foreign trophy hunters visiting South Africa are: to be outdoors/in nature/enjoying wildlife; to seek a challenge; enjoyment; and for the collection of trophies. This theoretical perspective is in line with the empirical findings of the current research, and is subsequently discussed.

The results from the factor analysis showed that the most important factor domains were Factor 1 (‘personal values’) and Factor 5 (‘excitement/challenge/skills’), thereby concurring with the theoretical perspectives. This suggests that overseas hunters are likely to be motivated to engage in hunting, provided that the destination can provide opportunities to appreciate natural resources and/or actively contribute to wildlife conservation, enhance family relationships and/or friendship, exercise and, to achieve enjoyment and reward through challenge of activities.

The abovementioned discussion hereby confirms Postulation 1 (‘a number of factors push individuals to participate in trophy hunting’).

6.3.2 Postulation 2: A number of factors pull these hunters to hunt in South Africa

According the theoretical study contained in Chapter 4, pull motivational factors are those which attract the individual to a specific destination once the decision to travel has been made (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32). Pull factors were further described as those embedded in the attractiveness of a destination, and include tangible resources such as beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, natural scenery, historic resources, provision of information facilities (Baloglu & Uysal 1996:32), the number regions where hunting can take place within South Africa, and the variety of huntable species (for example the ‘Big 5’).

The theoretical study indicated that Dickman (in Kelly & Nankervis 2001:41) referred to the ‘5As’ (attractions, accessibility, amenities, accommodation and activities) as the essential components of a destination. Evidence from the empirical study did not support all of the ‘5As as important to South Africa as a hunting destination, however, in accordance with the aforementioned discussion, the important pull motivational items which *were* related to the attractiveness of hunting in South Africa, consisted of: the abundance of game available, the variety of huntable species, the natural beauty of South Africa, the cultural attractions and finally, the wide variety of hunting habitats and different

hunting regions. These factors were contained within the 'nature/scenery' (Factor 1) pull factor group produced from the factor analysis.

Kozak (2002:22) and Pearce and Lee (2005:226) confirmed that various tourist visitation patterns are the result of a destination choice process that in turn, is influenced by tourists' motives and backgrounds, as well as values and preferences. This statement was evident from the 'fantasy' motive (Factor 2) of the pull factor group, which was specifically comprised of 'hunting in South Africa is a truly unique experience' and 'hunting in South Africa is a dream come true', and produced the highest mean score (M = 5.04) of all the pull factor dimensions.

As indicated in the theoretical study, and in the aforementioned discussion of this section, the role of travel information in the destination choice process is vital as it communicates the image of the destination to individuals who in turn create expectations of that destination image, to be likely to or capable of, satisfying their needs (Mansfeld 1992:330). This was supported by the results of the factor analysis, which produced 'information sources' (Factor 3) as one of the pull factor dimensions motivating hunters to select South Africa as a hunting destination. Furthermore, Patterson and Khosa (2005:42) confirmed that information on hunting in South Africa may be obtained from hunting magazines, word-of-mouth (for example, recommendations by other hunters), hunting conventions, the internet and travel agents. This was confirmed by the empirical study which showed that the most important source of information to hunters

was recommendations by other hunters, followed by brochures and other marketing material, and finally, by exhibitions at hunting conventions.

The abovementioned thus confirms Postulation 2 ('a number of factors pull these hunters to hunt in South Africa').

6.3.3 Postulation 3: Various socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on push as well as pull factors of motivation

It was mentioned in Chapter 3 that certain socio-demographic factors (age, gender, occupation, income, education, home environment) might influence an individual's decision to travel. It was also stated however, that special interest tourists are typically affluent, male and aged 40 to 60 years (Radder 2003), well educated, and engaged in managerial or professional occupations (Sung 2004:346). This also became evident from the empirical study as the majority of the respondents were male, between the ages of 40 and 69 years, had at least five years of post-school education, earned a gross income of between US$100 001 to US$200 000 per annum, and engaged in professions or occupations predominantly within the environmental industry (for example, professional hunters, taxidermists, farmers, miners, geologists, and foresters).

Hunting is a rural tradition, usually transmitted from generation to generation in environments conducive to participation (Decker et al no date:9). Many individuals of who were raised in rural areas have relocated to urban areas, and

so passing on the tradition of hunting has decreased over the past 20 to 30 years (Decker et al no date:8). It was also included in the theoretical study that non-farm employment (an indicator of broad change from a rural or small town environment to an urban or suburban environment), is negatively correlated with hunting. According to the empirical findings, it was shown (refer to Figure 5.2) that many of the respondents who currently reside in an urban environment, previously grew up in a rural environment. This suggests that these hunters may wish to travel to South Africa for their hunt to perhaps reawaken childhood memories and thus encourage a sense of belonging through escape from their current environments.

The results of the empirical study showed that the socio-demographic variables, country of residence, age, gender, occupation, income, and the like, *did* have an influence on the push and pull factors. However, level of hunting experience showed to be significantly different for push factors in terms of 'personal values' and 'excitement/challenge/skills'. This suggests that the more hunting experience the hunter has, the higher the motivation will be to gain exciting and meaningful experiences through more skillful hunting challenges. In terms of pull factors, 'fantasy' showed to be important to level of hunting experience. This suggests that the realisation of unique hunting experiences that may be achieved by hunting in South Africa, through the diverse variety of huntable wildlife species not found elsewhere in the world, for example, The Big 5.

Although the push and pull factors were not significantly different for age, the highest mean score produced at the push factor ‘personal values’ was for respondents in the 70 to 89 year age group. This suggests that hunters within this age group tend to pursue hunting for personal reasons such as heritage, the ability to contribute to wildlife conservation, exercise, to escape from the stress of daily routine, and for opportunities to share experiences with loved ones. In terms of the highest means score produced for the pull factors, hunters in the age group 40 to 49 years indicate that reasons to travel to South Africa to hunt would fulfill a truly unique experience and is a dream come true.

The empirical study showed that the pull factor ‘fantasy’ was significant by level of income for respondents who earned US$100 000 or less and US$200 001 or more per annum. This indicates that it is a truly unique experience and a dream come true for hunters within this income group to hunt in South Africa.

The results of the empirical study showed that significance existed for push and pull factors by country of residence. However, both USA and non-USA hunters participate in hunting for reasons namely, personal values, ego enhancement/status motives, and social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationship factors. Likewise for the pull factors, the motivations of both USA and non-USA hunters to travel to South Africa to hunt include those factors related to fantasy (a truly unique experience and is a dream come true).

According to the empirical study, significance was found for the push factor ‘caring for family’, by home environment. This suggests that for hunters from either rural or urban environments, important motivations to participate in hunting includes that it shows that an individual can care for one’s family, and, it gives the individual an opportunity to provide their family with food.

The results for push and pull factors did not differ significantly due post-school education. However, the highest mean score for push motivations was for ‘personal values’, and was indicated by hunters with more than five years post-school education. This suggests that these hunters pursue hunting for reasons that enable them to actively contribute to wildlife conservation, for heritage motives, to escape from the stress of daily life and work, to afford the opportunity to share a special experience with loved ones, and to improve their knowledge of nature. The highest mean score for the pull factors was that of ‘fantasy’, and was shown to be more important to hunters with zero years’ post-school education. This suggests these hunters choose to hunt in South Africa as it is a truly unique experience, and a dream come true.

It thus follows that some socio-demographic characteristics do have an influence on push as well as pull factors of motivation, and thus partly confirms postulation 3.

6.3.4 Postulation 4: A positive relationship exists between push factors and pull factors of motivation

The theoretical study highlighted that a relationship between push and pull motivations may exist by that, if several destinations have the same attraction attributes, preference is likely to be given to the destination which is perceived as most likely to match push motivations with pull destination attributes (Baloglu and Uysal 1996:32-38). However, even though individuals may have similar reasons or motivations to travel, the reasons for choosing a particular destination may differ (Yuan and McDonald 1990:44). Further to the theoretical study, Klenosky (2002:388) stated that although push factors may influence the initial decision to travel, these same factors may also assist in directing travellers in deciding which destination should be selected – hence, a relationship may exist.

The results of the empirical study indicated that relationships did exist between push and pull factors. One moderate relationship indicated that the push factor 'ego enhancement/status', was correlated to pull factor 'information sources'. Due to 'recommendations by other' being the most favourable source of information to hunters (as indicated from the results of the empirical study), it is suggested that by following these recommendations to hunt in South Africa, it would provide prestige status and social recognition from other hunters. This suggests that the desire for admiration from others, or the achievement of a successful hunting safari (by the acquisition of trophies), may be facilitated by

the positive image or perception of South Africa as a favourable hunting destination. This positive image or perception may be created through tourism or hunting brochures, articles, exhibitions and/or other information sources. The importance hereof is that tourism operators focus on creating and maintaining suitable marketing material to emphasise the advantages of South Africa as a favourable hunting destination.

Another moderate relationship identified in the empirical findings was between that of push factor 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships'; and pull factor 'nature/scenery'. This suggests that hunting provides the opportunity to enhance and encourage friendships with individuals who share the same or similar interests – whereby hunting is the common denominator, in an environment or habitat conducive to hunting.

Interrelationships were also found amongst the push and pull factors in the empirical study. These were important for push factors 'personal values', 'caring for family', 'excitement/challenge/skills', with pull factor 'fantasy'. This suggests that the novelty of hunting in South Africa offers unique, exciting and challenging experiences to hunters, and simultaneously enables them to escape the stress of daily routine, to actively contribute to wildlife conservation, to exercise, and to carry out their heritage and take care of their families - by providing food produced by the hunt.

Therefore, a positive relationship *does* exist between some push and pull factors of motivation, and thus partly confirms postulation 4.

6.3.5 Postulation 5: Various socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation

It was found, based on the empirical findings, that a number of socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on the *relationship* between push and pull factors of motivation.

The results of the empirical study indicated that push factor 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationship' and pull factor 'nature/scenery' were moderated by country of residence, for USA residents. This suggests that the motivation to build social friendships among individuals who share similar interests are facilitated by a destination which offers surroundings that are conducive to those particular interests, namely hunting. For non-USA residents however, push factor 'personal values' and pull factor 'nature/scenery' were moderated by country of residence. This suggests that personal motivations, for example, the need to escape from the stress of daily life and work can be achieved by travelling to a destination that offers an environment which is contrary to an individual's normal daily environment. The empirical findings show that for both USA and non-USA residents, significance was found on the interrelationship between push factor 'ego enhancement/status' and pull factor 'information sources'. This suggests that it may be important that individuals

engage in hunting activities to achieve status at a particular destination through recommendations of the destination by other hunters who have previously travelled to the destination.

The findings in the empirical study indicated that for age, the correlations of the push and pull factors varies for the different age subgroups. Strong correlations were found to exist between 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships and the pull factors for the age groups 20 to 39 years, 60 to 69 years and 70 years or older. This suggests that both younger, and at the other end of the scale, the older aged hunters seek out to meet new, like-minded people to learn from when on a hunting safari. A particularly strong correlation was found to exist for the age group, 20 to 39 years for push factor 'excitement/challenge/skills and pull factor 'nature/scenery'. This suggests that the younger generation of hunters seek out more adventurous and challenging hunting activities which are available at a destination which offers an abundance of diverse huntable species in variety of hunting habitats.

The results of the empirical study showed that the push and pull factors were influenced by post-school education. An example of a strong correlation was that post-school education had a significant effect on the interrelationship between the pull factor 'information sources' and the push factor 'ego enhancement/status' for respondents with 1 to 5 years post-school education. However, correlations for respondents with zero years post-school education were moderately effected by post-school education at the pull factor 'information

sources' and the push factor 'excitement/challenge/skills'. This suggests that for the respondents with 1 to 5 years post-school education, with particular reference to recommendations by other hunters and/or exhibitions at a convention centre, these information sources may be particularly valuable facilities to gain status and/or admiration from others due to the hunters' success of hunts. On the other hand, for respondents with zero year's post-school education, it can be suggested that information sources may be important to the hunter to gain the necessary knowledge about a destination and thereby ensure that the destination will provide the facilities that will offer the required adventure and excitement gained from a hunting safari.

From the results of the empirical study, hunting experience did not influence the relationship between the push and pull factors for novice (level 1) hunters. However, significant correlations were found to exist predominantly among hunters with more hunting experience, namely levels 2 to 4 hunters. These moderate to strong correlations were found across the subgroup levels 2 to 4, for the push factor 'social interaction/enhancement of kinship relationships' and the pull factors 'nature/scenery' and 'fantasy'. This suggests that the desire to meet new and like-minded or build friendships is facilitated in a favourable destination, and is more important to hunters with higher levels of hunting experience, as opposed to people with less hunting experience.

Therefore, results indicate that socio-demographics *do* have an influence on the relationship between push and pull factors of motivation and thus, confirms postulation 5.

6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This chapter confirmed that source of information is an important and influential factor that may motivate individuals to travel to a particular destination. Travel information provided to potential tourists proves to play a vital role in creating a favourable perception of the destination. Moreover, this information needs to be readily accessible to hunters to assist in creating a favourable perception of South Africa, as well as the overall image of the hunting industry in South Africa. From the conclusions of this chapter it was suggested an information source such as recommendations by other hunters may even be linked to status and/or recognition from other hunters in a predominantly male oriented industry. In light of this, further research should investigate a means of devising and implementing methods that can be used to encourage more females to participate in hunting activities. Special interest marketers can develop strategies through appropriate information sources which appeal to the female market, and thus, attempt to increase the number of female hunters and moreover, increase the number of female hunters visiting South Africa for a hunting safari.

Further to demographic research within the hunting industry, studies should be conducted to formulate ways to encourage younger age groups (20 to 39 years of age), to participate in hunting activities in South Africa. Special interest operators could investigate the specific motivations and perceptions of this age group, and thereby, assign appropriate travel packages to suit the needs of these potential hunters. This could secure the possibility of repeat visits to South Africa by a younger generation.

From the results of the empirical study, it was found that the majority of respondents hunted in the Eastern Cape region of South Africa. A comparative research study could involve investigation of the various hunting regions in South Africa, by which the results could aim to provide tourism marketers and various other special interest operators with valuable information for understanding the push and pull motivations of international trophy hunters and their reasons for choosing one region over another.

The empirical results of the current research also indicated the year in which the hunters' most recent hunting safari to South Africa took place. Although the current research was based on hunters who have previously been to South Africa for a hunting safari, the research did not indicate the number of repeat visits made by each respondent. It would be an interesting prospect however to investigate the *number* of repeat visits to South Africa for the purpose of trophy hunting, and compare the motivations (push and pull factors)

of repeat visitors to South Africa for the purpose of trophy hunting, based on the actual number of repeat visits.

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ANNEXURE A: THE COVER LETTER

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BETTER HUNTING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Hunter

You have hunted in South Africa – did you have a memorable African experience or did you have problems with the PH, the outfitter, the taxidermist, customs or the shipping of trophies? How can we make your next hunt more enjoyable?

Those involved in game ranching and hunting in South Africa, want to know what you liked or disliked about your previous safari and what you would like from your future safari(s) in South Africa.

Please spend a few minutes answering the questions that follow. Your cooperation will enable us to better understand your needs and make your next South African safari, *and* that of your fellow hunters, what you would like us to be.

THIS WILL COST YOU NOTHING. We have provided you with an envelope and paid the postage on your behalf. Please complete the questionnaire as soon as possible and send it to us in the envelope provided. We would really appreciate your doing so within the *next few days*. Be assured that your identity will be kept confidential at all times.

Thank you and happy hunting!

Laetitia Radder
Research Coordinator

Attilia Mulder
Researcher

ANNEXURE B: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A – GENERAL INFORMATION

Please mark the appropriate block and/or provide the information required.

1 Country of residence	Germany	Spain	UK	USA	Other:

2 Current home environment	Urban	Rural

3 Childhood environment	Urban	Rural

4 Year of birth	

5 Gender	Male	Female

6 Annual gross household income in US dollars before tax	Less than US$60 000	
	US$60 000 – US$100 000	
	US$100 001 – US$200 000	
	US$200 001 – US$400 000	
	More than US$400 000	

7 Occupation	

8 Years of post-school education	

9 Most recent trophy hunting safari to South Africa	

10 Region in South Africa in which most of your hunting took place, e.g. Eastern Cape	

11 Please rate your level of hunting experience on the scale. 1 = novice; 6 = highly experienced		Novice					Experienced
		1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION B – MOTIVES AND OPINIONS

People engage in hunting activities for various reasons. Please indicate your level of agreement with the statements listed below (and the ones you want to add), as they are applicable to you.

1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree

Reasons		← Disagree					Agree →
1	Hunting allows me to actively contribute to wildlife conservation	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Hunting is in my blood	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Hunting is part of my heritage	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Hunting provides me with good exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Hunting is a means to escape from the stress of daily life and work	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Hunting affords me an opportunity to share a special experience with my loved ones	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Hunting reinforces my male identity	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Hunting should not be practiced by women	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Hunting shows that a man can care for his family	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Hunting allows me the opportunity to share time with like-minded people	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	To me, hunting is the most exciting type of adventure sport	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Hunting trips allow me the opportunity to meet new people	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Hunting allows people to get rid of their frustrations	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Hunting is an instinct	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Hunting satisfies man’s need to be in control	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Hunting improves my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Hunting is an opportunity to provide my family with food	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I like the “thrill of the chase”	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My trophies show that I am a successful hunter	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I enjoy the challenge of having to outwit the animal	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Every hunt is unique and gives me a new story to tell	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I like it when others admire my trophies resulting from my hunts	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I enjoy showing off my hunting skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I enjoy testing my skills against that of the animal	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I often learn a lot from others when on a hunting trip	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I do not mind going on a hunting trip and returning empty-handed	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Killing the animal puts me off hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Stalking the animal successfully is more important to me than killing it when hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Other, please specify	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION C – REASONS FOR CHOOSING SOUTH AFRICA AS A HUNTING DESTINATION

There may be various reasons why you chose South Africa for your trophy hunt. Please indicate the level of agreement with the reasons listed below as they apply to you.

1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree

	Reasons	← Disagree				Agree →	
1	South Africa has an abundance of game	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Costs and fees are lower than in other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	The country has exceptional natural beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Brochures and other marketing material persuaded me to return to South Africa to hunt	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Exhibitions at a convention persuaded me to hunt in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Recommendations by other hunters	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	The country has the best variety of species to hunt	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	South Africa offers many cultural attractions apart from hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	The country offers a wide variety of hunting habitats and therefore many different hunting regions	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Hunting is a novelty	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Hunting in South Africa is a truly unique experience	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Hunting in South Africa is a dream come true	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Other, please specify	1	2	3	4	5	6