INTERNATIONAL MARKET POTENTIAL OF AVITOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

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ABSTRACT

Despite rapid growth of avitourism globally, the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa, which has remarkable birdlife, is not fully utilised. This research aimed to profile international avitourists by investigating their behavioural involvement; motivations; preferences; agreement to ecotourism principles; and awareness of avitourism in South Africa. Primary data were gathered by distributing questionnaires at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch Vogelfestival. Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were applied. The results indicated that avitourists differ in terms of behavioural involvement, motivation and preferences for each fair and birder type (casual, active or committed), but agreed on ecotourism principles. A second-order CFA model for avitourist motivation revealed three new constructs – wellbeing, intellectual activity and engagement. Respondents indicated relatively low awareness but high interest in visiting South Africa as a birding destination. The results support the South African avitourism industry potential in product development and destination marketing.

Key terms: avitourism (birding tourism) and ecotourism, bird fairs, behavioural involvement, motivations, preferences, destination awareness

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DECLARATION

I declare that this Master's dissertation, which I hereby submit for the degree MCom (Tourism Management) at the University of South Africa, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures software
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BLSA	BirdLife® South Africa
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CMIN	Chi-square value
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (South Africa)
df	Degrees of freedom
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry (South Africa)
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
GDP	Gross domestic product
IFI	Incremental fit index
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
PAF	Principal axis factoring
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
RSPB	Royal Society for the Protection of Birds
SA	South Africa
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SIT	Special interest tourism
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SEM	Structural equation model
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
UN-WTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VFR	Visiting friends and relatives
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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CHAPTER 1

1 INTRODUCTION TO AVITOURISM RESEARCH

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2006:1) describes tourism as the largest and fastest-growing economic sector in the world. In South Africa, tourism is one of the key drivers of the economy, supporting around 947 530 jobs and generating over R100 billion every year (South African Tourism, 2009:33). One of the key trends in tourism demand is that it will continue to grow globally, with international arrivals expected to reach 1.56 billion in 2020, as outlined in the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (UN-WTO) Tourism 2020 Vision (UN-WTO, 2008:46). This continued growth of the tourism industry has resulted in fundamental changes in the needs and expectations of travellers (Page, 2007:4).

The expansion of the tourism industry has led to more opportunities within the sector, offering new kinds of experiences (Page, 2007:4; Poon, 2003:141). The needs of the birder, the golfer, the genealogist, the railway enthusiast and other special interest groups, to the fullest stretches of the imagination, can now be catered for (Page, 2007:4; Novelli, 2005:1). According to Novelli (2005:1), niche tourism is defined as an economy of the imagination, where individual preferences and practices are coordinated, packaged and sold. Niche tourism is also referred to as special interest tourism (SIT) (DTI, 2008:5).

According to Derrett (2001:3), SIT is undertaken for a distinct or specific reason, with the tourist choosing to engage with a product or service that satisfies particular interests and needs. One aspect of SIT, birdwatching, is identified as a growth area and trend in tourism (Wheeler, 2008:208; Sekercioğlu, 2002:282; Cordell & Super, 2004:135). Specialised birdwatching trips are increasingly popular, and the term 'twitchers' has been coined for obsessive birdwatchers

(Wheeler, 2008:208). 'Avitourism' or 'birding tourism' refers to birdwatching where the birder undertakes a trip of a mile (1.6 km) or more from home with the primary purpose of observing birds (La Rouche, 2003:4).

Avitourism is one of the best sources of income in ecotourism, as it accounts for the largest single group of ecotourists (Cordell & Herbert, 2002:61; International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, 1996). Avitourists are educated, wealthy and conservation supporting, representing a large and growing segment of low-impact tourists (Sekercioğlu, 2002:282). The same author further suggests that avitourists have high potential to contribute to local communities, educate local people about the value of biodiversity and create local and national incentives for the preservation of natural areas. As avitourism is an environmentally conscious activity, it provides economic hope to many threatened natural areas around the world (Cordell & Herbert, 2002:54). The following international examples from the United States of America (USA), Australia, the Pacific Islands, Germany and the United Kingdom (UK) illustrate the benefits that can be derived from avitourism.

The economic benefits of avitourism in the USA are noted by Cordell and Herbert (2002:55). In 2001, 46 million Americans participated in birding, spending an estimated $32 billion and generating a further $85 billion in economic benefits. Birding contributed $13 billion in state and federal income taxes and created approximately 863 406 jobs in the USA in 2001 (La Rouche, 2003:15). Cordell and Herbert (2002:55) observed that the number of birders in the USA had increased by 232% since 1983, making birdwatching the fastest-growing outdoor recreational activity in the USA. In Australia, the Phillip Island Nature Park received 626 542 paying visitors who came to watch the Penguin Parade, generating A$6.3 million in admission fees and a further A$2.5 million from sales of souvenirs, food and beverages (Tapper, 2006:32). Lickorish and Jenkins (1997:63) remarked that the primary economic impacts of avitourism relate to

foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, the generation of employment and income, and the stimulation of regional development. Social benefits associated with avitourism activities are illustrated by the following example of the Pacific Islands.

Many of the bird species that avitourists would like to see occur in rural areas, where avitourism potentially provides an alternative source of income and employment. An example of village-based avitourism occurs in the rainforest of the Pacific Islands. The Herowana village is located in the Crater Mountain Wildlife Management Area. Visiting avitourists stay in a guesthouse built in the traditional style and are taken on treks to see endemic tropical bird species found in the rainforest. Local Gimi people act as bird guides and provide other tourism-related services that generate income to meet basic needs and simultaneously serve as incentives for maintaining the rainforest, a renowned threatened ecosystem (Zeppel, 2006:53). Consequently, participants gain a greater awareness of the values of biodiversity and the conservation of natural resources, achieving another primary benefit of avitourism (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:204). The generated income derived form avitourism provides an incentive to conserve the particular bird species as well as their habitats (Tapper, 2006:32). The conservation benefits of avitourism are further demonstrated by examples from Germany and the UK.

The Mürits National Park (Germany) receives about 600 000 visitors each year, who come to view a variety of species, including Cranes and White-tailed Eagles. The park hosts up to 8 000 migrating Cranes during September and October. Tourism generates over €13 million a year for the region, supporting an estimated 628 full-time jobs. Managing the park effectively requires the cooperation of local communities and businesses in and surrounding the park. A highly participatory planning process was used to involve all relevant stakeholders, providing an important mechanism for integrating conservation with the rural development of the

region (Tapper, 2006:44). To control visitation and minimise impacts, a ticket and guiding system was introduced for viewing the Cranes. This system offers significant benefits for conservation by keeping the disturbance of the Cranes to a minimum, providing incentives for tour companies linked to Crane conservation and promoting greater awareness of Crane ecology and conservation. Guiding presents a good interpretation of the behaviour and ecology of the Cranes, providing a high-quality visitor experience and ensuring good visitor behaviour (Tapper, 2006:45). The UK considers bird conservation and birding to be highly important, as the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (RSPB) has over one million members, making it an environmental organisation with one of the biggest memberships in Europe (British Birdwatching Fair. n.d.).

The above-mentioned avitourism examples from various countries highlight three major benefits of avitourism:

1. Economic benefits: foreign exchange earnings from money spent on birding trips, including travel costs, accommodation, food and beverage, and sales of souvenirs etc.; government income taxes; and employment generation.
2. Social benefits: stimulation of regional and rural development; alternative sources of income and employment local communities; participatory tourism planning processes and the involvement of relevant stakeholders; local communities gaining a greater awareness of conservation of the natural and cultural resources, thus integrating conservation and rural development; cooperation of local communities through tourism awareness and benefit-sharing.
3. Conservation benefits: local awareness of the values of biodiversity and the conservation of natural resources and bird species; guiding and good interpretation, providing high-quality visitor experience and ensuring good visitor behaviour.

From a local perspective, according to a communication by Mr D. Pritchard[1] (2008), South Africa has its own tourism identity and has witnessed similar positive birding trends. Moreover, the fast-growing South African tourism industry complements a worldwide trend towards alternative tourism,[2] signalling a departure from the perception that sun, sea and sand represent the ideal holiday (Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007:2). As South Africa is famous for its safari adventures, rich natural diversity and wildlife, many of these popular new types of tourism, such as avitourism, are ideally suited for developing tourism in rural localities with the requisite environmental qualities (Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007:2).

South Africa has a remarkable wealth of birdlife, with 951 bird species, 171 of which occur in southern Africa only (Hockey, Dean & Ryan, 2005; Chittenden, 2007). By comparison, there are about 1000 bird species in the USA and Mexico combined (Marshall, 2001), and approximately 524 bird species in the whole of Europe (BirdLife International, 2004). Due to this wealth of bird species, South Africa is classified as a rich birding country (Berruti in Marshall, 2001). According to the Tourism White Paper (DEAT, 1996:4), the government and business leaders of South Africa have identified tourism as the industry that offers the best hope of reducing widespread poverty and high levels of unemployment. Considering that birding is one of the fastest-growing hobbies around the world, the local ecotourism industry will be enhanced by attracting foreign visitors to South Africa (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005:67; Marshall, 2001). Further research and investigation are required in order to exploit this potential.

Birding is managed on both a global and national scale: BirdLife® International is the global coalition of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) focusing on bird

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[1] Mr D Pritchard is the manager of BirdLife® South Africa Avitourism Division.

[2] *Alternative tourism* is "a generic term that encompasses a whole range of tourism strategies (e.g. appropriate, eco, soft, responsible, people-to-people, controlled, small-scale, cottage and green tourism), all of which purport to offer a more benign alternative to conventional mass tourism" (Fennell, 2008:5).

conservation, and BirdLife® South Africa (BLSA) is the local conservation and birding NGO in South Africa, with 8000 members, organised into 27 branches and 18 affiliates. The BLSA Avitourism Division manages various elements of avitourism, namely BirdLife® Travel, Birding Routes, Guide Training and Birder Friendly accommodation establishments (BLSA, 2007).

The importance of birding in South Africa is already recognised by government bodies such as South African Tourism (the national marketing body for tourism to and within South Africa), which markets South Africa as a top birding destination, offering a considerable variety of birds, well-developed international and domestic transport systems and a user-friendly and supportive avitourism industry (South African Tourism, n.d.b).

South Africa's current position as a birding destination for avitourism can be summarised as follows:

- Classified as a rich birding country, based on the remarkable wealth of birdlife and large variety and number of bird species
- Well-developed infrastructure
- Represented by BLSA, which focuses on bird conservation and avitourism development in the country, as well as planning and managing well-established birding routes
- A supportive avitourism industry
- Government support for avitourism linked to development in rural areas, with the potential to reduce poverty and unemployment.

Considering the current position that South Africa holds as a birding destination and the potential benefits of avitourism (as illustrated by the international examples), it is imperative to further investigate the market potential for international avitourism in South Africa. Developing a better understanding of the

international avitourist could assist South African avitourism managers in creating a birding product that meets birders' needs. The growing avitourism sector in South Africa as well as marketers of avitourism would benefit from the new market information released through the research of the current study. This could also assist in developing a focused marketing strategy and in realising increased international market potential for avitourism in South Africa. The problem statement of the study is discussed in the next section.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Tourism is of growing economic significance on a global scale. The contribution of travel and tourism to GDP is expected to increase from 9.2% in 2010 to 9.6% in 2020 (WTTC, 2010:3). The 2008 Tourism Annual Report indicates that the contribution of tourism to South Africa's GDP grew from 4.6% in 1993 to 9.73% in 2008 (South African Tourism, 2009).

Special interest tourism (or niche tourism), one component of tourism, has the potential to contribute to international tourism growth. Niche markets are important to tourism as they encourage the diversification of products and assist in growing tourism numbers (DTI, 2008:6). South African niche tourism can contribute towards the tourism sector objectives of increasing tourists' length of stay, spending, geographical distribution and volumes; reducing seasonality and driving transformation in the sector (South African Tourism, 2008b:4). It also has the potential to contribute significantly to the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA), a South African government initiative to reduce unemployment and poverty through employment creation and poverty alleviation (DTI, 2008:6).

According to George (2008:178), very little research has been conducted on the various niche markets, especially in South Africa. The author states that more research is required into the various tourism niche markets to gather marketing

intelligence, for example, to estimate the size of the various niches from a demand and supply perspective and to gain a greater understanding of their characteristics and motivations. According to Bennett, Jooste and Strydom (2005:64), South Africa, which is competing as a growing tourist destination, must realise that having a good product is not enough in a progressively competitive market. Managers will have to research their markets and investigate the motives and expectations of tourists, thereby customising their offering so as to attract and satisfy the needs and expectations of both local and international tourists.

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI, 2008:6) recognises avitourism as an important niche market with economic growth potential to contribute to increasing the numbers of international tourists visiting South Africa. According to Poon (2003:139), all tourism stakeholders will have to gain a thorough understanding of the changing trends in demand. In essence, the producer has to get closer to the consumer, to know their needs and wants (Poon, 2003:139). Only by understanding the avitourism market can an avitourism producer satisfy the market. Although many products already exist, such as birding routes targeting the avitourism niche markets in South Africa, relatively little substantial research has been conducted to estimate the size and profile of the international avitourism niche market (DTI, 2008). In order to grow avitourism in South Africa, a thorough understanding of the avitourism demand is needed. The demand for research was further emphasised by the management of BLSA, as new market information could assist them in their vision of growing avitourism in South Africa (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008).

BLSA focuses on the domestic as well as the international market (BLSA, 2007). While BLSA's primary market is domestic tourists, the organisation expressed the view that the international market provides a considerable opportunity for expansion in South Africa that needs to be explored (BLSA, 2007). There has been only limited research on the international market potential of avitourism in

South Africa. Two previous studies focused mostly on domestic avitourism, leaving the international market untouched. The study by Turpie and Ryan (1998) examined the economics of birding on a national scale in South Africa and investigated only the expenditure of international birders that visited the country. The other study by Biggs (2006:8) investigated the institutional environment and conservation benefits of community-based avitourism in South Africa. Apart from for these two studies, no further research on the international avitourism market in South Africa has been conducted. Due to the existing research gap in market information on the international market and according to the management of BLSA (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008), there is a need to investigate the international avitourism market as a potential target for growing South African avitourism. This study will therefore focus on the international avitourism market, with the aim of addressing the existing research gap.

In order to research the international market, the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* were identified as suitable events at which valuable market-related data could be collected (*see maps in Appendix E*). These two specific bird fairs were chosen for the following reasons:

- The British Birdwatching Fair is the biggest event of its kind in the world (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008; British Birdwatching Fair, n.d).
- The two bird fairs attract exhibitors from all over the world, promoting businesses in areas as diverse as ecotourism, optical equipment, wildlife books and bird-feeding products (British Birdwatching Fair, n.d.; *Vogelfestival*, n.d.).
- These two bird fairs attract birders from all over the world (British Birdwatching Fair, n.d.; *Vogelfestival*, n.d.).

A brief description of the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* is summarised in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: A summarised description of the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*

Bird fair	**British Birdwatching Fair**	**Dutch Bird fair (*Vogelfestival*)**
Organisers	Tim Appleton, Martin Davies, Leicestershire and Rutland Wildlife Trust working in partnership with the RSPB	Dutch State Forestry, Dutch Centre for Field Ornithology (SAVON) and *Vogelbescherming Nederland*
Date of establishment	Since 1989 (2008: 19th year)	Since 2004 (2008: 5th year)
Exhibitors	2007 fair: more than 300 exhibitors present	2007 fair: over 130 exhibitors present
Visitors	2007 fair: over 18 000 visitors attended the fair	2007 fair: approximately 9000 visitors attended the fair

Source: British Birdwatching Fair, (n.d.); *Vogelfestival*, (n.d.); Brenninkmeijer (2008)

Birding South Africa Trip Report (Fatbirder, n.d.) states, "…a strong friendly and helpful birding fraternity, over 900 species and a host of well qualified professional guides, one has to wonder why South Africa is not overrun by birders from all parts of the world…". There is enormous opportunity for South Africa to exploit this tourism niche market; this was one of the reasons for initiating this research project.

As South Africa has a remarkable wealth of birdlife, and birding is one of the fastest-growing hobbies around the world, avitourism offers an excellent opportunity to attract international tourists to South Africa. To capitalise on this opportunity, the need exists to explore international avitourism market information that could assist in advancing the avitourism potential of South Africa. The purpose of this study is therefore to attempt to provide answers to some of the questions regarding the profile of the international avitourist that might visit South Africa.

As the international market potential is not known, this study could contribute to international market information that could assist the South African tourism industry in product development and destination marketing. A better understanding of avitourists' characteristics and behaviour would assist

government, avitourism management and marketers of birding products in enabling decision-making or policy choice about avitourist activities; effective planning, management and marketing of the avitourism industry; and in developing programmes and products that meet the needs of avitourists. These role-players may be able to develop approaches that help manage avitourists and assist them in planning for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination. Therefore, major aspects influencing avitourist behaviour and avitourist decision-making, such as behavioural involvement, motivation, preferences and awareness of the birding destination, are crucial information for managers and marketers in the avitourism industry.

In order to determine the market potential for avitourism in South Africa, several objectives have been set, as discussed next.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Primary objective

To establish the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa based on avitourist profiles at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch Bird Fair (*Vogelfestival*).

1.3.2 Secondary objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were identified:

1. To explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity
2. To determine the *motivations* and *preferences* of the international avitourist
3. To identify the avitourist's level of agreement to *ecotourism principles*
4. To determine awareness among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF DISSERTATION

The research methodology utilised for this dissertation include both primary and secondary research. Secondary research will be discussed followed by primary research.

1.4.1 Secondary research

Secondary research is defined as the collection of studies previously published by other authors on a topic for their own purposes (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:103; Neuman, 2007:69; Hofstee, 2006:91). It is imperative that the research topic is thoroughly conceptualised and that existing literature or the available body of knowledge is consulted (Finn, Elliott-White & Walton, 2000:89; Mouton, 2001:87). A literature review was undertaken and is reported in Chapters 2 and 3.

A variety of sources of information are utilised by the researcher as part of the literature review, including the following (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2007:127–129; Mouton, 2001:88): books; articles in professional journals; statistical abstracts; theses and dissertations; presentations at conferences, symposia and workshops; Internet websites; and electronic databases (for

example, the library catalogue, Ebsco Host: Academic Search Premier, Hospitality & Tourism; ABI/Inform; Science Direct; and Emerald Full Text).

The list of references of sources consulted appears at the end of the dissertation.

The literature review for this dissertation conceptualised avitourism and the avitourist's involvement in the birding activity; motivation; needs and preferences; level of agreement to ecotourism principles and awareness of South Africa.

1.4.2 Primary research

Primary data are obtained from original research and consist of information collected by the researcher for the purposes of the study (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2009:149). The primary research was conducted to achieve the aim and to address the research objectives of the study. The primary research process followed in this study is discussed next.

The *first* step was to select a research design. The research was of an empirical nature, using a survey to collect primary data.

The *second* step was to select and develop a sampling plan. The population for this study comprised international birders who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* in August 2008. As a sampling frame was not available, the numbers of visitors attending both fairs in 2007 was used as a guideline to determine an appropriate sample size. For the present study, based on 2007 figures, the total population (N) for both bird fairs was 27 000 bird fair attendees. The guidelines for determining sample size of Cooper and Emory (1995:207) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) were used. The table for determining sample size from a given population shows that for a population (N) of 30 000, the recommended sample size is 379 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970:608). The recommended sample size (S) of 380 thus seemed appropriate. The actual sample size was larger than the recommended sample size. The information

reported in this research was provided by a total of S = 439 respondents (birders) visiting the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* during August 2008. A sample of 1.57% was drawn from the total population; however, the study does not claim to have a representative sample of the population.

A combination of two sampling methods (namely, event and purposive sampling) was used in this study. The British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* were chosen for the specific purpose of selecting the international birding population that was most likely to be found at these events. Non-probability sampling was used based on the data collection procedure. The bird fair organisers granted permission to distribute questionnaires from the BLSA stall.

The *third* step was to select and develop the research instrument. Questionnaires were developed, with questions related to the research objectives of the study. The questionnaire consisted of ten sections (A–J), as outlined in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Construction of the questionnaire

Research objectives	**Section of questionnaire**	
To explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity	A	Behavioural involvement in birding
To determine the *motivations* and *preferences* of the international avitourist	B C D E	Motivation of the avitourist Attributes at the destination (preferences of the avitourist in terms of attributes at the destination) Internet access of the avitourist Accommodation preferences
To identify the international avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles	F G	Ecotourism principles The importance of factors relating to local guides
To determine *awareness* among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination	H I	Awareness of South Africa Reason for visiting South Africa
Biographic information	J	Biographic information

Questions were based on previous research, the literature review and an interview with the management of the BLSA Avitourism Division (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008). A Likert scale was used in sections B, C, E, F, G and I of the questionnaire (*refer to Appendix A*). In sections B, C, G and I, respondents had to indicate the importance they attach to each statement; in section E, a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 3 was used to indicate preferences with regard to each type of accommodation establishment; and in section F, respondents had to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. The applicable Likert scale used for each section is shown in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: The applicable Likert scale used in the questionnaire

Section in questionnaire		**Applicable Likert scale used**				
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Section B, C, G and I	-	Irrelevant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important
Section E	None	Low	Medium	High	-	-
Section F	-	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

The *fourth* step was to conduct a pilot test. Four academics, who are also avid birdwatchers, were identified and asked to give their opinions on the questionnaire (I.A. Coetzer; M. Crosbie; A.J. Hugo; P. Milstein; personal communication, 2008). Minor modifications were implemented based on their recommendations, whereafter the study was pre-tested. It was not possible to conduct a pilot study overseas; the author therefore randomly selected 14 birdwatchers in South Africa to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was also tested on a family of four that visited South Africa from the Netherlands at the time of the pilot test (July, 2008). The questionnaires were analysed, and minor changes were made.

The *fifth* step was to conduct the fieldwork for the study. The population of this study, international birders, were likely to be found at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The location and dates of these two fairs are indicated in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4: Location and dates of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*

	British Birdwatching Fair	**Dutch *Vogelfestival***
Location	Egleton Nature Reserve, Rutland Water Oakham, Rutland (England) (*see map of the area in Appendix E*)	Oostvaardersplassen near Lelystad, the Netherlands (*see map of the area in Appendix E*)
Dates	15–17 August 2008	23–24 August 2008
Times	9:00–15:30	9:00–15:30

Source: British Birdwatching Fair, n.d.; *Vogelfestival*, n.d.

Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to birders at the BLSA stand at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Respondents were randomly selected on the basis of passing the stand, irrespective of their intention to visit the stand. Seven fieldworkers, including six people with relations to BLSA and the researcher, conducted the fieldwork.

The *sixth* step, data processing, included editing, coding and capturing the data. Data editing consisted of examining all completed birding questionnaires in order to identify and minimise errors, incompleteness and misclassification. Data coding was done using pre- and post-coding. Data capturing took place as each variable in the questionnaire was entered into a database by data typists.

Data analysis was the *seventh* step in the research process. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the characteristics of the sample taken, as reflected in Sections A–J of the questionnaire (*refer to Appendix A*) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:265). One of the multivariate statistical methods used was factor analysis, which helps the researcher to discover and identify the dimensions, called factors, behind many measures (Kerlinger in Reinard, 2006:407). Factor analysis helps to

reduce a vast number of variables to a meaningful, interpretable and manageable set of factors (Sekaran, 2003:408). Two further statistical methods – namely exploratory factor analysis (Section F) and confirmatory factor analysis, a type of structural equation modelling (Section B) – were also used in this research. The results are provided in Chapter 4.

The *eighth* and final step was to present the research results, which are presented in Chapter 5 of the dissertation. The research methodology is discussed in more detail of Chapter 3. The major terms used in the study are discussed next.

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

This section defines the key terms frequently used in this dissertation.

1.5.1 Avitourism and ecotourism

Definitions of 'avitourism' given in the literature include birding and birdwatching. According to Sekercioğlu (2002:282), birding is defined as the act of observing and identifying birds in their native habitats. Birdwatching, or the birding activity, is referred to as 'avitourism' or 'birding tourism' if the birder takes a trip a mile (1.6 km) or more from home for the primary purpose of observing birds (La Rouche, 2003:4). Lindsay (n.d:1) describes avitourism as "overnight travel to experience birds in a natural setting" and points out that avitourism is an important part of the worldwide growth in ecotourism. According to Sekercioğlu (2002), 'avitourism' can be defined as a component of ecotourism that focuses specifically on birds and birdwatching as an activity. Hvenegaard (2002:21) classifies avitourism as a subset of ecotourism, since it is expected to contribute to ecotourism's goal of enhanced conservation. Backyard birding or watching birds around the home is the most common form of birding, while birders who take trips away from home (i.e. away-from-home, non-residential birders or avitourists) participate in a more active form of birding.

For the purposes of this study, the terms ‘avitourism’ and ‘avitourists’ will be used, as birders who take trips away from home are the object of study. The term ‘birding’ refers to the birdwatching activity.

In summary, avitourism is mainly:

- An activity of observing and identifying birds in their native habitats
- An activity where the birder needs to take a trip away from home for the primary purpose of observing birds
- A component of ecotourism that is focused specifically on birds and birdwatching as an activity
- Not backyard birding, watching birds around the home, simply noticing birds while mowing the lawn or picnicking at the beach, trips to zoos or observing captive birds.

Since avitourism is a major component of *ecotourism*, a short description of ecotourism is necessary. ‘Ecotourism’ is a sustainable, non-invasive form of nature-based tourism that focuses primarily on learning about nature first-hand, and is ethically managed to be low-impact, non-consumptive and locally orientated (with respect to control, benefits and scale) (Fennell, 2008:24). It typically occurs in natural areas, and should contribute to the conservation of such areas (Fennell, 2008:24). The main principles or elements of ecotourism include (Fennell, 2008:21; Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208; Diamantis, 2004:5):

- Ecotourists who seek an enlightening, interactive, participatory and educational travel experience
- Protection and enjoyment of natural and cultural environments or systems
- Sustainable use of resources and mitigation of negative impacts to the environment and local community
- Economic opportunities for industry and local communities

- Sound environmental management of the resources beneficial to all tourism role players.

Bird fairs are discussed in the next section.

1.5.2 Bird fairs

Fairs fall into the broad category of 'business and trade' events and could include, among others (Getz, 2005:24):

- A gathering held at a specific time and place for the buying and selling of goods, which in the case of the two bird fairs at which the study was conducted comprised birding products and avitourism
- An exhibition intended to inform people about birding products or opportunities in the market
- An event, usually for the benefit of a charity or public institution; the two bird fairs that were surveyed support an international conservation issue every year.

As international avitourists attend the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, valuable market-related information could be collected at these bird fairs. A better understanding of avitourists' characteristics and behaviour would assist in managing and marketing the avitourism industry. Major aspects that influence tourist behaviour and tourist decision-making are therefore defined in the following sections, including behavioural involvement, motivation, preferences and awareness.

1.5.3 Behavioural involvement of avitourists

'Involvement' refers to the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus (or stimuli) within a specific situation (Kotler & Keller, 2009:214; Antil, 1984:204). Havitz & Dimanche (1990:184) define involvement in a tourism setting as "a psychological state of motivation, arousal or interest between an individual and tourism destination, at one point of time characterised by the

perception of the following elements: importance, pleasure, value, sign, risk consequence and risk probability". Bloch (in Antil, 1984:204) adds that involvement is "an unobservable state reflecting the amount of interest, arousal or emotional attachment evoked by the product in a particular individual". These emotional responses could create a deep commitment to the product or activity, which refers to a high level of consumer involvement (Solomon, Bamossy & Askegaard, 2002:93). A person's degree of involvement can be conceived as a continuum, ranging from absolute lack of interest at the one end to obsession at the other (Solomon *et al*. 2002:104). According to Kim, Scott and Crompton (1997:322), several leisure researchers measured involvement in behavioural terms. Stone (in Kim *et al*., 1997:321) defines behavioural involvement as "time and/or intensity of effort expended in pursuing a particular activity".

In summary, 'behavioural involvement' refers to:

- The level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus (or stimuli) within a specific situation
- A psychological state of motivation, arousal or interest
- The perception of elements such as importance, pleasure, value, sign, risk consequence and risk probability
- The amount of interest, arousal or emotional attachment evoked by the product in a particular individual that could create a deep commitment to the product or activity
- The person's degree of involvement, which can be conceived as a continuum ranging from high to low
- The time and/or intensity of effort expended in pursuing a particular activity.

Understanding the motivations of avitourists is important for effective planning, development and management of avitourism products (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318). The travel motivations of avitourists are discussed next.

1.5.4 Travel motivation of avitourists

Travel motivation is a component of a set of psychological processes (such as perception, learning, memory, and beliefs and attitudes) that may contribute to explaining decision-making processes and purchase decisions of tourists (Kotler & Keller, 2009:200; Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008:44). Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2006:69) define 'motivation' as "a need that is sufficiently pressing to direct a person to seek satisfaction of that need". Needs give rise to motivations when they are aroused to a sufficient level of intensity that drives the tourist to act (Kotler & Keller, 2009:202). Travel motivation is also referred to as energising forces directed at meeting the tourist's needs (Hudson, 2000:7). Factors such as age, personality, stage in the life-cycle and lifestyle determine the motivations of individual tourists (Page, 2007:65; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:55). Motivators in travel are factors that motivate the tourist who wishes to purchase a particular product (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:51). The main tourism motivators include physical, emotional, personal, personal development, status and cultural motivators (Swarbrooke & Horner 2007:54). Dann (1977) distinguishes tourist motivation in terms of the push (level of desire of tourists) and pull (to the destination or attraction) factors (in Cooper *et al*., 2008:46). The tourist is being pushed into a holiday by the need (such as the need to escape, or the need for status), while other factors may pull, or encourage, them to travel to a specific destination, for example the scenery or the birdlife at the destination (Holloway, 2006:68).

In summary, 'travel motivation' refers to:

- Psychological processes that may contribute to explaining decision-making processes and purchase decisions of tourists
- A need that is sufficiently pressing to direct a person to satisfy that need
- Energising forces directed at meeting the tourist's needs

- Factors determining motivation, including age, personality, stage in the life-cycle and lifestyle
- Tourism motivators, such as physical, emotional, personal, personal development, status and cultural motivators
- Push (level of desire of tourists) and pull (to the destination or attraction) factors.

Decision-makers are interested in what tourists prefer at the destination, as that influences their travel choices and purchases (Pearce, 2005:7). Preferences are often expressed in terms of the destination attributes, or 'pull factors' (Decrop, 2000:105). The preferences of avitourists will be explained next.

1.5.5 Preferences of avitourists

Preferences are a component of the socio-psychological processes (perception, learning and attitude) involved in the decision-making process (Decrop, 2006:7). Decrop (2006:9) defines preferences as "the predisposition of choosing one product alternative over the other". This implies that the tourist takes a position that is the result of a comparative process (through ranking or rating) of products or destinations (Decrop, 2006:9).

In summary, the 'preferences' of avitourists refer to:

- Socio-psychological processes involved in the decision-making process
- The predisposition of choosing one product alternative over the other
- The result of a comparison of products, activities or destinations
- Destination attributes, or pull factors, that encourage or pull tourists to travel to a particular destination.

1.5.6 Avitourist awareness of the birding destination

Destination awareness forms part of the tourist buying-decision process and therefore influences the purchase decision (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan & Ranchhod, 2009:88; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404). By gathering information, birders learn about competing destinations and their attributes and increase their awareness and knowledge of available choices and products features (Kotler *et al.*, 2006:220). Avitourists receive information about a destination from various sources, including family, friends, advertisements or the mass media (Kotler & Keller, 2009:208). Using the information received, avitourists develop their own ideas, perceptions and beliefs about the destination, which will reduce or enhance the likelihood of visiting the birding destination (Page & Connell, 2009:82; Kotler *et al*., 2006:220). The set of beliefs held about a particular brand (destination) is known as the brand image (Kotler *et al*., 2006:220). Awareness therefore implies that an image of the destination exists in the mind of the potential tourist (Gartner in Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404). In the marketing literature, Kotler and Keller (2009:783) define brand awareness as "consumers' ability to identify the brand (or destination) under different conditions, as reflected by their brand recognition or recall performance".

In summary, avitourists' 'awareness' of the birding destination refers to:

- A process that forms part of the tourist buying-decision process
- Information received from various sources, including family, friends, advertisements or the mass media
- An image of the destination that exists in the minds of potential tourists
- The consumers' ability to identify the destination brand under different conditions, as reflected by their brand recognition or recall performance.

The organisation of the dissertation is outlined next.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

The chapters in this dissertation are structured as follows:

In *Chapter 1*, the background and orientation is provided by introducing avitourism as a form of special interest tourism. This is followed by the problem statement, the aim and the research objectives of the study. The research methodology is discussed according to primary and secondary research conducted in the dissertation. Relevant definitions of terms that are frequently used in the dissertation are explained. These important points of departure set the context for the dissertation.

The literature review is discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. *Chapter 2* contains the first part of the literature study, examining tourism, special interest tourism and avitourism.

The second part of the literature study is discussed in *Chapter 3*. Aspects of tourist behaviour are discussed, namely behavioural involvement, as well as the motivation and preferences of avitourists. Avitourist awareness of South Africa as a birding destination is also discussed.

The research methodology used in the dissertation is discussed in *Chapter 4*, which includes a discussion of the study sites and follows the procedure of the primary research process. Details of the research design, sampling plan, research instrument, pilot test, data collection, data processing and methods used for the analysis of data are provided.

Chapter 5 reports and interprets the results of the analysis of respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*. A new model for avitourist motivation was developed with the assistance of structural equation modelling.

Lastly, *Chapter 6* concludes and presents recommendations for BLSA and tourism managers involved in avitourism. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are also provided.

Figure 1.1 shows the chapter outline of the dissertation.

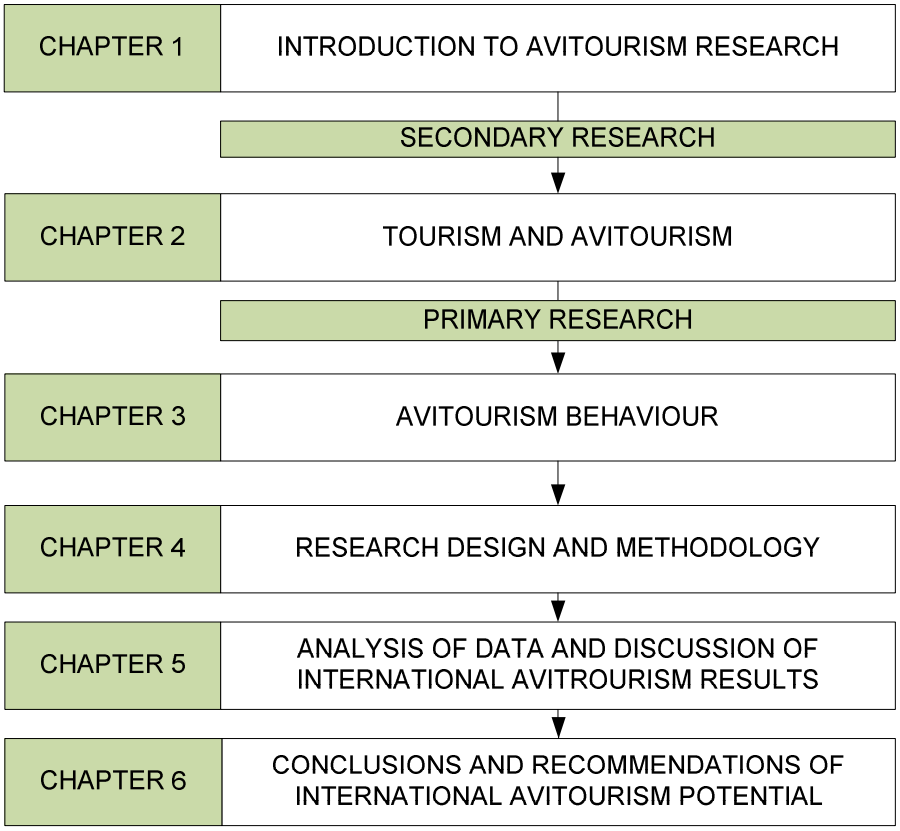


Figure 1.1: Chapter outline of the dissertation

CHAPTER 2

2 TOURISM AND AVITOURISM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is described as the largest and fastest-growing industry in the world (WTTC, 2006:1). This continued growth of tourism, both domestically and internationally, has resulted in fundamental changes in the needs, demands and expectations of tourists (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:33; Van Zyl, 2005:37; Page, 2007:4). One key trend is that tourists are becoming more sophisticated and are seeking more individualised experiences, which are often characterised as special interest tourism (SIT) (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:584). Such tourists seek "authentic, interactive, highly involved, quality travel experiences, focusing on the in-depth coverage of the special interest topic or destination at hand" (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:584). Individualised aspects of demand have given rise to various tourism niche markets catering for specific interests (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:584; Page, 2007:88).

SIT includes, for example, environmental tourism, cultural tourism and sport tourism. Although various types of SIT opportunities exist, this study deals with only one type – environmental tourism, and more specifically avitourism (birding tourism). Figure 2.1 illustrates the structure and flow of the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3.

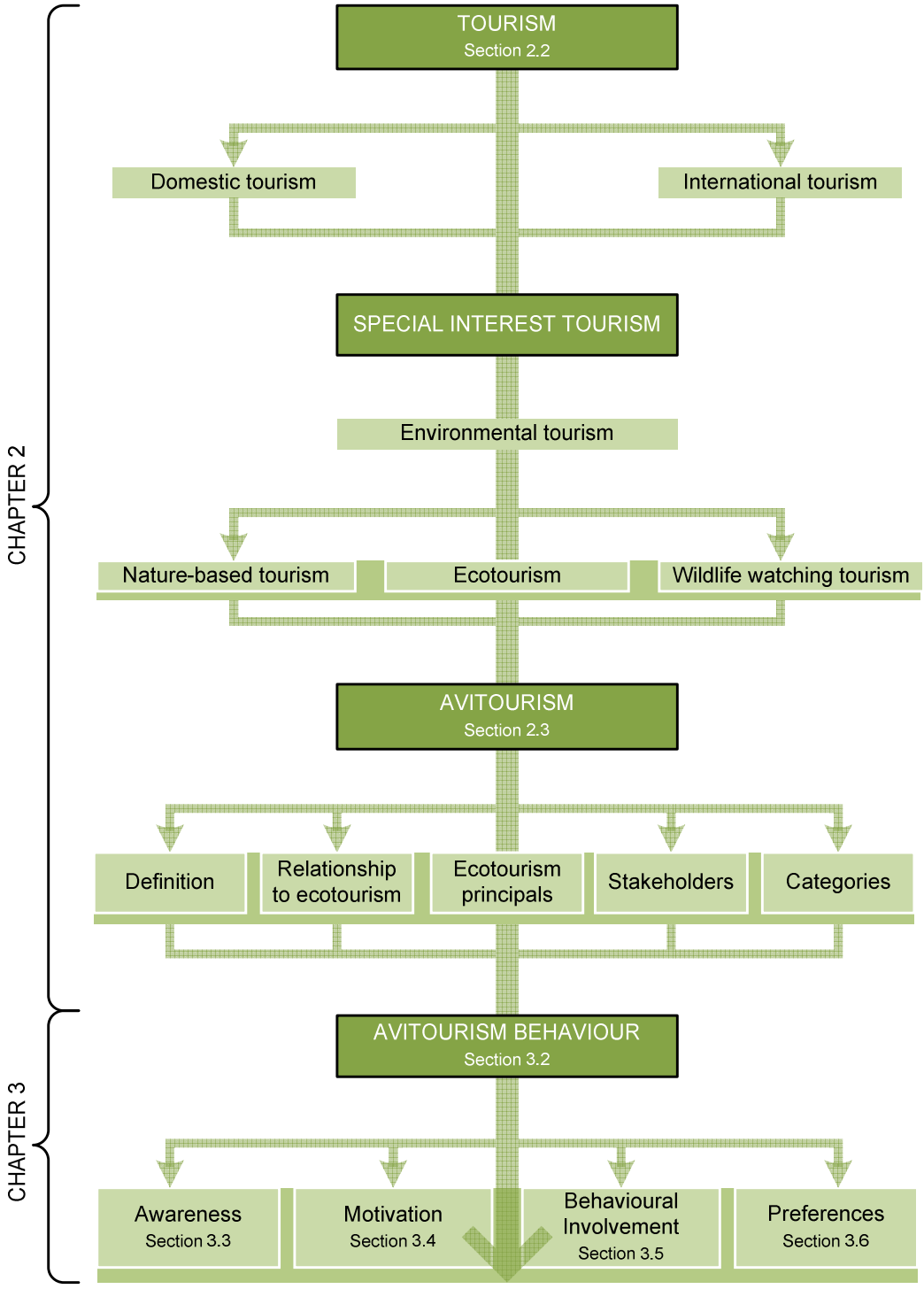


Figure 2.1: Structure and flow of the literature review

Tourism, SIT and avitourism are discussed in Chapter 2, and avitourism behaviour in Chapter 3. Figure 2.1 shows the structure of these chapters. Each aspect is discussed in the sections that follow, as indicated in the figure. The growth of tourism, tourism niche markets and special interest tourism are discussed in the next section.

2.2 TOURISM, TOURISM NICHE MARKETS AND SPECIAL INTEREST TOURISM

'Tourism' may be defined as "the process, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments, that are involved in the attracting and hosting of visitors" (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:6). The officially accepted definition of the UN-WTO is: "Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes" (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:6).

A distinction can be drawn between international and domestic tourism (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:7; Page & Connell, 2009:14). The UN-WTO recommends that an 'international tourist' be defined as "a visitor who travels to a country other than that in which he/she has his/her usual residence for at least one night but not more than one year, and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity renumerated from within the country visited" (Page & Connell, 2009:14). In contrast, domestic tourism refers simply to visits by residents of a country within their own country (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:7; Weaver & Lawton, 2006:26). In comparison with domestic tourists, international tourists are usually treated by governments as the most important market sector of tourism, as they typically spend more, stay longer at the destination, use more expensive transport and accommodation and bring in foreign currency, which contributes to the

international balance of payments (Middleton *et al*., 2009:5). The economic importance of the movement of people and the rapid growth of this sector indicate that tourism is of global significance (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:33; George, 2007:7).

The UN-WTO (2009) states that, worldwide, 924 million people travelled internationally in 2008 and that 1.6 billion international tourist arrivals are expected by 2020. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2006:1), the global tourism industry is worth $5000 trillion. Tourism supports over 230 million jobs worldwide, both directly and indirectly, and generates more than 10% of the world's gross domestic product (GDP) (WTTC, 2006:2). The trend in South Africa is similar to the global trend.

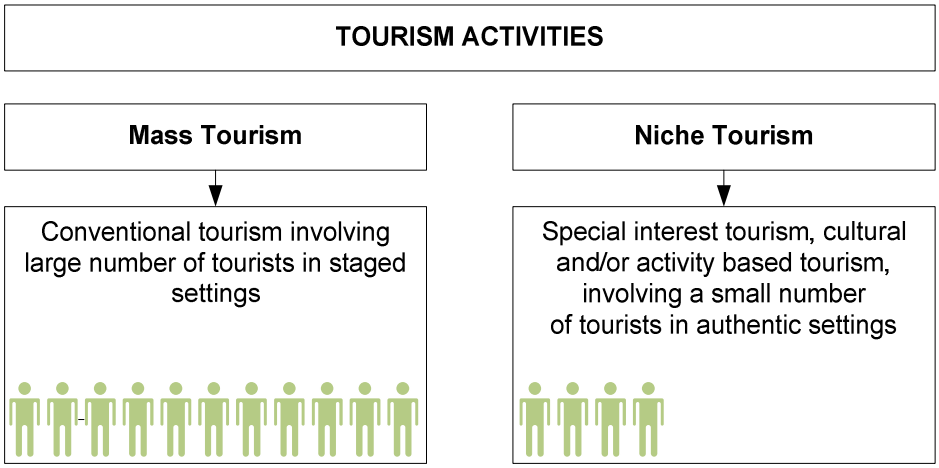
In South Africa, tourism is one of the key drivers of the economy, supporting around 1 041 700 jobs and generating over R100 billion each year. In 2008, tourism contributed (directly and indirectly) R194.5 billion to GDP (South African Tourism, 2009). One of the key trends in tourism demand is that tourism will continue to grow globally, as outlined in the UN-WTO's Tourism 2020 Vision (UN-WTO, 2008). This continued growth of the tourism industry has resulted in fundamental changes in the needs and expectations of travellers (Page, 2007:4).

The radical changes in consumer preferences can be illustrated by Poon's description of 'old' and 'new' tourism (Page & Connell, 2009:78; Van Zyl in George, 2007:347). Old tourism is characterised by mass, standardised and rigidly packaged offerings, while new tourism (the tourism of the future) is characterised by flexibility, segmentation[3] and more authentic experiences (Poon, 2003:130). The expansion of the tourism industry has led to more opportunities within the sector and new kinds of experiences and tourism offerings (Poon, 2003:141).

[3] 'Tourism segmentation' implies that: "The tourism supplier can divide the total market into homogenous segments and choose the best or most attractive segments for their business" (Bennet *et al*., 2005:216).

'Niche tourism' is "an economy of the imagination, where individual preferences and practices are coordinated, packaged and sold" (Novelli, 2005:1). The wants and wishes of the birder, the golfer, the genealogist, the railway enthusiast, indeed, special interest groups to the fullest stretches of the imagination can now be catered for (Novelli, 2005:1).

The concept of 'niche tourism' has emerged as a counterpoint to what is commonly referred to as 'mass tourism' (Novelli, 2005:1). The term 'niche tourism' is borrowed and adapted from the term 'niche marketing', which refers to a specific product tailored to meet the needs of a particular audience or market segment. A 'niche market' is a narrowly defined group in which the individuals in the group are identifiable by the same specialised needs or interest and are defined as having a strong desire for the products on offer (Novelli, 2005:5). As illustrated in Figure 2.2, niche tourism consists of special interest tourism, tradition- and culture-based tourism, and activity-based tourism.



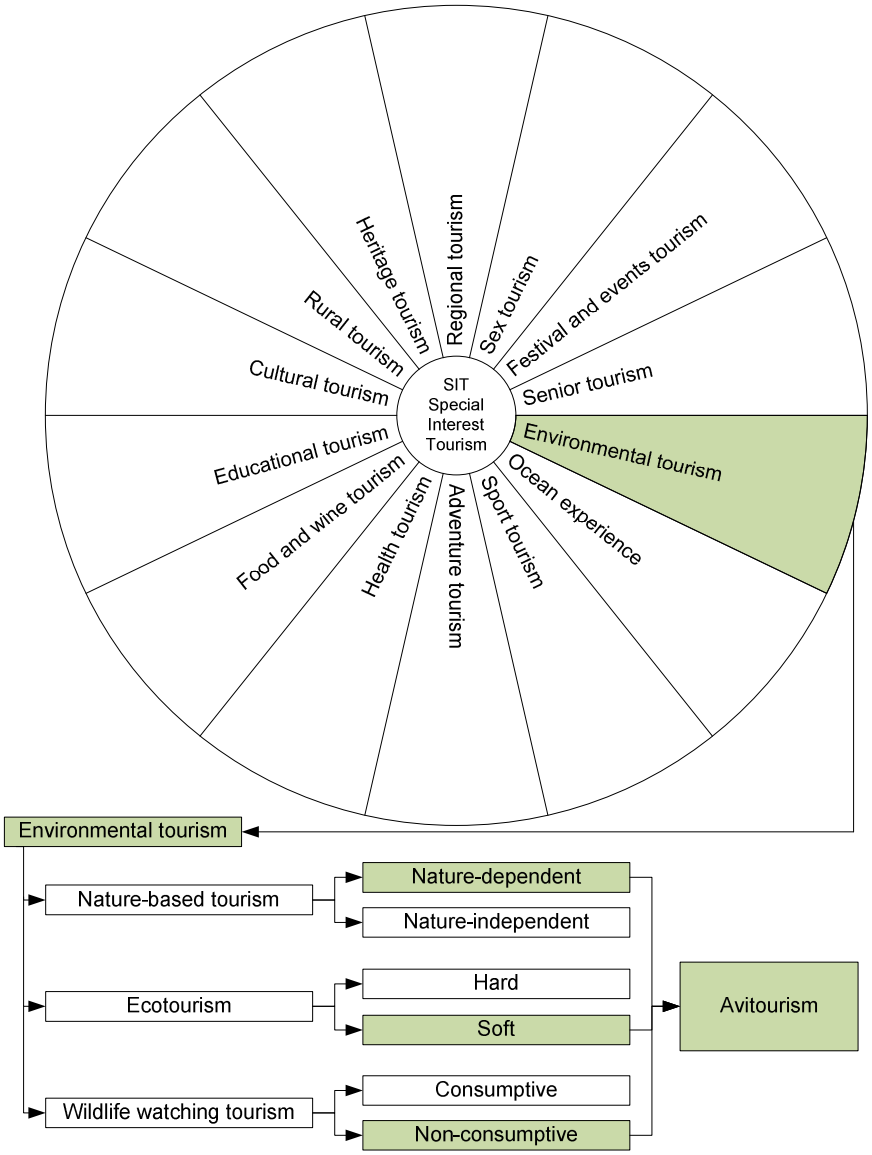
Source: Adapted from Novelli, 2005:9

Figure 2.2: Niche tourism components

Niche markets may also be explained as the existence of consumer groups with identifiable tastes and lifestyles, for instance birders, backpackers, culture enthusiasts or stargazers (Price in DTI, 2008:5). According to George (2008:178), the tourism industry is made up of niche market segments, including adventure tourism, backpacking tourism, business tourism, cruise tourism, cultural tourism, day-tripper market, disability or disabled market, educational tourism or edutourism, family tourism, film and modelling tourism, gay tourism, health tourism, hedonistic tourism, medical tourism, religious tourism, sex tourism, shopping tourism, *special interest tourism*, sport tourism and the visiting friends and relatives (VFR) market. One of the most rapidly increasing tourism niche market segments is special interest tourism (SIT) (George, 2008:186).

SIT has been identified as able to respond to the needs of the new tourist (Page & Connell, 2009:78; Van Zyl, 2005:5; Derrett, 2001:3). Derrett (2001:3) defines special interest tourism as the provision of customised leisure and recreational experiences driven by the specific expressed interests of individuals and groups. According to Derrett (2001:3), SIT is undertaken for a distinct or specific reason, with the tourist choosing to engage with a product or service that satisfies particular interests and needs. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:37), special interest tourists are "motivated by a desire to go on holiday and take part in a current interest, in a new or familiar location". George (2008:186) further states that special interest tourists spent their holiday, or a few days of it, involved in a special interest activity. Some of the most popular SIT products include agritourism, ancestry tourism, architectural tourism, avitourism (or birding tourism), ecotourism or wildlife tourism, gastronomy or food tourism, lighthouse tourism, military tourism, photographic tourism, property tourism, rural tourism, safari tourism, volunteer tourism, wedding tourism, wellness or spiritual tourism, and wine tourism (George, 2008:178). Swarbrooke (2002:364) suggests that SIT and specialist attractions have helped put South Africa on the international tourism map

by offering a variety of these specialised products. Different types of SIT opportunities are available in the market and are illustrated in Figure 2.3.



Source: Adapted from Fennell, 2008:107; Newsome et al., 2005:6; Trauer, 2006:188; Van Zyl, 2005:5; Dowling, 2001:294; Valentine, 1992:110

Figure 2.3: Different types of special interest tourism opportunities

As illustrated in Figure 2.3, 'environmental tourism' consists of nature-based tourism and ecotourism (Van Zyl, 2005:5), while wildlife watching tourism is added by Dowling (2001:289) and Trauer (2006:188). According to Dowling (2001:290), 'nature-based tourism' can be defined as tourism in which the viewing of nature is the primary objective. The focus of nature-based tourism is the study and/or the observation of the abiotic (non-living) part of the environment, for example landforms, and the biotic (living) component (fauna and flora) (Dowling, 2001:290). 'Nature-based tourism' as a type of SIT is mainly nature-dependent, for example, people seeking to observe animals in the wild (such as Hornbills) require the natural environment in which to enjoy their experience. Such birding activity is clearly dependent on nature, and that dependency is the basis of successful tourism (Valentine, 1992:110). According to Dowling (2001:293), people are often confused between the terms 'nature-based tourism' and 'ecotourism'. Drumm (1998:197) points out that while both take place in natural areas, 'ecotourism' also implies conservation, education, responsibility and active community participation.

'Ecotourism' can be defined as "an enlightening, interactive participatory travel experience to environments, both natural and cultural, that ensures the sustainable use at an appropriate level of environmental resources, while producing viable economic opportunities for the ecotourism industry and local communities, which make the sound environmental management of the resources beneficial to all tourism role players" (Hattingh in Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208). Dowling (2001:294) divides ecotourism into two types – hard and soft tourism. 'Hard tourism' is a form of self-reliant tourism in which tourists seek wilderness-type experiences requiring a high degree of challenge (for example white-water river-rafting and bungee jumping), whereas education and environmental and cultural appreciation are the main motivations for 'soft tourism' (for example, birding) (Morpeth, 2001:215). Another type of environmental tourism, 'wildlife watching tourism', overlaps with many other aspects of tourism, as it is partly nature-based, may involve an element of adventure tourism, shares some key characteristics of

ecotourism, and should be sustainable tourism to protect the wildlife, habitat and communities on which it depends (Tapper, 2006:11; Newsome *et al*., 2005:19).

'Wildlife watching tourism' is tourism undertaken to view or encounter wildlife, which can take place in a range of settings (from captive to in the wild), and it encompasses a variety of interactions (from passive observation to feeding and/or touching the species viewed) (Newsome *et al*., 2005:18). A distinction can be drawn between consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourism. Consumptive activities include hunting and fishing, whereas birding is an example of non-consumptive wildlife tourism (Fennell, 2008:107; Newsome *et al*., 2005:6). 'Wildlife watching tourism' is defined as tourism that is undertaken to view and/or encounter wildlife in a natural setting, and this distinguishes wildlife watching from other forms of wildlife-based activities, such as hunting and fishing (Tapper, 2006:10). The spectrum of wildlife that may be watched includes not just mammals, but also birds, corals, fish, reptiles and insects (Tapper, 2006:14). According to Swarbrooke (2002:369), there is no doubt that wildlife watching tourism will continue to offer great attraction for tourists.

As illustrated in Figure 2.3, 'avitourism' forms part of nature-based, eco- and wildlife watching tourism. Avitourism receives considerable attention from conservation leaders, land managers, business leaders and the national press as a viable option for enhancing local economic activity, as well as for the protection and conservation of natural resources (Newsome *et al*., 2005:36; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:200; Sekercioğlu 2002:282). The focus of this study is on avitourism (birding tourism), which is discussed next.

2.3 AVITOURISM

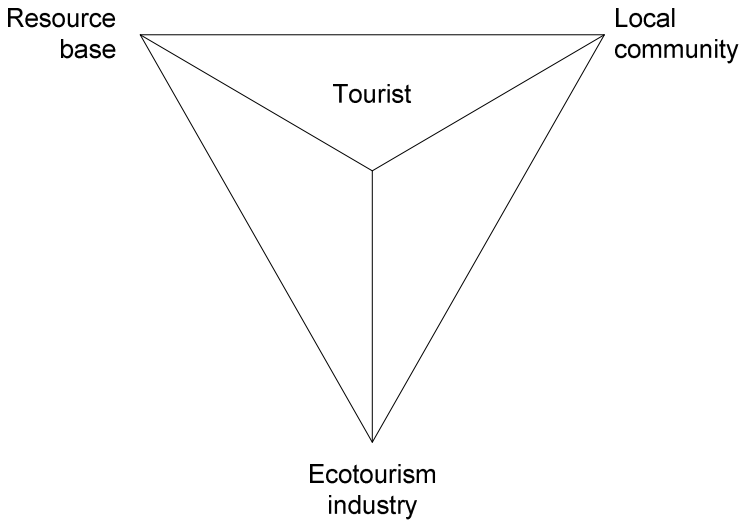
2.3.1 Defining avitourism

'Birdwatching' (birding) is identified as a growth area and trend in tourism (Wheeler, 2008:208; Sekercioğlu 2002:282; Cordell & Super 2004:135). George (2008:186) classifies 'birding tourism' (avitourism) as an SIT activity and identifies birding as one of the fastest-growing hobbies in the world. Specialised birding trips are increasingly common, and a word has even been coined for obsessive birders, who are known as 'twitchers' (Wheeler, 2008:208). According to Sekercioğlu (2002:282), 'birding' is defined as the act of observing and identifying birds in their native habitats. Birdwatching, or the birding activity, is referred to as 'avitourism' or 'birding tourism' if the birder takes a trip a mile (1.6 km) or more from home for the primary purpose of observing birds (La Rouche, 2003:4). Lindsay (n.d:1) describes 'avitourism' as "overnight travel to experience birds in a natural setting" and points out that avitourism is an important part of the worldwide growth in ecotourism. According to Sekercioğlu (2002), 'avitourism' can be defined as a component of ecotourism that is focused specifically on birds and birding as an activity. Hvenegaard (2002:21) classifies avitourism as a subset of ecotourism, since it is expected to contribute to ecotourism's goal of enhanced conservation. 'Avitourism' is also defined as "ecotourism which focuses on enjoying birds in their natural habitat" (Pritchard, 2008).

For the purposes of this study, the terms 'avitourism', 'birding' and 'birdwatching' will be used interchangeably, but the avitourist needs to take a trip away from home to be included in the study. When the term 'birding' is used in this study, it refers to birding or birdwatching as an activity performed by avitourists. The relationship of avitourism to ecotourism is discussed in the next section.

2.3.2 Relationship of avitourism to ecotourism

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that avitourism forms part of ecotourism, and the principles of ecotourism are therefore applicable to avitourism. As a guiding conceptual principle, ecotourism can be said to be tourism that occurs in natural settings, with an attempt to increase benefits to the economy, society and environment through sustainable educational practices from locals to tourists, and vice versa (Diamantis, 2004:5). Figure 2.4 illustrates the ecotourism tetrahedron, which includes the four components of ecotourism, namely, tourism industry, tourist, resource base (environment) and local community (Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208).



Source: Queiros & Wilson, 2005:209

Figure 2.4: The ecotourism tetrahedron

Ecotourism could provide economic opportunities and benefits for the ecotourism industry (Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208). Economic benefits include foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, the generation of employment and income, and the stimulation of regional development (Lickorish &

Jenkins, 1997:63). Avitourists are one of the best sources of ecotourism income, since they form the largest single group of ecotourists (International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, 1996; Cordell & Herbert, 2002).

The ecotourist seeks an enlightening, interactive, participatory travel experience in a natural environment (Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208). Ecotourists should participate in non-consumptive use activities, in which the environment or organism is not affected by human interaction, for example birding or whale-watching. As the birding activity is dependent on nature, all avitourist activities should therefore be assessed as to whether or not they enhance and protect the environment (Diamantis, 2004:9).

According to Cordell and Herbert (2002:54), avitourism is an environmentally conscious activity that provides economic hope for many threatened natural areas around the world. A primary benefit of avitourism is that participants gain a greater awareness of the values of biodiversity and conservation of natural resources (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:204). Ecotourism seeks to promote responsible travel, with education and interpretation as the foundation, and this should aim to include tourists as well as the local community.

Education and interpretation will make both tourists and the local community aware of the environment and how their actions can contribute to conserving the environment (Diamantis, 2004:12). Ecotourism needs to be incorporated into the social and economic life of the local community (Diamantis, 2004:12). Participation in avitourism has also been shown to improve the economic and environmental wellbeing of local communities (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:204; Pritchard, 2007:3). An example includes the provision of local guides, which has a number of benefits for the local community, including that negative impacts on the environment are reduced, environmental awareness of the local community is increased, and employment opportunities for the local population are created (Diamantis, 2004:11).

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that various economic, societal and conservation benefits are linked to avitourism, but sustainability[4] and responsibility[5] on the part of the various role-players in ecotourism are important. The application of ecotourism principles in avitourism is therefore imperative. The importance of ecotourism principles to avitourists is discussed next.

2.3.3 Importance of ecotourism principles to avitourists

As tourism continues to grow and expand, increased pressure on the environment and wildlife can be anticipated, which would destroy the very things that people value and are key assets for tourism (Töpfer in Tapper, 2006:5). Wildlife-watchers seek out rare or spectacular species to view. Cranes, for example, are sensitive to disturbance from visitors, including flash photography, noise and coloured clothing (Tapper, 2006:44; Knight & Cole, 1995:55). Birding may occur during sensitive times of the year, such as the nesting or breeding season, and because the activity could involve close approaches to birds for the purposes of identification or photography, there is the potential for negative impacts (Newsome *et al*., 2005:69; Knight & Cole, 1995:55).

Ecotourism that is properly planned and managed may relieve the pressures on wildlife and the environment (HaySmith & Hunt, 1995:217). Furthermore, ecotourism provides a financial motivation for local communities to protect natural areas by generating income through sustainable operations that are locally owned (Newsome *et al*., 2005:36; Sekercioğlu, 2002:282). Sekercioğlu (2002:283) also

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[4] '*Sustainable tourism'* can be defined as tourism development, management and any other tourism activity that optimises the economic and other societal benefits available in the present without jeopardising the potential for similar benefits in the future (DEAT, 1996:vi).

[5] '*Responsible tourism'* is defined as "tourism that promotes responsibility to the environment through its sustainable use; responsibility to involve local communities in the tourism industry; responsibility for the safety and security of visitors and responsible government, employees, employers, unions and local communities" (DEAT, 1996:19).

states that the avitourists' knowledge of birds and expectations of seeing a variety of species provide a link between the bird biodiversity of a region and local income. An example of the importance of applying ecotourism principles is the financial contribution of avitourism in Costa Rica, a small Central American country that has promoted ecotourism and conservation, where birding generated US$410 million per annum (Sekercioğlu, 2002:287). Another positive activity is the hosting of birding festivals. The more than 240 bird-related festivals in the USA generate millions of dollars each year for rural communities. These festivals could increase earnings and educate local people about the importance of birds, conservation and the potential of birding to generate income (Sekercioğlu, 2002:287). The greening of the tourism industry through low-impact activities and environmental and social responsible actions could minimise negative impacts on the environment (HaySmith & Hunt, 1995:212).

Table 2.1 summarises the positive and negative impacts of avitourism and provides some recommendations for optimal birding (through minimum-impact birding practices).

Table 2.1: Impacts of avitourism and recommendations for optimal birding

Positive impacts of avitourism	Negative impacts of avitourism	Recommendations for optimal birding
• A link between avian diversity and local income • A financial incentive to conserve wildlife • Less impact and more income than typical tourism • Increased local control due to unique bird species • Visitation of areas outside traditional tourist itineraries • Protection of unprotected areas with desired species • Valuation of local natural history knowledge • Education and employment of local guides	• Disturbing birds by playing tapes and by approaching • Increased nest predation and nest abandonment • Increased disturbance of rare and/or threatened birds • Visitor-related population and habitat destruction • Cash leaks from local communities • Resentment by excluded locals • Cultural degradation associated with tourism	• Adhere to and insist on ethical birding conduct • Avoid nests and young as much as possible • Show particular care with threatened and rare species • Minimise tape use and try to minimise being seen • Do not approach further once a bird notices you • Stick to established roads/trails/walkways • Use scopes for observation and photography • Educate locals about birds and their financial benefits

Positive impacts of avitourism	Negative impacts of avitourism	Recommendations for optimal birding
• Generation of funds for bird conservation • Contribution to ornithological knowledge		to the community • Support local and low-impact establishments • Contribute to NGOs active in bird conservation • Make use of local tourist guides for bird and natural resource interpretation

Source: Tapper, 2006:44; Sekercioğlu, 2002:284; Knight & Cole, 1995:55

From Table 2.1, it is clear that although negative impacts might occur from avitourism, the application of ecotourism principles is imperative in order to minimise the disturbance of birds and their habitat, and to maximise local involvement in avitourism. The growing concern for the environment among many tourists has increased the demand for products, services and accommodation establishments that are environmentally friendly. Government and some organisations are developing and promoting codes of ethics and other guidelines for tourists to ensure responsible behaviour (HaySmith & Hunt, 1995:212). A summary of these guidelines and recommendations, as applicable to avitourism, is provided in the third column of Table 2.1. A recommendation for optimal birding includes the use of local tourist guides for better interpretation of birds and their habitat.

Tourist guides have an important role to play in minimising the disturbance of birds by avitourists (Sekercioğlu, 2002:286). Natural resource interpretation could enhance public awareness of the importance of conserving natural resources and visitor satisfaction (Lee, Lee, Mjelde, Scott & Kim, 2009:584; Fennell, 2008:188; Chen, Hwang & Lee, 2006:1167). According to Ham and Weiler (2002), tourist guides' comments help tourists to relate to, connect with and care about the area and wildlife they observe (in Lee *et al*., 2009:585). Interpretation relates to the way in which people communicate the significance of cultural and natural resources

(Chen *et al*., 2006:1168). Interpretation includes two types, namely, attended and unattended interpretation services. Attended interpretation includes, for example, information services, conducted activities, lectures and discussion, and living interpretation; while unattended interpretation includes signs and labels, self-guided trails, motor tours, publications, exhibits and visitor centres (Chen *et al*., 2006:1168). According to Sekercioğlu (2002:285), a knowledgeable guide is key to the success of an organised birding trip, and for independent birders, hiring a local guide is beneficial because it increases the chances of seeing the less common and local species, contributes to the local economy and creates an incentive to protect birds.

Various authors (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:324; BLSA, 2006:13; Hvenegaard, 2002:21; Scott, Baker & Kim, 1999:50; McFarlane & Boxall, 1996:1) have investigated aspects of ecotourism principles, such as the importance of conservation and local community guides to avitourists, and their findings are reported in the literature. A summary of each of these studies is outlined next.

Sali and Kuehn (2007:324) employed a qualitative approach in order to understand in depth the *various reasons for participating in birding*. The conservation of birds was identified as a motivation for participating in birding. One interviewee stated: "I'm hooked on it, but I'm also a conservationist and a naturalist. And especially if I can, you know, do some activity or pump some money into a local resource that is pro-birding or pro-environment. I like to do that as well" (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:320).

Hvenegaard (2002:21) develops a recreation specialisation framework for birders and examines how *conservation involvement* varies among specialisation levels. Conservation involvement is examined because, as a subset of ecotourism, birding should be expected to contribute to ecotourism's goal of enhanced conservation (Hvenegaard, 2002:22). However, apart from for the study by McFarlane & Boxall (1996), little research has been done to assess how support for, and involvement in, conservation varies within a birding group. The results indicate that the

specialisation level was positively, but weakly, related to conservation involvement (Hvenegaard, 2002:21).

Scott *et al*., (1999:50) examined the *characteristics of individuals* who participated in the first annual Great Texas Birding Classic in New Jersey. This event is a major birding competition and is designed to raise money for habitat protection. *Motivations for participating* in the event, commitments to birding and behavioural involvement were investigated. The results revealed that the majority participated because they enjoyed searching for birds, being with friends and contributing to wildlife conservation (Scott *et al*., 1999:50).

McFarlane and Boxall (1996:1) examined *birders' participation* in wildlife *conservation* activities. The results show that birders made substantial contributions to conservation, which increased with higher levels of birding experience (McFarlane & Boxall, 1996:1).

BLSA (2006:13) also conducted a birding route evaluation survey for South Africa as part of a feasibility study to establish why birders would use a local bird guide.

Most of these studies focused on one aspect of ecotourism principles, namely the conservation of the natural environment and bird conservation, which was indicated as important to avitourists. Ecotourism principles should be applied by the various role-players in the avitourism arena. The key stakeholders involved in avitourism are discussed in the next section.

2.3.4 Key stakeholders in avitourism

Avitourism involves different groups of stakeholders. The term 'stakeholder' refers to a person or group that is involved in, or may be affected by, an activity (Tapper, 2006:18). Each group of stakeholders has a different role to play if tourism is to be successful in the long term. All relevant stakeholders should be involved in

tourism through a participative planning process (Tapper, 2006:18; Newsome *et al.*, 2005:260). Figure 2.5 illustrates the key stakeholders in avitourism.

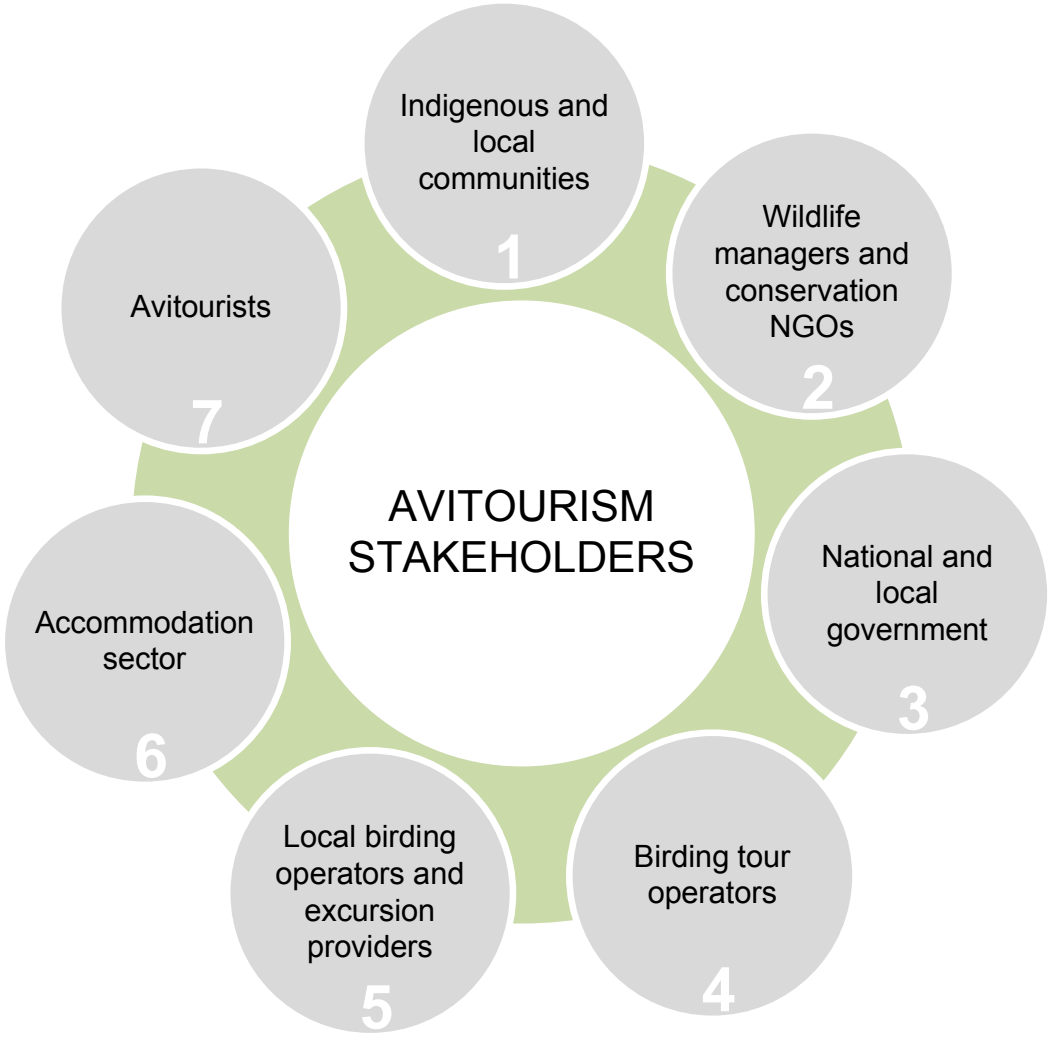


Figure 2.5: Key stakeholders in avitourism

A comprehensive summary of each of these seven groups of avitourism stakeholders, their interest in avitourism and avitourism examples in South Africa is provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Stakeholder groups, their interest in avitourism, and examples of avitourism in South Africa

Stakeholder group	Core areas of interest in avitourism	Avitourism examples in South Africa
1. Indigenous and local communities	• Protection of environmental and livelihood assets • Minimisation of disruption to their communities and culture • Potential to gain benefits through avitourism linked to the improvement of local services and infrastructure, employment and local business opportunities, and revenue generation	BLSA has launched the Community Bird Guide Training Programme, which is designed to give local community members the opportunity to participate in avitourism business. Guides are encouraged to create a broad awareness of conservation within their communities and ensure an understanding of the natural environment, as their 'product', which is what attracts tourists and income for the community. The programme also creates awareness of the economic benefits of birds and their habitats to the local community. The Zululand Birding Route, for example, provides a support structure for local guides and community-based tourism developments, including an office base from which to operate, a booking service, a tourist information office, mentoring of guides, and the development of infrastructure relative to guides' areas of operation. Environmental education for school children is also provided to ensure the conservation of birding sites in future years.
2. Wildlife managers in the public and private sectors; Conservation NGOs	• Protection of bird habitats, biodiversity and the general environment • Potential to generate revenues and greater awareness through avitourism to support conservation • Demonstration of the value of bird conservation to indigenous and local communities, government and the wider public	BLSA is a local partner of BildLife® International, a global coalition of NGOs focusing on bird conservation. Avitourism will help BLSA achieve its bird conservation and habitat protection objective by adding economic value to birds and their habitat.
3. National and local government	• Economic and development potential of avitourism at national, regional and local levels	The Department of Trade and Industry of South Africa (DTI, 2008:6) recognises avitourism as an important niche market with economic growth potential in South Africa. South African Tourism (national marketing body for tourism to

Stakeholder group	Core areas of interest in avitourism	Avitourism examples in South Africa
		and within South Africa) markets the country as a top birding destination, offering an attractive combination of a variety of birds, well-developed international and domestic transport systems and a user-friendly and supportive avitourism industry (South African Tourism, n.d.b).
4. Birding tour operators	Potential to develop and market avitourism products based on birdwatching – this depends not only on market demand, but also on local conditions including infrastructure and site accessibility, suitability of accommodation and catering, and the availability of reliable local business partners to provide on-the-ground services (ground operators and accommodation).	Birding tour operators (for example, Rockjumper Birding Tours) offer bird tours worldwide.
5. Local birding operators and excursion providers	Potential to develop and market avitourism products based on birdwatching – this can be done for a mainly local or regional market, but to reach international markets, local operators will generally need to build links with an international tour operator based overseas.	Local birding operators (for example, Button Birding) offer tours to a Blue Swallow breeding site in KwaZulu-Natal. An exciting initiative along all the birding routes in South Africa is the availability of community bird guides, who are trained by BLSA's Community Bird Guide Training Programme.
6. Accommodation sector	Potential of birdwatching as an attraction for guests, to increase visitor numbers and their lengths of stay.	Accommodation establishments along the birding routes in South Africa (for example, Beacon Vlei guest farm) are registered as 'birder friendly' and are members of BLSA. The birder-friendly establishments are committed to sustainable tourism and regard ecotourists as friends who share their passion and vision.
7. Avitourists	Interesting birdwatching activities, memorable experiences, good interpretation and guiding.	Avitourists are interested in birding opportunities (for example, visiting the Blue Swallow breeding site in KwaZulu-Natal).

Source: Adapted from Tapper, 2006:19; Newsome *et al.*, 2005:69;143 143BLSA, n.d.

The seventh and last group of stakeholders, the avitourists, are defined and categorised in the following section.

2.3.5 Definition and categorisation of avitourists

Defining the term 'birder' is difficult, since "there is no hard and fast definition of a birder" (Turpie & Ryan, 1998:27). According to La Rouche (2003:4), to be considered a birder, an individual must take a trip of a mile (1.6 km) or more from home for the primary purpose of observing birds or must closely observe or try to identify birds around the home. Backyard birding, or watching birds around the home, is the most common form of birding and accounts for 80% of birders in the United States (about 40 million birders). Birders who take trips away from home (i.e. away-from-home, non-residential birders or avitourists), a more active form of birding, account for 40% of birders in the USA (approximately 18 million birders). People who notice birds while mowing the lawn or picnicking on the beach are not considered to be birders. Trips to zoos and observing captive birds also do not count as birding (La Rouche, 2003:4). For the purposes of this study, only birders who take trips away from home were included in the study and are referred to as 'avitourists'.

Turpie and Ryan (1998:27) state that "large numbers of people enjoy watching birds from time to time, some more frequently and enthusiastically than others". Birders are not all alike and consist of "a group of heterogenous recreationists, exhibiting a diversity of skills and interests (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:201; Hvenegaard, 2002:22; McFarlane, 1994:362; Kellert & Brown, 1985:273). The following four studies have categorised birders into different birder subgroups:

Firstly, a study by Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005:65) developed three measures of birding specialisation to ascertain the best predictor of birder motivations. In the first, respondents had to indicate whether they were a *committed birder*, an *active birder*, or a *casual birder*. The three birder categories were defined as follows (Scott *et al*., 2005:65):

- *Committed birders*: In general, people who are willing to travel at short notice to see a rare bird, who subscribe to a number of birding magazines (such as *Birding*) that specialise in the identification of birds and places where they may be seen, who lead field trips or seminars for local birding clubs, who keep a detailed life list as well as a daily journal, who purchase ever-increasing amounts of equipment to aid in attracting, recording and seeing birds, and for whom birding is a primary outdoor activity.
- *Active birders*: In general, people who travel infrequently away from home specifically to go birding, who may or may not belong to a local birding club, who subscribe to general interest bird magazines (such as *Wild Bird* or *Birdwatcher's Digest*), who participate in but do not lead local field trips or seminars, who keep a general list of birds seen, and for whom birding is an important but not exclusive outdoor activity.
- *Casual birders*: In general, people whose birding is incidental to other travel and outdoor interests, who may not belong to a formal birding organisation, who may read an article on birds in a local newspaper but do not subscribe to birding magazines, who keep no life list, and for whom birding is an enjoyable yet inconsistent outdoor activity.

In their second study, Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004:158) requested birders to read the descriptions provided and to classify themselves as either *committed*, *active* or *casual* birders on the basis of the descriptions.

The third study, by Turpie and Ryan (1998:4), used the following three categories as indicators of avidity: *casual birders* (for example, enjoy birds in the garden or while hiking, on holiday, visiting nature reserves etc.); *enthusiastic/active* (people who go on birding trips and attend bird courses) or *fanatical/committed* (in which the majority of spare time is spent birding).

Lastly, in Kellert's study (1985:343), he described the extent of participation in birding and distinguished between active or committed birders and passive or casual birders.

According to Kellert (1985:347), 'active' or 'committed' birders were defined as those that could identify 40 or more species of birds, while 'passive' or 'casual' birders need to be able to identify 10 or more species and enjoy the aesthetic qualities of birds.

Various other authors (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:206; Hvenegaard, 2002:25; Cole & Scott, 1999:44; McFarlane, 1994:364; Bryan, 1977, 1979) have used recreational specialisation to categorise birders in their studies, which are reported in the literature. Researchers have regarded recreational specialisation as an indicator of intensity of involvement and have used it to access differences among participants (Scott & Shafer, 2001:319).

Firstly, Bryan (1977) introduced the recreational specialisation construct to help researchers and practitioners explore *within-activity* differences among outdoor recreationists. The same author defined recreational specialisation as "a continuum of behaviour from the general to the particular, reflected by equipment and skills used in the sport, and activity setting preferences" (in Scott & Shafer, 2001:323). Bryan (1977) argued that along the continuum, there are characteristic styles of participation that can be represented in the form of a typology (a system of categorisation). These styles of involvement tend to reflect typical stages of involvement that people progress through the longer they participate in an activity. With his recreational specialisation framework, Bryan (1979) categorised birder groups in terms of their changes in behaviour with experience. According to Bryan (1979), novice birders have been involved in birding for only a short while and concentrate on identifying birds; at the next stage, birders have been involved for longer and emphasise the number of species on their bird lists, and at a higher level of involvement, there is increasing emphasis on observation, bird sounds' understanding of habitat preferences and so on (in Scott & Shafer, 2001:323).

The second study, by Scott and Thigpen (2003:206), categorised birders into four groups by using recreational specialisation, namely, *casual*, *involved*, *active* and

skilled birders. Their research indicates that birders are different in terms of level of behavioural involvement and setting of preferences.

Thirdly, Hvenegaard's (2002:25) study also used recreational specialisation to categorise birders into three birder specialisation levels: *novice*; *advanced-active* and *advanced-experienced* birders. The research concluded that conservation involvement, demographics and motivations vary among specialisation levels of birders (Hvenegaard, 2002:21).

In the fourth study, Cole and Scott (1999:44) used recreational specialisation to examine differences in setting preferences between two groups namely, *casual wildlife watchers* and *serious birders*. Birders are grouped according to wildlife knowledge, bird identification skill, participation in birding activities, memberships of birding organisations and the use of birding equipment. The two groups of birders differed in terms of skill level in identifying birds, frequency of participation and birding behaviour (Cole & Scott, 1999:44).

Lastly, McFarlane (1994:364) states that recreational specialisation is the most promising method of identifying birder subgroups. McFarlane (1994:364) differentiated between *novice*, *casual*, *intermediate* and *advanced birders* and showed that primary motivations for birding change as birders move from one category of experience to the next.

A summary of the categorisation of avitourists by various authors in the literature (Scott *et al*., 2005:65; Eubanks *et al*., 2004:158; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:206; Hvenegaard, 2002:25; Cole & Scott, 1999:44; Turpie & Ryan, 1998:4; McFarlane, 1994:364; Kellert, 1985:343) is provided in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: The categorisation of avitourists

Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005)	Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004)	Scott and Thigpen (2003)	Hvenegaard (2002)	Cole and Scott (1999)	Turpie and Ryan (1998)	McFarlane (1994)	Kellert (1985)
Casual	Casual	Casual	Novice	Casual wildlife watchers	Casual	Novice	Passive or casual
Active	Active	Involved	Advanced-active	Serious birders	Enthusiastic/ Active	Casual	Active or committed
Committed	Committed	Active	Advanced-experienced		Fanatic / Committed	Intermediate	
		Skilled				Advanced	

Sources: Scott *et al*., 2005:65; Eubanks *et al*., 2004:158; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:206; Hvenegaard, 2002:25; Cole & Scott, 1999:44; Turpie & Ryan, 1998:4; McFarlane, 1994:364; Kellert, 1985:343.

This section illustrates that avitourists are not homogeneous and that they can be categorised into different groups. There are many kinds of consumers with a diverse range of needs and motivations to travel (Page, 2007:65). Managers will have to research their markets and investigate the motives and expectations of tourists, thereby customising their offering in such a way as to attract and satisfy the needs and expectations of both local and international tourists (Bennett *et al*., 2005:64).

2.4 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 comprised the first part of the secondary research conducted for the current study. The structure of this chapter is outlined in Figure 2.1. The flow process addressed the growth in tourism, leading to a discussion of changes in consumer needs and demands in tourism. As a result of these changing needs, the concepts of 'niche tourism' and SIT have emerged. Different SIT opportunities were addressed, and avitourism was identified as forming part of nature-based tourism, ecotourism and wildlife watching tourism, and discussed as a growth area and trend

in tourism. The second part of the literature review, avitourism behaviour, is discussed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

3 AVITOURISM BEHAVIOUR

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Avitourism managers need to study their consumers intensively to keep abreast of the changing tastes of birders. The avitourism industry in South Africa needs to understand the following key questions (Winer, 2007:88; Bennett *et al*. 2005:64):

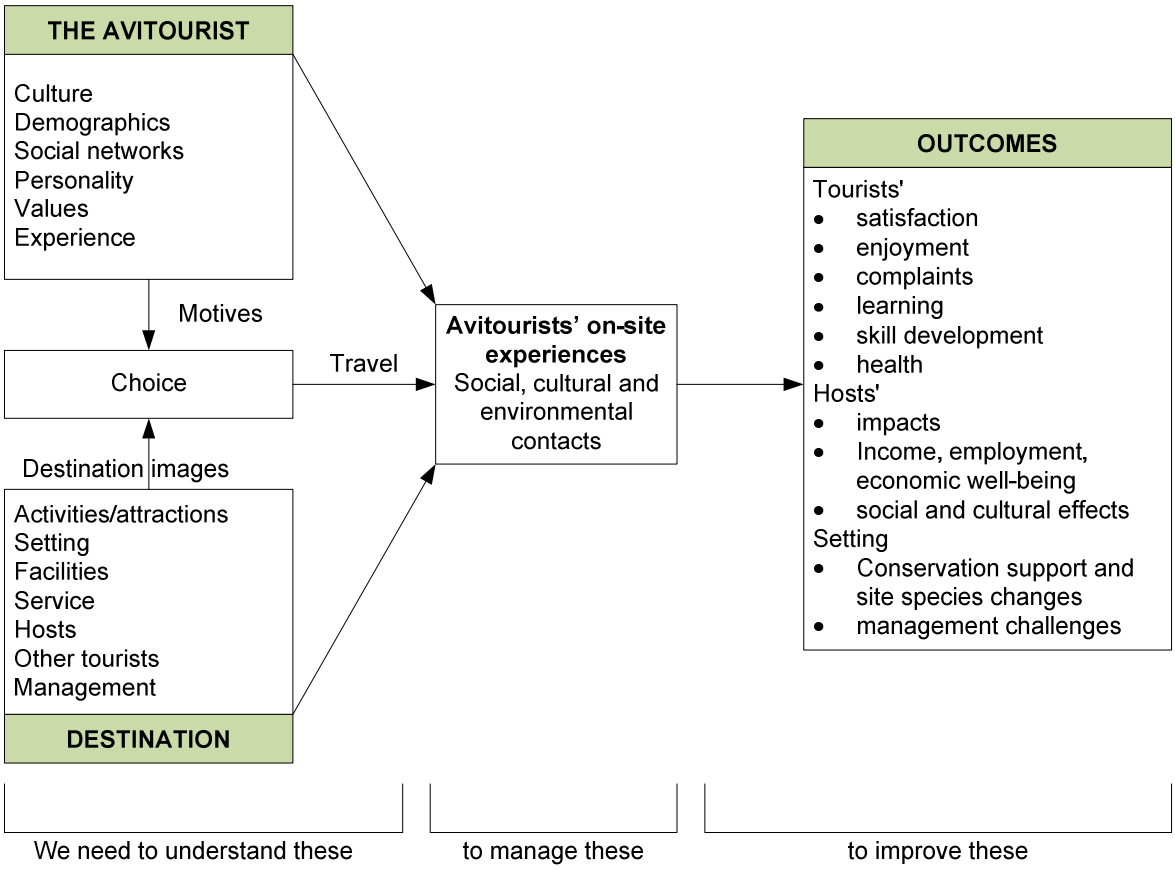
- Who are the avitourists?
- Why do avitourists buy a birding trip?
- What are the various birder types looking for when they go on a birding trip?
- What criteria do avitourists use when choosing birding destinations?
- What are the perceptions that potential avitourists have of birding in South Africa and its competitors?
- Do avitourists use travel agents, or do they make reservations via the Internet?

A customer analysis is one of the key building blocks of a marketing plan and strategy, and no strategy can be developed without an up-to-date understanding of consumer behaviour (Winer, 2007:88). This chapter discusses theoretical concepts for the study, which include awareness of South Africa as a birding destination, motivation, behavioural involvement and preferences of avitourists. These represent major aspects that influence avitourists' behaviour and decision-making. The following section elaborates on understanding avitourist behaviour.

3.2 UNDERSTANDING AVITOURIST BEHAVIOUR

Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:6) define 'consumer behaviour' in tourism as "the study of why people buy the products they do and how they make decisions". Although the literature is taken from the wider marketing and tourism theory, the information is just as applicable to the narrow area of avitourism. Therefore, in this study, the consumer refers to the avitourist, and various authors' research has been applied to the avitourism industry.

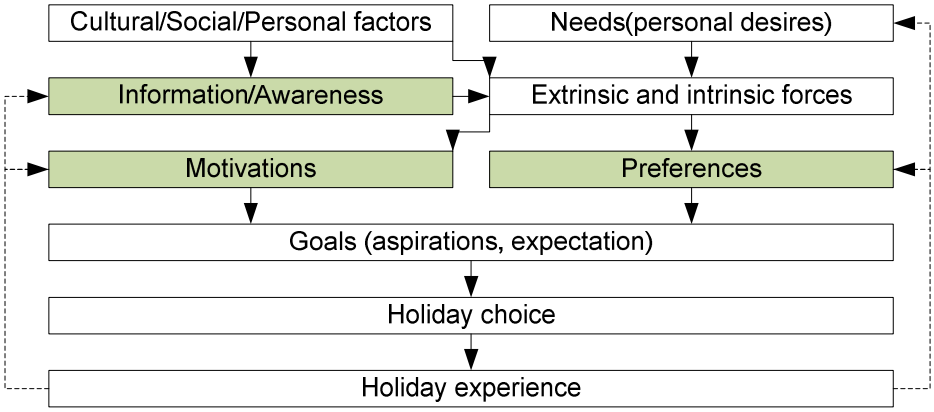
Avitourism behaviour concerns the way avitourists, as purchasers of products and services, behave in terms of spending, and their attitudes and values towards what they buy (Page, 2007:78). Role-players, such as government, avitourism management and marketers of birding products, are concerned with avitourist behaviour, as their job involves making and enabling decision-making or policy choice about avitourist activities (Pearce, 2005:6). If these role-players understand what prompts avitourists to leave their home area and travel to other places, they may be able to develop approaches that help manage avitourists and assist them in planning for a more enjoyable experience at the places they visit (Page, 2007:66). An interesting way of viewing the wider significance of avitourist behaviour is mapped out by Pearce (2005:17) and illustrated in Figure 3.1.



Source: Adapted from Pearce, 2005:17

Figure 3.1: Concept map for understanding avitourist behaviour

Figure 3.1 illustrates that by understanding the avitourists, their motives in choosing a destination and their mode of transport, avitourists' on-site experiences and interaction with society, culture and the environment can be managed. The outcomes that arise from avitourist behaviour and activity, such as features affecting the avitourist, hosts and setting, can be improved (Pearce, 2005:17). Goodall (in Page, 2007:78) identified the relationship between needs, motivations, preferences and goals among travellers, as illustrated in Figure 3.2.



Source: Page, 2007:78

Figure 3.2: The relationship between needs, motivations, preferences and goals in individual holiday choice

Avitourist behaviour is influenced by various factors, such as *cultural* (culture, social class), *social* (reference groups, family) and *personal* (age, life-cycle, personality) factors (Kotler *et al*., 2006:199). *Needs* are regarded as the force that arouses motivated behaviour, and it is assumed that, to understand human motivation, it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how they can be fulfilled (Hudson, 2000:7). Potential avitourists may have a need/desire to travel, but unless they are informed about available opportunities, they may be unaware of the means of fulfilling the need. *Information* will therefore increase the *awareness* and knowledge of different options available to the prospective avitourist (Hudson, 2000:23). Pearce (2005:52) discusses the need to distinguish between *intrinsic and extrinsic forces* shaping the motivation to become an avitourist. Avitourism managers must consider that travellers are motivated by intrinsic, self-satisfying goals, and at other times motivated by extrinsic, socially controlled rewards (for example others' opinions) (Pearce, 2005:52). These intrinsic and extrinsic forces that initiate travel demand lead to *motivations* and *preferences* (Cooper *et al*., 2008:46). Motivations and preferences are goal-orientated in that specific objectives are desired to satisfy a need. The desired end-state is the avitourist's *goal* (Solomon *et al*., 2002:93). Figure

3.2 focuses on avitourist behaviour and the role of marketing in providing the stimuli that lead people to choose particular motivations for going on holiday. For marketers who sell and promote avitourism products and services, these factors are crucial to the way in which they divide avitourists into groups in order to provide specific products to specific people (Page, 2007:79).

As can be seen from Figure 3.2, information and awareness of avitourists, their motivation, behavioural involvement (a part of motivation) and preferences are important factors in determining avitourist behaviour. These factors are discussed in more detail in the next sections, starting with information and awareness of South Africa as a birding destination.

3.3 INFORMATION AND AWARENESS OF SOUTH AFRICA AS A BIRDING DESTINATION

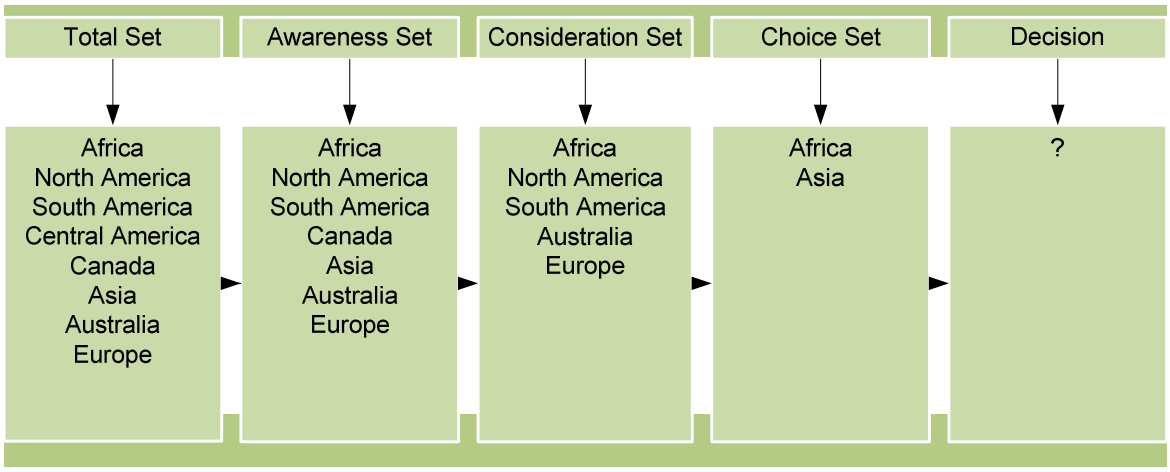
The awareness concept is taken from the wider literature of marketing and is more specifically applied to the avitourism industry. Goodall (1993) states that only if potential avitourists are aware of birding destinations will the destination be included in the perceived opportunity set (in Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404). Destination awareness forms part of the tourist buying-decision process and therefore influences the purchase decision (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404).

Through gathering information, birders learn about competing destinations and their attributes and increase their awareness and knowledge of available choices and product features (Kotler *et al*., 2006:220). As the avitourist becomes informed, a tourism image is formed, as interpreted through the personal and behavioural characteristics of the tourist (Hudson, 2000:23). Awareness therefore implies that an image of the destination exists in the mind of the potential tourist (Gartner in Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404). Using the information received, avitourists develop their own ideas, perceptions and beliefs about the destination, which will reduce or enhance the likelihood of visiting the birding destination (Page & Connell, 2009:82; Kotler *et al*.,

2006:220). Milman and Pizam (1995) argue that for a destination to be successful, it must firstly achieve tourist awareness and secondly a positive image (in Konecnik & Gartner, 2007:404).

According to Konecnik and Gartner (2007:403), destinations are not only evaluated in terms of attributes, but also according to brand. In the marketing literature, Kotler and Keller (2009:783) define 'brand awareness' as "consumers' ability to identify the brand (or destination) under different conditions, as reflected by their brand recognition or recall performance".

Figure 3.3 illustrates successive sets involved in avitourist decision-making with an example of competing birding destinations.



Source: Adapted from Kotler & Keller, 2009:209

Figure 3.3: Successive sets involved in avitourist decision-making

Figure 3.3 shows the *total set* of birding destinations (brands) available, followed by the *awareness set* (the brands or destinations the birder has heard of); the birder will only know a subset of these birding destinations. Some birding destinations, the *consideration set*, will meet initial buying criteria, and as the birder gathers more information, only a few, the *choice set*, will remain in strong competition. The birder makes the final *decision* from the choice set. Figure 3.3 makes it clear that countries

and the avitourism industry should market their birding destination so as to enter the international avitourist's awareness, consideration and choice sets (Kotler & Keller, 2009:208; Middleton *et al*., 2009:88). It is important to know where the birding destination stands in relation to these sets. If the birding destination is, for example, not in the awareness set, marketers should improve awareness through advertising (Middleton *et al*., 2009:88). The avitourism industry should also identify major birding competitors in the birder's choice set so that they can plan appropriate competitor appeals. In addition, the avitourism industry should identify the birder's information sources in order to prepare effective communications for the international avitourism market (Kotler & Keller, 2009:209).

Avitourists receive information about a destination by various means. Major information sources that tourists could use fall into four groups (Kotler & Keller, 2009:208):

- Personal: family, friends, and acquaintances that are interested in birding
- Commercial: advertising, websites, travel agents, birding tour operators
- Public: mass media, consumer-rating organisations, for example negative publicity about crime in South Africa
- Experiential: previous experience of a birding tour.

Kotler and Keller (2009:208) distinguish between two levels of involvement, namely heightened attention level and active information search, when the avitourist searches for information. At the *heightened attention* level, the avitourist becomes more receptive to information about the birding product/destination, while in *active information search*, the birder might look for reading material, contact other birders, go online, or contact travel agents and birding tour operates.

As the avitourism industry relies upon avitourists choosing to travel to their destination, it is vital to understand what *motivates* them to visit particular places and to communicate information about the birding destination or product offering that they

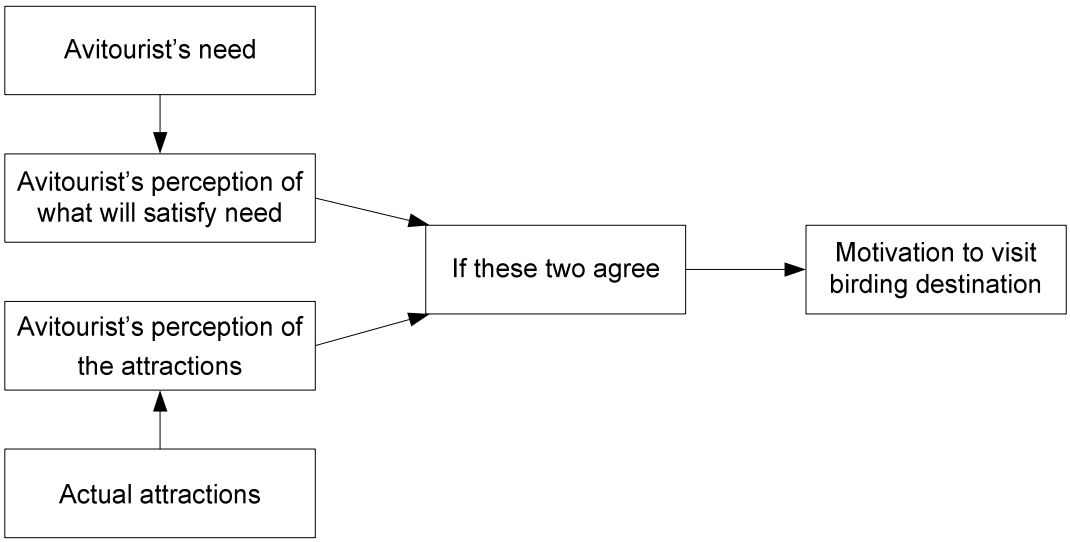
believe will satisfy their needs and will prompt them to travel to their destination (Holloway, 2006:65). Various factors motivate tourists to travel; the theoretical concepts of travel motivation, and more specifically motivation for avitourists, are discussed in the following section.

3.4 TRAVEL MOTIVATION

Kotler *et al*., (2006:69) define 'motivation' as "a need that is sufficiently pressing to direct a person to seek satisfaction of that need". Motivation affects tourism managers and marketers, as it is important in terms of the personal satisfaction that the tourist derives from consuming the experience and is also a component of visitors' perceptions of destinations (Page, 2007:66). The conceptualisation of travel motivation and motivation for avitourists are discussed more thoroughly in the following paragraphs.

3.4.1 Travel motivation

According to Hudson (2000:7), avitourists have needs that they believe travel can fulfil. Needs give rise to motivations when aroused to a sufficient level of intensity to drive the avitourist to act (Kotler & Keller, 2009:202). Travel motivation is referred to as energising forces directed at meeting the tourist's needs (Hudson, 2000:7). The process of translating a need into the motivation to visit a specific destination or to undertake a particular activity is demonstrated in Figure 3.4 (Holloway, 2006:67).



Source: Adapted from Holloway, 2006:67

Figure 3.4: The motivation process

Figure 3.4 illustrates that a potential avitourist must not only recognise that they have a need, but also understand how a particular product will satisfy the need. As every individual is different, each person's perception of a holiday would also differ. Only if the perception of the need and the attraction match will an avitourist be motivated to buy the birding product. Avitourism managers and marketers need to learn about their clients' interests and desires and develop products that match these needs (Holloway, 2006:67).

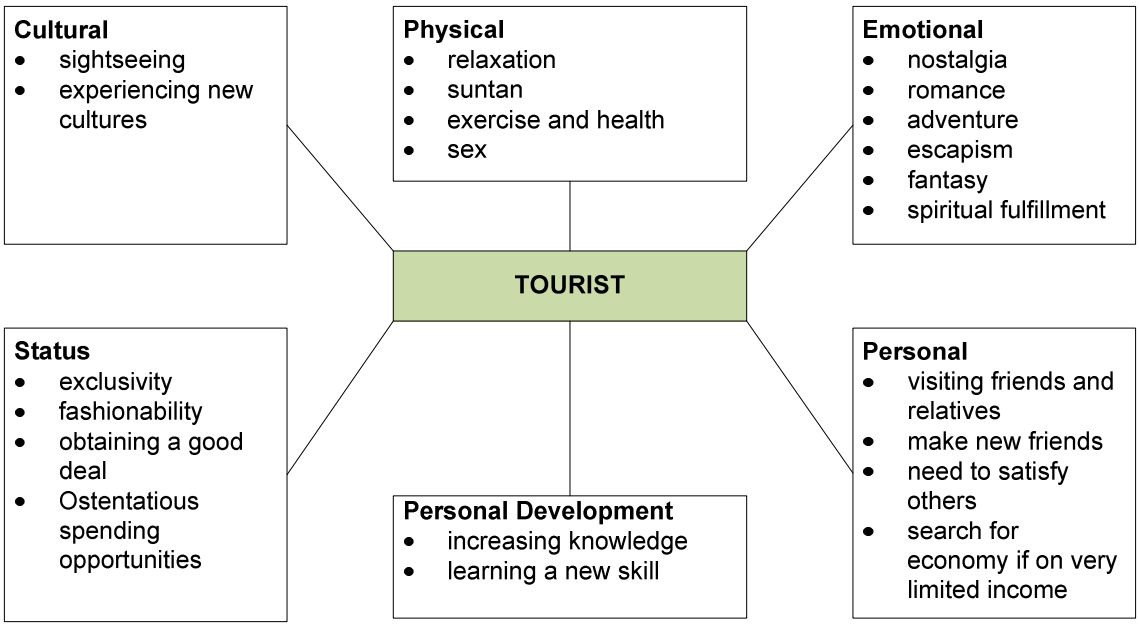
Motivation is only one component of a set of psychological processes (such as perception, learning, memory, and beliefs and attitudes) that may contribute to explaining decision-making processes and purchase decisions of avitourists; however, it has a fundamental influence on avitourist behaviour (Kotler & Keller, 2009:200, Cooper *et al*., 2008:44).

Motivators and determinants are factors that influence the avitourist to purchase a particular birding product. Motivators are factors that motivate the tourist wishing to purchase a particular product, while determinants are those factors that determine the

extent to which tourists are able to purchase the product they desire (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:51). Motivators can be divided into two groups, namely:

- Those that motivate the tourist to take a holiday
- Those that motivate the tourist to take a particular holiday (for example, a birding trip) to a specific destination (such as South Africa) at a particular time.

Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:54) designed a typology of tourism motivators consisting of six different types. These tourism motivators are outlined in Figure 3.5.



Source: Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:54

Figure 3.5: A typology of motivators in tourism

Figure 3.5 shows that the six types of tourism motivators include physical, emotional, personal, personal development, status and cultural motivators (Swarbrooke & Horner 2007:54).

Every tourist is different, as are the factors that motivate them to travel (Page, 2007:65). Furthermore, there are a number of potential variations for each individual

motivator and various ways in which they can be combined (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:53). The main factors determining the motivations of individual tourists are the following (Page & Connell, 2009:4; Page, 2007:65; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:55):

- Age
- Personality
- Stage in the life-cycle
- Lifestyle, which provides the context for their purchase decision
- Past experience as a tourist and with particular types of holiday, both positive and negative
- Past life, for motivations such as nostalgia, as a direct result of people's life to date
- Perceptions of their own strengths and weaknesses, and whether these relate to their wealth or their skills
- How they wish to be viewed by other people.

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, there are various ways in which motivations can be combined. No tourist is likely to be influenced by only one motivator; they are more likely to be affected by a number of motivators at any one time (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:55). For example, office workers may be motivated by a desire to escape their daily working life, while they may have a number of other motivators that would influence the type of holiday they would like to take. They may, for example (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:55):

- Desire a chance to take some physical exercise to improve their health
- Wish to pursue a hobby, whether it be birding, surfing or eating Italian food, for example
- Wish to see a particular church or museum.

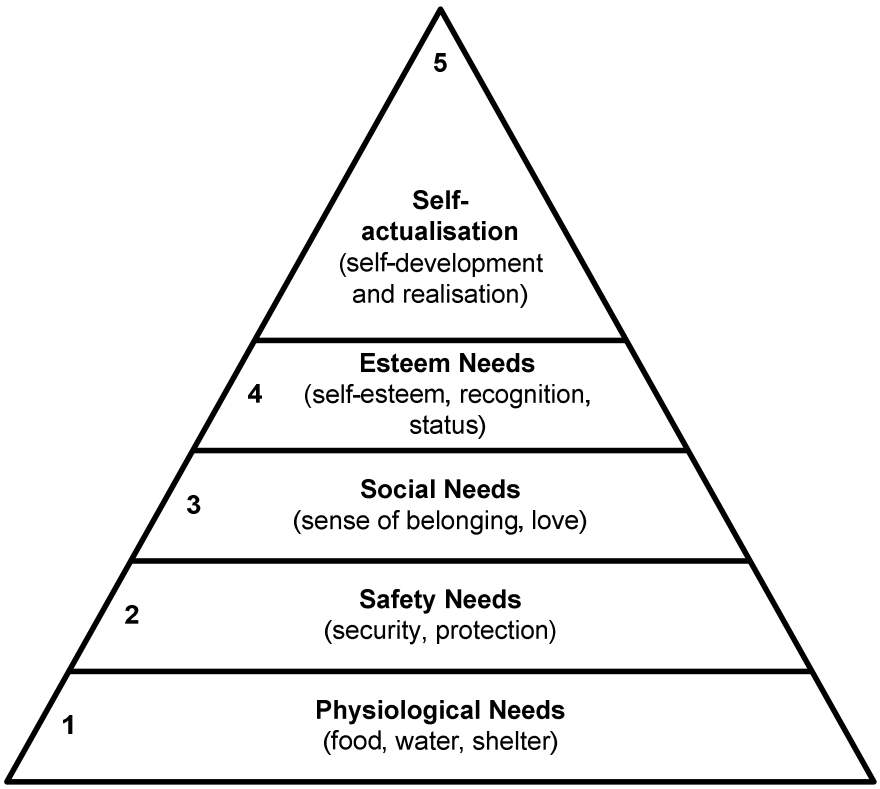
As mentioned, determinants are also a factor that influences the tourist to purchase a particular tourism product. According Swarbrooke & Horner, (2007:62), there are two

types of determinant factors that determine whether or not someone will be able to travel or not (for example, money and time), as well as those factors that determine the type of trip, provided that the first set of determinants allow a holiday to be taken. The latter, which determine the type of trip, encompass a huge rage of variables including (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:55):

- The destination of the trip
- When the trip will be taken
- The mode of travel to be used
- The duration of the trip
- Who will comprise the holiday party or group
- The type of accommodation that will be used
- The activities undertaken by the tourists during the holiday
- How much will be spent on the trip.

The discussion on travel motivation would not be complete without referring to the theories of motivation. Some of the best-known theories of human motivation – those of Abraham Maslow (1943 & 1970), Frederick Herzberg (1959), Stanley Plog (1974 & 1991), Dann (1977 & 1981), Iso-Ahola (1982) and Pearce (1988, 1992, 1993 & 2005) are briefly discussed.

The theory of motivation proposed by Maslow (1970) arranges individual needs in the form of a hierarchy (in Cooper *et al*., 2008:45). Maslow's hierarchy of needs sought to explain why people, in this case avitourists, are driven by particular needs at particular times, as illustrated in Figure 3.6.



Source: Kotler & Keller, 2009:203

Figure 3.6: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Figure 3.6 explains that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy from most to least important – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation needs (Kotler & Keller, 2009:203). People will try to satisfy their basic and most important needs first, and when these are satisfied, the individual would be motivated by the higher levels in the hierarchy (Cooper *et al*., 2008:45).

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory distinguishes factors that cause dissatisfaction (*dissatisfiers*) from factors that cause satisfaction (*satisfiers*). Satisfiers need to be present, as the absence of dissatisfiers is not enough to motivate a purchase. The implications are that industry should avoid dissatisfiers (such as poor service policy) and should identify and supply the major satisfiers or motivators of purchase (in Kotler & Keller, 2009:203).

In 1974, Plog developed a theory that classified consumers (avitourists) into a series of interrelated psychographic types. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2009:259), Plog's psychographics theory is often accepted as the major approach to tourist motivation. This work stressed that tourists could range between two extremes (in Cooper *et al*., 2008:47):

- *Psychocentric* tourists tend to be conservative in their travel patterns, preferring familiar destinations and packaged tours and often making return trips. Market research in tourism often labels this group as 'repeaters'.
- *Allocentric* tourists are adventurous and motivated to travel or discover new destinations, preferring exotic destinations, unstructured holidays and involvement with local communities. Market research in tourism often labels this group as 'wanderers'.

Plog (1974) also found that most tourists fall in between these extremes in an area which he termed *midcentric*. In 1991, a second dimension, energy versus lethargy, was added to the psychocentric/allocentric dimension. However, the model has been criticised for failing to consider the issues of multi-motive behaviour, nor does it provide measurement details or consider the dynamic nature of motives in the travellers' life span (in Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:25).

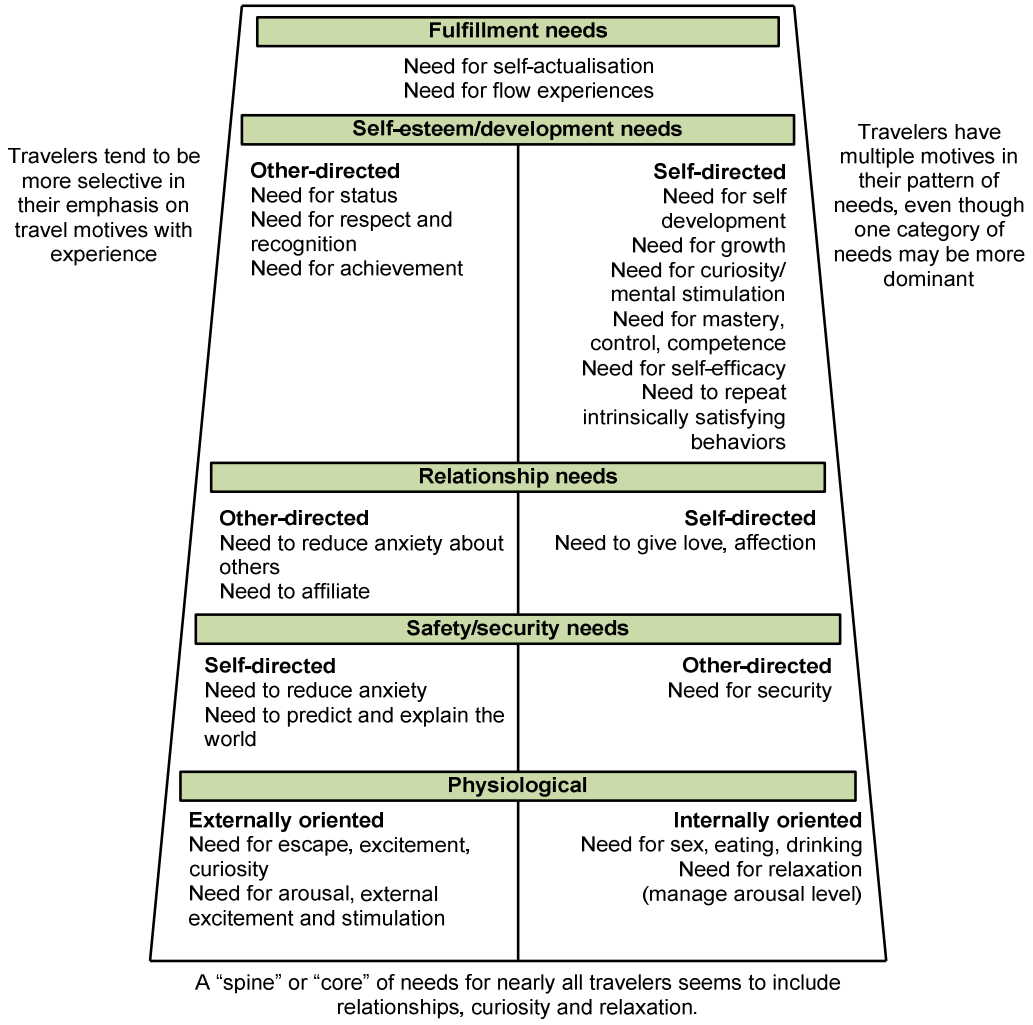
Dann (1977) describes motivation in terms of 'push' and 'pull' factors (in Page & Connell, 2009:82; Hudson, 2000:8). The avitourist is pushed into a holiday by the need to get away from their everyday environment (including the need to escape or to see a rare bird species), while other factors may be at work to pull, or encourage, them to travel to a specific destination, for example the scenery or the birdlife at the destination (Holloway, 2006:68).

In his appraisal of tourism motivation, Dann (1981) proposed seven categories within the overall approach to travel motivation (in Cooper *et al*., 2008:46):

- *Travel as a response to what is lacking, yet desired*: This approach suggests that tourists are motivated by the desire to experience something different from the home environment.
- *Destination pull in response to motivational push*: This distinguishes tourist motivation in terms of push (level of desire) and pull (to the destination or attraction).
- *Motivation as a fantasy*: This is a subset of the first two factors and suggests that tourists travel to undertake behaviour that may not be culturally sanctioned in their home environment.
- *Motivation as classified purpose*: This involves the main purposes of a trip as the motivation to travel, for example, visiting friends and relatives, enjoying leisure activities or study.
- *Motivational typologies*: Behavioural typologies and typologies that are focused on dimensions of the tourist role.
- *Motivation and tourist experiences*: This approach focuses on the authenticity of tourist experiences and depends upon beliefs about types of tourist experience.
- *Motivation as auto-definition and meaning*: This suggests that the way in which tourists define their situation will provide a better understanding of tourist motivation than simply observing them.

The intrinsic motivation – the optimal arousal perspective of Iso-Ahola (1982) and the travel needs model of Pearce (1988, 1992, 1993) – both contributed further perspectives to the tourist's motivation field (in Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:259). Iso-Ahola suggests that tourists seek different levels of stimulation, avoiding overstimulation (mental and physical exhaustion) or boredom (too little stimulation). As leisure needs change over time, he emphasises that research on tourist motivation should take place as close as possible to actual participation (in Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:259).

The travel needs model of Pearce (2005) argues that tourists have a career in their travel behaviour that reflects a hierarchy of their travel motives. In a travel career, tourists may start at different levels, are likely to change levels during their life-cycle, and can be inhibited in their travel career by money, health and other people. Initially, the travel career ladder was developed on the basis of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and describes tourist motivation as consisting of five levels (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:259; Pearce, 2005:53). Figure 3.7 illustrates the travel career ladder.



Source: Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:261

Figure 3.7: The travel career ladder

The hierarchy, or ladder, is organised with physiological needs at the lowest level, followed by safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem/development needs, and finally the highest level, fulfilment needs. Following Maslow's hierarchy of needs, lower level needs must first be satisfied before one can advance more to higher level needs (Pearce, 2005:53). The travel career ladder also takes into consideration that tourists have a life-cycle in their career, which will cause them to move up and down the ladder at various stages in their life (Pearce, 2005:53). The travel career ladder can be used as a blueprint for assessing tourist motives and for the design of motivational studies for special markets, such as ecotourists or avitourists (Pearce, 2005:54). The travel career ladder has been criticised for its focus on the explicit use of the term 'ladder', which draws attention to ascending the steps and being on one step at a time (Pearce, 2005:54).

In further research, Pearce (2005) places less emphasis on the strict hierarchy, and proposes a travel career pattern approach. A travel career pattern is a conceptually modified travel career ladder with more emphasis on the change of motivation patterns, reflecting career levels, than on hierarchical levels (Pearce, 2005:54). In the present approach, the dynamic multi-level motivational structure, which is considered as critical to understanding travel motivation, can be seen as forming patterns that reflect the link to travel careers. The view persists that tourists exhibit changing motivational patterns over their life-cycle, which will be impacted upon by their travel experience (Page, 2007:76; Pearce, 2005:54). This approach better reflects the complexity of understanding tourist motivation, as some of the previously discussed theories of motivation, such as Plog's theory, have been criticised for not taking these issues into account. The career concept in tourist motivation research has received little attention. In the leisure research field, the idea of a travel career has been recognised and developed around the concept of specialisation.

Bryan (1977) originally developed the concept of recreational specialisation, and suggests that there are distinct classes of participants who exhibit unique styles of

involvement in the recreational activity. Participants in the activity exhibit a spectrum of behaviour from general interest to very focused involvement (in Pearce, 2005:53). Section 3.5 expands on the application of *behavioural involvement* in relation to avitourism activities.

Literature on motivational factors for birders is discussed in the following paragraph.

3.4.2 Motivational factors for avitourists

Avitourism has been identified as one of the fastest-growing recreational activities in the world in the early 2000s (Cordell & Super, 2004:135; Sekercioğlu, 2002:282). For effective planning, management and the development of programmes and products that meet the needs of avitourists, a more thorough understanding of the motivations of avitourists is needed (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318). The following six studies have reported findings related to the *motivations* of avitourists:

Sali & Kuehn (2007:318) explored, though qualitative methods, the motivations of non-residential birders (avitourists). The authors identified 24 factors that motivated avitourists to participate in the birding activity. The results indicated that the motivations of avitourists can be grouped into the following five categories:

- Emotional: motivations related to emotions and feelings
- Intellectual: motivations related to knowledge or use of the mind
- Physical: motivations related to the body
- Social: motivations related to the interaction of the individual with other people such as personal interactions, relationships and communication
- Spiritual: motivations related to the spirit, the intangible or non-material, and the search for subjective meaning or intrinsic value. They also relate to supernatural beings and natural forces that exist in the universe.

Scott *et al*., (2005:53) determine the efficacy of a self-classification measure of recreation specialisation in predicting other aspects of recreation participation (in this

case, motivations). The self-classification measure had birdwatchers categorise themselves as a committed birder, an active birder, or a casual birder. Each of the three measures was significantly related to motivations. The self-classification measure of specialisation was somewhat stronger in predicting activity-specific motivations; there was little difference among measures in predicting more generic birdwatching motives (Scott *et al*., 2005:53).

Eubanks *et al*. (2004:151) investigated birding motivations among various subgroups within the birding social world. The results indicate that there were group differences in motivational measures.

Hvenegaard (2002:21) developed a recreational specialisation framework for birders and examined how motivations vary among three specialisation measures – novice, advanced-active and advanced-experienced. The results indicate that both advanced birder types were less interested in non-birding activities than novice birders.

Scott *et al.* (1999:50) investigated participants' motivations for participating in the Great Texas Birding Classic event in New Jersey. The results revealed that participants in the event comprised a highly skilled, committed and elite group of birders. The majority of participants minimised competition as a motivation for participating in the event. Instead, they participated because they enjoyed searching for birds, being with friends and contributing to wildlife conservation.

McFarlane (1994:362) explored the specialisation framework to examine the motivations of birders and the process of birders' involvement and discussed the implications for developing recreational programmes designed to meet specific user-group needs. The motivation factors that they used included affiliative, achievement, appreciative and conservation motivations for birders (McFarlane, 1994:365). Respondents in this study placed less emphasis on the achievement aspects of identification, listing and competition. Only advanced birders were associated

primarily with an achievement motivation of improving birding skills and knowledge. The casual birder sought an appreciative experience of enjoying nature and the outdoors (McFarlane, 1994:367).

The five categories motivating avitourists to participate in the birding activity, as identified by Sali and Kuehn (2007:318), and a summary of corresponding factors by the various authors mentioned in this section (Eubanks *et al*., 2004:164–165; Hvenegaard, 2002:31; Scott *et al*., 1999:69; McFarlane, 1994:365) are provided in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Summary of factors motivating avitourists to participate in the birding activity

Motivation category	Sali and Kuehn (2007)	Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005)	Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004)	Hvenegaard (2002)	Scott, Baker and Kim (1999)	McFarlane (1994)
Emotional	Going outdoors and enjoying wildlife	Being outdoors	Being outdoors			Getting outdoors for a chance to enjoy the natural environment
	Enjoying the sight and sound of birds	Enjoying the sights, smells and sounds of nature				Experiencing the sights, sounds and smells of the outdoor
	Enjoying something that is fun, challenging and exciting	Doing something creative	Doing something creative			
	Contributing to the conservation of birds				Promoting conservation and the preservation of birding habitats	Contributing to the conservation of birds/ helping wildlife
	Relaxing and escaping from everyday activities	Escaping from the demands of life	Escaping from the demands of life			Escaping from everyday problems
Intellectual	Adding a bird to my list	Seeing as many bird species as possible	To see as many bird species as possible	Seeing birds/ seeing as many bird species as possible	Enjoying the stimulation of searching for birds	Adding species to a list
	Studying bird behaviour and bird migration			Learning bird habitats and behaviours		
	Seeing a new or rare bird species	Seeing bird species that I have not seen	Seeing bird species that I have not seen	Seeing bird species not seen before		Seeing new or rare bird species

Motivation category	Sali and Kuehn (2007)	Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005)	Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004)	Hvenegaard (2002)	Scott, Baker and Kim (1999)	McFarlane (1994)
		before	before			
	Improving my bird identification skills	Improving my birding skills and abilities	Improving my birding skills and abilities	Seeing as many places as possible		Expanding my knowledge of birds/ improving my birdwatching skills and abilities
	Sharing knowledge of birds with others					Being considered a good birdwatcher/ contributing to society's general knowledge and understanding of birds
	Studying birds in their natural habitat					Studying birds in their natural habitat
	Teaching others how to birdwatch	Gaining the respect of other birders	Gaining respect from other birders			Gaining respect from other birders/ helping others develop their birdwatching skills
Physical	Travelling to different places					
	Getting physical exercise					
	Taking photographs of birds			Taking pictures of wildlife and scenery		

Motivation category	Sali and Kuehn (2007)	Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005)	Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004)	Hvenegaard (2002)	Scott, Baker and Kim (1999)	McFarlane (1994)
Social	Competing with other birders				Listing more birds than others/ showing others that I am good at birding/ showing that I am able to identity more birds than others	Competing with other birdwatchers
	Being with friends who are birdwatchers	Being with friends	Being with friends		Birding with friends	Building friendships with other birdwatchers/ being with birdwatching companions
	Meeting new people who have the same interest	Getting away from the family for a while	Getting away from the family for a while		Having social interaction with other birders/ sharing ideas with other birders	Meeting people who share my interest
	Enjoying birds with family and relatives	Engaging in family recreation	Engaging in family recreation			
Spiritual	Connecting with nature or creation	Being alone	Being alone			Being alone
	Communing with nature					
	Understanding and appreciating the Creator better					
	Experiencing the					

Motivation category	Sali and Kuehn (2007)	Scott, Ditton, Stoll and Eubanks (2005)	Eubanks, Stoll and Ditton (2004)	Hvenegaard (2002)	Scott, Baker and Kim (1999)	McFarlane (1994)
	peace that birding provides					
	Renewing or refreshing my spiritual self					

Source: Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318; Scott *et al*., 2005:69; Eubanks *et al*., 2004:164–165; Hvenegaard, 2002:31; Scott *et al*., 1999:50; McFarlane, 1994:365

Understanding what motivates avitourists to travel and how they make their travel decisions may assist avitourism managers with the following (Page, 2007:66; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:8):

- To assist in developing avitourism products that will fulfil particular birder needs
- To help plan for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination
- To assist with marketing and promotion of the birding destination or avitourism product
- To assist in developing approaches to help manage avitourists and their impacts.

From the preceding discussion, it can be seen that it is important to determine what motivates avitourists to undertake a particular birding tour. This can also be applied in the way avitourism is planned, marketed and managed. For effective planning, marketing and management of avitourism, it is important to understand the characteristics and motivations of birders (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318). Another important variable in the decision-making process and methodology for studying the characteristics of birders is the concept of involvement. Behavioural involvement in birding is conceptualised in the next section.

3.5 BEHAVIOURAL INVOLVEMENT IN AVITOURISM

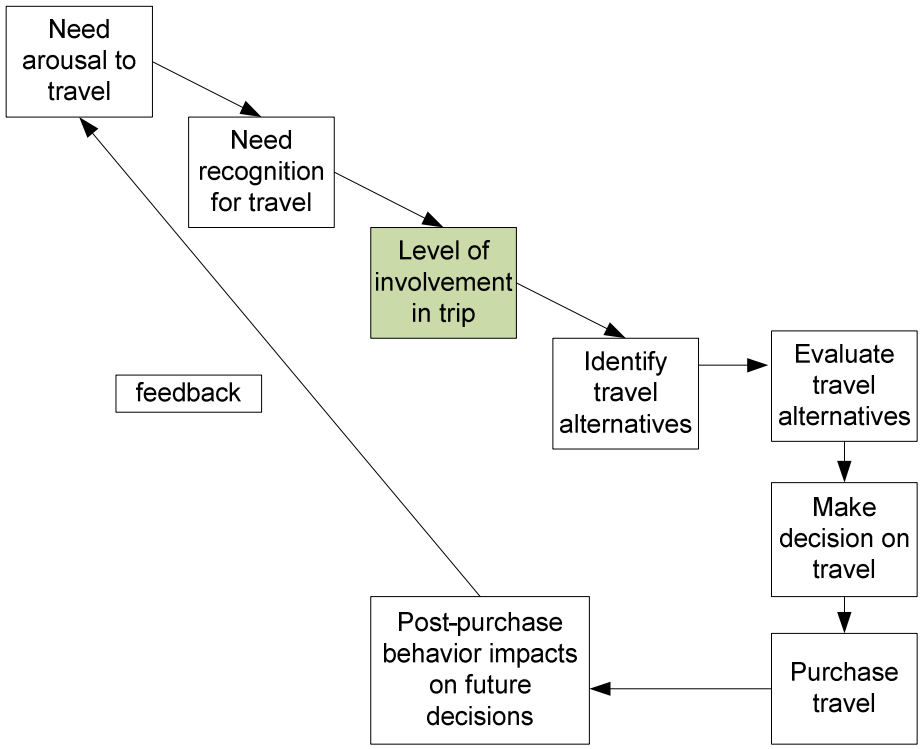
The concept of 'involvement' is defined as "the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus (or stimuli) within a specific situation" (Kotler & Keller, 2009:214; Antil, 1984:204). Another definition includes "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (Solomon *et al.,* 2002:93; Zaichkowsky, 1985:342). Involvement is an important moderating variable in the decision-making processes of consumer behaviour (Chen *et al*., 2006:1169). The following paragraphs firstly outline the background to behavioural involvement and secondly discuss studies measuring behavioural involvement specifically in relation to avitourists.

3.5.1 Background to behavioural involvement

'Involvement' can be defined in social-psychological and behavioural involvement terms (Havitz & Dimanche 1990:184; Stone in Kim *et al*., 1997:321). According to Kim *et al*., (1997:321) 'involvement' has "generally been defined in social-psychological terms". Havitz and Dimanche (1990:184) define 'involvement' in a tourism setting as "a psychological state of motivation, arousal or interest between an individual and tourism destination, at one point of time characterised by the perception of the following elements: importance, pleasure, value, sign, risk consequence and risk probability". However, others have argued that 'involvement' can be defined in behavioural terms (Kim *et al*., 1997:321).

'Behavioural involvement' is defined as "time and/or intensity of effort expended in pursuing a particular activity" (Stone in Kim *et al.,* 1997:321). Behavioural involvement in the context of leisure is described by measures such as ability or skill, number of memberships, frequency of participation, money or time spent, equipment owned, miles travelled and experience (Kim *et al*., 1997:321; Havitz & Dimanche, 1990:184). The findings of Kim *et al*., (1997:320) show that behavioural measures are likely to be substantially more useful in predicting birders' intentions than measures of social psychological involvement. According to Chen *et al*. (2006:1169), involvement is also "an important moderating variable in the decision-making processes of avitourist behaviour".

Cooper *et al*. (2008:55) demonstrate that avitourist behaviour is normally conceived as a process of stages, and that the decision to travel is influenced by the involvement of the avitourist in some or all of the stages. These stages of the buying decision process in avitourism are illustrated in Figure 3.8.



Source: Cooper et al., 2008:56

Figure 3.8: Role of involvement in the buying decision process in avitourism

The starting point is where the need is aroused and recognised when the individual is energised to become a potential avitourist. The *level of involvement* refers to the amount of time and effort invested in the decision process, for example the degree of search for information. The identification of alternatives stage refers to the point at which brands initially come to mind when considering the purchase (evoked set), while in the evaluation of alternatives stage, comparisons are made based on the criteria of the potential avitourist. Thereafter, the decision choice is made, followed by the purchase and finally the post-purchase behaviour, when the feelings that an avitourist experiences after the purchase influence future decisions (Cooper *et al*., 2008:56).

Decrop (2006:10) perceives *involvement* as a concept related to motivation and states that involvement is the result of an avitourist/product interaction, whereas

motivation, by contrast, characterises the avitourist alone. Motivation occurs when a need is aroused that the avitourist wishes to satisfy. This need may be predominantly *utilitarian* (a desire to achieve a functional or practical benefit, such as buying binoculars for birding), or it may be predominantly *hedonic* (an experiential need, involving emotional responses, such as a person with an intense commitment to birding that buys special birding equipment, for instance, a telescope). These emotional responses could create a deep commitment or a higher degree of involvement to the product or activity. The distinction between the two is thus a matter of degree (Solomon *et al*., 2002:93).

Avitourists are not motivated to the same extent, as some may be convinced that they cannot live without the latest fashion (or birding equipment), while others may not be interested in such items at all (Solomon *et al*., 2002:104). According to Solomon *et al.* (2002:104), an avitourist's degree of involvement can be conceived as a continuum, ranging from absolute lack of interest at the one end, to obsession at the other. Consumption at the low end of involvement is characterised by inertia, with decisions being made out of habit because the avitourist lacks the motivation to consider alternatives, while at the high end of involvement, passionate intensity that carries considerable significance for the avitourist might be expected (Solomon *et al*., 2002:104). Some people are so involved in an activity that they can be termed '*fanatics*' (Solomon *et al*., 2002:93). Whether they are training for a triathlon, playing music or participating in birding, such people tend to become altogether engrossed in an activity to the point that their involvement has been called a 'positive addition' (Solomon *et al*., 2002:93).

Determining the level of an avitourist's involvement (low/high) is useful for the examination and prediction of avitourist behaviour (Decrop, 2006:10; McGehee, Yoon & Cárdenas, 2003:308). The level of an avitourist's involvement has an impact on types of searching, information processing, decision-making, responses to advertising and financial commitment (Decrop, 2006:10; McGehee *et al*., 2003:308; Solomon *et*

al., 2002:104). A survey by Hill and Robinson (1991) on triathletes found that intense commitment to the sport resulted in a highly modified training schedule, unwillingness to stop training even if injured, major dietary changes and, of most relevance to marketers, a substantial financial commitment to travel to races, specialised clothing and health club memberships (in Solomon *et al*., 2002:93). According to Bryan (2000), respondents would, over time, move along a continuum from low involvement to more specific interests; thus novice birders would participate infrequently with a variety of motivations, whereas advanced birders would participate more frequently with more specific motivations (in Hvenegaard 2002:22).

High and *low* involvement is also illustrated in Engel, Blackwell and Miniard's problem-solving models. These models are classified according to the degree of search and problem-solving behaviour by the consumer (avitourist) (in Cooper *et al*., 2008:56):

- Limited problem-solving models: These models are applicable to repeat purchases with a low level of involvement. Apart from short birding trips near to home, these are not applicable to avitourism. Low-involvement decisions suggest that avitourists are likely to receive information passively and would not make any extra effort to find a birding destination that might optimally meet their needs.
- Extended problem-solving models: These models apply to purchases associated with high levels of perceived risk and involvement, and information search and evaluation of alternatives play an important part in the purchase decision. High-involvement decisions are perceived as important and personally very relevant to the avitourist.

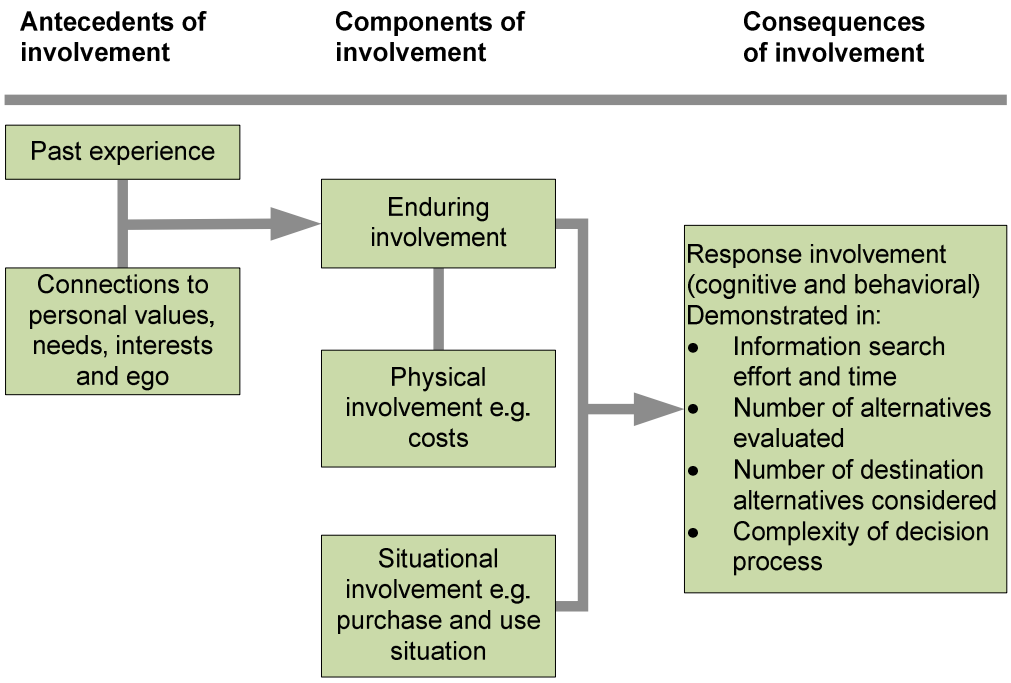
Laurent and Kapferer (1985:43) have suggested that consumers will be more involved in a particular purchase as a result of the following four elements:

- *Importance dimension* (*interest dimension*): The perceived importance of the product (its personal meaning). The product or activity is important in meeting the needs of the consumer or tourist.
- *Risk dimension*: There is a high perceived risk in purchasing the product or visiting the destination. This includes the perceived importance of negative consequences in the case of poor choice, and the perceived probability of making such a mistake.
- *Sign dimension*: There is a symbolic or sign value to the product or to visiting the destination in terms of what it communicates to others about the consumer or tourist.
- *Pleasure dimension* (*hedonic dimension*): This dimension explains the product's emotional appeal and its ability to provide pleasure and affect. It refers to the strength of the desire to experience pleasure during a visit to the destination.

It seems that involvement is a nebulous concept that means different things to different people. According to Solomon *et al.* (2002:106), there is consensus about the following broad types of involvement:

- *Product involvement*: This approach relates to the consumer's level of interest in making a particular purchase.
- *Message response involvement* (*advertising involvement*): This refers to the consumer's interest in processing marketing communications. Print is often a higher involvement medium, as the reader is actively involved in processing the information.
- *Ego involvement* (*enduring involvement*): This refers to the importance of a product to a consumer's self concept, and it involves a high level of social risk.

Reid (1990:34) developed a conceptual model of multivariate aspects of involvement, which is illustrated in Figure 3.9.



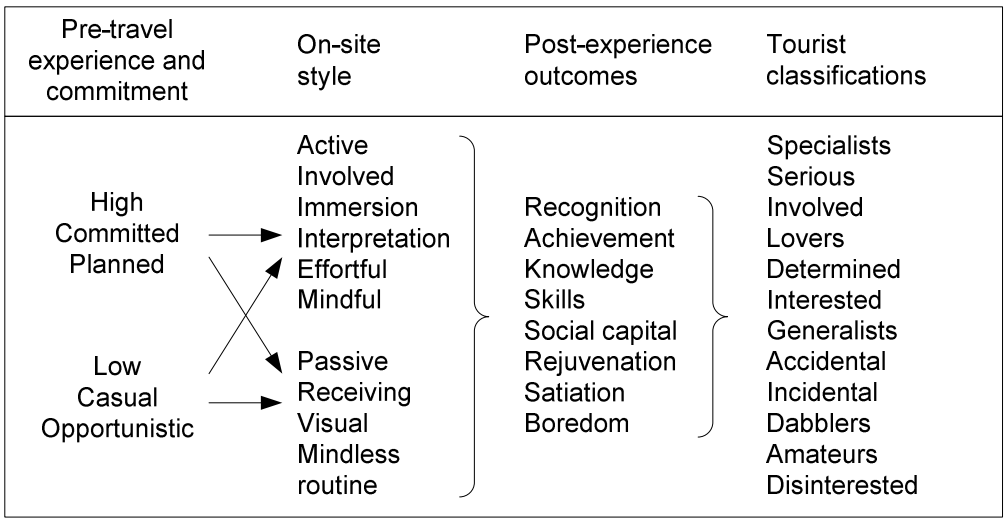
Source: Reid, 1990:34

Figure 3.9: Conceptual model of multivariate aspects of involvement

Figure 3.9 illustrates that past experience, personal values, needs, interests and ego will determine the level of *enduring involvement* with the destination. Enduring involvement interacts with *physical involvement* (the increased interest created by particularly distinctive attributes of a potential destination) and *situational involvement* (the level of involvement is likely to change depending on a particular situation, for example, going on a vacation for a holiday or a honeymoon) and in aggregate they determine an individual's overall level of involvement. The cognitive and behavioural response will be demonstrated in aspects such as the effort and time invested in information search (Reid, 1990:34).

Experience is often a good indicator of vacation involvement. Experience also strengthens involvement and causes an upward shift of expectation level in with respect to quality and quantity (Decrop, 2005:239). Previous experience, knowledge of the activity and level of investment all assist in classifying a person as having a

specialist interest (Pearce, 2005:53). The specialisation concept is intertwined with the career concept (refer to the discussion of travel career pattern in section 3.4.1), and both offer a way of assessing and thinking about tourist involvement in activities and the growth of involvement (Pearce, 2005:53; McFarlane, 1994:367). Pearce (2005:46) classifies tourists involved in tourism products or activities on the basis of serious leisure. The emphasis is on strong commitment to the activity, a potential career in the activity, and durable benefits from participation. The model also pays attention to mindfulness and considers quality interpretation as a form of involvement likely to promote mindfulness (Pearce, 2005:45). This classification is shown in Figure 3.10.



Source: Pearce, 2005:45

Figure 3.10: Classifying tourists involved in tourism products

The model considers previous experience and commitment of the tourist, which could vary along the high and low involvement dimensions. The on-site style category may be active and involved where interpretation possibly results in mindfulness and active mental processing, while in contrast, some on-site tourism behaviours are restricted to passive observation and limited involvement. The post-experience outcomes category illustrates levels of the range of benefits and psychological states such as

achievement and skills at the high level of involvement and boredom at a lower level of involvement. These three phases of experience lead to product classifications of tourists that range from specialists to disinterested tourists (Pearce, 2005:45). Researchers or managers who neglect the features of this total tourist behaviour framework would have only a partial picture of product-based tourist interests (Pearce, 2005:45). Behavioural involvement of avitourists will therefore now be discussed.

3.5.2 Behavioural involvement of avitourists

Scott and Thigpen (2003:208) examined four birder groups in terms of eight measures of behavioural involvement, including years involved in birding; number of field guides owned; total number of miles travelled for birding; number of birds on life list; number of days intending to go birding in the next year; number of sites intended to visit along the Great Texas Coastal Birding Trail; and the likeliness of attending the Hummer/Bird Celebration in the next three years. Their findings indicate that skilled birders were significantly more likely than other birders to report that they had been birding for more years, owned more field guides, spent more money on birding and have more species recorded on their life lists. Their results also indicate that skilled and active birders have travelled significantly more miles to go birding than casual and interested birders, which confirms that active and skilled birders are more intensely involved in birding than casual and interested birders (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:207).

In order to determine the extent of birder interest and the level of avidity in the USA, La Rouche (2003:13) considered the following factors: the number of days spent birding, the number of species they could identify, and whether they kept a bird life list. The results indicate that the number of days for backyard birders was 90, and for away-from home birders (avitourists) it was 10 days; levels of skill are higher for

birders who travel from home to participate in birding; and only 5% of birders kept bird life lists.[6]

Kim *et al*. (1997:322) stated that there was no standard scale used by leisure researchers to measure behavioural involvement and conducted an exploratory factor analysis for the behavioural involvement indicators (Kim *et al*. 1997:330). Five factors were identified and were termed 'reading behaviour and memberships', 'identification of birds', 'birding behaviour in Texas', 'birding behaviour outside Texas' and 'consumptive behaviour'.

McFarlane (1994:362) investigated the specialisation framework to examine the motivations of birdwatchers and the process of birding involvement. The variables used to measure birding specialisation, which include behaviour indicators, are summarised in Table 3.2. The results indicate that birders can be segmented into distinct groups based on a specialisation framework. The casual group had the lowest and the advanced group the highest scores on the specialisation components (McFarlane, 1994:364).

A summary of factors measuring behaviour involvement for avitourists, as identified by various authors (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:208; La Rouche, 2003:13; Kim *et al*., 1997:321; McFarlane, 1994:364), are provided in Table 3.2.

[6] Bird life lists: Tallies of birds seen during a birder's life time (La Rouche, 2003:13)

Table 3.2: Summary of factors measuring behaviour involvement of avitourists

Scott and Thigpen (2003)	La Rouche (2003)	Kim, Scott and Crompton (1997)	McFarlane (1994)
Years involved in birding			
Number of birds on life list	If they kept a bird life list		Number of species on life list
Number of field guides owned		Number of bird field guides owned	Number of birding books
		Number of other bird books owned	
		Number of subscriptions to birding magazines	Number of birding magazine subscriptions
		Number of memberships of birding organisations	
Number of birds able to identify by sight	The number of species they could identify	Number of birds able to identify by sight	Identification ability/ perceived skill level
Number of birds able to identify by sound		Number of birds able to identify by sound	
		Number of spotting scopes owned	Number of equipment items
		Number of binoculars owned	
		Number of times used a bird alert	
Number of birding trips in the last 12 months		Number of birding trips in and outside of Texas	
Total number of days spent birding in the last 12 months	Number of days spent birding	Number of days spent birding in and outside Texas	Days on outings or trips in the year
Amount of money spent on birding		Amount of money spent on birding	
Total number of miles travelled to go birding		Total number of miles travelled to go birding	Farthest distance travelled on outings or trips in the year

Source: Scott & Thigpen, 2003:208; La Rouche, 2003:13; Kim *et al*., 1997:321; McFarlane, 1994:364

Leisure behaviour research, particularly research in avitourism, could add the factor of involvement to clarify the behaviour of avitourists. Determining the level of a consumer's involvement (low/high) is useful in examining and predicting the behaviour of avitourists (Decrop, 2006:10). Understanding the behavioural involvement of avitourists could assist management and marketers in making decisions and choices about tourist activities, and they may be able to develop approaches that help manage visitors and assist them in planning for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination (Pearce, 2005:6; Page, 2007:66).

From the foregoing discussion, it is also important to note that birder groups differ in terms of behavioural involvement. These findings could assist managers and marketers in their efforts to target birding programme amenities and promotional materials towards distinct segments of the birding population (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:199). According to Scott and Thigpen (2003:199), birder groups also differ in terms of preferred birding destination attributes. The preferences of birders are discussed in the next section.

3.6 PREFERENCES OF AVITOURISTS

Decision-makers are interested in variables that influence the decision-making process and subsequent consumer behaviour, as these kinds of interests focus on what tourists prefer and how they make their travel choices and purchases (Pearce, 2005:7). Preferences could assist in developing avitourism products that meet the needs of particular birders and help them plan for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination.

Preferences are one aspect of the socio-psychological processes (which comprise perception, learning and attitude) involved in the decision-making process (Decrop, 2006:7). According to Decrop (2006:9), preference is a special case of the broader attitude construct. Allport (1935) defines 'attitude' as a "learned predisposition to respond to an object or a class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable

way" (Decrop, 2006:9). 'Preferences' are defined as "the predisposition of choosing one product alternative over the other" (Decrop, 2006:9). This implies taking a position as the result of a comparative process with respect to products or destinations. Comparison may be explicit (ranking objects) or implicit (rating objects) (Decrop, 2006:9).

Preferences for tourism products and services are often expressed in terms of the *attributes* that the product or service possesses (Decrop, 2000:105). Manfredo and Larson state that setting preferences includes those attributes at the destination that are valued because they facilitate particular types of experiences (in Scott & Thigpen, 2003:202). Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason distinguish between the following attributes (in Decrop, 2000:105):

- *Characteristic or product referent attributes*: These attributes refer, for example, to the accessibility of walking trails and bird hides at the birding destination.
- *Beneficial or outcome referent attributes*: These attributes refer to the friendliness of the local people at the birding destination.
- *Image or user referent attributes*: These attributes refer, for example, to notions that 'birding in South Africa would give me a prestigious and adventurous image'.

Destination attributes are also referred to as 'pull factors' (refer to the discussion of travel motivation in section 3.4.1). Pull factors are those factors that encourage or pull tourists to travel to a specific destination, for example the scenery or the birdlife at the destination (Holloway, 2006:68). Decrop (2006:98) distinguishes between three levels of values regarding various activities in which the tourist is likely to be involved, as follows:

- *Preference*: The preference level pertains to the ideal vacation values, which are not necessarily available.
- *Expectation*: This level is concerned with what the vacationer expects to find in the next vacation experience.

- *Tolerance*: This level involves a vacation plan with minimum values on some aspects.

There is a discrepancy between what is expected or preferred and what the situation allows. It is therefore important for destination marketers and planners to know tourists' preferences in order to minimise these discrepancies and offer products that are close to what consumers prefer (Decrop, 2006:98). This should also be applied in the context of avitourism. The preferences of avitourists at the birding destination are discussed in the following section.

3.6.1 Preferences of avitourists at the birding destination

According to Page, (2007:67), one of the challenges that avitourism suppliers and managers will face is that suppliers must compile their product offerings in such a manner as to allow flexibility and thereby give avitourists the opportunity to customise the travel offering according to individual preferences. The following five studies have reported findings related to the *preferences* of avitourists.

As part of a feasibility study, BLSA (2006:13) conducted a birding route evaluation survey for South Africa to establish birders' habits and preferences when looking for birding opportunities.

Ellis and Vogelsong (2004:203) investigated specific attributes and personal preferences of birders through an importance-performance analysis. Respondents rated how important a series of site attributes were to their decision to visit a specific birding destination. The variables focused on aspects of nature, travel, hospitality/amenities and recreational activities. The results indicate attributes of high, moderate and low importance (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:207).

Scott and Thigpen (2003:211) explored whether different groups of birders vary in terms of setting preferences and examined the extent to which birder groups express interest in a variety of wildlife (for example, places to observe birds) and non-wildlife

(for example, places to shop, dine etc.) destination attributes. Setting preferences was measured by asking respondents to indicate how important different destination features were when they selected a place to visit (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:205). The response categories are summarised in Table 3.3. The results of the study by Scott and Thigpen (2003:209) indicate that birder groups do vary in terms of setting preferences for different attributes at the destination.

Cole and Scott (1999:44) examined differences in setting preferences between two segments – *casual* wildlife watchers and *serious* birders. Their results indicate that casual wildlife watchers want to observe birds, but also value a variety of other wildlife and native plants, while serious birders value sites that provide opportunities to observe birds more than seeing a variety of other wildlife and native plants. Casual wildlife watchers were more likely than serious birders to ascribe importance to sites that provided other interpretive and structured activities, such as visiting historic sites and shopping, than serious birders (Cole & Scott, 1999:57).

Martin (1997:1) identified three categories of wildlife watchers – *novices*, *intermediates* and *specialists* – and reported that novices, intermediates and specialists differed demographically and in their preferences for wildlife viewing, beliefs about the kinds of information they thought would be most useful for observing wildlife, and preferences for setting attributes.

Table 3.3 presents a summary of measuring preferences for avitourists identified by various authors (BLSA, 2006:13; Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:207; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:2011; Cole & Scott, 1999:54; Martin, 1997:12).

Table 3.3: A summary of factors measuring preferences of avitourists when visiting a birding destination

BLSA feasibility study (2006)	Ellis and Vogelsong (2004)	Scott and Thigpen (2003)	Cole and Scott (1999)	Martin (1997)
Most important aspect when birding in an area: Detailed information and bird lists Walking trails Learning opportunities Accessibility to new and restricted areas Time on boardwalks enjoying views Time in bird hides Professional local guides Boating or game drives Adventure activities ***Complementary activities***: Butterflies and flowers Game drives Cultural tours Diving/snorkelling and beach activities Crafts and shopping Adventure activities ***Accommodation preferences***: Basic accommodation or camping Specifically 'birder friendly'	***Items of high importance***: Places to view wildlife Variety of wildlife to see and/or hear Clean air Places to go on nature walks Friendly and helpful people in the communities Crime-free communities Scenic beauty along the way Good restaurants Availability of interesting places to visit Ease of parking ***Items of moderate importance***: Places to observe wildflowers Close to the water Availability of motels Availability of nature education programmes Good roads Availability of 24-hour medical facilities Quaint small towns Driving time Places to photograph wildlife Availability of historic sites Availability of marine life tours ***Items of low importance***: Places to canoe and/or kayak Availability of local crafts	***Opportunities to observe flora and fauna***: Variety of birds to see and/or hear Places to view other wildlife Places to photograph wildlife Places to go on nature walks Places to observe wild flowers ***Escape from urban areas***: Clean air Crime-free communities Scenic beauty on the way ***Ease of access***: Good roads Ease of parking Driving time ***Availability of heritage recreation activities***: Interesting places to visit Quaint small towns Availability of historic sites Availability of nature education programmes Availability of local crafts Availability of antique dealers Places to shop ***Availability of comfort amenities***: Friendly and helpful people Good restaurants	***Opportunities to observe birds***: A variety of birds A bird that you have never seen before Birds native to the area are plentiful ***Sites have a variety of flora and fauna***: There are a variety of native plants There is other wildlife besides birds There are several places to view wildlife other than birds The site contains signs identifying plants ***Interpretive and structured activities***: A variety of foot trails have been developed A visitor centre that provides information about birds/wildlife You can take a driving tour to see birds/wildlife The site has viewing stands An environmental education centre is nearby Opportunities for a boat tour are available Getting to observation sites	Seeing wildlife at close range, assuming it is safe Opportunity to see rare or endangered species Opportunity to see many different types of wildlife at one location Opportunity to see lots of wildlife, even if they are all the same kind Nature trails Interpretive guide books, maps or brochures Interpretive signs/exhibits A visitor centre Viewing platforms/blinds Guided nature tours Few people at area Facilities such as picnic tables and restrooms Absence of any facilities Being in an area where vehicles are not allowed Having road access

BLSA feasibility study (2006)	Ellis and Vogelsong (2004)	Scott and Thigpen (2003)	Cole and Scott (1999)	Martin (1997)
accommodation Bed and breakfasts Fully catered (tour operators) All inclusive lodges ***Important requirements***: Freedom to walk Access to birding areas Information on birding spots	Places to shop Availability of 24-hour banking Availability of bed and breakfasts Availability of antique dealers Places to go fishing Availability of recreational vehicle camping Places to golf Availability of primitive camping Places to go hunting	Availability of bed and breakfasts Availability of motels Availability of 24-hour banking ***Access to water recreation***: Places to go fishing Close to the water Availability of marine life tours ***Availability of outdoor recreation activities***: Availability of primitive camping Availability of recreational vehicle camping Places to canoe and/or kayak Places to golf	requires short walks Guides or rangers are available on-site A community with special events related to wildlife protection is close by A birding festival is nearby ***Availability of complementary activities***: Historic sites are close by Places to buy local crafts Antique dealers are near the area ***Availability of camping***: You are allowed to stay overnight on-site Opportunities for tent-only camping are close by Campgrounds for recreation vehicles are close to the area	all the way in to the area Campground with hook-ups

Source: BLSA, 2006:13; Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:207; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:211; Cole & Scott, 1999:54; Martin, 1997:12.

Beyond this, there are few studies that have focused on exploring the diversity among wildlife watchers. There has been even less attention devoted to understanding the setting preferences and sources of information used by different kinds of wildlife watchers (Cole & Scott, 1999:47). Additional studies are needed to understand the preferences and interests of diverse groups of wildlife watchers. Information from these studies will be particularly useful to communities and natural resources managers facing the challenge of developing products and programmes for birders and wildlife watchers in general (McFarlane, 1994:362). Understanding setting preferences provides insight into potential conflict among visitors, substitution decisions and visitor satisfaction (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:202). To attract and better serve different birder groups, it is vital to know their preferences when choosing a birding destination.

3.7 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 comprised the second part of the literature review conducted for the current study. The structure and flow of the literature review is outlined in Figure 2.1. In this chapter, the theoretical concepts of the objectives of the study, which included awareness of South Africa as a birding destination, travel motivation, behavioural involvement and the preferences of avitourists, were discussed. These represent major aspects that can influence tourist behaviour, tourist decision-making and holiday choice.

The next chapter discusses the research design and methodology that was used to explore the research objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 4

4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

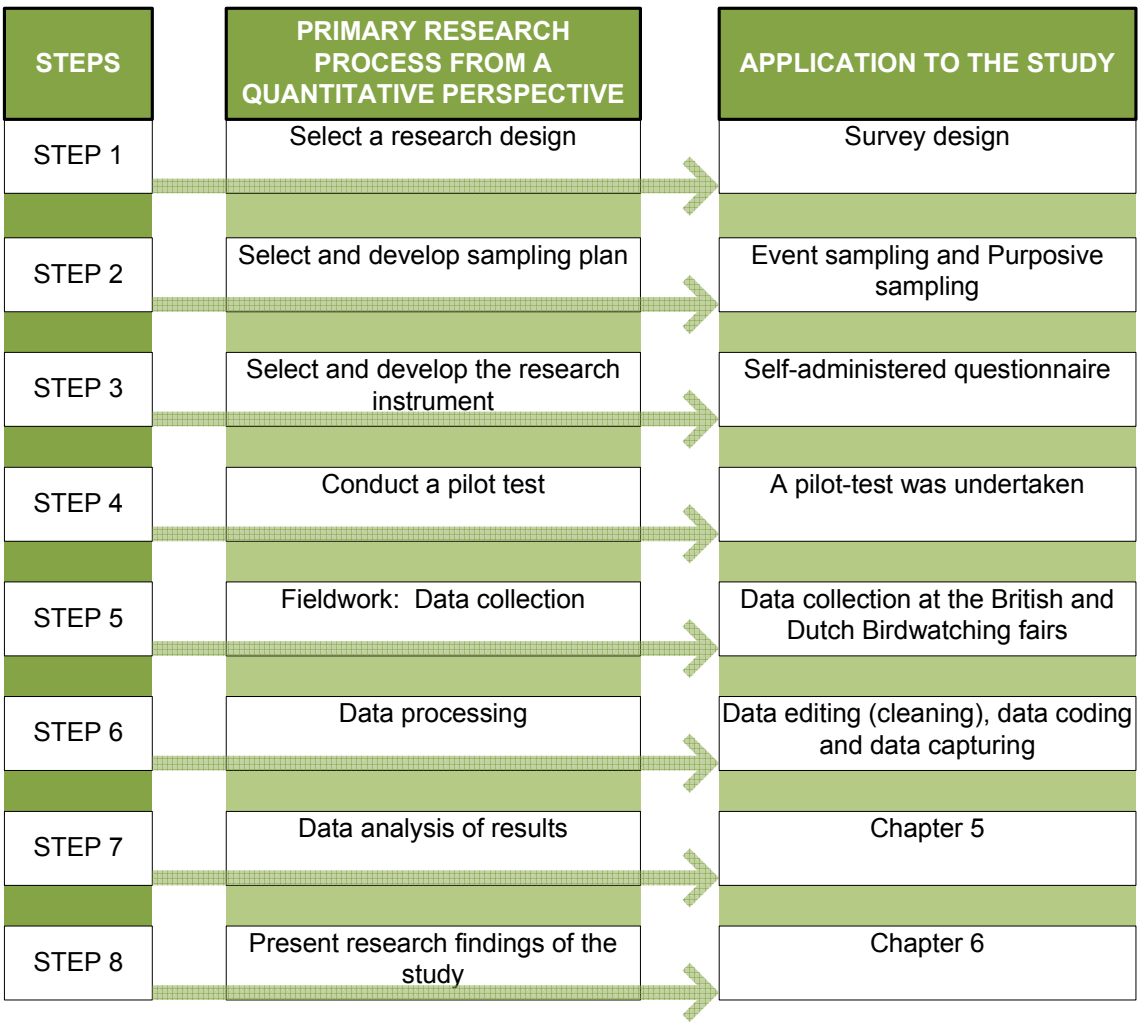
The conceptualisation and structuring of the research problem, research objectives and secondary research were introduced in Chapters 1, 2 and 3. The primary research conducted at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* is the focus of this chapter.

The primary objective of the study was to establish the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa based on avitourist profiles at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. To achieve the primary objective, four secondary objectives were identified:

1. To explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity
2. To determine the *motivations* and *preferences* of the international avitourist
3. To identify the international avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles
4. To determine *awareness* among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination.

This chapter firstly describes the study sites (British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*) where the primary data were gathered and secondly explains in detail the research design and research methodology used, in order to provide answers to the research objectives that were established to achieve the primary objective.

The steps of primary research in the research process are illustrated in Figure 4.1. Each of the steps and its application to this study are discussed in this chapter. Steps 7–8 are discussed in detail in Chapters 5 and 6.



Source: Adapted from Cooper & Schindler, 2008:82; Babbie, Mouton, Vorster, & Prozesky 2007:98; De Vos et al., 2007:79; Neuman, 2007:10&169; Kumar, 2005:19; Mouton, 2001:47; Finn et al., 2000:87

Figure 4.1: Primary research in the research process

The study sites where the research was conducted are discussed in the next section.

4.2 STUDY SITES OF BIRD FAIRS

Research was conducted at two study sites, namely the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (*refer to Appendix E: Maps of the areas*). The name, origin, aim, location, date, main sponsors, exhibitors, various products for sale, activities offered at the fair, types and number of visitors attending, and the fair's annual contribution to conservation are outlined for the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*

Bird fair	**British Birdwatching Fair**	**Dutch *Vogelfestival***
Originated in	Since 1989 (2008, 20th year – older fair)	Since 2004 (2008, 5th year – younger fair)
Organisers of the fair	Tim Appleton, Martin Davies, Leicestershire and Rutland Wildlife Trust working in partnership with the RSPB	Dutch State Forestry, Dutch Centre for Field Ornithology (SAVON) and *Vogelbescherming Nederland*
Aim of the fair	• To get birdwatchers together to celebrate birds • To develop a commercial fair for the birdwatching industry • To support international conservation projects	• To provide a place or weekend to meet and greet all kinds of natural birdwatchers and birdlovers • To show and tell about the work of *Vogelbescherming* and their special bird protection projects • To contribute to a nature conservation project of BirdLife® International
Location	Egleton Nature Reserve, Rutland Water Oakham, Rutland (England). (*refer to Appendix E: Maps of the areas*)	Oostvaardersplassen near Lelystad, Netherlands. (*refer to Appendix E: Maps of the areas*)
Dates and time	15–17 August 2008 (9:00 to 15:30)	23–24 August 2008 (9:00 to 15:30)
Sponsors	In focus; Viking Optical Ltd; Bushnell; Minox; Swarovski Optik; WildSounds; Leica; Carl Zeiss; Nikon; BBS Wildlife Magazine; Kowa; Pentax UK Limited; Naturetrek; and Philippines Department of Tourism	Vivara Natuurbeschermingsproducten; Swarovski Optik; Zeiss/Bynolyt; Bever Zwerfsport; Leica; Nationale Postcode Loterij; and Nikon
Number and categories of exhibitors present **Categories:**	2007: Over 300 exhibitors present 2008: 320 exhibitors 2009: 320 exhibitors • Arts and photography • Bird information • Bird food and accessories • Bird sounds/videos • Booksellers and magazines	2007: Over 130 exhibitors present 2008: 144 exhibitors 2009: No fair (next fair to take place in September 2010) • Sponsors • Booksellers and magazines • Outdoor • Optics • Nature organisations

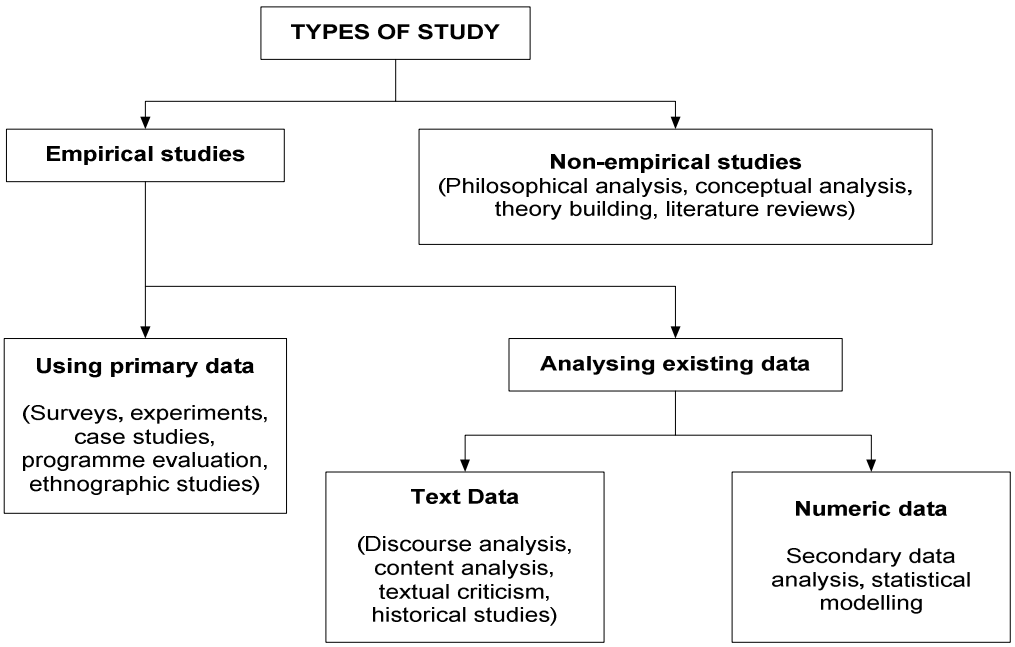
Bird fair	British Birdwatching Fair	Dutch *Vogelfestival*
	• Clothing and accessories • General/miscellaneous • Optics, cameras and accessories • Organisations, charities and trusts • Travel and tourism	• Travel • Photography, film and audio • Bird working groups • Climate • The Netherlands's own organisations
Various products for sale from exhibitors	Spotting scopes, binoculars, sculptures of birds, bird food, books, e-guides to eco-holidays etc.	Spotting scopes, binoculars, bird-friendly garden products, bird books, clothing, nature art, birding holidays etc.
Activities available on fair programme	Birdwatching, activities for children, and a variety of lectures	Walking and bicycle tours, birdwatching activities for children, and a variety of lectures and workshops
Type of visitors at fair	Birdwatchers and wildlife enthusiasts	Bird enthusiasts and nature-lovers
Number of visitors attending	2007: In excess of 18 000 visitors attended the fair 2008: 20 000 visitors 2009: 23 000 visitors	2007: Approximately 9000 visitors attended the fair 2008: 8000 visitors 2009: No fair (next fair to take place in September 2010)
Yearly contribution to conservation and projects	Support an international conservation issue every year. These projects are managed through the BirdLife® International partnership. Previous British Birdwatching Fairs have raised money for places such as the rainforests of Sumatra, the wetlands of Madagascar and the dry forests of Peru. The 2008 Birdwatching fair raised £265 000 to support BirdLife® International's work to save critically endangered birds around the world. The total amount raised to date is over £2 million.	Every year an international conservation issue is chosen for support. The projects are suggested by and managed through the BirdLife® International partnership. The support from the Birdfair has enabled BirdLife® to make some remarkable conservation achievements, including the creation of several new national parks. The 2008 Birdfair raised €25.200 to support BirdLife's® partner in Letland (BirdLife in Latvia) in building a new visitors centre near the protected Dviete river bird area.

Sources: De Vries (2009); Kemp (2009); Tate (2009); British Birdwatching Fair, (n.d.); Brenninkmeijer (2008); *Vogelfestival*, (n.d.).

The comparison of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* in Table 4.1 shows some similarities (such as the type of visitors to the bird fairs), as well as differences (for example, the number of exhibitors and visitors). Of interest is the fact that the British Birdwatching Fair is much older (20 years) than the young Dutch *Vogelfestival* (only five years old), and that the British fair is growing each year. The research design (step 1 of the primary research in the research process, as illustrated in Figure 4.1) is discussed next.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In step 1 of the research process, the researcher faces the task of selecting the specific research design to use. Cooper and Schindler (2008:89) define 'research design' as the blueprint for fulfilling research objectives and answering questions. The research design addresses the type of study that will be undertaken to provide answers to the research problem (Mouton, 2001:49). Babbie *et al.* (2007:78) describe a typology of research design types, as illustrated in Figure 4.2.



Source: Babbie et al., 2007:78

Figure 4.2: A typology of research design types

According to this typology, this dissertation is an *empirical study*, using a survey to collect primary data. Primary data are obtained from original research and consist of information collected by the researcher for the purposes of his or her own study (Welman *et al*., 2009:149). Cooper and Schindler (2008:141) classify research design using different descriptors. These descriptors and their application to this study will now be discussed.

4.3.1 Purpose of the study

Three of the most common and useful purposes of research are exploration, description and explanation (Babbie *et al.*, 2007:79). The purpose of the current study is *descriptive research*. Descriptive research provides a picture of the specific details of a situation and focuses on the 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where' and 'how' of a topic (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:151; Neuman, 2007:16). The researcher attempts to describe a subject by creating a profile of a group of people, namely the avitourists attending the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* in 2008 (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:19). In the following section, the survey will be discussed as the method of data collection.

4.3.2 Method of data collection

The specific research design selected for this study was the *survey*. Mouton (2001:152) describes the survey as studies that are usually quantitative in nature and that aim to provide a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population. Survey research involves asking participants direct questions either as part of an interview or in a structured questionnaire (Finn *et al.*, 2000:87). A *self-administered questionnaire* was developed for the purposes of this study (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:224). The researcher's control of variables will now be discussed.

4.3.3 Researcher's control of variables

In terms of the researcher's ability to manipulate variables, the *ex post facto design* was applied to this study. With an *ex post facto* design, researches have

no control over the variables and can only report what has happened or what is happening (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:143).

4.3.4 The time dimension

The time dimension of a study indicates whether the study is carried out once or will be repeated over an extended period of time (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:144). Cross-sectional studies examine a snapshot of a single point in time and are carried out once (Neuman, 2007:17). A *cross-sectional study* is used in the current research, as the bird fairs were visited only once, in August 2008.

4.3.5 The topical scope

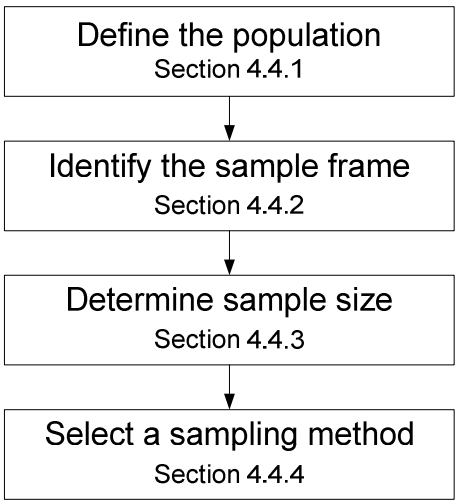
The topical scope describes the breadth and depth of the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:144). *Statistical analysis* applies to this dissertation, as statistical methods were applied to the data. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008:144), statistical studies are designed for breadth rather than depth. The research environment will now be discussed.

4.3.6 The research environment

For the purposes of this dissertation, the research occurs under actual environmental conditions or a field setting (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:145). The *fieldwork* was conducted in August 2008 at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The next step, after the research design has been selected, is to develop the sampling plan.

4.4 THE SAMPLING PLAN

Once the research design has been selected, the question of 'from whom will we collect the data?' must be considered (Moutinho, 2000:93). The general procedure for selecting a sample from the target population is shown in Figure 4.3 and discussed in this section.



Source: Adapted from Moutinho, 2000:95

Figure 4.3: Procedure for selecting a sample

The sampling plan will be discussed according to the steps illustrated in Figure 4.3.

4.4.1 Define the population

In survey research, as conducted in this study, the researcher seeks to describe the characteristics of a population (Leedy & Ormond, 2010:187). A target population is the bigger group about which we wish to make some inferences and from which the sample is selected (Babbie *et al.*, 2007:174; Kumar, 2005:164). The population for this study is international birders who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* in August 2008. The British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* were chosen as suitable events at which valuable market-related data could be collected. The reasons for selection are:

- The British Birdwatching Fair is the biggest and oldest event of its kind in the world (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008; British Birdwatching Fair 2008).
- The two bird fairs attract *exhibitors* from all over the world, promoting businesses in areas as diverse as ecotourism, optical equipment, wildlife

books and bird-feeding products (British Birdwatching Fair 2008; *Vogelfestival* 2008).

- These two bird fairs attract *birders* from all over the world, who spending their money and contribute to the economy of the countries they visit (British Birdwatching Fair 2008; *Vogelfestival* 2008).

The researcher was not able to study the entire population and therefore selected a sample of the population. 'Sampling' is "the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the target population) to become the basis for estimating the prevalence of an unknown piece of information or outcome regarding the bigger group" (Kumar, 2005:164). A sample is a subgroup of the population in which the researcher is interested (Kumar, 2005:164; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:204). Identifying the sampling frame is discussed next.

4.4.2 Identify the sampling frame

The sample frame is simply a list of the study population (Babbie *et al.*, 2007:174). A population list of birders attending the fairs in 2008 was not available for selecting the sample elements. As the researcher lacked a sample frame for the population in question, a non-probability sampling approach was used (refer to the sample method discussed in section 4.4.4) (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2008:165; Babbie *et al.*, 2007:166; David & Sutton, 2004:151). The third step in the procedure selecting a sample is to determine the sample, which is discussed next.

4.4.3 Determine the sample size

The sample size depends on the kind of data analysis, how accurate the sample should be for research purposes, and the population characteristics (Neuman, 2007:161; Kumar, 2005:181). For the purposes of this study, the guidelines of Cooper and Emory (1995:207) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608), which illustrate the relationship of sample size to total population, were used. These authors provide a method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population. Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:608) table for determining sample size from a given population shows that for a population (N) of

30 000, the recommended sample size is 379. These authors also state that "as the population increases, the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases".

The approximate numbers of visitors attending both fairs in 2007 were available and were also used as a guideline in determining an appropriate sample size. For the present study, based on 2007 figures, the total population (N) for both bird fairs was 27 000 bird fair attendees. Based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:608) work, the recommended sample size (S) of 380 seemed appropriate. For each bird fair, a sample size was proportionately drawn from the population. The actual event population could only be determined after the fairs had taken place in August 2008. Table 4.2 depicts the population and recommended sample size of the bird fairs based on 2007 figures, while Table 4.3 illustrates the actual population and sample size in 2008 after the bird fairs had taken place.

Table 4.2: Population and recommended sample size of the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* based on 2007 figures

Name of bird fair	Population = N (2007)	Percentage distribution	Recommended sample size = S
British Birdwatching Fair	18 000	66.7%	253 (380 X 66.7%)
Dutch *Vogelfestival*	9 000	33.3%	127 (380 X 33.3%)
Total at bird fair	27 000	100%	380

Source: British Birdwatching Fair, (n.d.); Brenninkmeijer (2008)

Table 4.3: Actual population and sample size of the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* based on 2008 figures

Name of bird fair	Population = N (2008)	Percentage distribution	Recommended sample size = S	Actual sample size = S
British Birdwatching Fair	20 000	71.4%	271 (380 X 71.4%)	304
Dutch *Vogelfestival*	8 000	28.6%	109 (380 X 28.6%)	135
Total at bird fair	28 000	100%	380	439

Source: De Vries (2009); Tate (2009)

The information reported in this research study was collected from a total of 439 respondents (birders) visiting the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* during the month of August 2008. The actual sample size was

slightly larger than the recommended sample size. A sample of 1.57% was drawn from the total population. The selection of a sampling method is discussed next.

4.4.4 Select a sampling method

The sampling method depends on the knowledge of the population in question, the objectives of the study, the available financial resources, time limits and the nature of the research problem (Blaxter *et al.*, 2008:165; McDaniel & Gates, 2004:276). The wide variety of sampling methods are divided into two main groups, namely probability[7] and non-probability sampling[8] (Blaxter *et al.*, 2008:163–164). The sampling methods are summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Types of probability and non-probability sampling methods

Probability sampling methods	Non-probability sampling methods	Other kinds of sampling methods
Simple random sampling	Convenience sampling	Event sampling
Systematic sampling	Voluntary sampling	Time sampling
Stratified sampling	Quota sampling	
Cluster sampling	Judgemental / Purposive sampling	
Stage sampling	Dimensional sampling	
	Snowball sampling	

Source: Blaxter *et al.*, 2008:163–164

A non-probability sampling method (purposive sampling) was chosen based on the data collection procedure as described in section 4.7. The bird fair organisers granted permission to distribute questionnaires from the BLSA stall. Furthermore, non-probability sampling approaches were used, because the sampling frame for the population in question was not available (refer to the sample frame discussed in section 4.4.2) (Blaxter *et al.*, 2008:165; Babbie *et al.*, 2007:166; David & Sutton,

[7] *Probability sampling* is based on randomisation, a controlled procedure that assures that each population element is given a non-zero chance of selection (De Vos *et al.,* 2007:198; Cooper & Schindler, 2008:380).

[8] *Non-probability sampling* is done without randomisation, where each member does not have a known non-zero chance of being included in the study (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:198; Cooper & Schindler, 2008:379).

2004:151). Non-probability methods also have their own logic, can provide useful samples for social inquiry, and provide good estimates of the characteristics of the population (Babbie *et al.*, 2007:164).

A combination of two sampling methods, namely, event and purposive sampling, is used in this study. *Event sampling* involves using a special event as the basis for sampling (Blaxter *et al.*, 2008:163). Two annual events, the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival,* were chosen for this study. With *purposive sampling*, as the name implies, respondents are chosen for a particular purpose (Neuman, 2007:142; Leedy & Ormond, 2010:212). The primary consideration in purposive sampling is the judgement of the researcher as to who can provide the best information to achieve the objectives of the study (Kumar, 2005:179). In purposive sampling, researchers rely on their judgement to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as representative of the relevant population (Welman *et al*., 2009:69). For the current study, a purposive sample was drawn based on the following criteria:

- Select individuals at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival,* which are most likely to attract the international birding population
- Use a screening question to ensure that *only birders* are selected in the sample
- Draw individuals from different age groups
- Include both males and females in the sample
- Select individuals who would understand English, which was the language used in the questionnaire.

After the sampling plan has been developed, the research instrument or questionnaire should be designed, which is described next.

4.5 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Step 3 in the primary research process is to select and develop the research instrument. Questionnaires for birders were developed to answer the research objectives and aim of the study; and to form the basis for the research findings and conclusions of the study (Kumar, 2005:153).

A cover page was designed for the questionnaire to arouse the respondent's interest in participating in the study and to briefly introduce BirdLife® South Africa (the sponsor), the University of South Africa and the researcher (Finn *et al*., 2000:95). The cover page describes the aim of the study and states that the survey is conducted with the permission of the organisers of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The respondents were also thanked for their participation in the study (Denscombe, 2007:159; Kumar, 2005:129).

A verbal screening question was posed, namely, 'Are you a birdwatcher?', in order to establish whether the respondent was a birdwatcher and thus qualified to participate in the research. The screening question was followed by questions designed to address the research objectives of the study, organised into ten different sections, from A to J. According to Kumar (2005:138), the underlying principle in constructing the questionnaire is to ensure that the questions relate to the research objectives of the study. The correspondence between the research objectives of the current study and the questionnaire are hence outlined in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Construction of the questionnaire

Research objectives of the study	Section of questionnaire		Type of question
To explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity	**A**	Behavioural involvement in birding	Question A1: Open-ended Question A2-6: Closed-ended Question A7: Open-ended
To determine the *motivations* and *preferences* of the international avitourist	B C	Motivation of the avitourist Attributes at the destination (Preferences of the avitourist in	Closed-ended

Research objectives of the study	Section of questionnaire		Type of question
		terms of attributes at the destination)	
	D	Internet access of the avitourist	
	E	Accommodation preferences	
To identify the international avitourist's level of agreement to *ecotourism principles*	F	Ecotourism principles	Closed-ended
	G	The importance of factors relating to local guides	
To determine awareness among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination	H	Awareness of South Africa	Question H-1–6: Closed-ended Question H-7: Open-ended
	I	Reason for visiting South Africa	Question I-1–7: Closed-ended Question I-8–9: Open-ended
Biographic information	J	Biographic information	Closed-ended

The questionnaire was based on previous research and a literature review. The types of questions used in the questionnaire will now be discussed:

In *Section A*, respondents were asked to categorise themselves into one of the following three birder types, namely:

- *Casual birders*, who enjoy birds in the garden or during leisure activities
- *Active birders*, who attend bird courses and go on trips primarily to watch birds
- *Committed birders*, who spend most of their spare time birding.

These categories are indictors of avidity with respect to the birding activity. The category names (*casual*, *active* and *committed birders*) were based on the work of Scott *et al*. (2005:65), Eubanks *et al*. (2004:158) and Turpie & Ryan (1998:34), while the definition of each category was taken from Turpie and Ryan (1998:34) (*refer to section 2.3.5*). Although the avidity levels of these groups were not measured according to the specialisation framework, and different people might have different ideas of how the categories should be defined, consensus on these categories was obtained by field experts (I.A. Coetzer; M. Crosbie; A.J. Hugo; P. Milstein, personal communication, 2008) and during survey pilot tests.

Behavioural involvement in birding was addressed by the inclusion of questions derived from similar research conducted by various authors (Scott & Thigpen,

2003:208; La Rouche, 2003:13; Kim *et al*., 1997:321; McFarlane, 1994:364) (*refer to section 3.5.2*). The number of years involved in birding (Question A-1), an open-ended question, was taken from Scott and Thigpen (2003:208). Question A-3, enquiring whether birders keep a bird life list, was derived from La Rouche (2003:13). The number of birds on the birders' life list (Question A-3) was based on the work of Scott & Thigpen (2003:208), Turpie & Ryan (1998:3464) and McFarlane (1994:364). The categories used by Turpie and Ryan (1998:34) were adapted for this study.

Kim *et al.* (1997:322) state that there is no standard scale used by leisure researchers to measure behavioural involvement and conducted an exploratory factor analysis for the behavioural involvement indicators (Kim *et al.* 1997:330). Consistent with Kim *et al*. (1997:330), the current research used r*eading behaviour and memberships, birding equipment for the identification of birds, birding behaviour* and *consumptive behaviour* to determine the behavioural involvement of birders who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (*refer to section 3.5.2*).

In *Section B*, the questions on the motivation of birders were derived from similar research done worldwide (*refer to section 3.4.2*). Sali and Kuehn (2007:318) explored, through qualitative methods, the motivations of non-residential birders. Their results indicated that the motivations of non-residential birders can be grouped into five categories: emotional, intellectual, physical, social and spiritual. According to Sali and Kuehn (2007:318), the qualitative research will aid in the development of a birder survey that can be used for a quantitative investigation on the motivations of birders, as was done in the current study. The five categories motivating avitourists to participate in the birding activity, as identified by Sali and Kuehn (2007:318), and corresponding variables by Eubanks *et al*. (2004:164–165), Hvenegaard (2002:31), Scott *et al*. (1999:69) and McFarlane (1994:365), were used to construct the closed-ended questions in this study (*refer to Table 3.1 for the summary of factors motivating avitourists to participate in the birding*

activity). A *Likert scale*[9] was used, on which the respondents had to indicate how important each motivation was to them on a scale ranging from 1 (irrelevant) to 5 (very important). On the basis of the literature, together with the confirmatory factor analysis conducted in this study, three second-order factors or domains in birding motivation were identified by the research as follows: *wellbeing*, *intellectual* and *engagement*.

Section C includes questions on the importance of certain attributes at the birding destination; activities when on a birding trip; and important facilities and infrastructure when on a birding trip. The items used in these questions were derived from a combination of previous studies, including Ellis and Vogelsong (2004:207); Scott and Thigpen (2003:211) and a birding route evaluation survey study conducted in South Africa by BLSA (BLSA, 2006:13) (*refer to section 3.6.2*). A *Likert scale* was used, on which the respondents had to indicate how important each attribute was to them on a scale of 1 (irrelevant) to 5 (very important).

Section D focuses on exposure to and availability of technology, such as birders' access to and use of Internet facilities. These questions are regarded as valuable in that they could assist BLSA with marketing strategies via the Internet, and they could be used to determine whether birders are comfortable with planning their birding trips online.

Section E represents questions on accommodation preferences when on a birding trip. The birding route evaluation survey conducted in South Africa by BLSA was used to derive questions in Section E (BLSA, 2006:13). Accommodation categories used by South African Tourism were also considered in formulating the question (South African Tourism, 2008a:37). Respondents had to indicate a low, medium or high preference for the accommodation category chosen.

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[9] A *Likert scale* is based on the assumption that each statement/item on the scale has equal 'attitudinal value', 'importance' or 'weight' in terms of reflecting an attitude towards the issue in question (Kumar, 2005:145). A Likert scale requires respondents to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement or degree of importance or irrelevance of a set of statements concerning a particular object (Finn et al., 2000:95).

Section F represents the questions on the birder's level of agreement to ecotourism principles. Since no scale was available for measuring the perception of ecotourism principles, questions were developed by choosing variables from each component of ecotourism, namely, tourism industry, tourist, environment and local community (Queiros & Wilson, 2005:208). Statements describing ecotourism principles are provided, and a *Likert scale* is used to ask respondents to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). On the basis of the literature, together with the exploratory factor analysis conducted in this study, two main factors or domains were identified by the research, namely, *conservation of nature* and *support of local communities*.

Section G includes questions on the importance of factors relating to local guides. Questions were derived from the birding route evaluation survey conducted in South Africa by BLSA (BLSA, 2006:13) and in consultation with BLSA (D. Pritchard, personal communication, 2008).

Section H includes questions on the birders' awareness of South Africa to provide an indication of the birders awareness of South Africa's birding routes, the number of bird species in the country, species unique to southern Africa, whether they had visited South Africa before, and whether the trip included birding. Respondents also had to indicate their interest in travelling to South Africa. If they were not interested in travelling to South Africa, the respondent had to provide the most important reason for not wanting to do so.

Section I includes the major reasons for visiting South Africa. Respondents had to indicate the importance of each reason if they were considering visiting South Africa. The reasons provided in the question were derived from seven categories as used by South African Tourism (2008:102–104), namely: scenery, culture, wildlife, birding, shopping, visiting friends and relatives, and to see post-apartheid South Africa. A *Likert scale* was used, on which the respondents had to indicate how important each reason for visiting South Africa was to them on a scale of 1 (irrelevant) to 5 (very important).

Section J determines the biographic information of birders, including the respondent's age, gender and place of residence.

Refer to *Appendix A* for the questionnaire. Once the research instrument (questionnaire) is developed, it should be tested before actual data collection can take place. The pilot testing conducted in this study is discussed next.

4.6 PILOT TESTING

Pilot testing, or pre-testing, is an integral part of instrument construction (Kumar, 2005:22). The pilot test should not be carried out on the sample of the study, but on a similar population (Kumar, 2005:22). According to Finn *et al.* (2000:102), a crucial issue is whether the questions are understood consistently by all respondents. For the purposes of this study, the following approach was used.

Four academics, who are also avid birdwatchers, were identified and asked to provide their opinion on the questionnaire (I.A. Coetzer; M. Crosbie; A.J. Hugo; P. Milstein, personal communication, 2008). Minor modifications were implemented on the basis of their recommendations, whereafter the questionnaire for the study was pre-tested. It was not possible to conduct a pilot study overseas; the researcher therefore selected 14 birdwatchers in South Africa to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was also tested on a family of four that visited South Africa from the Netherlands at the time of the pilot test (July, 2008). The feedback with respect to the interpretation of the questionnaire was analysed and minor changes were made. The fieldwork and data collection procedure will be discussed in the next section.

4.7 FIELDWORK: DATA COLLECTION

Step 5 in the research process is to conduct the fieldwork for the study. On 13 August 2008, fieldworkers departed for England (UK) to carry out data collection at the British Birdwatching Fair and on 22 August 2008 for the Netherlands to collect data at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

According to Kumar (2005:129), a questionnaire can be administered in a public place depending on the study population and where this population is likely to be found. The population for this study, international birdwatchers, were likely to be found at both the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to birders at the BLSA stand at both fairs. Respondents were *randomly* selected on the basis of passing the stand, irrespective of their intention to visit the stand. Seven fieldworkers, including six people with relations to BLSA and the researcher, conducted the fieldwork. The researcher briefed and trained the fieldworkers on the purpose of the study, the questionnaire content, the incentives offered to respondents (as discussed in the following paragraph) and how to assist respondents if necessary. Birders were asked to complete the questionnaire at the stall to ensure that the questionnaire would be handed back immediately. Aiding tools, such as chairs, clipboards and pencils, were provided to participants for comfort and easy completion of the questionnaire.

Incentives were also offered to birdwatchers to motivate them to complete the questionnaire. A range of booklets sold by BLSA at the bird fairs were given as incentives when the birder completed the questionnaire. A prize consisting of birder-friendly accommodation in South Africa was also offered. The prize was also advertised continuously on the public address systems of both fairs to motivate attendees to visit the BLSA stall. The prize draw took place after both fairs in September 2008, and the prizes were awarded to the winners.

The data collection procedure, as already discussed, has the advantages of personal contact with the birders; the possibility of explaining the purpose, relevance and importance of the study; and the opportunity to clarify any

questions that respondents might have (Kumar, 2005:129). Apart from being slightly more time-consuming than mailing the questionnaire, the method is a quick means of collecting data, ensures a higher response rate and saves the cost of postage (Kumar, 2005:129).

Once the data have been collected, the researcher has to transform the 'words' used in the questionnaire to the only format suitable for quantitative analysis – numbers. This involves processing the data, which will be discussed in the next section (Denscombe, 2007:257).

4.8 DATA PROCESSING

Data processing, which entails editing, coding and capturing the data (Step 6 in the research process), is discussed in the following paragraphs.

The first step in processing the data is called 'data editing', which ensures that the data are 'clean' in that they are free of inconsistencies and incompleteness (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:415; Kumar, 2005:220). Editing involves examining all completed birding questionnaires in order to identify and minimise errors, incompleteness and misclassification (Kumar, 2005:220). The next step is data coding.

Denscombe (2007:257) defines 'data coding' as the attribution of a number to a piece of data, or a group of data, with the express aim of allowing such data to be analysed in quantitative terms. In the case of closed questions, respective codes were assigned to categories, and these numbers were built into the design of the questionnaire (pre-coding) (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:419; Denscombe, 2007:258). Pre-coding was included on the questionnaire where feasible. For question A-7, space was provided for coding on the questionnaire. Coding for these questions took place after the data had been collected (post-coding). The data in this format are ready for capturing.

For closed-ended questions, the data-capturing process involved constructing a code for each variable in the questionnaire, and data typists from Datanet, a data-

capturing company, entered the raw data into a database (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:417–420; Kumar, 2005:224). Data capturing converts the information gathered into a medium suitable for viewing and manipulation (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:429).

For open-ended questions, the researcher entered each respondent's answer into an Excel spreadsheet. In response to question H-7, respondents could provide their most important reason for not travelling to South Africa, and question I-9 enquires about respondents' most important concern in relation to travelling to South Africa. These open-ended questions are sources of qualitative data (Denscombe, 2007:287).

Once the data had been captured and cleaned, the data were analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 17.0), a statistical computer package. This program assisted the statistician to organise, tabulate and graph the data and to provide statistics for easier interpretation (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:430). The statistical data analysis used in the study will be discussed in the next section.

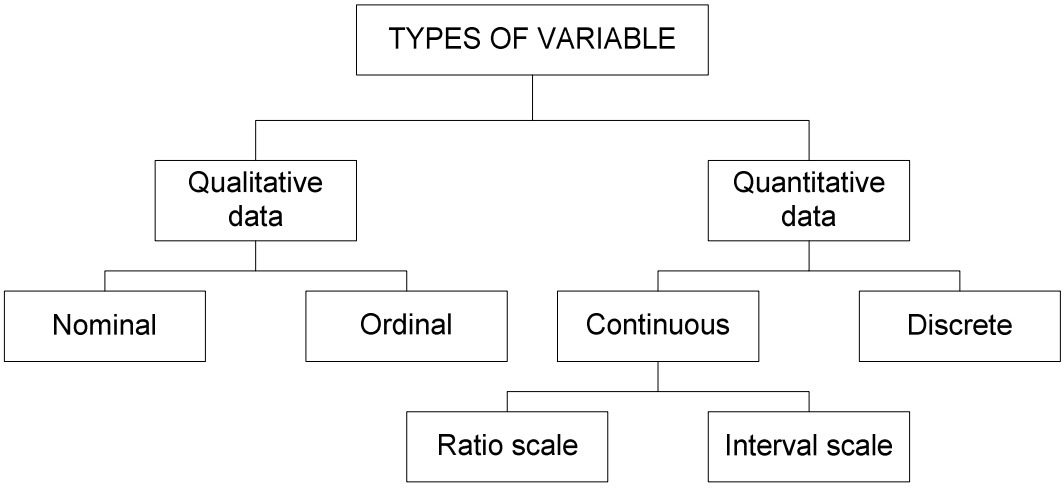
4.9 DATA ANALYSIS

'Data analysis' (step 7 in the research process) means the categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising of the data to an interpretable form in order to study and test relations and draw conclusions (De Vos *et al*., 2007:218). The statistical analysis is outlined in the following order:

- Firstly, cleaning and validation of the data are discussed.
- Secondly, a profile of the data was obtained through descriptive statistics and graphs.
- Thirdly, the validity and reliability of the research instrument are discussed.
- Lastly, statistical methods and techniques are explained.

4.9.1 Cleaning and validation of the data

Data validation is the process of ensuring that the data are clean, correct and useful (Camira Statistical Consulting Services, 2009:25). The types of variables dictate the analysis that can be done (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:222). Variables are divided into categorical (qualitative) data and numerical (quantitative) data, as outlined in Figure 4.4 (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:219).



Source: De Vos et al., 2007:219

Figure 4.4: Types of variable

The variable, its description, method of validation and application to the birding questionnaire are depicted in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Type of variables and method of validation

Type of Variable	Description	Method of validation	Application to questionnaire
Nominal	Classify into categories	Calculate frequencies	Question A-2, A-5 Section H Question I-10 Question J-2
Ordinal	Order by rank or magnitude	Calculate frequencies	Question A-3 Section B, C, E, F, G, and I-1-–7
Interval	Categories are ranked on a scale Distance between values is meaningful, but without an absolute zero	Calculate means Calculate maximum and minimum values	Question A-3, A-4 Question J-1

Type of Variable	Description	Method of validation	Application to questionnaire
Ratio	Categories exist on a scale Distance between values is meaningful, and there is an absolute zero point	Calculate means Calculate maximum and minimum values	Question A-7

Source: Adapted from Camira Statistical Consulting Services, 2009:25; Denscombe, 2007:255–256; Blaxter et al., 2008:217; De Vos et al., 2007:219

Frequencies and means of the raw data were checked for any discrepancies in the data. Cleaning the data involves determining whether any invalid numbers appear in a column (such as a 3 in the Male (1) and Female (2) columns). The statistician created the cleaned database and stored the data for analysis. The descriptive statistics and graphs used are discussed in the next section.

4.9.2 Descriptive statistics and graphs used

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the characteristics of the sample taken (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:187). The presentation of frequencies,[10] measures of location[11] and measures of spread (standard deviation)[12] are used to describe the outcome of a study (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:438; Collis & Hussey, 2003:198). Frequencies, means and standard deviations are used to describe characteristics in the present study. Graphs and tables were created and are interpreted in Chapter 5. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire will now be discussed.

[10] '*Frequencies'* are numerical values that represent the total number of observations for a variable under study, and a 'frequency distribution' is an array of frequencies arranged in size order in a table, chart or graph (Collis & Hussey, 2003:199).

[11] '*Measures of central tendency*', often called location, include the mean (the average), median (the middle value) and mode (the most frequently occurring value) (Collis & Hussey, 2003:212; Cooper & Schindler, 2008:438).

[12] '*Standard deviation'*, the most frequently used measure of spread, summarises how far from the average the data values are (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:440).

4.9.3 Validity and reliability of the research instrument

A valid and reliable research instrument leads to appropriate conclusions from the data and will thus solve the research problem in a credible fashion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:91).

Kumar (2005:153) describes 'validity', in terms of measurement procedures, as the ability of an instrument to measure what it is designed to measure. Content analysis and statistical evidence are two approaches to establishing the validity of a research instrument (Kumar, 2005:154). Establishing content validity implies justifying each question in relation to the objectives of the study. Content validity is also judged on the basis of the extent to which questions represent the issue they are supposed to measure, as judged by the researcher and experts in the field (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:290; Kumar, 2005:154). For the current study, content validity was established in that four academics, who are also avid birdwatchers (*refer to section 4.6*), examined the questionnaire, and their recommendations were implemented. Moreover, the questions were based on the literature and previous studies. To establish validity with statistical evidence, a factor analysis was performed (Sekaran, 2003:308). Factor analysis is a statistical measure used to describe variability among variables in terms of fewer unobserved variables, called factors, and was performed per section of the questionnaire (Camira Statistical Consulting Services, 2009:21). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was done for sections C, E, F, G and I of the questionnaire, which had not been previously reported in secondary literature. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done for section B of the questionnaire, which was not newly developed but derived from similar research conducted previously (*refer to section 3.4.2*). On the basis of the two approaches discussed, it can be concluded that the research instrument used for this study was valid.

The reliability of the measuring instrument is the extent to which it yields consistency and stability of results (Kumar, 2005:156; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:93). This study used internal consistency to measure the reliability of the questionnaire. The idea behind internal consistency procedures is that items measuring the same

phenomenon should produce similar results (Kumar, 2005:158; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:93). Cronbach's alpha[13] is the statistical tool used to determine internal consistency (Camira Statistical Consulting Services, 2009:18). Vogt (in Reinard, 2006:129) describes Cronbach's alpha coefficient as the measure of the "consistency of items in an index". An item analysis was performed on the questions in sections B, C, E, F, G and I to determine Cronbach's alpha values in order to test the reliability of the questionnaire (Camira Statistical Consulting Services, 2009:18). The closer the Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability (Sekaran, 2003:307).

In the next section, statistical methods and techniques will be discussed.

4.9.4 Statistical methods used in the study

Both inferential and multivariate statistics were used in the study and are illustrated in Figure 4.5.

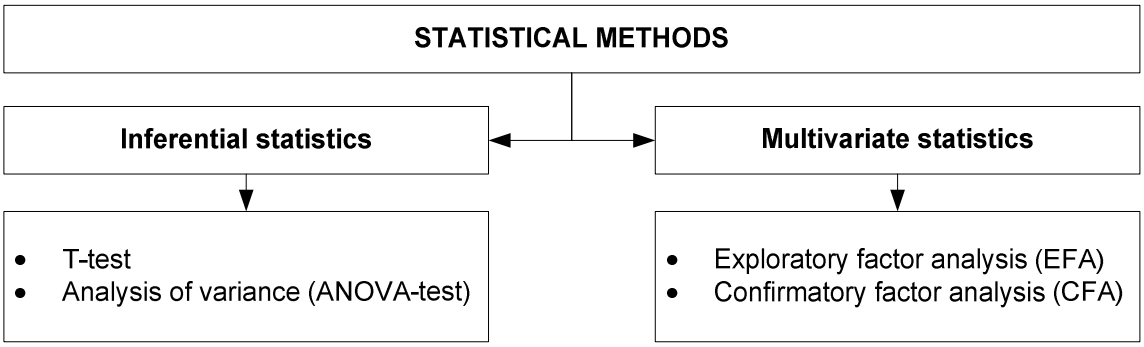


Figure 4.5: Inferential and multivariate statistics used in the study

4.9.4.1 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics assist in drawing conclusions from observations and interpreting sample findings as the basis for inferences about the population (Salkind, 2009:171; Babbie *et al.*, 2007:458). Since statistical significance is of

[13] '*Cronbach's alpha'* is "a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another" (Sekaran, 2003:307).

importance in all inferential statistics, an explanation is provided before inferential techniques, including the t-test and the analysis of variance (ANOVA), are discussed.

Statistical significance means that the results are not likely to be due to chance factors and only states that particular outcomes are more or less probable (Neuman, 2007:269). Statistical significance (p-value) is usually expressed in terms of levels. The level of statistical significance (usually 0.05, 0.01 or 0.001) explains the likelihood that results are due to chance factors (i.e. that a relationship appears in the sample when there is none in the population). If it is stated that the results are significant at the 0.05 level, there is a 95% chance that the sample results are not due to chance factors alone, but reflect the population accurately (Salkind, 2009:176; Neuman, 2007:270). Statistical tests, such as the t-test and analysis of variance (f-test), are used to determine statistical significance.

a. T-test

A t-test is a statistical technique to assess the statistical significance of the difference between two sample means for a single dependent variable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006:387). The following procedure was followed in performing the t-test:

- Firstly, the sample results were examined to see whether there might be differences between respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival.*
- The t-test was done to test the difference between the two mean scores for the British and Dutch bird fairs. The results of the t-test indicate that there were significant differences between the respondents attending the two bird fairs on some of the indicators of behavioural involvement.
- The level of significance was indicated. A 1% (p-value < 0.01), a 5% (p-value < 0.05) and a 10% (p-value < 0.10) level of significance were indicated in the study.

Analysis of variance was also used in this study and is discussed next.

b. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) (f-test)

Analysis of variance is a statistical technique used to determine whether samples from multiple groups come from populations with equal means (i.e. Do the group means differ significantly?) (Hair *et al.*, 2006:384). The statistical test for analysis of variance is the f-test. Where a significant result is found between groups, this does not indicate the groups between which the difference exists. A post hoc analysis, in this case the Post Hoc (Duncan) test, is therefore done to compare the means. The following procedure was followed in performing the f-test:

- Firstly, the sample results were examined to establish whether there might be differences between the different birder types at both fairs.
- The ANOVA test was performed to determine the difference between more than two groups; in this case the ANOVA test was done for the three birder types (*casual*, *active* and *committed*) into which the respondents were classified. The results of the ANOVA test indicated that there were significant differences between casual, active and committed birders on all the indicators of behavioural involvement;
- The level of significance was indicated. A 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01) and a 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05) were indicated.
- In the case of significant differences, the additional Post Hoc test (more specifically the Duncan test) was carried out to determine which of the three birder types were significantly different from one another.

4.9.4.2 Multivariate statistics

The multivariate statistical technique[14] of factor analysis was used to increase the knowledge of the structure of the variables in sections B, C, E, F, G and I of the questionnaire and the interrelationships among them. Factor analysis is a

[14] '*Multivariate statistical techniques'* are "statistical techniques that simultaneously analyse multiple measurements on individuals or objects under investigation, thus any simultaneous analysis of more than two variables" (Hair *et al*., 2006:4).

statistical method that assists the researcher in discovering and identifying the dimensions, called factors, behind many measures (Kerlinger in Reinard, 2006:407) and helps to reduce a vast number of variables to a meaningful, interpretable and manageable set of factors (Sekaran, 2003:408). Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis are multivariate statistical techniques used in the study and are discussed in the paragraphs below.

a. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

According to Bernstein (in Reinard, 2006:404), in exploratory factor analysis (EFA), "the factors are defined in such a way as to meet certain mathematical considerations, without regard to any theory. The factors are then named, based on the variables that correlate most strongly with them and thereby contribute most heavily to their definition". EFA explores the data and provides information on how many factors are needed to best represent the data (Hair *et al.*, 2006:773).

All measured variables are related to every factor by a factor loading estimate. A simple structure will result when each measured variable loads highly on only one factor and has smaller loadings on other factors (for example loadings < 0.4) (Hair *et al.*, 2006:773). A distinctive feature of EFA is that the factors are derived from statistical results, not from theory; they can thus only be named after the factor analysis has been performed (Hair *et al.*, 2006:773). EFA can be conducted without knowing how many factors actually exist, or which variables belong with which factors (Hair *et al.*, 2006:773).

The following procedure was followed in performing the exploratory factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2006:107):

- The relationships among the variables, which were measured with a Likert scale in sections C, E, F, G and I of the questionnaire, were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.
- Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to aid

in diagnosing the factorability of the correlation matrix (Kaiser, 1974; Kaiser, 1970; Bartlett, 1954).

- Patterns of correlation among the variables were examined by subjecting the set of items to principal axis factoring (PAF) using SPSS17.0. As a variable is more highly correlated with one or more variables, the common variance (communality) increases. For this study, one of the guidelines used for considering the inclusion of items in a factor solution was whether they share at least 10% (communality of 0.31) of their variance with the other items under consideration. Factor loadings of 0.31 and greater were considered significant and used for the interpretation of structure, since N > 350 (Hair *et al.*, 2006:128).
- PAF revealed the presence of factors with eigenvalues and the total percentage of variance in the data. The latent root (eigenvalues) and the scree test criteria were used to decide on the number of factors to be extracted.
- To aid in the interpretation and scientific utility of the components, Varimax rotation[15] was performed.
- The subscales for the extracted factors were obtained by calculating the mean of the items loading on each of the subscales or factors. This resulted in factors being calculated and named.
- The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine the internal consistency of each extracted factor.
- Descriptive statistics were calculated for the interpretation of the factors.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis are provided in Chapter 4. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is similar to EFA in some respects, but differs philosophically. CFA is discussed next (Hair *et al.*, 2006:774).

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[15] *Varimax rotation* is the most popular orthogonal factor rotation method; it focuses on simplifying the columns in a factor matrix (Hair *et al*., 2006:104). Orthogonal rotation was chosen, since the analytical procedures are better developed than those of Oblique rotation. Varimax was chosen in particular, because it results in a clearer separation of factors (Hair *et al*., 2006:126).

b. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a type of structural equation modelling (SEM)[16] (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:1). Bernstein (in Reinard, 2006:404) defines confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as "a form of factor analysis in which dimensions are defined according to the specification of a substantive theory". CFA is "factor analysis conducted to confirm theories about the factors one expects to find" (Vogt in Reinard, 2006:428). According to Hair *et al.* (2006:774), unlike EFA, the CFA technique does not assign variables to factors, which thus have to be assigned before any results can be obtained (Hair *et al.*, 2006:774). Instead of allowing the statistical method to determine the number of factors and loadings as in EFA, CFA statistics show how well the specification of the factors matches reality (in terms of the actual data) (Hair *et al.*, 2006:774). CFA is thus an enabling tool that either confirms or rejects the preconceived theory (Hair *et al.*, 2006:774). The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) (SPSS 17.0) was used as the statistical software for conducting CFA.

The following procedure was used in performing the confirmatory factor analysis (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:95):

- The variables representing factors in the literature, which had been measured using a Likert scale in section B of the questionnaire, were tested using CFA. In the first analysis (Model 1) of the motivation of avitourists, a strictly confirmatory approach[17] was used, in which a model was postulated and evaluated. The model was initially presented according to the theory. The model was tested for consistency with the observed data using an SEM-type

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[16] *Structural equation modelling (SEM)* "provides researchers with a comprehensive method for the quantification and testing of theories. Once the constructs have been assessed, they can be used to test the plausibility of hypothetical assertions about potential interrelationships among the constructs as well as their relationships to the indicators or measures assessing them". The models are usually conceived in terms of constructs that are not directly measurable, such as motivation, as used in this study (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:1).

[17] A *strictly confirmatory approach* is not concerned with discovering a factor structure, but with confirming the existence of a specific factor structure. This approach is rare in practice, since researchers are not willing to reject a proposed model without suggesting an alternative (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:95).

approach. The model was then evaluated on the basis of goodness-of-fit indices to test whether the proposed model fitted the data well.

- Since the initial analysis seldom fits the data well, a model generating approach[18] was adopted, which resulted in Model 2 as a more plausible model. In generating the model, each of the factors and modification indices was examined. The estimates of each parameter[19] of Model 2 were reported and evaluated. Finally, the goodness-of-fit indices were evaluated.
- Model 2 was refined in order to further simplify the relationships between the latent variables. A second-order confirmatory factor analysis was fitted and is presented in Model 3.

In the structural equation model (SEM) literature, a number of goodness-of-fit indices, which reflect the extent to which a model can be considered an acceptable means of data representation, are suggested. The following goodness-of-fit indices were used in this study (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:35–41):

- Chi-square value (CMIN): This represents a test statistic of the goodness-of-fit model, and is used when testing the null hypothesis to establish whether the model fits the analysed covariance matrix perfectly. 'Chi-square value' is defined as $T = (N - 1) F_{min}$, with N the sample size and F_{min} the minimal value of the fit function for the parameter estimation method used. The model is rejected when the p-value is smaller than a pre-set significance value.
- Degrees of freedom (df): The use of degrees of freedom follows Popperian logic (Popper in Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:36), which states that the primary interest of research is to reject models, rather than confirming them, since there is no scientific way of proving the validity of a proposed model. Therefore there is a preference for dealing with models with a large number of degrees of freedom. This is because, with more degrees of freedom, the

[18] A *model generating approach* is "a situation in which an initial model is specified and, if it does not fit the data, is modified and repeatedly tested until some fit is obtained" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:95).

[19] '*Parameters'* are coefficients expressing relationships among elements of the model (Reinard, 2006:434).

model has withstood a higher chance of being rejected when it is tested against the data. If the model was not rejected, the results are more trustworthy.

- CMIN/df: Kline (in Lee & Scott, 2004:251) proposed that CMIN/df ratio values of less than 3 are considered favourable for sample sizes of 200 and more, which is the case in this study.
- Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA): RMSEA takes model complexity into account, but has less rigid requirements for degree of fit. The primary principle of the RMSEA is that it evaluates the extent to which the model fails to fit the data. It is generally recommended that RMSEA should be less than 0.05. RMSEA should be less than 0.05 for the fitted model to indicate a good approximation. Values between 0.05 and 0.08 indicate acceptable fit, values between 0.08 and 0.10 marginal fit, and values above 0.10 poor fit.
- Comparative fit index (CFI): CFI compares a proposed model with the null model assuming no relationships between measures. CFI is defined as the ratio of improvement in non-centrality, moving from null to the proposed model, to the non-centrality of the null model. Thus, CFI, which ranges between 0 and 1, is also recommended to be greater than 0.90 to indicate a good fit.
- Tucker-Lewis index (TLI): TLI compares *T* (chi-square value) against a baseline model or the independence model, which assumes that all the covariances are zero. TLI indices should ideally be greater than 0.9 for acceptable fit.
- Incremental fit index (IFI): IFI also compares *T* (chi-square value) against a baseline model or the independence model, which assumes that all the covariances are zero. IFI indices should ideally be greater than 0.9 for acceptable fit.

The presentation of the research findings follows the analysis of the data.

4.10 PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

Having analysed the data, the final step is to present the findings effectively. The main purpose of using data-display techniques is to make the findings clear and easily understood (Kumar, 2005:248). The research findings are presented in Chapter 6.

4.11 RESEARCH ETHICS

According to Neuman (2007:48), ethics includes the concerns, dilemmas and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research and help to define what 'moral' research procedures involve.

The ethical principles of voluntary and informed participation, confidentiality, anonymity and non-harm were considered in conducting the research (De Vos *et al*., 2007:58).

Denscombe (2007:157) states that the researcher needs to gain permission from those in authority to conduct the survey. Permission was granted by the organisers of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* before the research was conducted to ensure ethical clearance for the study.

4.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter addressed the research methodology used in the study. The chapter elaborated on the steps in the research process and their application to this study. A survey design was selected for the research, and a self-administered questionnaire was developed as the research instrument. The sampling was based on the international birder population at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. After a pre-test of the questionnaire had been conducted, the data were collected at the British and Dutch bird fairs. Data were coded, captured and analysed. Chapter 5 presents the outcome of the data analysis, and Chapter 6 concludes by outlining the research findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

5 ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF INTERNATIONAL AVITOURISM RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of the study was to determine the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa based on avitourist profiles at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch Bird Fair (*Vogelfestival*). The previous chapter outlined the research design and research methodology used to achieve the primary objective.

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were set:

- Explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity – section 5.3 outlines the classification of birders into different birder types and section 5.4 provides details on the findings with respect to the behavioural involvement of avitourists.
- Determine the *motivations* and *preferences* of the international avitourist – section 5.5 reports the results of the confirmatory factor analysis performed to determine the motivations of avitourist and section 5.6 reports on the preferences of avitourists at the birding destination.
- Identify the international avitourist's level of agreement to *ecotourism principles* – these results are reported in section 5.7.
- Determine *awareness* among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination – these results are provided in section 5.8.

The data analysis and discussion of results are presented in this chapter. In each case, the results for *both* fairs will be discussed; *firstly* for the British Birdwatching

Fair and *secondly* for the Dutch *Vogelfestival.* The chapter is organised to address each of the secondary objectives of the study. Section 5.2 reports firstly on the biographic information of avitourists at the British and Dutch bird fairs.

5.2 BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS AT THE BRITISH BIRDWATCHING FAIR AND DUTCH *VOGELFESTIVAL*

Typical biographic information, such as country of origin, gender and age of respondents, was obtained to characterise and profile the international birders who attended the British and Dutch bird fairs in August 2008, and these results are discussed next.

5.2.1 Origin of respondents at the bird fairs

The respondents in the study participated at one of two international bird fairs, namely the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Figure 5.1 indicates the origin of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair.

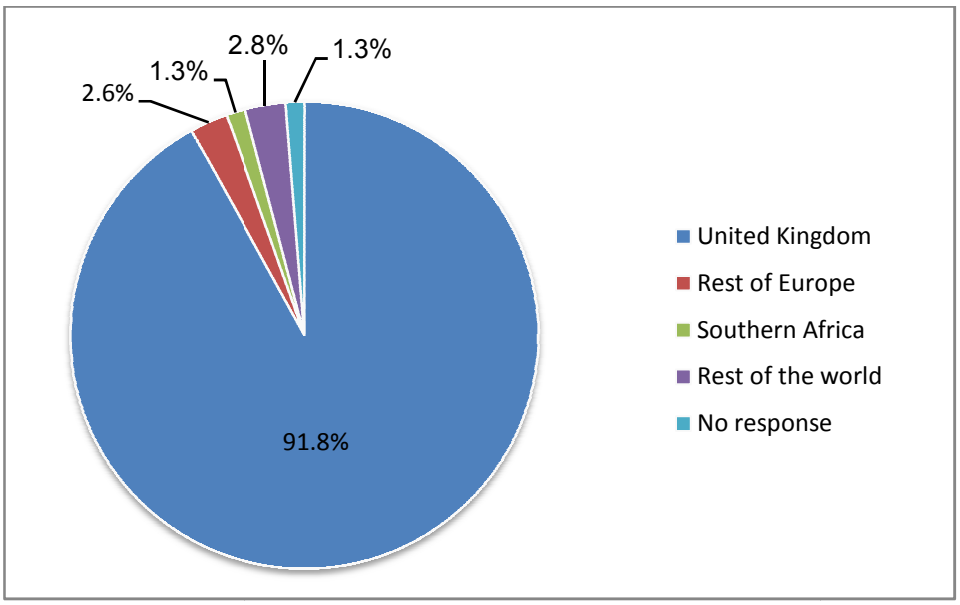

Figure 5.1: Origin of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair

A total of 304 (69.2%) respondents completed questionnaires at the British Birdwatching Fair. The overwhelming majority of these birders were from the

United Kingdom (279; 91.8%), followed by 2.8% from elsewhere in the world (excluding Europe and southern Africa) and 2.6% from the rest of Europe.

Figure 5.2 indicates the origin of respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

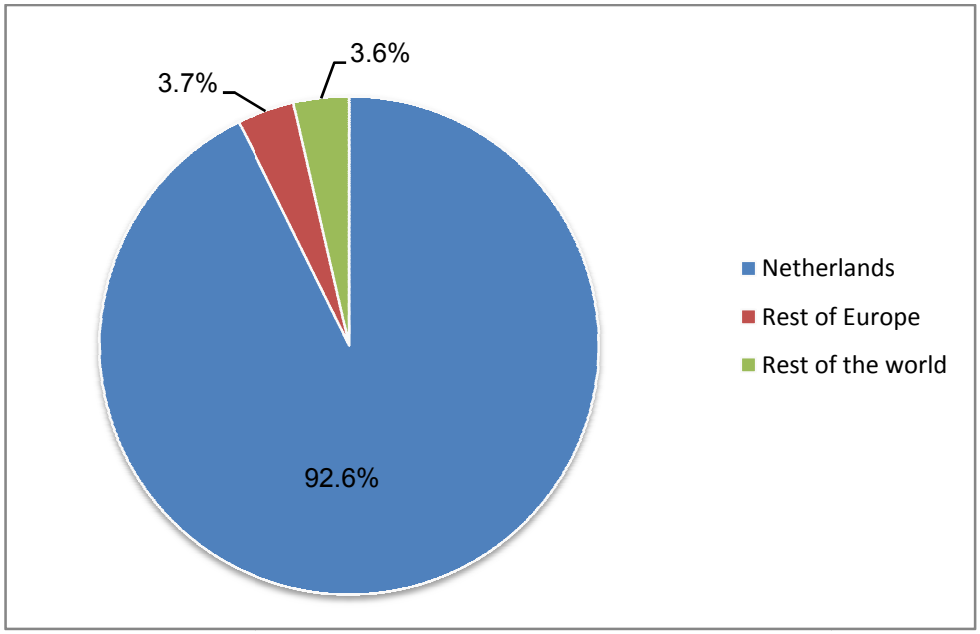

Figure 5.2: Origin of respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*

A total of 135 questionnaires (30.8%) were received from birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, of whom a majority of 125 (92.6%) originated from the Netherlands, followed by 3.7% from the rest of Europe and 3.6% from elsewhere in the world. Thus, the host community was highly represented at each fair, which is a characteristic of the nature of such fairs, as the community is interested in local events (Getz, 2005:322).

5.2.2 Gender and age of respondents at the bird fairs

Figure 5.3 indicates the gender of respondents at both the British and Dutch bird fairs.

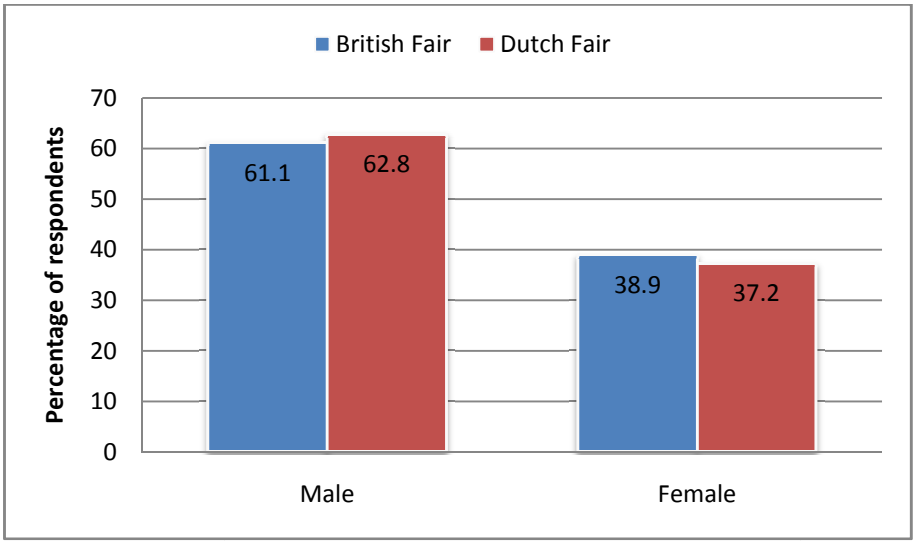

Figure 5.3: Gender of respondents

Most of the respondents (61.1%) at the British Birdwatching Fair were male, while only 38.9% were female. A comparable gender ratio was observed for respondents attending the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, namely 62.8% male and 37.2% female. At both fairs, significantly more males are noticeable in the sample distribution. Larger proportions of male respondents are consistent with studies conducted at other birding festivals (Eubanks, Stoll & Ditton in Scott & Thigpen, 2003:216).

Figure 5.4 indicates the age of the respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs.

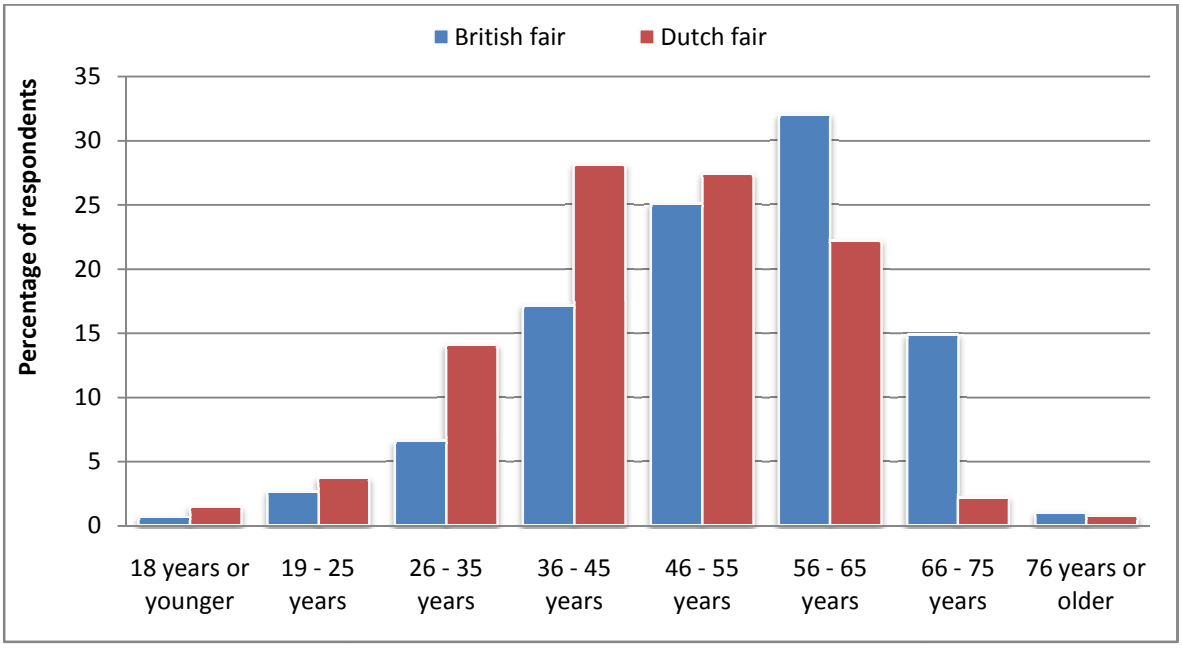

Figure 5.4: Age of respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair were generally older than those at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair were mostly between 56 and 65 years old, followed by 25.1% who were between the ages of 46 and 55 years. Only 0.7% of the respondents were 18 years of age or younger. In comparison, 28.1% of respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* were between 36 and 45 years old, and 27.4% were aged between 46 and 55 years. A very small percentage of the respondents (0.7%) were aged 76 years or older. The majority of birders fall within three age categories, namely, 36–45, 46–55 and 56–65 years. These age categories fall into the productive stage of a working career in the human life-cycle.

The findings of this study are consistent with previous research, which indicates that avitourists tend to be relatively older (Eubanks *et al.*, 2004:159; Hvenegaard & Dearden in Hvenegaard, 2002:22; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:205; Turpie & Ryan, 1998:2; Dickinson & Edmondson, 1996:47; Kellert, 1985:348). If demographic trends follow the pattern of aging populations, as evident in the United States of America, the number of birders could be expected to grow rapidly. As the baby boomers (45–64 years) move into middle age and beyond, increasing numbers of them might start to participate in birding as a hobby (Dickinson & Edmondson,

1996:47). It can be assumed that this growth, might impact on avitourism in South Africa. It would seem that there is growing interest in birding among members of the younger age category of 36–45 years. A classification of birders according to birding *commitment* is explained in the next section.

5.3 CATEGORISATION OF BIRDERS INTO BIRDER TYPES

In Figure 5.5, the categorisation of birder types as *casual*, *active* or *committed* is illustrated for respondents at both fairs.

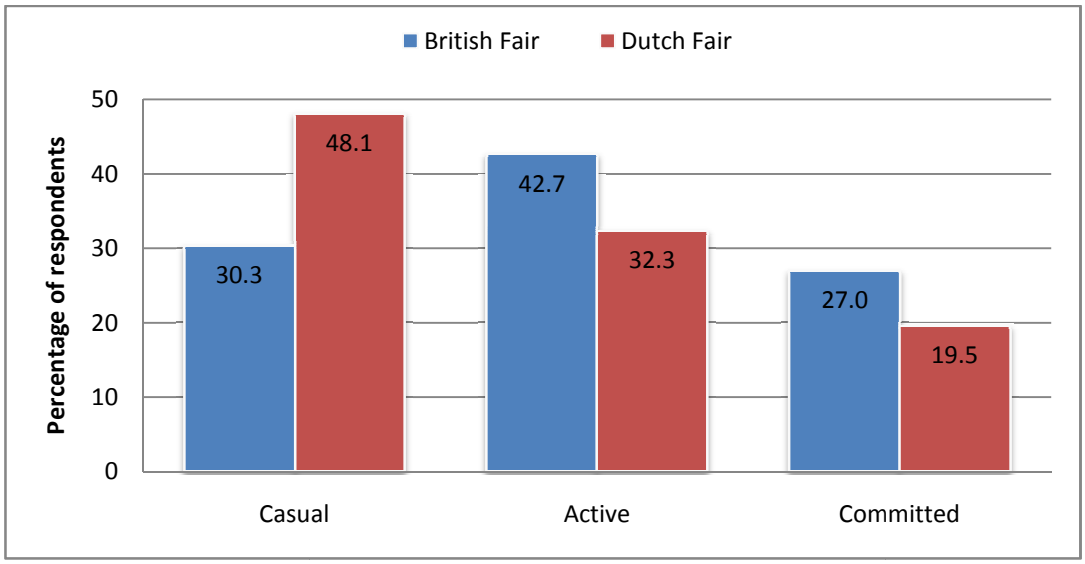

Figure 5.5: The three birder types among respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

Figure 5.5 provides an interesting contrast between the birder types at the two bird fairs in the study. In this study, birders at the British Birdwatching Fair consisted mostly of *active* birders (42.7%), followed by *casual* birders (30.3%) and lastly, *committed* birders (27.0%). Most of the participants at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (48.1%) were *casual* birders, while 32.3% were *active* and only 19.5% described themselves as *committed* birders. Interestingly, the respondents at the British fair tended to be more *active* and *committed*, while the respondents at the Dutch fair seemed to be mostly *casual* and *active* birders. Marketing aimed at the British birder should therefore concentrate on more serious birding activities, while marketing aimed at the Dutch birding community could concentrate more on

leisure activities. The *behavioural involvement* of birders is discussed in the following section.

5.4 RESULTS WITH RESPECT TO BEHAVIOURAL INVOLVEMENT OF RESPONDENTS AT THE BRITISH AND DUTCH BIRD FAIRS

This study used behavioural involvement to investigate the characteristics of birders who attended the British and Dutch bird fairs. This links to the first of the secondary objectives of the study – namely, to explore the *behavioural involvement* of the international avitourist in the birding activity (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section A*).

Firstly, all the results with respect to behavioural involvement are provided in Table 5.1, indicating differences between the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*; and Table 5.2, showing differences between the three birder types – *casual*, *active* and *committed* birders. Thereafter, the results of Tables 5.1 and 5.2 are discussed consecutively according to the following *six* factors measuring behavioural involvement:

- Number of years involved in birding
- Number of birds on the birders' life lists
- Reading behaviour and club membership of birders
- Birding equipment used for the identification of birds
- Behaviour of birders
- Consumptive behaviour of birders.

Table 5.1 provides a comparison of the two bird fairs in terms of behavioural involvement indicators and shows the results of the t-test for the equality of means in the two independent samples. The level of significance is also indicated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Comparison of the behavioural involvement of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*

BIRD FAIR	British Birdwatching Fair	Dutch *Vogelfestival*				
	Mean	Mean	t-test	df	2-tailed p-value	Sig.
Number of years involved in birding	24.16	19.73	2.683	432	0.008	***
Number of birds on the birder's life list[20]	4.94	3.36	4.027	432	0.000	***
Reading behaviour and club memberships of birders						
Number of bird field guides owned	13.02	9.83	2.352	436	0.019	**
Number of other bird books owned	43.60	33.08	1.293	436	0.196	
Number of subscriptions to birding magazines	1.46	2.18	-2.912	437	0.004	***
Number of memberships of birding organisations	2.45	1.89	2.270	437	0.024	**
Birding equipment used for the identification of birds						
Number of spotting scopes owned	1.12	0.75	3.731	437	0.000	***
Number of binoculars owned	2.08	1.80	1.999	437	0.046	**
Behaviour of birders						
Number of birding trips in the last 12 months	3.82	3.45	0.559	437	0.576	
Number of days spent birding in the last 12 months	22.84	17.39	2.378	436	0.018	**
Consumptive behaviour of birders						
Total amount (€) spent on birding in the last 12 months	3862.60	2804.00	1.813	340	0.071	*
Distance travelled to go birding (km)	17540.96	9941.98	1.137	354	0.256	

*** Significant at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)
** Significant at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)
* Significant at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.10)

[20] *Mean for number of birds on the birder's life list*: The mean represents the code in the questionnaire (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section A, Question 4*). For example, 5 (4.94) indicates an average of 401–500 birds on the bird life list.

Table 5.2 provides a comparison of the three birder types in terms of behavioural involvement indicators and the results of the ANOVA tests, which test for the equality of means across the three groups.

Table 5.2: Behavioural involvement of birders attending the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*, by birder type

BIRDER TYPE	BOTH FAIRS				ANOVA		
	Casual	*Active*	*Committed*	Total		2-tailed	
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	F-test	p-value	Sig.
Number of years involved in birding	16.43	24.51	29.28	22.80	96.215	0.000	***
Number of birds on the birders' life list[21]	1.73	5.36	6.96	4.46	4.323	0.014	**
Reading behaviour and club memberships of birders							
Number of bird field guides owned	5.03	13.40	19.94	12.04	51.048	0.000	***
Number of other bird books owned	10.19	44.05	80.18	44.81	14.327	0.000	***
Number of subscriptions to birding magazines	0.79	1.58	3.14	1.68	36.774	0.000	***
Number of memberships of birding organisations	1.17	2.37	3.74	2.28	42.674	0.000	***
Birding equipment used for the identification of birds							
Number of spotting scopes owned	0.59	1.16	1.36	1.01	25.951	0.000	***
Number of binoculars owned	1.76	2.07	2.22	2.00	4.036	0.018	**
Behaviour of birders							
Number of birding trips in the last 12 months	2.65	3.79	7.06	4.04	16.780	0.000	***
Number of days spent birding in the last 12 months	20.90	37.95	45.18	33.55	15.648	0.000	***
Consumptive behaviour of birders							
Total amount (€) spent on birding in the last 12 months	2052.13	4098.17	5254.76	3629.94	11.285	0.000	***

[21] *Mean for number of birds on the birder's life list*: The mean represents the code in the questionnaire (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section A, Question 4*).

Distance travelled to go birding (km)	8425.43	13124.31	34802.91	15794.07	10.951	0.000	***

*** Significant at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)
** Significant at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

The results of Tables 5.1 and 5.2 are discussed consecutively in the following paragraphs (5.4.1 to 5.4.6).

5.4.1 Number of years involved in birding

To determine the level of experience of the participating birders at the British and Dutch fairs, respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they had been involved in birding.

Sample results from Table 5.1 (on p. 136) indicated that respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair had been involved in birding for an average of 24 years, while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* had been involved for an average of 20 years. The results of the t-test confirm a significant difference between the means with respect to the number of years' involvement with birding for respondents at the two fairs (p = 0.008). It would seem that respondents at the British fair, which is also the older fair, had been involved in birding for longer than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. On the basis of the sample results, the assumption can therefore be made that participating birders at the British Birdwatching Fair were more experienced than those at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

Table 5.2 (on p. 137) indicates that the average number of years' involvement in birding was 23 years. *Committed* birders had been involved in birding for an average of 29 years, *active* birders for 25 years and *casual* birders for 16 years. The statistical results indicate a significant difference in means between the different birder types. The ANOVA test confirmed significant differences between the three birder types at a 1% level of significance (p = 0.000). The Post Hoc (Duncan) test was used to determine where significant differences existed, and indicated that the three types of birders differed significantly from one another (*refer to Annexure B: Post Hoc (Duncan) test*). Consistent with previous studies,

the results indicate that *committed* birders had been involved in birding significantly longer than *active* and *casual* birders, and *active* birders had been involved in birding significantly longer than *casual* birders.

5.4.2 Number of birds on the birders' life lists

Figure 5.6 indicates the percentage of birders *who keep* and *who do not keep* bird life lists for respondents at both the British and the Dutch bird fairs.

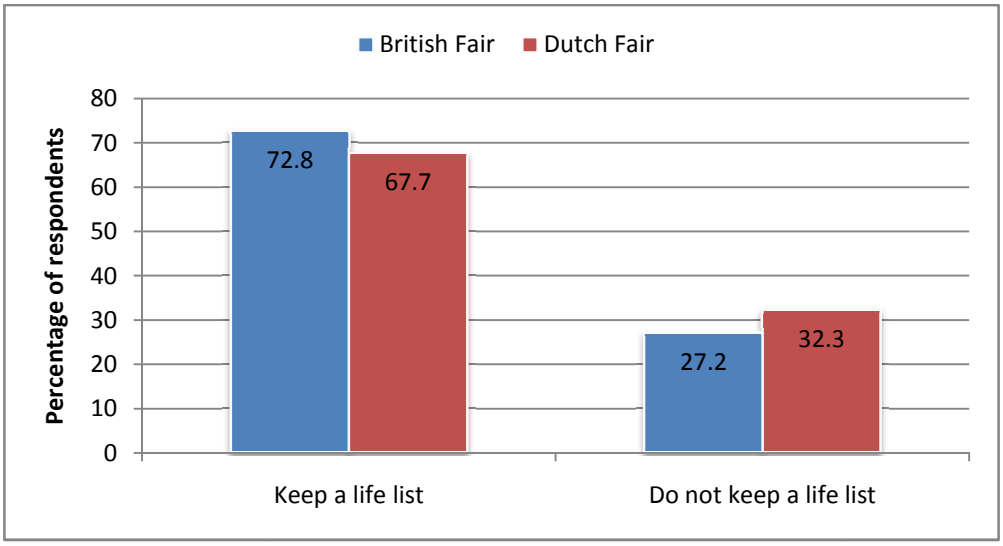

Figure 5.6: Birders at the British and Dutch bird fairs *who keep* and *who do not keep* bird life lists

The majority of respondents reported that they *do keep bird life lists*; 72.8% of those at the British Birdwatching Fair and 67.7% of those at the Dutch *Vogelfestival keep bird life lists*. Only 27.2% of participants at the British Birdwatching Fair *do not keep a life list*, while a similarly low percentage of participants at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (32.3%) also *do not keep a bird life list*. This indicates that many birders, from *casual* to *committed*, are serious enough to potentially become involved in avitourism in South Africa, and that marketing should not exclude the less serious birders in the United Kingdom or Europe.

Table 5.1 (on p. 136) indicates that respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair have an average of 401–500 birds on their life list, while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* have a mean score of 201–300 birds on their life list. The results of

the t-test indicate that there is a significant difference (p = 0.000) between the respondents who attended the two fairs. Respondents of the British Birdwatching Fair have longer life lists than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival.* The assumption can therefore be made that participating birders at the British fair were more experienced than those at the Dutch fair.

Table 5.2 (p. 137) indicates that the average number of birds on birders' life lists was 301–400 birds: 601–700 birds for *committed* birders, 401–500 for *active* birders and 101–200 for *casual* birders were reported. Significant differences were found (p = 0.014) at a 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05), and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another. The results indicate a strong correlation between the number of birds on their life list and the level of involvement of the three birder types. These findings imply that BLSA and tourism managers should have well-designed and user-friendly bird lists available for avitourists visiting South Africa.

5.4.3 Reading behaviour and club membership of birders

Respondents had to indicate the number of bird field guides and other bird books in their possession, as well as the number of subscriptions to birding magazines and memberships of birding organisations.

Table 5.1 (p. 136) indicates that respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs own an average of 13 and 10 *bird field guides* respectively. The t-test indicates a significant difference (p = 0.019) between the two bird fairs in terms of the number of field guides owned.

Respondents at the British fair owned an average of 44 *other bird books*, while respondents at the Dutch fair owned 33 *other bird books*.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair *subscribe* to an average of one birding *magazine*, while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival subscribe* to two *magazines*. The results of the t-test indicated a significant difference (p = 0.004)

between respondents who attended the British and Dutch bird fairs in terms of subscriptions to birding magazine subscriptions.

The average number of *memberships of birding organisations* for respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair was three memberships, while for respondents at the Dutch Bird Fair (Vogelfestival) it was two memberships. The results of the t-test indicated a significant difference ($p = 0.024$) between respondents who attended the two bird fairs.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair own more bird field guides and have more memberships to birding organisations than respondents who attended the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Interestingly, the respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* subscribe to more birding magazines than respondents of the British Birdwatching Fair. Media and tourism managers in South Africa should therefore ensure that good bird field guides and other bird books are available to avitourists. The fact that the British and Dutch birders subscribe to birding magazines means that BLSA could consider marketing South Africa as a birding destination in British and Dutch birding magazines.

Table 5.2 (p. 137) shows that respondents own an average of 12 *bird field guides*. The birder types own on average the following number of *bird field guides*: *committed* (20), *active* (13) and *casual* (5) birders. The ANOVA test confirmed significant differences ($p = 0.000$), and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another.

On average, respondents at both bird fairs own 45 *other bird books*. With respect to other bird books owned, *committed* birders owned 80 other bird books, followed by *active* (44) and *casual* (10) birders. The ANOVA test confirmed significant differences ($p = 0.000$), and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another. Ownership of bird books therefore appears to increase with the level of commitment.

Respondents *subscribe* to an average of two birding *magazines*. Subscriptions to birding magazines by birder types differed, with *committed* birders having an

average of three subscriptions, *active* birders two and *casual* birders one. Significant differences were found (p = 0.000), and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another.

Most respondents in the sample were *members of birding organisations*. The average number of memberships of birding organisations is two memberships. The number of memberships differed among the birder types, with *committed* birders having an average of four memberships, *active* birders two memberships and *casual* birders one membership of birding organisations. Most respondents were members of birding organisations. The number of memberships differed significantly (p = 0.000) among the birder types, and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another.

The results indicate that reading behaviour and memberships increase with the level of involvement in the birding activity.

5.4.4 Birding equipment used for the identification of birds

To capture information with respect to birding equipment, the questionnaire asked respondents to indicate the *number of spotting scopes* and *binoculars* in their possession.

Table 5.1 (p. 136) shows that respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs own an average of 1.12 and 0.75 spotting scopes and 2.08 and 1.80 binoculars respectively. The t-test indicates a significant difference (p = 0.000) for the number of spotting scopes owned and (p = 0.046) for the number of binoculars owned.

Respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair owned more birding equipment for identifying birds than respondents who attended the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. Most birders do, however, own binoculars and/or spotting scopes.

Table 5.2 (p. 137) indicates that *committed* (1.36), *active* (1.16) and *casual* (0.59) birders owned an average of one spotting scope, while *committed* (2.22), *active* (2.07) and *casual* (1.76) birders owned an average of two binoculars. The number

of items of birding equipment owned increases gradually from *casual* to *committed* birders. The ANOVA test confirms significant differences for spotting scopes (p = 0.000) and binoculars (p = 0.018). For the number of spotting scopes owned, the Post Hoc test indicated a significant difference between *casual*, *active* and *committed* birders, but there was no significant difference between *active* and *committed* birders. With respect to the number of binoculars owned, the significant difference lies between *casual* and *committed* birders and there was no significant difference between *casual* and *active* birders, or between and *active* and *committed* birders.

The sample results show that respondents own more binoculars than spotting scopes, and as the intensity level of involvement increases, so does the number of spotting scopes and binoculars. Most avitourists to South Africa will probably bring their own equipment with them, rather than buying new equipment in South Africa. Their spending while abroad will probably be more focused on birding and other tourism activities related to nature, birding books and general travelling costs, such as transport, accommodation and leisure.

5.4.5 Behaviour of birders

The birding behaviour of respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs was investigated by asking respondents to indicate:

- The number of birding trips in the 12 months prior to the study
- The numbers of days spent birding in the 12 months prior to the study.

Table 5.1 (p. 133) indicates that respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair had taken an average of *four birding trips* in the last year, while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* had taken an average of *three birding trips*. The t-test did not indicate a significant difference between the respondents of the two fairs in terms of the number of birding trips taken in the last year.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair had spent an average of *23 days* birding in the last 12 months, and respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival 17 days*.

The t-test indicated a significant difference (0.018) between the two bird fairs in terms of the number of days spend birding in the last year.

The results indicated that respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair went on more birding trips and spent more days birding than respondents who attended the Dutch *Vogelfestival.* The results suggest that there is significant potential to attract birders to South Africa, as respondents tend to take part in several birding trips annually and spend considerable time on birding trips per year.

Table 5.2 (p. 137) shows that respondents had taken an average of *four birding trips* in the last 12 months. Birder types differed in the terms of number of trips in the last 12 months: *committed* birders (7), *active* birders (4) and *casual* birders (3) trips. The ANOVA test confirmed significant differences (p = 0.000) and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another.

Overall, respondents spent an average of *34 days* birding in the last 12 months. Committed birders spent a total of *45 days* birding in the last 12 months, active birders *38 days*, and casual birders *21 days*. The ANOVA test confirmed significant differences (p = 0.000), and the Post Hoc test indicated a significant difference between *casual* birders; and *active* and *committed* birders. However, the difference between *active* and *committed* birders was not significant. The results indicate that birding behaviour, in terms of the number of trips and days spent birding, increased with the level of involvement of the three birder types.

5.4.6 Consumptive behaviour of birders

The behaviour of respondents with regard to consumption was recorded in terms of money spent on birding in the 12 months prior to the study and the distance they had travelled to go birding.

Table 5.1 (p. 136) indicates that respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* had spent an average of €3862.60 (R50 213.80) and

€2804.00 (R36 452.00) respectively on birding in the 12 months prior to the study (exchange rate [R/Euro] R13.00 (Exchange Rates - x-rates, n.d.)). These figures include accommodation, transport and incidental expenses. The t-test indicates a significant difference (p = 0.071) between the money spent by respondents who attended the two bird fairs.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair travelled more kilometres (17 540.96 km) in pursuit of their birding interest than birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (9941.98 km).

The results indicate that respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair spent on average more on birding trips and travelled further than those at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

Table 5.2 (p. 137) indicates that respondents at both bird fairs had spent an average of €3629.94 on birding in the last 12 months. The total amount of money spent by the various birder types in the last year differed as follows: *committed* birders (€5254.76 / R68 311.88), *active* birders (€4098.17 / R53 276.21) and *casual* birders (€2052.13 / R26 677.69). These figures include accommodation, transport and incidental expenses. The ANOVA-test confirmed significant differences (p = 0.000), and the Post Hoc-test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another.

On average, *committed* birders travelled more kilometres (34 802.91 km) than *active* birders (13 124.31 km) and *casual* birders (8425.43 km). Significant differences were found (p = 0.000), and the Post Hoc test indicated that the three birder types differed significantly from one another, with the kilometres travelled increasing with the level of commitment.

The results indicate that expenditure increased with the level of involvement of the three birder types. The level of involvement was also reflected in the distance respondents had travelled to go birding in the last 12 months, as *committed* birders travelled significantly further than *active* and *casual* birders.

Consistently with Scott and Thigpen (2003:207), these results confirm that *committed* birders are more intensely involved in birding than *active* birders; and *active* birders are more involved in the birding activity than *casual* birders. *Committed* birders were significantly more likely to report that they had been involved in birding for longer, had more birds on their life lists, owned more bird field guides and other bird books, had more subscriptions to birding magazines and more memberships at birding organisations, spent more days and money on birding and travelled more kilometres than *active* and *casual* birders.

5.5 RESULTS WITH RESPECT TO THE MOTIVATION FOR AVITOURISM OF RESPONDENTS AT THE BRITISH AND DUTCH BIRD FAIRS

This section deals with the second of the secondary objective of the study, to determine the *motivations* of the international avitourist (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section B*).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to test whether the categories found in exploratory research on the motivations of avitourists (Sali and Kuehn, 2007:322; Eubanks *et al*., 2004:164–165; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:211; Hvenegaard, 2002:31) could be confirmed in this study. The purpose of the CFA analysis was to evaluate whether the dimensions suggested by Sali and Kuehn (2007:322), as well as further extended variables from the work of Eubanks *et al*. (2004:164–165), Hvenegaard (2002:31) and Scott and Thigpen (2003:211) could fit the data using CFA. In the first analysis (Model 1) of the motivation of avitourists, a *strictly confirmatory approach* was used, in which a model was postulated and evaluated. Since that type of initial analysis seldom fits the data well, a *model generating approach* was adopted, resulting in Model 2, which offered a more a plausible model, and which was further refined as presented in Model 3. Model 1 is discussed next.

5.5.1 Model 1: Initial factorial structure

Initial factors and items were derived from the literature. The five categories motivating avitourists to participate in the birding activity were identified by Sali

and Kuehn (2007:318), and corresponding items were taken from various authors, including Eubanks *et al*., 2004:164–165, Hvenegaard, 2002:31, Scott *et al*., 1999:69 and McFarlane, 1994:365). Table 5.3 summarises the initial factorial structure used to measure the motivation of avitourists (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section B*)

Table 5.3: Initial factorial structure used to measure the motivation of international avitourists

Emotional	
B1	Enjoying the sight and sound of birds
B14	Contributing to the conservation of birds
B15	Being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment
B17	Enjoying something that is fun, challenging and exciting
B19	Relaxing and escaping from everyday activities
Intellectual	
B3	Seeing new or rare species of birds
B5	Adding more birds to my life list
B6	Studying bird behaviour and bird migration
B7	Studying birds in their natural habitat
B8	Improving my bird identification skills
B9	Sharing my knowledge of birds with others
B2	Seeing as many bird species as possible
B4	Seeing many bird species not seen before
Social	
B16	Competing with other birders
B23	Being with friends
B24	Meeting new people with similar interests
B35	Being with family
Spiritual	
B11	Experiencing the peace that birding provides
B12	Connecting with nature or creation
B22	Renewing or refreshing my spiritual self
B29	Communing with nature
B13	To be alone at times
B26	Escaping from the demands of life
Photography	

B10	Photographing birds
B18	Taking unusual photos or videos of birds
B32	Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife
B34	Specialising in birdlife photography
Exercise	
B36	The physical exercise that goes with birding
B21	Getting out in the fresh air and exercising
B28	Walking in and experiencing natural habitats
Other interests	
B20	Travelling to different places never visited before
B25	Visiting places of historical importance
B27	Seeing other places
B30	Seeing many interesting places apart from birding interests
B31	Visiting battlefields of interest
B33	Visiting places of unusual natural beauty

In CFA, the theory comes *first*; hence, the outline of the initial factors and items used in the questionnaire, as found in the literature, are provided in Table 5.3. *Secondly*, the model is derived from theory. Model 1, as derived from the literature, is illustrated and discussed next.

Figure 5.7 illustrates Model 1 as originally postulated with respect to the factors underlying the motivation of international avitourists.

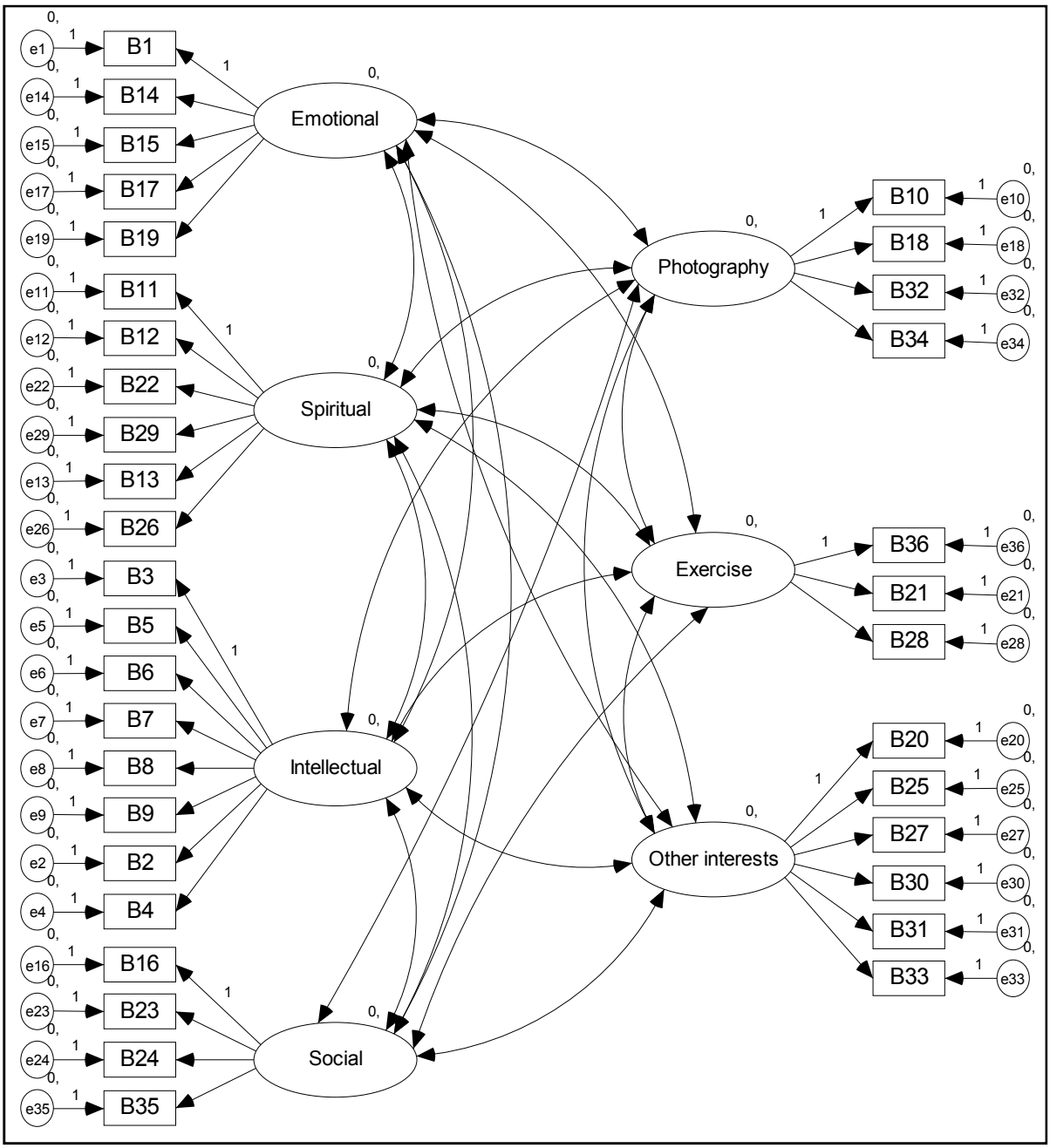

Figure 5.7: Model 1 as originally postulated with respect to factors underlying avitourists' motivation

In Figure 5.7, the model was initially presented using B1–B36 for the observed variables, e1–e36 for the error terms associated with the observed variables, and

the seven factors for the latent variables.[22] Variables, error variances and the seven factors are all model parameters (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:96). *Finally*, the model is tested for consistency with the observed data using a structural equation modelling (SEM) approach. For the purposes of model identification, the first indicator of each factor was fixed to 1.0. At the final stage, all parameters for the model were reported. The model is then evaluated by goodness-of-fit indices to test whether the proposed model emulates the sample matrix (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:95).

Table 5.4 provide the goodness-of-fit indices of measurement Model 1.

Table 5.4: Goodness-of-fit indices of Model 1

Model	CMIN (X^2)	df	p	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	IFI
Goodness-of-fit indices	2331.8	573	0.000	4.070	0.084	0.757	0.733	0.759
Indicate good fit	-	-	-	<3	<0.07	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90

When the seven factor first-order model was fitted to the data, the model did not fit the data very well. The CMIN/df ratio (4.070) which was more than 3 did not indicate a good fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), RMSEA should ideally be below 0.05 for a good fit, and the upper limit of the 90% confidence interval of RMSEA below 0.07 to indicate good fit. Therefore, the RMSEA (0.084), with the lower and upper 90% confidence interval ranging between 0.080 and 0.087, indicates that the model does not fit the data well. Similarly, CFI, TLI and IFI should be above 0.90 for acceptable fit, and above 0.95 for a very good fit. The CFI (0.757), TLI (0.733) and IFI (0.759) were all smaller than 0.90 which also

[22] '*Latent variables'* are "theoretical or hypothetical constructs of major importance in many sciences and typically, there is no direct method for measuring it. Manifestations of a construct can be observed by measuring specific features for the behaviour (such as motivation) on a set of subjects in a particular environment" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000:1).

indicates that the model did not fit the data well at all. When these fit indices are considered, Model 1 presented an unsatisfactory fit with the observed data. A refinement of Model 1 is discussed in the next section.

5.5.2 Model 2: A first-order CFA model for international avitourist motivation

In order to improve on Model 1, a model generating approach was followed in Model 2. Figure 5.8 shows an improved first-order CFA model of motivation for avitourists.

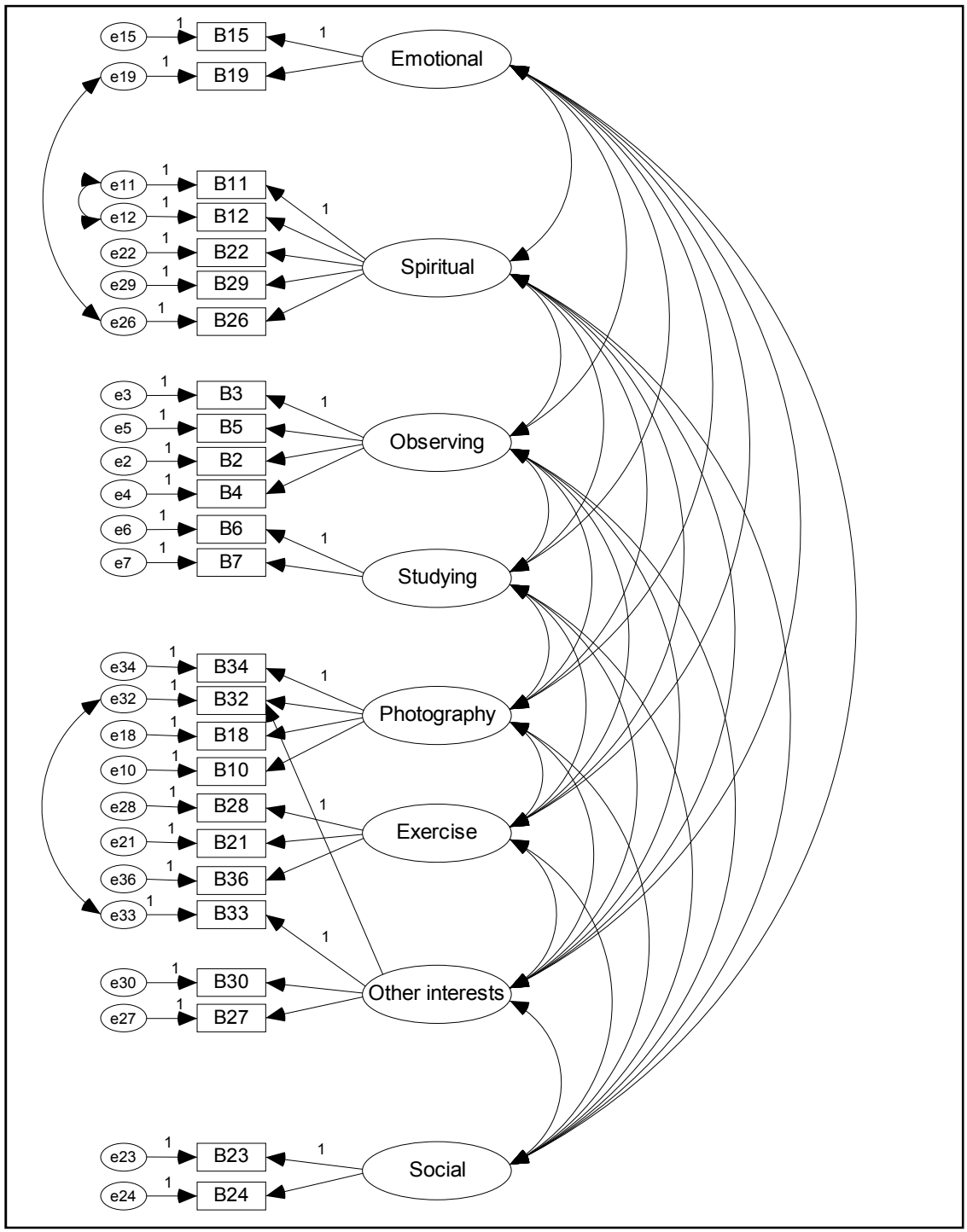

Figure 5.8: An eight factor first-order CFA model for international avitourists' motivation

In generating the model, each of the factors was examined. It emerged that the 'Intellectual' factor could be split into two factors, namely 'Observing' birds and their behaviour, and 'Studying', which related to a deeper level than mere observation of birds. Items with very low estimated squared multiple correlations,

which meant that the indicator variable had little in common with the other indicator variables, were excluded in the model. The final model (Model 2) comprised an eight-dimensional first-order confirmatory factor analysis model, as shown in Figure 5.8.

Model 2 indicates that the *emotional construct* was measured by two manifest variables (B15, B19), the *spiritual construct* by five variables (B11, B12, B22, B29, B26), the *observation construct* by four variables (B3, B5, B2, B4), the *studying construct* by two variables (B6, B7), the *photography construct* by four variables (B34, B32, B18, B10), the *exercise construct* by three variables (B28, B21, B36), the *other interests construct* by four variables (B32, B33, B30, B27), and the *social construct* by two manifest variables (B23, B24) (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section B for variables labels*).

Furthermore, modification indices were studied, and where theoretically justified, additional path coefficients or covariances between measurement errors were included in the model. The modification indices suggested that a regression path be added between 'Other interests' and item B32 ('Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife'). This results in item B32 becoming an indicator of both 'Photography' and 'Other interests', and since it made sense from the item content, the path was included in the model. Modification indices further showed that the measurement errors e11 and e12 were correlated, as were e19 and e26, as well as e32 and e33. The corresponding items were B11 ('Experiencing the peace that birding provides') and B12 ('Connecting with nature and creation'). Since these items were adjacent in the questionnaire, and were measuring the same construct, it is conceivable that measurement errors could be correlated. The same argument could be followed for e32 and e33, which correspond to items B32 ('Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife') and B33 ('Visiting places of unusual natural beauty'). Although these two items were initially considered to be associated with the same first-order construct, the correlated errors are understandable. It would not be possible to take photographs of natural beauty without visiting such places.

The estimates of each parameter of Model 2 are summarised in Annexure C (refer to Annexure C1: CFA). The tables indicate that all the estimated regression coefficients are highly significant, and the estimated covariances have signs that make sense from a theoretical perspective. Table 5.5 provides the goodness-of-fit indices of measurement Model 2.

Table 5.5: Goodness-of-fit indices of Model 2

Model	CMIN (X^2)	df	p	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	IFI
Goodness of fit indices	588.942	243	0.000	2.424	0.057	0.937	0.923	0.938
Indicate good fit	-	-	-	<3	<0.07	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90

When the eight factor first-order model was fitted to the data, the goodness-of-fit supported the measurement model. The CMIN/df ratio (2.424) was less than 3, which indicated a good fit. The RMSEA (0.057) was smaller than 0.07 and fitted the model well. The CFI (0.937), TLI (0.923) and IFI (0.938) were all larger than 0.90, which provided evidence that the model fitted very well. From the fit indices, it can be seen that Model 2 provides a significant improvement over Model 1 in representing the factors underlying the motivation of avitourists.

Although Model 2 provides an adequate explanation of the factors underlying avitourists' motivation, the many covariances between the first-order latent variables are cumbersome to interpret. In order to further simplify the relationships between the latent variables, a second-order confirmatory factor analysis was fitted, which models the first-order latent variables, as found in Model 2, emanating from three second-order factors. Model 3 is discussed in the next section.

5.5.3 Model 3: A second-order CFA model for avitourist motivation

A further explanation of the first-order factors in terms of second-order factors would be helpful in further simplifying the model. It emerged that three second-order factors are useful in explaining a deeper level of factors that may underlie the motivation and behaviour of avitourists, namely, being '*Wellbeing*', '*Intellectual*' and '*Engagement*'. Figure 5.9 shows a second-order confirmatory factor analysis of the motivation of avitourists.

In the second-order model, three new motivators were created that act as second-order factors, namely wellbeing-, intellectual- and engagement-related motivators. *Wellbeing* consists of four dimensions of wellbeing as first-order factors, namely social, emotional, spiritual and exercise motivations. The model also indicates that the social construct was measured by two manifest variables (B23, B24), the emotional construct by two variables (B15, B19), the spiritual construct by six variables (B11, B12, B22, B29, B13, B26) and the exercise construct by three variables (B28, B21, B36). The *intellectual* motivator consists of two first-order factors, including observing and studying. The observation construct was measured by four manifest variables (B3, B5, B2, B4) and the studying construct by two variables (B6, B7). The last second-order factor, *engagement*, consists of two first-order factors, namely, photography and other interests. The photography construct was measured by four manifest variables (B34, B32, B18, B10), whereas the 'other interests' construct was indicated by three variables (B33, B30, B27) (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section B for variables labels*).

The second-order model shows the relative weight of each of the eight dimensions on the three higher-order dimensions representing avitourist motivation. The estimates of each parameter of Model 3 are summarised in Annexure C (*refer to Annexure C2: CFA*). The tables indicate that all the estimated regression coefficients are highly significant, and the estimated covariances have signs that make sense from a theoretical perspective.

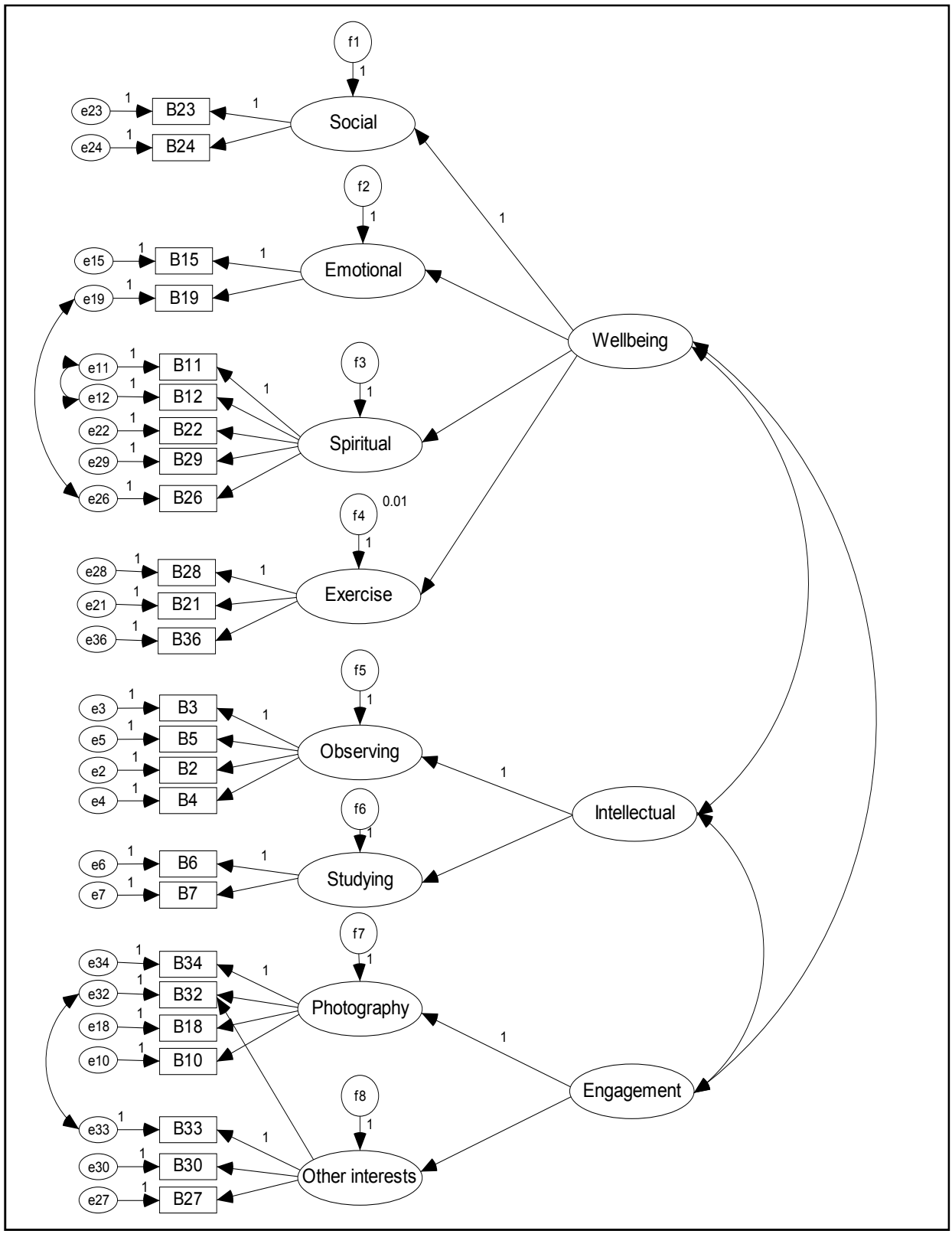

Figure 5.9: Model 3: A second-order CFA model of international avitourist motivation

Table 5.6 provides the goodness-of-fit indices of measurement Model 3.

Table 5.6: Goodness-of-fit indices of Model 3

Model	CMIN (X^2)	df	p	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	IFI
Goodness of fit indices	658.597	261	.000	2.523	0.059	0.928	0.917	0.928
Indicate good fit	-	-	-	<3	<0.07	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90

When the eight factor second-order model was fitted to the data, the goodness-of-fit supported the measurement model. The CMIN/df ratio (2.523) was less than 3, which indicated a good fit. The RMSEA (0.059) was smaller than 0.07 and fitted the model well. The CFI (0.928), TLI (0.917) and IFI (0.928) were all larger than 0.90, which provided evidence that the model fitted very well. The overall goodness-of-fit of the second-order CFA was almost as satisfactory as the first-order model. However, the added simplicity of the model is appealing in that the motivation of birders can be reduced to fewer higher-order dimensions.

Reliability was assessed for the final model. Table 5.7 indicates reliability statistics for second-order constructs in Model 3.

Table 5.7: Cronbach's alpha for second-order constructs of Model 3

Second-order constructs	N of Items	Cronbach's alpha (>0.70)
Wellbeing	12	0.891
Intellectual	6	0.773
Engagement	7	0.835

In Table 5.7, each factor demonstrates acceptable internal consistency, as illustrated by Cronbach's alpha coefficients, with wellbeing (0.891), intellectual

(0.773) and engagement (0.835). Reliability statistics of all items in Model 3 are summarised in Annexure C (*refer to Annexure C3: CFA*).

The results confirm a second-order CFA model of avitourist motivation. The results show three new constructs that can explain avitourist motivation, namely *wellbeing*, *intellectual* activity and *engagement* in avitourism. This new information could be regarded as the academic contribution of this study to the existing literature. More detail on motivation factors for birding is given next.

Eight first-order factors, based on the CFA model, are discussed to provide more detail on the motivation of international avitourists. The eight factors that were identified as important motivators for birding activities are illustrated in Figure 5.10. Table 5.8 indicates the items of each factor and the means for the British and Dutch bird fairs respectively.

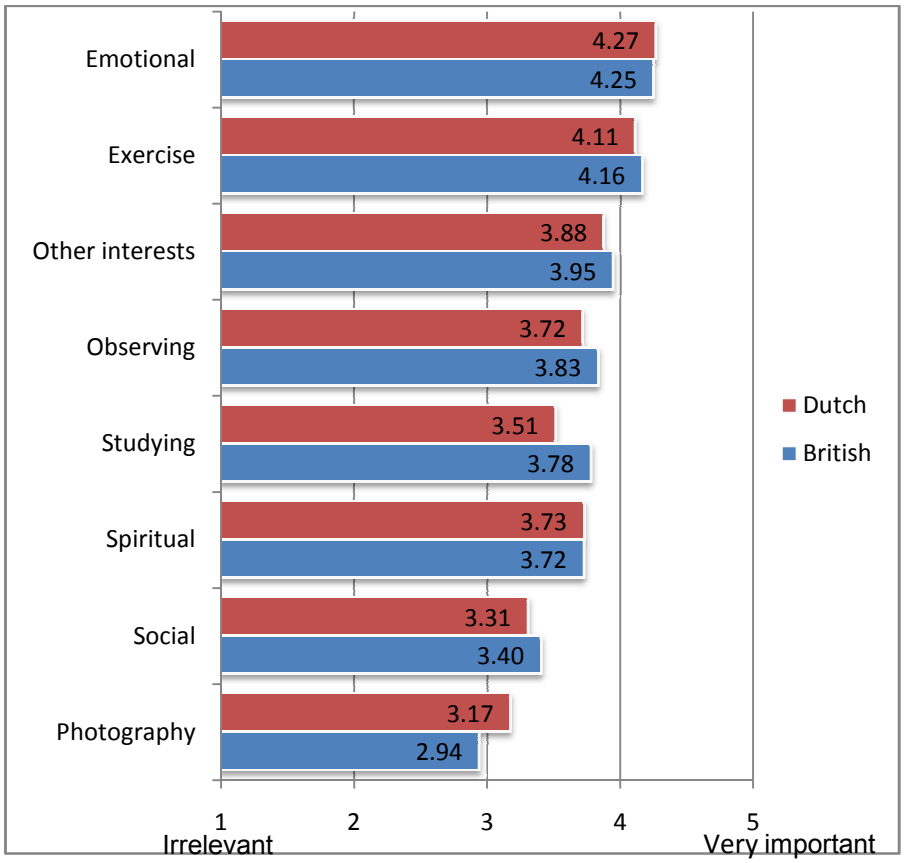

Figure 5.10: Motivation factors for birding among respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

Figure 5.10 illustrates that the emotional aspects of birding for both British (4.25) and Dutch (4.27) birders were the most important motivation for birding. Table 5.8 indicates that the most important emotional aspects of birding for British fair respondents were enjoying the sight and sound of birds (4.61), followed by being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment (4.56). For Dutch fair respondents, being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment (4.54) and enjoying the sight and sound of birds (4.48) were the most important emotional motivations for birding. Contributing to the conservation of birds was important to respondents at both the British and Dutch bird fairs. However, it is interesting to note that British respondents considered this to be more important than Dutch respondents.

The exercise that birding provides was the second most important motivation for birding (Figure 5.10). Table 5.8 shows that the most important motivation in this category for both British (4.22) and Dutch (4.17) bird fair respondents was walking in and experiencing natural habitats. Another important motivation was getting out in the fresh air and exercising. It is interesting to note that the physical exercise should be combined with the natural environment and fresh air.

Other interests were also important motivating factors for birding. Travelling to different places never visited before, seeing other places and visiting places of unusual natural beauty were important further interests for both British and Dutch fair respondents. Visiting places of historical importance was rated neutrally, while battlefields were unimportant to participants at both fairs.

The least important motivator for birding was photographing birds, and respondents at both fairs rated birding photography as a neutral motivation for birding. Photographing birds was more important to Dutch than to British fair respondents.

Table 5.8: Items and means of each motivation factor for the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*

	WELLBEING				INTELLECTUAL		ENGAGEMENT	
	Social	**Emotional**	**Spiritual**	**Exercise that birding provides**	**Observing birds**	**Studying birds**	**Photographing birds**	**Other interests**
Items used to construct a factor and means for British and Dutch bird fairs respectively	23 Being with friends (3.41 / 3.35)	1 Enjoying sight and sound of birds (4.61 / 4.48)	12 Connecting with nature or creation (4.08 / 4.05)	28 Walking in and experiencing natural habitats (4.22 / 4.17)	4 Seeing many bird species not seen before (3.93 / 3.84)	7 Studying birds in their natural habitat (4.03 / 3.87)	32 Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife (3.33 / 3.50)	20 Travelling to different places never visited before (4.15 / 3.95)
	24 Meeting new people with similar interests (4.40 / 3.26)	15 Being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment (4.56 / 4.54)	11 Experiencing the peace that birding provides (4.03 / 3.90)	21 Getting out in the fresh air and exercising (4.10 / 4.06)	3 Seeing new or rare species of birds (3.89 / 3.77)	8 Improving my bird identification skills (4.06 / 3.63)	10 Photographing birds (3.19 / 3.40)	27 Seeing other places (4.07 / 3.96)
	35 Being with family (2.99 / 2.93)	14 Contributing to the conservation of birds (4.18 / 3.87)	29 Communing with nature (3.78 / 3.80))	36 The physical exercise that goes with birding (3.42 / 3.23)	2 Seeing as many bird species as possible (3.66 / 3.54)	9 Sharing my knowledge of birds with others (3.49 / 3.42)	18 Taking unusual photos or videos of birds (2.68 / 3.02)	33 Visiting places of unusual natural beauty (4.05 / 3.98)
	16 Competing with other birders (1.57 / 1.89)	19 Relaxing and escaping from everyday activities (3.95 / 4.00)	13 Being alone at times (3.25 / 3.51)		5 Adding more birds to my life list (3.21 / 3.07)	6 Studying bird behaviour and bird migration (3.52 / 3.16)	34 Specialising in birdlife photography (2.64 / 2.83)	30 Seeing many interesting places apart from birding interests (3.82 / 3.80)
		17 Enjoying something that is fun, challenging and exciting (3.74 / 3.60)	22 Renewing or refreshing my spiritual self (3.30 / 3.12)					25 Visiting places of historical importance (3.21 / 3.07)
								31 Visiting battlefields of interests (2.12 / 2.53)
Mean	**3.40 / 3.31**	**4.25 / 4.27**	**3.72 / 3.73**	**4.16 / 4.11**	**3.83 / 3.72**	**3.78 / 3.51**	**2.94 / 3.17**	**3.95 / 3.88**

In Figure 5.11, the eight motivators for birding are illustrated separately for *casual*, *active* and *committed* birders, and Table 5.9 indicates the items of each factor and the means for the three birder types.

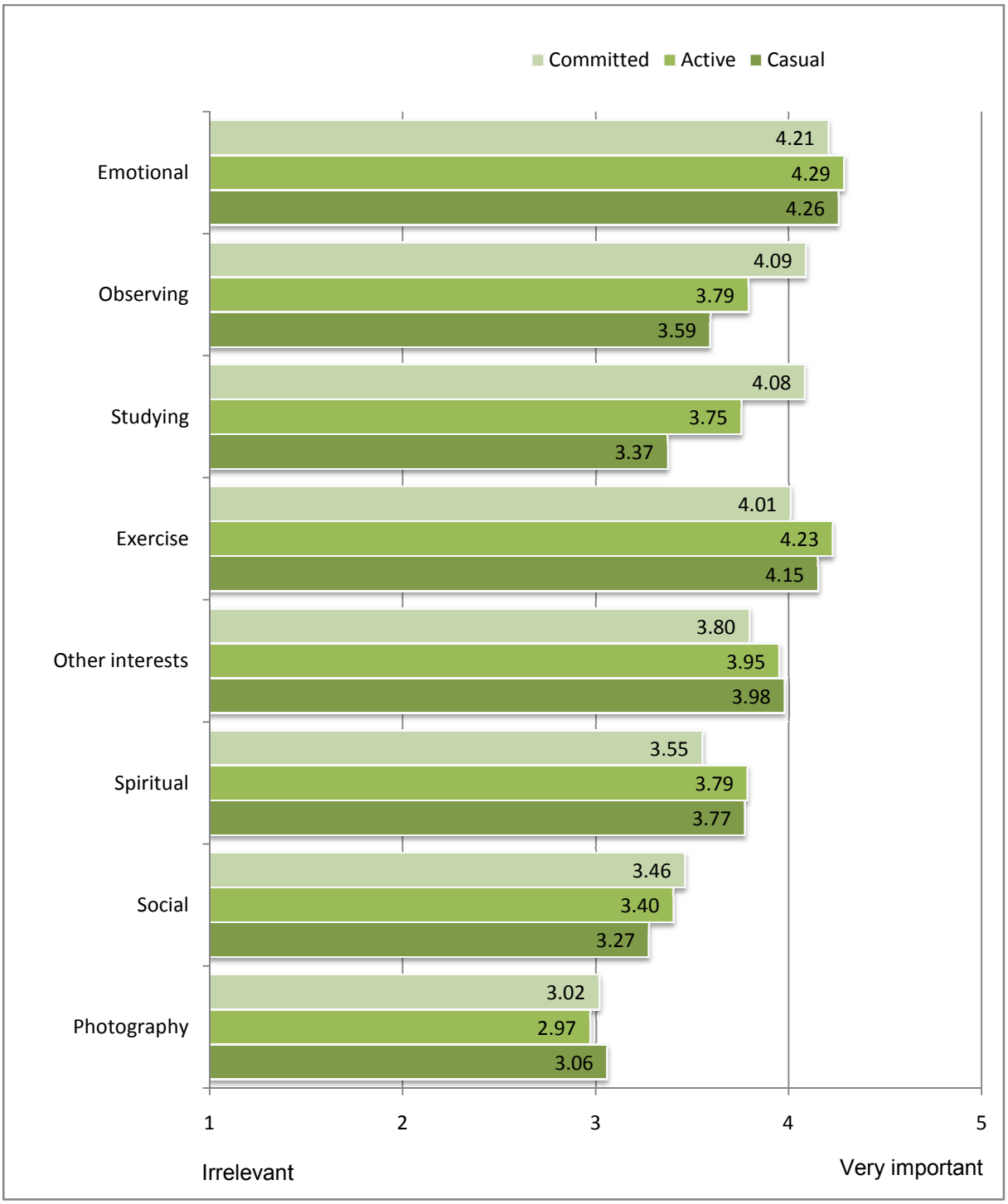

Figure 5.11: Motivation factors for birding by birder type (*Casual, active* and *committed birders*

Table 5.9: Items and means of each motivation factor, by birder type (*Casual, active* and *committed birders*)

	WELLBEING				INTELLECTUAL		ENGAGEMENT	
	Social	**Emotional**	**Spiritual**	**Exercise that birding provides**	**Observing birds**	**Studying birds**	**Photographing birds**	**Other interests**
Items used to construct a factor and means for birder types: *committed, active* and *casual* birders respectively	23 Being with friends (3.39 / 3.39 / 3.40))	1 Enjoying sight and sound of birds (4.66 / 4.62 / 4.45)	12 Connecting with nature or creation (3.86 / 4.19 / 4.10)	28 Walking in and experiencing natural habitats (4.14 / 4.30 / 4.16)	4 Seeing many bird species not seen before (4.16 / 3.89 / 3.72)	7 Studying birds in their natural habitat (3.89 / 3.59 / 3.05)	32 Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife (3.32 / 3.29 / 3.53)	20 Travelling to different places never visited before (4.28 / 4.19 / 3.84)
	24 Meeting new people with similar interests (3.54 / 3.42 / 3.15)	15 Being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment (4.57 / 4.65 / 4.44)	11 Experiencing the peace that birding provides (3.90 / 4.10 / 3.94)	21 Getting out in the fresh air and exercising (3.89 / 4.16 / 4.14)	3 Seeing new or rare species of birds (4.14 / 3.83 / 3.65)	8 Improving my bird identification skills (4.24 / 4.01 / 3.63)	10 Photographing birds (3.21 / 3.22 / 3.33)	27 Seeing other places (4.05 / 4.04 / 4.03)
	35 Being with family (2.75 / 2.99)	14 Contributing to the conservation of birds (4.36 / 4.16 / 3.82.)	29 Communing with nature (3.50 / 3.93 / 3.83)	36 The physical exercise that goes with birding (3.82 / 3.40 / 3.37)	2 Seeing as many bird species as possible (3.92 / 3.62 / 3.41)	9 Sharing my knowledge of birds with others (4.20 / 4.05 /.3.76)	18 Taking unusual photos or videos of birds (2.80 / 2.74 / 2.83)	33 Visiting places of unusual natural beauty (3.93 / 4.04 / 4.08)
	16 Competing with other birders (1.88 / 1.66 / 1.53)	19 Relaxing and escaping from everyday activities (3.86 / 3.93 / 4.08)	13 Being alone at times (3.21 / 3.33 / 3.42)		5 Adding more birds to my life list (3.81 / 3.23 / 2.65)	6 Studying bird behaviour and bird migration (3.96 / 3.45 / 2.98)	34 Specialising in birdlife photography (2.90 / 2.70 / 2.58)	30 Seeing many interesting places apart from birding interests (3.56 / 3.86 / 3.93)
		17 Enjoying something that is fun, challenging and exciting (3.91 / 3.68 / 3.57)	22 Renewing or refreshing my spiritual self (3.02 / 3.22 / 3.24)					25 Visiting places of historical importance (2.90 / 3.17 / 3.34)
								31 Visiting battlefields of interests (1.95 / 2.24 / 2.46)
Mean	**3.46 / 3.40 / 3.27**	**4.21 / 4.29 / 4.26**	**3.55 / 3.79 / 3.77**	**4.01 / 4.23 / 4.15**	**4.09 / 3.79 / 3.59**	**4.08 / 3.75 / 3.37**	**3.02, 2.97, 3.06**	**3.80 / 3.95 / 3.98**

Figure 5.11 indicates that all *birder types* find emotional aspects the most important motivation for birding. Table 5.9 shows more detailed results. The most important emotional motivators for all birder types are enjoying the sight and sound of birds, with the different birder types scoring as follows: *committed* (4.66), *active* (4.62) and *casual* (4.45). An interesting observation is that *casual* (4.08) birders find relaxing and escaping from everyday activities more important than *active* (3.93) and *committed* (3.86) birders. Contributing to the conservation of birds is more important to *committed* birders (4.36) than to *active* birders (4.16), followed by *casual* birders (3.82).

Observing birds is also an important motivation for birding activities (Figure 5.11). Table 5.9 indicates that the most important motivation in terms of observing birds is seeing many bird species not seen before: *committed* (4.16), *active* (3.89) and *casual* (3.72) birders. This is followed by seeing new or rare species of birds: *committed* (4.14), *active* (3.83) and *casual* (3.65). Adding more birds to the bird life list is the least important motivation; however, it is interesting to note that *committed* (3.81) birders rate this as important, while *active* (3.23) birders rate it as neutral and for *casual* (2.65) birders it is unimportant. In general, observing birds was a more important motivation for *committed* birders than for *active* and *casual* birders.

Table 5.9 indicates that all aspects related to studying birds and bird behaviour are more important for *committed* birders than for *active* and *casual* birders. The results indicate that *committed* and *active* birders are more interested in studying birds, while *casual* birders are more interested in enjoying the birds.

The exercise that birding provides is more important to *active* and *casual* birders than to *committed* birders. The most important motivation to the three birder types was walking in and experiencing natural habitats: *active* (4.30), *casual* (4.16) and *committed* (4.14).

Travelling to different places never visited before was more important to *committed* birders than to *active* and *casual* birders. Other activities such as visiting places of historical importance, although rated neutrally, were more

important motivations for *casual* and *active* birders than for *committed* birders. It was to be expected that birders that visited the fairs would consider motivations related to birding activities as important. This is especially true for the *committed* birder, while *active* and *casual* birders would consider other activities, including social and cultural activities, also as important motivations.

As mentioned previously, photographing birds was the least important motivation for birding for the three birder types (Figure 5.11). Although birding photography was rated neutrally by the three birder types, the most important motivation in this category for *casual* (3.53), *committed* (3.32) and *active* (3.29) birders was photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife. It is interesting to note that in this case, most aspects related to photographing birds were more important to *casual* birders that to *active* and *committed* birders, with the exception of the few *committed* birders who also specialise in bird photography. Bird photography could be considered as a more specialised activity, in which only a very small group of tourists would become seriously involved. Birding habits and preferences are discussed in the next section.

5.6 RESULTS OF AVITOURIST' PREFERENCES OF RESPONDENTS AT THE BRITISH AND DUTCH BIRD FAIRS

Birding habits and preferences could assist in developing avitourism products to fulfil the needs of particular birders and help plan for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination. This links to the second secondary objective of the study – To determine the *preferences* of the international avitourist (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section A5, C, D, and E*). The next sections (5.6.1–5.6.6) discuss the following issues consecutively: travel preferences when birding; attributes at the birding destination; other activities when on a birding trip; important facilities and infrastructure when on a birding trip; accommodation preferences of avitourists; and birders' access to and use of Internet facilities.

5.6.1 Travel preferences when birding

Birders' travel preferences are discussed in terms of the preferred means way of travelling and preferences with respect to group size when on a birding trip. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they prefer to travel independently, or as part of an organised birding tour. The responses are shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Preferred way of travelling when on a birding trip

Travel preference	British fair (%)	Dutch fair (%)
Organised birding tour	32.6	22.7
Independently	67.4	77.3

Most of the birders at the British Birdwatching Fair (67.4%) and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (77.3%) who participated in the survey would prefer an independent travel programme. Only 32.6% and 22.7% of the respondents at each fair respectively would want to travel with an organised birding tour. According to 7979Buhalis (2001:71), tourism demand is changing towards a new type of activity in which the individuality and independence of the tourist is becoming increasingly important. Provision for independent travel programmes is therefore important to the birding industry in South Africa. Birder preferences with regard to group size are discussed next. Figure 5.12 shows respondents' preferences with respect to group size when on a birding trip.

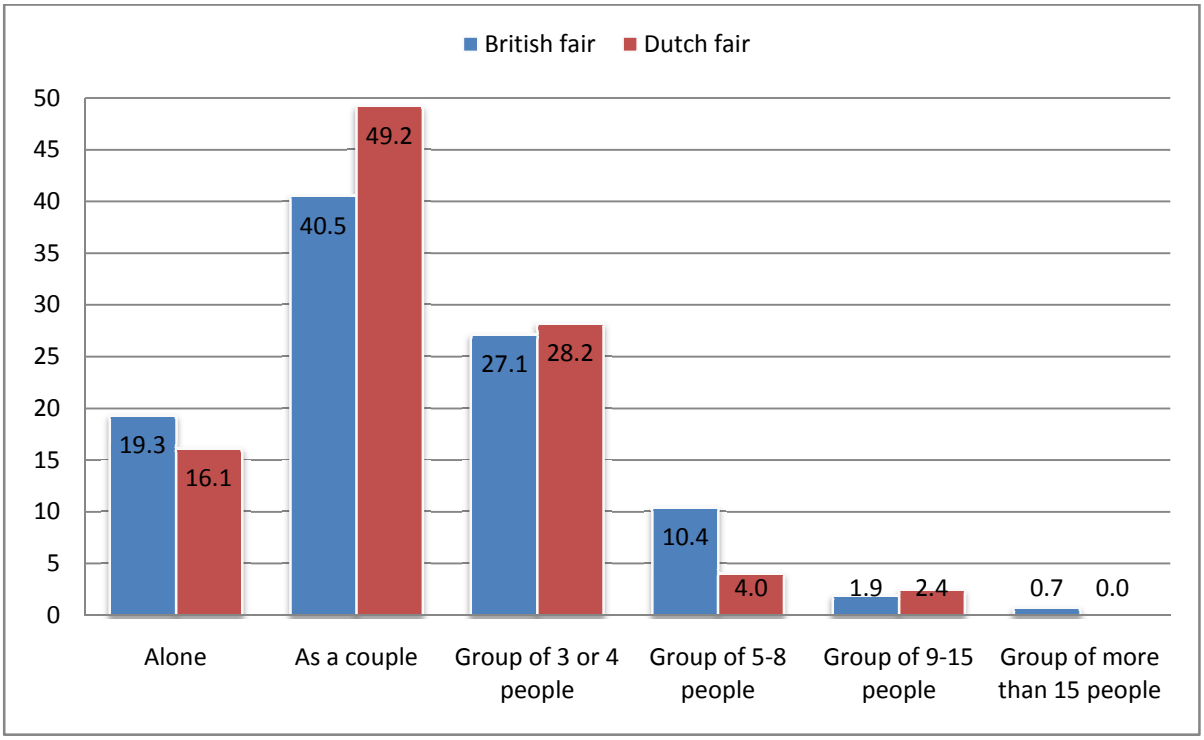

Figure 5.12: Birder preferences regarding group size when on a birding trip

As Figure 5.12 indicates, most of the respondents at the British and Dutch Bird fairs (40.5% and 49.2% respectively) prefer to go birding as a couple, and 27.1% of the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and 28.2% of participants at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* typically watch birds in a group consisting of 3 or 4 people. Almost 20% of the respondents at the British fair and more than 16% of the participants at the Dutch fair generally go birding on their own. Very few respondents participate in birding in a group of more than 8 people.

On the basis of the sample results, it can be assumed that birders do most of their birding as a couple, in a group consisting of 3 or 4 people, or alone. Birders generally prefer not to travel in larger groups of more than 8 people. This could be an important factor when BLSA or tour operators conduct birding marketing and plan birding tours.

5.6.2 Attributes at the birding destination

There are certain aspects that are vital in making birding trips a worthwhile experience. Birders at both the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* that participated in the survey had to indicate the importance they

attach to aspects such as the attributes of the birding destination, activities, facilities, infrastructure and accommodation. This was done by means of a Likert scale of 1 to 5. The mean score of all respondents at each bird fair was calculated for each item in the questionnaire corresponding to the above-mentioned aspects. Figure 5.13 indicates the importance of various attributes of the birding destination for respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs.

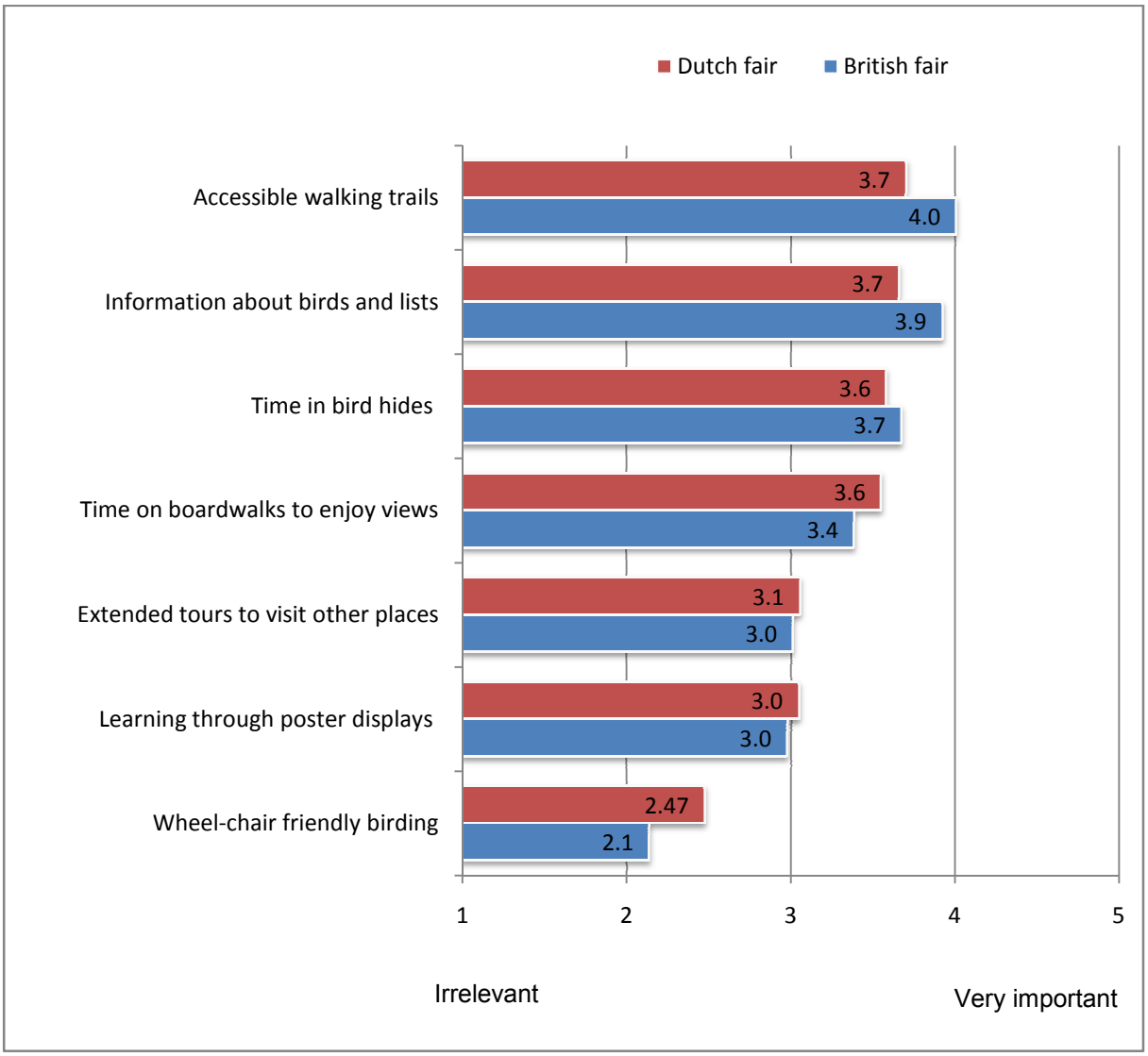

Figure 5.13: Mean scores of respondents with regard to the importance of various attributes of the birding destination

Figure 5.13 shows that respondents at both bird fairs indicated that an *accessible walking trail* is the most important attribute at the birding destination (mean scores of 4.0 and 3.7 respectively at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch

Vogelfestival. Participating birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (3.7), as well as those at the British Birdwatching Fair (3.9), considered *detailed information about birds* common in the area and the availability of bird lists to be the second most important attribute. *To spend time in bird hides* was considered as being the third most important aspect when birding – respondents at both the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (3.6) and British Birdwatching Fair (3.7) indicated a mean score above 3.5.

Participating birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* considered it important to *spend time on boardwalks enjoying the view*, while participants at the British Birdwatching Fair were neutral in this regard.

Respondents at both fairs were undecided whether the opportunity of *extended tours to visit other places of interest* was important or not. Respondents also took a neutral stance with regard to *learning opportunities* through poster displays, while *wheel-chair friendly birding opportunities* were rated as unimportant attributes by respondents.

The most important attributes at the birding destination were reported to be *accessible walking trails*, *information about birds and bird lists*, *time in bird hides*, as well as *time on boardwalks to enjoy views*. BLSA could use this information in developing or improving birding product offerings in South Africa.

5.6.3 Participation in other activities when on a birding trip

Figure 5.14 indicates the results in terms of the importance attached to various other activities in which birders can participate when they are on a birding trip. The mean importance scores are displayed separately for respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

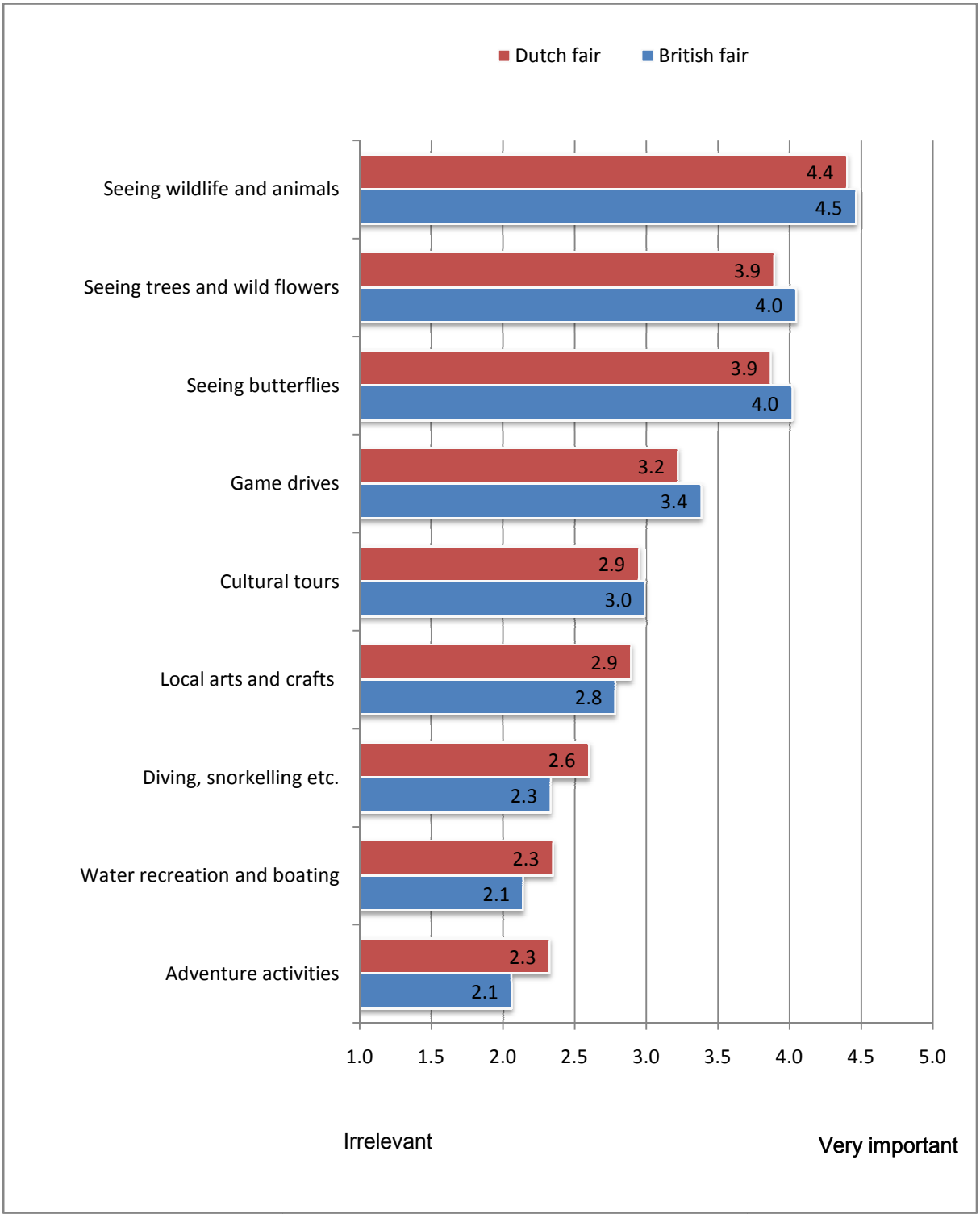

Figure 5.14: Mean scores of respondents with regard to the importance of participation in various other activities when on a birding trip, by bird fair

Respondents at both fairs rated *seeing wildlife and other animals*; as well as *trees, wild flowers and butterflies* as the most important other activities when on a birding trip. These activities are closely related and take place in the natural environment.

Respondents regard activities such as game drives, cultural tours and experiencing local arts and crafts as neutral, that is, neither important nor unimportant.

With a mean score of 2.6, participating birders who attended the British Birdwatching Fair rated diving, snorkelling and beach activities as neutral, while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* allocated a mean rating of 2.3 to these activities, indicating these as unimportant.

Respondents at both bird fairs gave mean scores of below 2.5 to water recreation, boating and adventure activities, thus indicating that they consider such activities as unimportant.

The research results indicate that it is not particularly important to include other activities, such as cultural tours, in a birding trip. BLSA should note that other activities, such as local arts and crafts, tend to be more important to *casual* birders than to *active* and *committed* birders. Figure 5.15 shows these results and indicates the importance of various activities for the three birder types when on a birding trip.

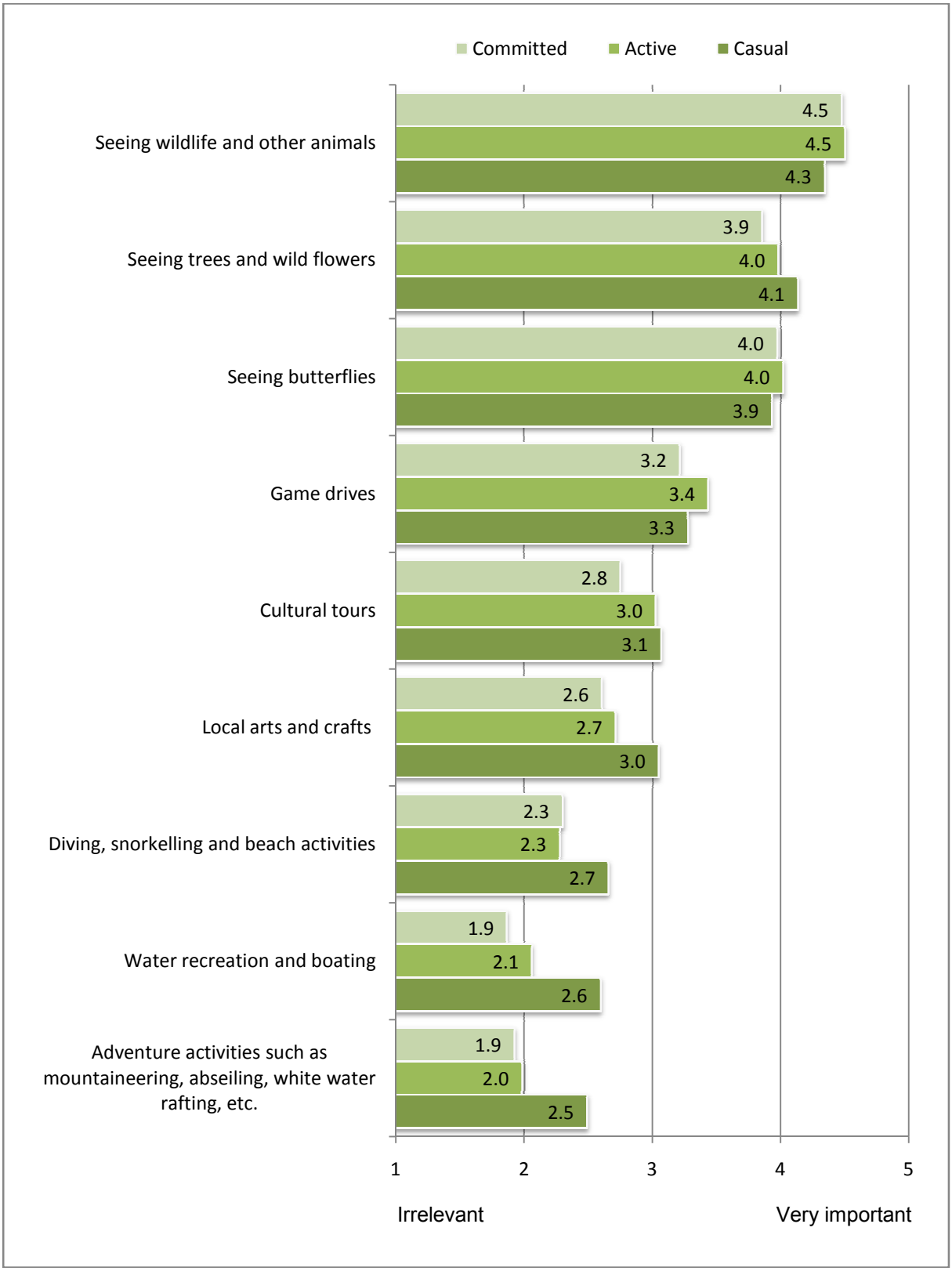

Figure 5.15: Mean scores for the three birder types with regard to the importance of participation in various other activities when on a birding trip

The most important other activity for *committed* (4.5), *active* (4.5) and *casual* (4.3) birders was seeing wildlife and other animals. Seeing trees and wild flowers, as well as butterflies, was another important activity for all three birder types. All three birder types considered diving, snorkelling and beach activities; water recreation and boating; as well as adventure activities to be unimportant. It should be noted that these activities are more important to *casual* birders than to *active* and *committed* birders.

5.6.4 Facilities used and infrastructure available when on a birding trip

Figure 5.16 presents the mean importance scores of respondents at each of the birding fairs in terms of facilities used and infrastructure available at the birding destination.

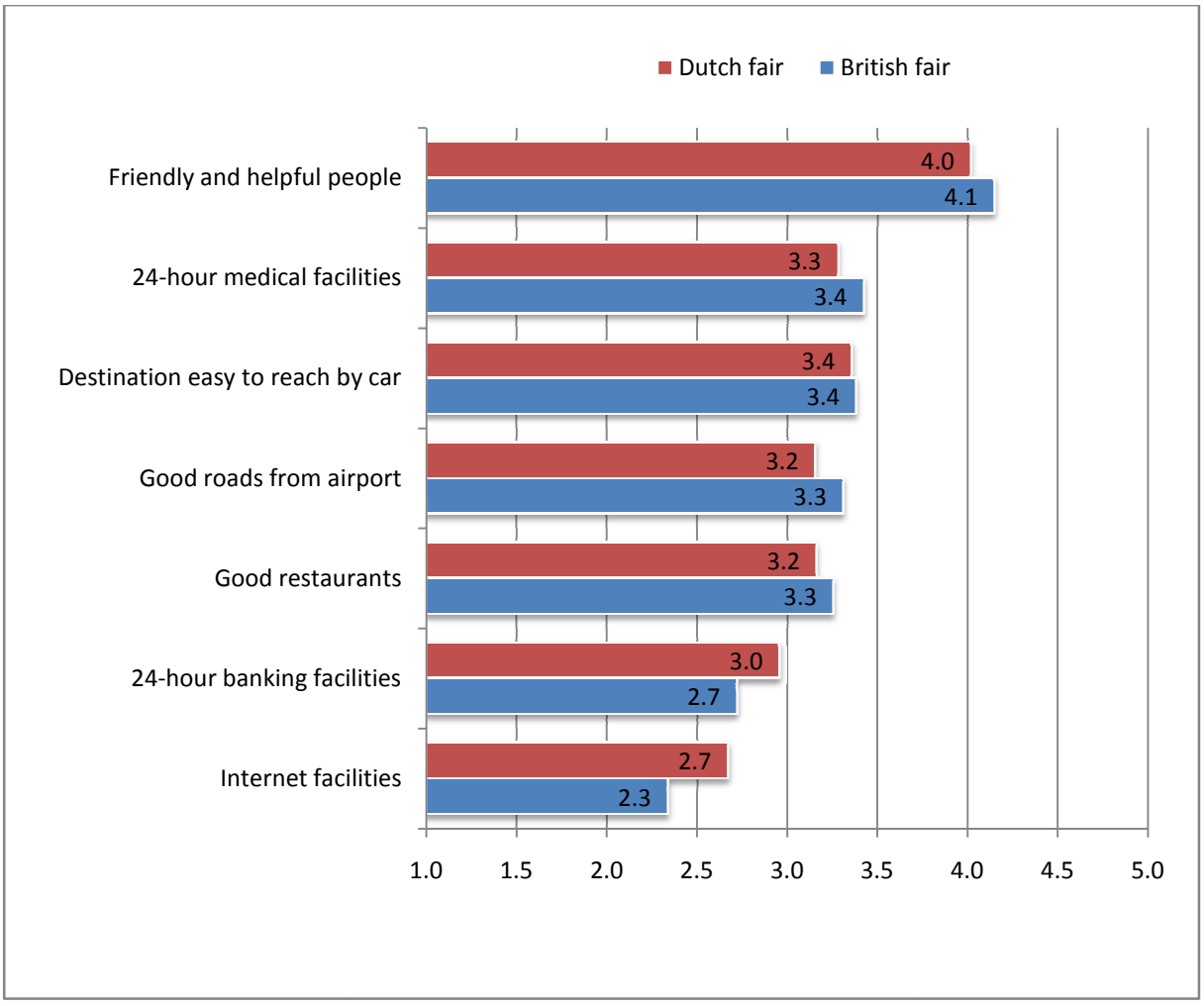

Figure 5.16: Mean scores of respondents with regard to the importance of various aspects of facilities used and infrastructure available

The mean response scores from both the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (4.0) and the British Birdwatching Fair (4.1) indicate that it is important to birders that people in the community should be friendly and helpful.

The need for 24-hour medical facilities received neutral mean importance scores from respondents at both the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (3.3) and the British Birdwatching Fair (3.4).

Respondents at neither fair considered it particularly important for the destination to be easy to reach by car, giving this a mean score of 3.4. Good roads between the airport and final destination, and good restaurants at the final destination, scored a neutral response from respondents at both fairs, with a score of 3.3 from respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and 3.2 from respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

Birders who participated in the survey also indicated that it is neither important nor unimportant to have 24-hour banking facilities, while Internet facilities were regarded as unimportant by participating birders at the British Birdwatching Fair.

5.6.5 Accommodation preferences of avitourists

In Section E of the questionnaire (*refer to Annexure A*), respondents were asked to indicate their preferences with regard to accommodation. Accommodation cost preferences and preferences for different types of accommodation facilities when on a birding trip are discussed in the next sections.

a. Accommodation cost preferences

In terms of accommodation costs, survey participants had to choose between budget accommodation, mid-range accommodation and luxury accommodation. Figure 5.17 displays the results in terms of respondents' accommodation cost preferences.

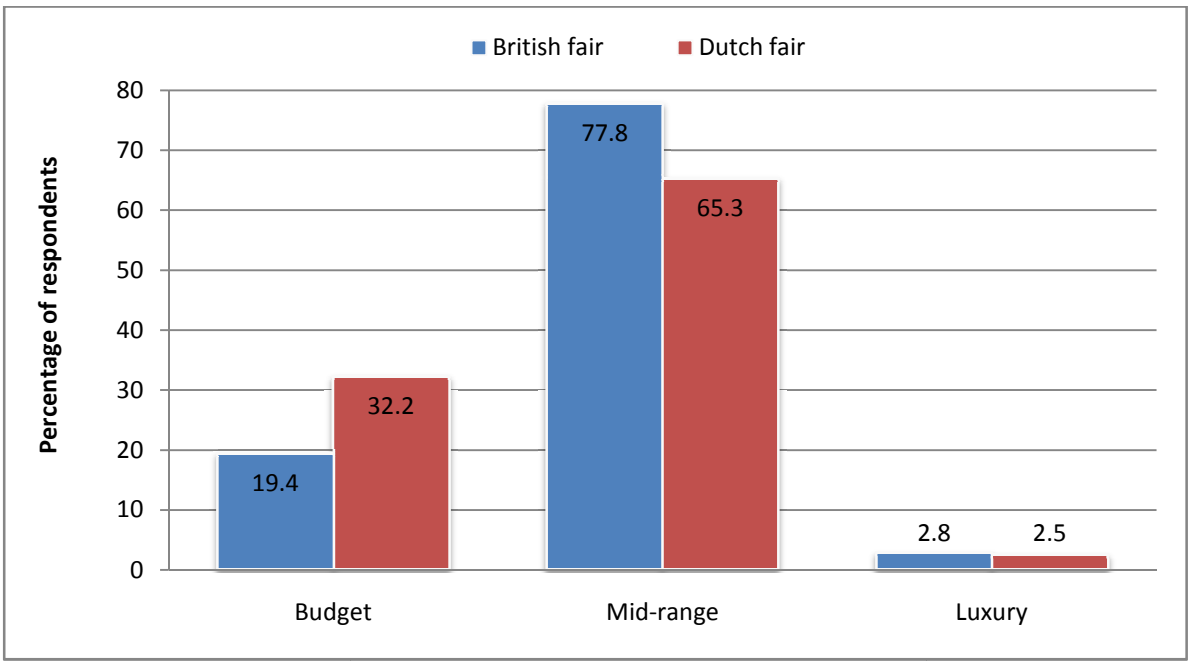

Figure 5.17: Respondents' accommodation cost preferences

Most of the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair (77.8%) as well as the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (65.3%) preferred mid-range accommodation. Budget accommodation was the second most popular option, preferred by 19.4% and 32.2% of participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* respectively. A small percentage of only 2.8% at the British Birdwatching Fair and 2.5% at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* preferred luxury accommodation.

The sample results therefore indicate that more mid-range accommodation should be available on the birding routes, while luxury accommodation is of less importance. The assumption can be made accommodation is not particularly important because birders spend most of their time outdoors and not in the room.

b. Preferences for different types of accommodation facilities

Respondents who completed the birding questionnaire also had to state their preferences regarding various accommodation facilities when on a birding trip. These preferences were indicated on a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 3. The mean response scores in terms of accommodation facility preferences can be seen in Table 5.11 in which the scores for the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair the Dutch *Vogelfestival* are shown separately.

Table 5.11: Respondents' preferences for different types of accommodation facilities when on a birding trip, by bird fair

Accommodation preferences	Bird fair	
	British Fair (Mean)	Dutch Fair (Mean)
Basic accommodation or camping	1.45	1.94
Self-catering accommodation	1.82	2.08
Bed and breakfast establishments	2.02	2.06
Hotels	1.94	1.61
Game lodges	2.07	1.83
Accommodation providers should plan meal times that allow for early mornings and late afternoons in the field	2.48	1.99

For respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair, the *highest preference* (2.48) was for *meal times that allow early mornings and late afternoons out in the field*. British birders would prefer to stay in game lodges (2.07) than in bed and breakfast establishments (2.02), hotels (1.94), self-catering accommodation (1.82) and lastly basic accommodation or camping (1.45). This again confirms the importance of South Africa's wildlife as a tourist attraction for birders from abroad.

For participating birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, the *highest preference* (2.08) was for self-catering accommodation, followed closely by bed and breakfast establishments, with a mean score of 2.06. The next highest preference (1.99) was for meal times at the accommodation establishment that make provision for early mornings and late afternoons in the field. In contrast to the results from the British Birdwatching Fair, respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* preferred basic accommodation or camping (1.94) to game lodges (1.83) or hotels (1.61).

Table 5.12 indicates respondents' preference, by birder type, for the different types of accommodation facilities when on a birding trip.

Table 5.12: Respondents' preferences for different types of accommodation facilities when on a birding trip, by birder type

Accommodation preferences	Birder type		
	Casual **(Mean)**	***Active*** **(Mean)**	***Committed*** **(Mean)**
Basic accommodation or camping	1.66	1.56	1.61
Self-catering accommodation	1.94	1.84	1.93
Bed and breakfast establishments	1.98	1.99	2.16
Hotels	1.66	1.93	1.91
Game lodges	1.94	2.01	2.02
Accommodation providers should plan meal times that allow early mornings and late afternoons in the field	2.00	2.46	2.56

The most important preference for all birder types was that accommodation providers should plan meal times that allow for early mornings and late afternoons in the field. This is most important to *committed* birders (2.56), followed by *active* (2.46) and *casual* birders (2.00). *Committed* birders preferred bed and breakfast establishments (2.16), followed by game lodges (2.02). *Active* birders' accommodation facility preferences included game lodges (2.01), bed and breakfast establishments (1.99), as well as hotels (1.93). *Casual* birders preferred bed and breakfast establishments (1.98), followed by game lodges (1.94) and self-catering accommodation (1.94). These results indicate that all birder types preferred bed and breakfast establishments and game lodges to basic accommodation or camping. It is interesting to note that *casual* birders rated basic accommodation or camping (1.66) and self-catering accommodation (1.94) slightly higher than *active* and *committed* birders.

Birders who participated in the survey also had the opportunity to state any other preferences, apart from those surveyed in the questionnaire. Three respondents commented on the location of the accommodation, indicating that it should be such that it is in contact with the local community, or on a grass field, or at the birding site. Comments received from three respondents implied that the type of

accommodation should be in the form of camping in the wild, tents or bungalows, while two of the participating birders added that the accommodation providers should offer activities such as hiking and safaris. One respondent indicated that accommodation preferences depend on the budget.

With regard to the facilities at the accommodation venue, it came to light that birders would like coffee-making facilities, vegetarian food options and that showers should be available at all times. Three of the respondents made notable comments, stating that the whole experience during the birding trip is more important than the accommodation itself, namely:

- "Accommodation not relevant if wildlife/environment experience is good."
- "Irrelevant – stay anywhere, bird species more important."
- "Unusual places count for more."

This finding indicates the preferences of the more sophisticated type of tourist, corresponding with tourism demand trends that can be illustrated in the framework of the four Ss, namely, sophistication, specialisation, segmentation and satisfaction (Buhalis, 2001:72). The new tourists are more educated, experienced, sophisticated, knowledgeable and demanding, and these attributes are reflected in the kind of experience they seek, their behaviour and preferences (Yeoman, 2008:37; Buhalis, 2001:84). This is in contrast to mass tourism and the traditional four Ss for tourism, namely, sea, sun, sand and sex (Buhalis, 2001:72). Tourism managers and BLSA should therefore take note of demand trends in order to predict the needs and wants of avitourists and to develop satisfactory avitourism products.

5.6.6 Birders' access to and use of Internet facilities

Table 5.13 indicates the birders' responses in terms of access to and comfortable use of the Internet.

Table 5.13: Percentage of respondent who make use of Internet facilities

Internet usage	British fair (%)	Dutch fair (%)
Access to the Internet	91.2	99.2
Access to e-mail	92.5	99.2
Comfortable with planning your trip on the Internet	81.6	95.3

By far the majority of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair had access to Internet and e-mail facilities (91.2% and 92.5% respectively), while just over 80% indicated that they were comfortable with planning their trip on the Internet. Almost all the participants at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* had access to both Internet and e-mail, while more than 95% were comfortable with planning their birding trip on the Internet.

These results indicate that birder respondents at both the British and Dutch bird fairs are highly involved in technology. Participating birders had access to the Internet and e-mail and were comfortable with planning their birding trips on the Internet. These results are consistent with the new tourism trends, as increasingly the Internet is turned to as a primary source of information, and Internet bookings are a major factor in the decline of travel agencies (Wheeler, 2008:213). BLSA should capitalise on this information by conducting above-the-line marketing communication, such as on the World Wide Web, and including booking facilities using the Internet.

Birders' level of agreement to ecotourism principles and local community guides are discussed in the following section.

5.7 RESULTS OF AVITOURIST' LEVEL OF AGREEMENT TO ECOTOURISM PRINCIPLES AND LOCAL COMMUNITY GUIDES

BLSA has a strong focus on "the responsible way to go birding". Respondents were asked to reflect their view on ecotourism principles in order to test agreement

at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival* on whether these principles are important to birders.

This section relates to the third secondary objective of the study – to identify the avitourist's level of agreement to *ecotourism principles* (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section F–G*). The results with respect to ecotourism principles and important factors relating to local community guides are discussed in the next sections.

5.7.1 Ecotourism principles

The data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis. The aim was to investigate the underlying structure and whether or not it could be simplified into one or more factors.

The research variables of interest included nine questions relating to ecotourism principles. The relationships among the nine variables, which were measured with a 5-point Likert scale to rate the participants' views of ecotourism principles, was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. An inspection of the correlation matrix (*refer to Appendix D1: EFA*) revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.861, exceeding the recommended minimum value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1970; Kaiser, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, $p<.001$, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Patterns of correlations among the questions used to measure views of ecotourism principles were examined by subjecting the set of items to principal axis factoring (PAF). Since the communalities (*refer to Appendix D2: EFA*) of all the items were above 0.31[23] and they all demonstrated loadings of more than

[23] For this study, one guideline used for considering the inclusion of items in a factor solution was if they share at least 10% (communality of 0.31) of their variance with the other items under consideration.

0.31[24] on one of the two extracted factors, all items were retained for further analysis.

Table 5.14 shows eigenvalues and the total variance explained by exploratory factor analysis.

Table 5.14: Eigenvalues and total variance explained by exploratory factor analysis

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.416	49.065	49.065	2.700	29.999	29.999
2	1.199	13.320	62.384	1.916	21.290	51.289
3	.851	9.452	71.836			
4	.685	7.616	79.452			
5	.474	5.267	84.720			
6	.388	4.308	89.027			
7	.366	4.067	93.094			
8	.320	3.556	96.650			
9	.301	3.350	100.000			

Extraction method: Principal axis factoring

Table 5.14 shows that PAF revealed the presence of two components (conservation of nature and support of local communities) with eigenvalues exceeding 1, cumulatively explaining 51.29% of the variance in the data. The first two factors cumulatively account for at least 62% of the variation in the factor space, before rotation. After rotation, 51.29% of the variance is explained by the

[24] Factor loadings of 0.31 and larger were considered significant and used for the interpretation of structure since N>350 (Hair *et al*., 2006, p128).

rotated factor solution. Figure 5.18 indicates the scree plot with eigenvalues of factors for ecotourism principles.

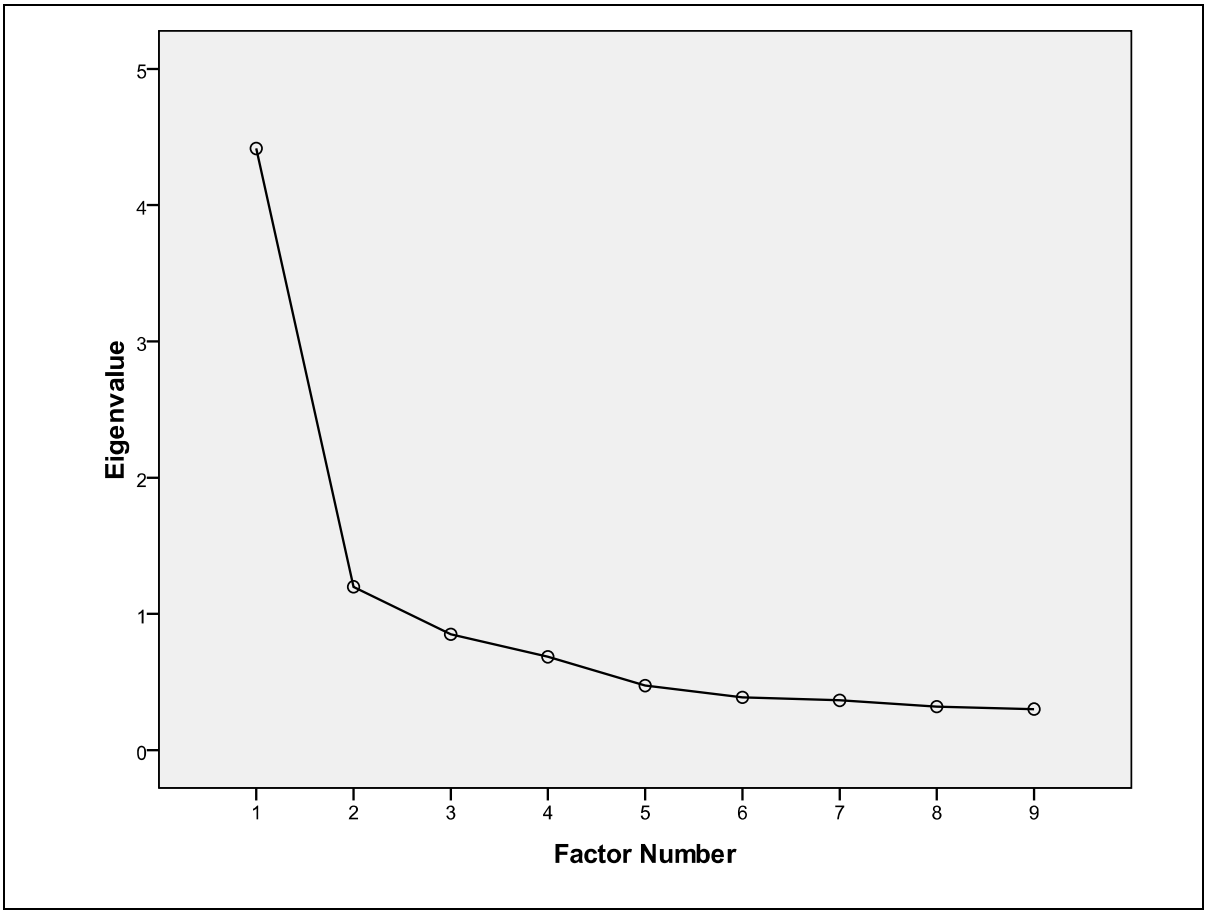

Figure 5.18: Scree plot with eigenvalues of factors for ecotourism principles

Figure 5.18 illustrates that the eigenvalue of factor 1, namely conservation of nature (first scree) is the highest at 4.42 and explains most of the percentage of variance (49.07). This factor is therefore the most important factor for respondents. The second factor, namely support of local communities, showed an eigenvalue of 1.20. An inspection of the scree plot revealed an inflection point at the third component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain two components for further investigation.

To aid in the interpretation and scientific utility of these two components, Varimax rotation was performed. Table 5.15 indicates the rotated factor matrix.

Table 5.15: Rotated factor matrix: Principal axis factoring with Varimax rotation (Kaiser normalisation)

Items used to construct a factor	Factor	
	1	2
F6: The tourism industry should always contribute to the conservation of nature	.714	
F1: My choice of destination would be influenced by whether the venue practises responsible tourism principles with respect to the environment	.700	
F2: Accommodation providers should operate in an environmentally friendly way by applying ecotourism principles, even if this is more costly	.681	
F7: Tourists should always minimise their impact on the environment	.640	
F3: Tour operators should encourage interaction between local communities and birders	.593	.495
F9: Tourists should always support the local community, for example, by buying local products, or buying arts and craft products, even if they do not need them		.668
F4: As a birding tourist, it is important to learn about the local community on each trip	.373	.637
F8: Tourists should always make use of local guides		.588
F5: I would prefer a destination that supports social development in the area in which it operates	.522	.538
Cumulative percentage variance explained	29.999	51.289

The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure (169Thurstone, 1947), with both components showing a number of strong loadings.

The subscales for the two extracted factors were obtained by calculating the mean of the items loading on each of the subscales or factors. These two factors were named: (1) *Conservation of nature* and (2) *Support of local communities*. Table 5.16 indicates the reliability statistics for the two extracted factors.

Table 5.16: Reliability statistics for the two extracted factors

Subscale	Description	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Std Dev.
F1	Conservation of nature	5	0.832	21.47	2.667
F2	Support of local communities	4	0.757	15.87	2.635
Overall	All dimensions	9	0.858	37.36	4.738

Table 5.16 indicate that both factors, conservation of nature (0.83) and support of local communities (0.76), demonstrate acceptable internal consistency as illustrated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients[25] and the corresponding means and standard deviations.

Table 5.17 reflects the descriptive statistics for the two factors representing respondents' views of ecotourism principles that were identified as a result of exploratory factor analysis.

Table 5.17: Descriptive statistics for the two extracted factors

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean *	Std. Deviation
F_F1: Conservation of nature	426	2.40	5.00	4.299	0.533
F_F2: Support of local communities	426	1.50	5.00	3.968	0.669

* The scale indicates 5 = Strongly agree and 1 = Strongly disagree

A higher mean score indicates a stronger agreement with the factor. The respondents agreed to both conservation of nature (4.299) and support of local communities (3.968). Thus, the results indicate that the respondents at both fairs

[25] "The generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research" (Hair *et al*., 2006:137).

feel strongly about conservation of nature and the support of local communities as the two principles of ecotourism.

Table 5.18 provides descriptive statistics that were calculated for the two extracted factors of ecotourism principles.

Table 5.18: Descriptive statistics for the two identified factors regarding ecotourism principles

Bird fair	Factor	n	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
British Birdwatching Fair	Conservation of nature	296	2.4	5.0	4.38	0.52
	Support of local communities	296	1.5	5.0	4.06	0.64
Dutch *Vogelfestival*	Conservation of nature	130	2.8	5.0	4.12	0.53
	Support of local communities	130	2.0	5.0	3.76	0.68

Participating birders at the British Birdwatching Fair recorded average scores of 4.38 and 4.06 respectively on the Likert scale for the conservation of nature and the support of local communities. Respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* on average recorded Likert scale scores of 4.12 and 3.76 respectively for the two factors.

Since the conservation of nature and the support of local communities are considered as very important for respondents at both fairs, the time and effort already spent by BLSA in promoting these aspects are considered as valuable and the correct route to take. Such support efforts should continue to improve the image of the country to the foreign tourist, while simultaneously benefiting local communities and the surrounding environment. These results are also consistent with new tourism trends, which suggest that tourists' awareness of social and environmental issues is growing and are becoming more important (Yeoman, 2008:37).

The mean scores of the two factors were also calculated separately for each of the three birder types. Figure 5.19 illustrates the mean scores for the three types of

birders at the British and Dutch bird fairs related to the two factors of ecotourism principles.

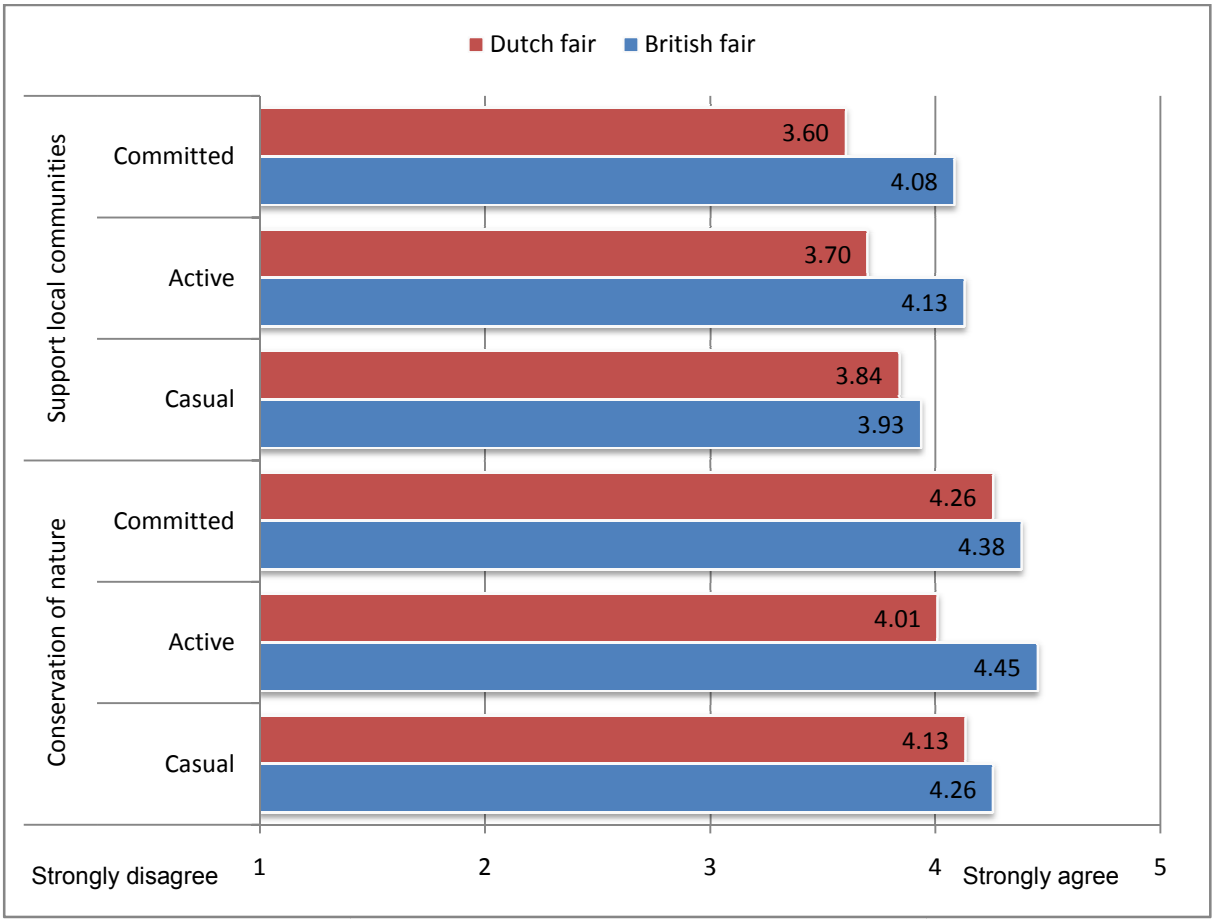

Figure 5.19: Mean response scores for the two identified factors of ecotourism principles

The results with regard to the conservation of nature are discussed first, followed by the results pertaining to the support of local communities. Participating birders at the British Birdwatching Fair that classified themselves as *committed* birders showed a high average rating of 4.38 for the conservation of nature as a principle. *Active* respondents exhibited the highest mean score (4.45), while *casual* participants recorded a mean score of 4.26. The *committed* birder respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* recorded a mean score of 4.26, while *active* and *casual* participants (4.01 and 4.13 respectively) recorded slightly lower mean ratings. *Committed* birder respondents at both fairs scored an average of 4.35, followed closely by *active* (4.34) and *casual* birders (4.21).

Committed birder participants at the British Birdwatching Fair recorded an average score of 4.08 with regard to supporting local communities, while the mean score of *active* respondents (4.13) was slightly more than that of *casual* respondents (3.93). Participating *committed* birders who attended the Dutch *Vogelfestival* recorded a mean rating of 3.60, while *active* and *casual* respondents (3.70 and 3.84 respectively) recorded slightly higher average ratings. The total sample of *committed* birders at both fairs had a mean score of just below four (3.97), while the *active* respondents had a mean score of just above four (4.02). On average, the *casual* participants at both fairs gave a rating of 3.89.

Therefore, the overall sample results indicate that most of the respondents showed agreement with the conservation of nature and supporting local communities as principles of ecotourism. These results are consistent with international tourism trends, as there is gradual growth in the numbers of environmentally friendly tourists, who are often referred to as 'green', 'responsible' 'eco', 'ethical' or 'alternative' (Yeoman, 2008:37; Swarbrooke & Horner in Buhalis, 2001:75). A growing number of tourists are attracted to natural areas, and ecotourism has emerged as one of the more significant powers of change in international tourism (Fennell in Buhalis, 2001:75). According to Buhalis (2001:76), environmental concern and preference will increasingly dominate consumers' choices and will also determine their willingness to pay, as well-preserved destinations will be able to charge premium prices. BLSA's support efforts should continue to improve the image of the country to the foreign tourist, while simultaneously benefiting local communities and the surrounding environment. Important factors related to local guides are discussed in the following section.

5.7.2 Local community guides

Respondents had to indicate the importance they attach to aspects related to local guides (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section G*). This was done by means of a Likert scale of 1 to 5. Figure 5.20 illustrates respondents' views with regard to the important factors related to local guides.

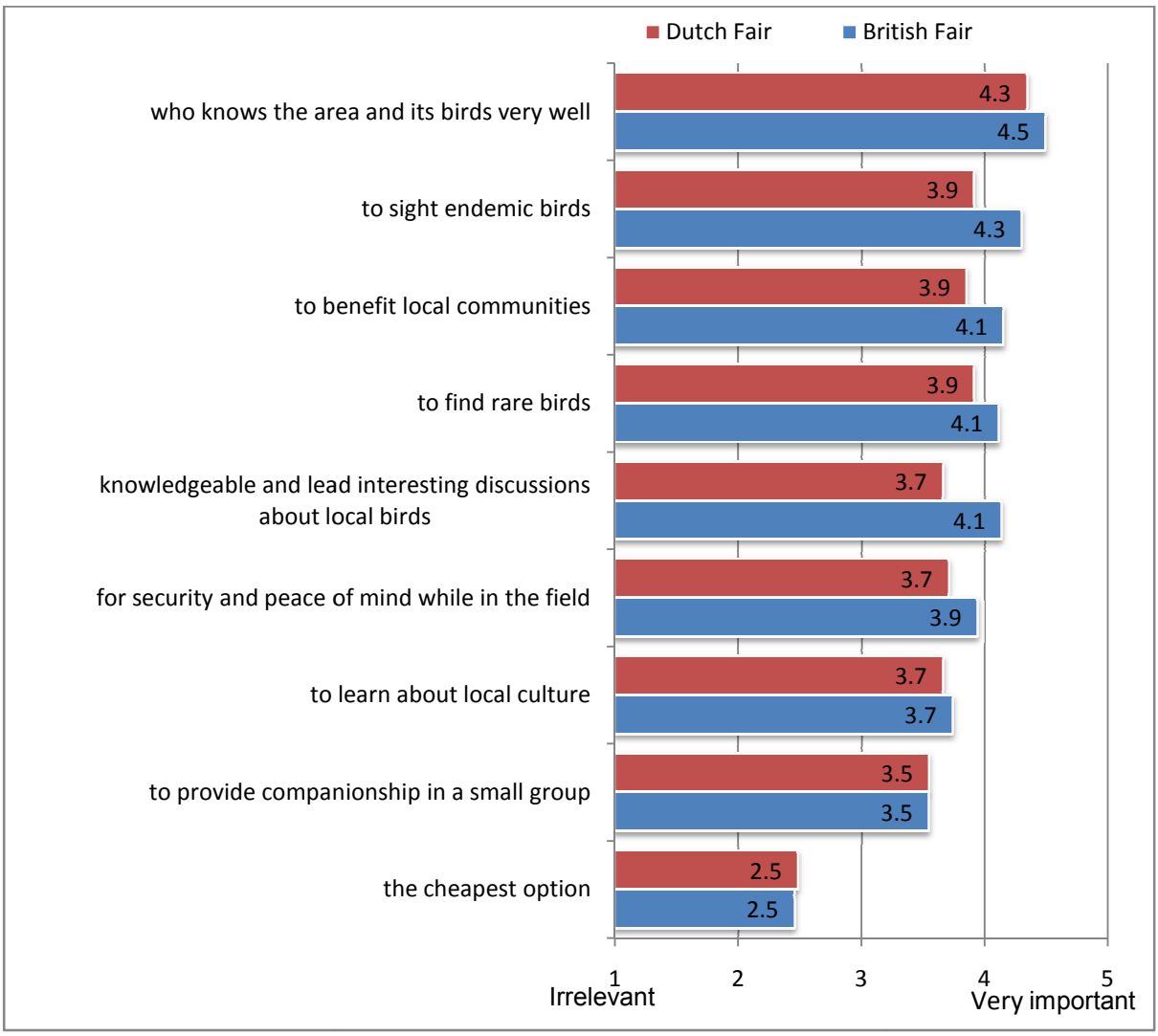

Figure 5.20: Birders' views on the important factors related to local guides when on a birding trip

Figure 5.20 indicates that for both the British (4.5) and the Dutch (4.3) fairs, the most important factor related to local guides was *a local guide who knows the area and its birds very well*. For British Birdwatching Fair respondents, the second most important reason for using a local guide was to sight endemic birds (4.3), followed by similar scores for using a local guide to benefit the local community (4.1), to find rare birds (4.1), and a local guide who is knowledgeable and leads interesting discussions about local birds (4.1). For respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, other important reasons for making use of a local guide are also to sight endemic birds (3.9), to benefit the local community (3.9) and to find rare birds (3.9).

The least important reason for using a local guide, for respondents at both the British (2.5) and Dutch (2.5) fairs, was that it was the cheapest option.

The results indicate the reasons for which birders would use local guides. It can be assumed that this information could be used in the training of local guides. Local guides should be well trained in their knowledge of the specific area in which they operate and should know its birds very well. Local guides must be trained to spot and identify birds easily. Local guides should also be able to find endemic and rare birds with ease and be able to share information about these birds with tourists. Helpful and friendly people were rated as one of the most important aspects when visiting a birding destination. Local guides should therefore be trained in the skills of communication and hospitality. Birders' awareness of South Africa as a birding destination is discussed in the next section.

5.8 RESULTS OF AVITOURISTS' AWARENESS OF SOUTH AFRICA AS A BIRDING DESTINATION

Awareness of South Africa as a birding destination is important, as birders need to be aware of the remarkable birdlife, the birding opportunities as well as the facilities available in South Africa before considering a visit to the country. This links to the fourth secondary objective of the study – to determine *awareness* among participants at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* of South Africa as a birding destination (*refer to Annexure A: Questionnaire, Section H*).

5.8.1 Visiting and travelling to South Africa as a birding destination

Figure 5.21 shows birders' responses to questions on visiting and travelling to South Africa as a birding destination.

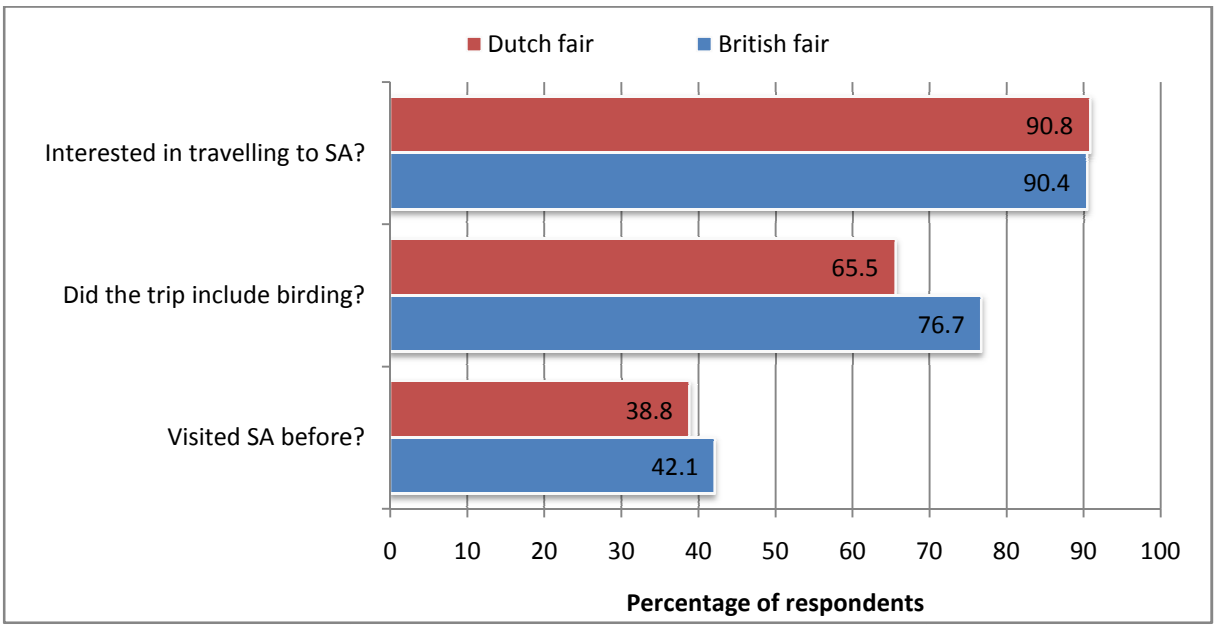

Figure 5.21: Participating birders' responses to questions on visiting and travelling to South Africa as a birding destination

Among the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair, 42.1% had visited South Africa (SA) in the past. Of the respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, 38.8% had visited SA before, while 61.2% had not been to SA in the past. With regard to the total number of participants at both fairs, 41.1% indicated that they had visited SA before. Of these, 76.7% of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and 65.5% at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* had included birding in their trip.

More than half of the respondents at the British and Dutch fairs had not visited SA before: 58.9% of respondents at the British fair and 61.2% of respondents at the Dutch fair had not been to SA. However, 90.4% of the respondents who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and 90.8% of the participating birders at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* were interested in travelling to South Africa in the future. These results indicate the considerable potential for British and Dutch (European) birders to visit South Africa and highlight the importance of a well-planned marketing campaign to attract these potential avitourists to the country. Only 10% of the respondents were not interested in travelling to South Africa and indicated, among others, the following major inhibiting factors as reasons for not wanting to do so:

- Money restrictions / cost / expensive air ticket (25.45%)

- Flight time / travelling time / distance (21.82%)
- Many other places to visit (16.36%)
- Concern about safety / concern about rumours of violence / crime (12.73%).

These factors are rather challenging, as South Africa is a long-haul destination and not much can be done with respect to mitigating the effects of its geographic location and the expense of travelling to the country. Possible solutions might, for example, include group package tours with a focus on birding, where costs could be reduced through group discounts. However, it is important to take note that tourism demand is changing, with a move towards individuality and interdependence of travellers; rigidly packaged tours are not in line with trends towards individual expression (Buhalis, 2001:77). Brently (in Buhalis 2001:84) states that packaged tours could be combined with individual variations, to satisfy the desire for an individual experience, but at a lower cost than an individually arranged tour. Respondents mentioned that they have many other birding competitor destinations to visit. Negative publicity about crime and safety issues is also a major concern to the tourism industry in South Africa.

5.8.2 Knowledge of South Africa's birding routes and bird species

Figure 5.22 shows birders' responses in terms of their knowledge of South Africa's birding routes and bird species.

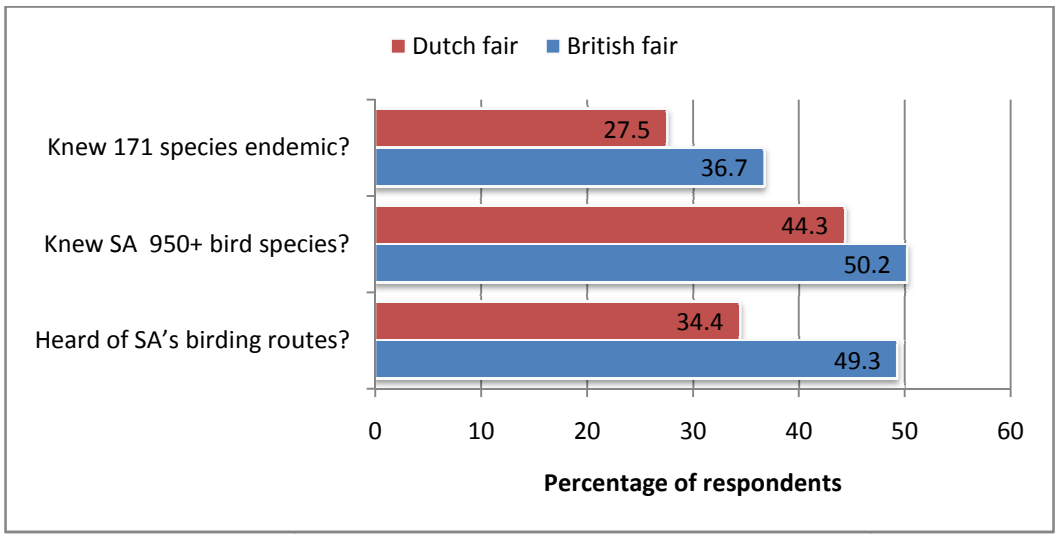

Figure 5.22: Participating birders' responses in terms of their knowledge of South Africa's birding routes and bird species

Of the respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair, 49.3% indicated that they had previously heard of South Africa's birding routes. Moreover, 50.2% knew that South Africa has more than 950 bird species, while only 36.7% of the respondents knew that 171 of these species are unique to southern Africa. By comparison, 34.4% of respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* had previously heard of South Africa's birding routes, while 44.3 % knew that South Africa has more than 950 bird species; only 27.5% of the participants knew that 171 of these bird species are unique to southern Africa.

Generally the British birder knows more about southern African birds than the Dutch birder. In spite of this, the birders' knowledge of South Africa's birding routes and bird species is generally limited, and this could contribute to the fact that many of the respondents had not visited South Africa before. A well-organised marketing campaign – which could include, for example, a brochure with well-written facts and illustrations about the richness and endemism of bird species, as well as the birding routes in South Africa – would increase birders' knowledge of South Africa as a birding destination.

5.8.3 Reasons for visiting South Africa

Respondents were asked to indicate on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, how important they consider various reasons for visiting South Africa. The mean response scores were calculated for each of these items in the questionnaire. Table 5.19 reflects the mean scores of all respondents at each bird fair in terms of the importance of reasons for undertaking a visit to South Africa in the future.

Table 5.19: Importance attached to different reasons for visiting South Africa

Reasons for visiting South Africa	Bird fair	
	British Birdwatching Fair	Dutch *Vogelfestival*
	(Mean)	(Mean)
Birding	4.6	4.6
Wildlife / Big Five animals of South Africa	4.3	4.4
Scenery	4.1	4.1
Culture / experience South Africa's diverse cultural groups	3.6	3.7
To see post-Apartheid South Africa	2.6	2.7
Shopping	2.0	2.1
Visiting friends and relatives	2.0	1.9

Responses from the British Birdwatching Fair were very similar to those from the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

The most important reasons for respondents at both fairs to want to visit South Africa were for birding purposes and South Africa's wildlife, including the Big Five animals.[26] Participating birders from the British Birdwatching Fair as well as those from the Dutch *Vogelfestival* rated the scenery as the third most important reason.

The most important reasons for the respondents to visit South Africa were thus birding, wildlife and scenery, which are closely related to activities in the natural environment. Less important were cultural activities, shopping and visiting friends and relatives. The major birding competitor destinations are discussed in the next section.

5.8.4 South Africa's major birding competitor destinations

Figure 5.23 lists South Africa's major birding competitor destinations.

[26] *Big Five animals*: The big five animals consist of the lion, African elephant, Cape buffalo, leopard and black rhinoceros (South African Tourism, n.d.a).

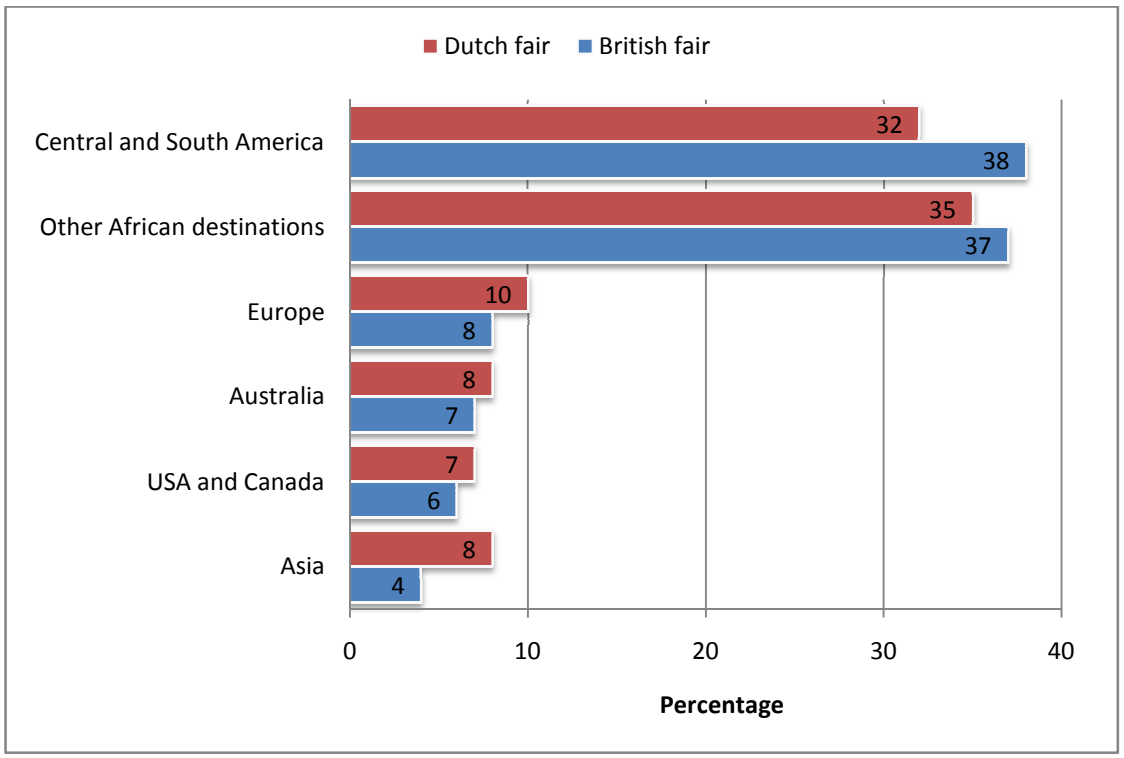

Figure 5.23: South Africa's major birding destination competitors

As indicated in Figure 5.23, the birding destinations indicated by respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair as posing the biggest competition to South Africa were Central and South America (38%) and other African destinations (37%). Respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* indicated South Africa's major birding competitors as other African destinations (35%) and Central and South America (32%). Research by Turpie & Ryan (1998:23) indicated that South Africa was regarded as a more 'manageable' proposition than most competitor destinations in Africa for a first birding trip to the continent. Birders would prefer to choose South Africa as a birding destination, since there are greater environmental threats facing the rest of Africa (Turpie & Ryan, 1998:23). According to Dickinson and Edmondson (1996:47), birders in the USA spend freely on their birding passion and are fierce defenders of birds and other wildlife. With birding generating $85 billion in economic benefits in the USA in 2001, birders are attractive to marketers, and birding destinations are making efforts to attract them (La Rouche 2003:15; Dickinson & Edmondson, 1996:47). Unless South Africa's marketing efforts are effective, and birding facilities meet the needs of potential birders, the estimated

potential may not be realised. The conclusion is discussed in the following section.

5.9 CONCLUSION

The data analysis and discussion of results were presented in this chapter. The chapter is organised to address the primary and secondary objectives of the study and is arranged as follows:

- Biographic information of avitourists: The majority of the respondents at both bird fairs were male, while the ages of birders generally fall into three age categories, namely, 36–45, 46–55 and 56–65 years.
- Classification of birders into different birder types: Respondents at the British fair tend to be more active and committed, while respondents at the Dutch fair seem to be mostly casual and active birders.
- Behavioural involvement of avitourists: Respondents at the British fair had been involved in birding for longer than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The results also confirm that *committed* birders were more intensely involved in birding than *active* birders; and *active* birders were more involved in the birding activity than *casual* birders.
- Motivations of the avitourists: The results show three new constructs that can explain avitourist motivation, namely wellbeing, intellectual activity and engagement in avitourism.
- Preferences of avitourists: Birders travel as a couple, in a small group, or alone and prefer independent travel programmes to group travel. The most important attributes at the birding destination are accessible walking trails, information about birds and bird lists, time spent in bird hides, as well as time spent on boardwalks to enjoy views. Seeing wildlife and other animals as well as trees, wild flowers and butterflies are considered as the most important other activities while on a birding trip. Birders prefer mid-range priced accommodation. Birders also have access to the Internet and e-mail and are comfortable with planning their birding trips on the Internet.

- The avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles: Respondents at both the British and Dutch bird fairs regarded the *conservation of nature* and *support of local communities* to be very important principles of ecotourism. Respondents indicated that they would make use of local guides if they know the area and its birds very well; can find endemic and rare birds; and when this is of benefit to the local community.
- The avitourist's awareness of South Africa as a birding destination: Less than 50% had previously heard of South Africa's birding routes and knew that South Africa has more than 950 bird species, 171 of which are unique to southern Africa. These results could indicate a relatively low awareness of South Africa as a birding destination. However, more than 90% of the respondents at both fairs are interested in travelling to South Africa in future.

The conclusions and recommendations for tourism managers; limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL AVITOURISM POTENTIAL

6.1 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY PROCESS

Birdwatching has been identified as one of the fastest-growing hobbies in the world and is considered to be an important niche market with economic growth potential in South Africa. With South Africa having a remarkable wealth of birdlife, friendly and helpful birding industry, birding routes and well qualified local guides, why is South Africa not overrun by birders from all parts of the world? The literature also refers to the economic, social and conservation benefits of avitourism, such as foreign exchange earnings; employment creation and poverty alleviation; and bird conservation. The management of BLSA expressed an opinion that the international market provides considerable opportunity for expanding avitourism in South Africa. A research gap in the international avitourist market was identified, and there is thus a need to explore the international avitourism market for South Africa. The purpose of the research was to profile international avitourists, and this information could provide useful insight to both managers and marketers in this niche market. Profiling international avitourists could also assists management and marketers in this market niche to understand their market better, develop their avitourism products accordingly and focus their market strategies. The research findings and recommendations may complement and enhance the international avitourism market for South Africa.

The primary objective of the study is therefore to establish the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa, based on avitourist profiles at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch Bird fair (*Vogelfestival*).

The information used in this study was provided by birders visiting the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* during August 2008. Questionnaires were used to obtain information on the:

- Biographics of avitourists
- Classification of birders into birder types
- Behavioural involvement in the avitourism activity
- Motivation for avitourism
- Preferences when on a birding trip
- The avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles
- The avitourist's awareness south Africa as a birding destination

To obtain this information, the following methodological procedure was used: The research is of an empirical nature, using a survey to collect primary data. The population for this study comprised international birders who attended the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival* in August 2008. The information reported in this research was provided by a total of 439 respondents (birders) visiting these bird fairs. A combination of event sampling and purposive sampling was used in this study, as these special events were chosen for the particular purpose of reaching international avitourists. Questionnaires were distributed to birders at the BLSA stand at both fairs. Respondents were randomly selected on the basis of passing the stand, irrespective of their intention to visit the stand. Descriptive statistics and two further statistical methods – namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) – were applied in this research.

Based on the results derived from the questionnaires, some recommendations and guidelines are provided to indicate the international market potential of avitourism in South Africa. Conclusions drawn from the data analysis and recommendations for the management of BLSA are discussed in section 6.2. Section 6.3 outlines the limitations of the study, and section 6.4 provides recommendations for future research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM DATA ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TOURISM MANAGERS AND THE MANAGEMENT OF BIRDLIFE® SOUTH AFRICA AVITOURISM DIVISION

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions and recommendations can be made for Birdlife® South Africa's Avitourism Division and other role-players in the avitourism industry:

6.2.1 Biographic information of respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and Dutch *Vogelfestival*

In terms of biographic information (*refer to section 5.2.2)*, the majority of the respondents at both birdwatching fairs were male (approximately 60%); however, females (approximately 40%) are becoming more interested in birding. Larger proportions of male respondents are consistent with studies conducted at other birding festivals (Eubanks, Stoll & Ditton in Scott & Thigpen, 2003:216).

The ages of birders generally fall into three age categories, namely, 36–45, 46–55 and 56–65 years. If demographic trends follow the pattern of aging populations, as evident in the USA, the number of birders could be expected to grow rapidly. As the baby boomers (45–64 years) move into middle age and beyond, increasing numbers of them might start to participate in birding as a hobby (Dickinson & Edmondson, 1996:47). It can be assumed that this growth might impact on avitourism in South Africa. Although the older birder groups (46–55 years) seem to be the larger population visiting South Africa, it should be noted that there is growing awareness of birding among the younger age group of 36–45 years. Marketing efforts that target younger groups could be used to attract this growing age group aged 36–45 years. The categorisation of birders into birder types is discussed next.

6.2.2 Categorisation of birders into birder types

Some birders enjoy watching birds more frequently and enthusiastically than others. Birders thus consist of a group of heterogenous recreationists, exhibiting a

diversity of skills and interests (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:201; Hvenegaard, 2002:22; Turpie & Ryan, 1998:27; McFarlane, 1994:362; Kellert & Brown, 1985:273). The results of this study also indicated that avitourists are not homogeneous and are categorised as *casual*, *active* and *committed* birders.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair tend to be more *active* (42.7%) and *committed* (27.0%), while respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* seem to be mostly *casual* (48.1%) and *active* (32.3%) birders (*refer to section 5.3*). Marketing aimed at the British birder should therefore concentrate on the more serious birding activities, such as seeing rare species of birds, while marketing aimed at the Dutch birding community might concentrate more on birding activities such as being outdoors and enjoying birds and the natural environment, as well as other leisure activities. South African avitourism managers should acknowledge differences between birder groups, thereby customising birding products in such a way as to attract and satisfy the needs and expectations of *casual*, *active* and *committed* avitourists, depending on their preference. The behavioural involvement of respondents at the bird fairs is discussed in the next section.

6.2.3 Behavioural involvement of respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair had been involved in birding for longer (24 years) than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (20 years) (*refer to section 5.4.1*). Respondents at the British fair therefore tended to be more experienced than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*.

Most respondents (approximately 70%) at both bird fairs keep *bird life lists*. The results indicate a strong correlation between the number of birds on their life list and the level of involvement of the three birder types (*refer to section 5.4.2*). Although respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair generally have longer life lists (401–500 birds) than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival* (201–300 birds), this results indicates that many birders, from *casual* to *committed*, are serious enough to potentially become involved in avitourism in South Africa, and that marketing should not exclude the less serious birders. Furthermore, the results

imply that BLSA, the media and tourism managers should have well-designed and user-friendly bird life lists available for potential birders visiting South Africa.

The findings in terms of *reading behaviour* (*refer to section 5.4.3*) indicated that the media and tourism managers in South Africa should ensure that good bird field guides and other bird books are available to avitourists. The fact that birders subscribe to birding magazines – with the British birders having a mean of one subscription and Dutch birders two subscriptions – means that BLSA could consider marketing South Africa as a birding destination in British and Dutch birding magazines. Most respondents in the sample were also members of birding organisations – the mean number of memberships for respondents at the British fair was three memberships, compared with a mean of two memberships at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The results indicated that reading behaviour and memberships increase with the level of involvement in the birding activity. Similarly, the number of bird field guides owned increases with the level of involvement of the three birder types: *casual* birders own an average of five field guides, *active* birders 13, and *committed* birders 20. Subscriptions to birding magazines also increase with the level of involvement: *casual* birders subscribe to a mean of one magazine, *active* birders to two, and c*ommitted* birders to three.

Respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs own an average of 1.12 and 0.75 spotting scopes and 2.08 and 1.80 binoculars respectively (*refer to section 5.4.4*). C*ommitted* (1.36), *active* (1.16) and *casual* (0.59) birders owned an average of one spotting scope, while *committed* (2.22), *active* (2.07) and *casual* (1.76) birders owned an average of two binoculars. The findings illustrate that respondents own more binoculars than spotting scopes, and as the intensity level of involvement increases, so do the number of spotting scopes and binoculars. Most avitourists to South Africa would probably bring out their own equipment, rather than buy new equipment in South Africa. Their spending while abroad would probably be more focused on birding and other tourism activities related to nature, birding books and general travelling costs, such as transport, accommodation and leisure.

Respondents attending the British Birdwatching Fair go on more *birding trips* (four trips) and *spend more days* (23 days) *birding* than respondents attending the

Dutch Vogelfestival, who took three birding trips and spent 17 days birding in the last year (*refer to section 5.4.5*). This suggests that there is significant potential to attract birders to South Africa, as respondents tend to take part in several birding trips annually and spend considerable time on birding trips per year. The results indicated that birding behaviour, in terms of the number of trips and days spent birding, increases with the level of involvement of the three birder types.

Respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair spent on average more on birding trips (R50 213.80) and travelled further (17 540.96 km) than those at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, who spent R36 452 on birding and travelled 9 941.98 km in the 12 months prior to the study (*refer to section 5.4.6*). Expenditure increased with the *level of involvement* of the three birder types. These results are consistent with the literature, as Solomon *et al*. (2002:104) argues that the level of an avitourist's involvement has an impact on financial commitment. The level of involvement was also reflected in the distance respondents travelled to go birding in the last 12 months, as *committed* (34 802.91 km) birders travelled significantly more than *active* (13 24.31 km) and *casual* (8 425.43 km) birders.

In summary, *committed* birders are more likely to report that they have been involved in birding for longer, have more birds on their life lists, own more bird field guides and other bird books, have more subscriptions to birding magazines and more memberships of birding organisations, spend more days and money on birding, and travel more kilometres than active and casual birders. Consistent with Scott and Thigpen (2003:207), these results confirm that *committed* birders are more intensely involved in birding than *active* birders; and *active* birders are more involved than *casual* birders. The results with respect to avitourism motivation are discussed in the next section.

6.2.4 Motivation for avitourism of respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

For effective planning and management, a more thorough understanding of the motivations of avitourists is needed (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318). The findings in terms of motivations for avitourism may assist avitourism managers in developing

avitourism products that will fulfil particular birder needs; planning for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination; and marketing and promoting the birding destination or avitourism product.

The results confirm a second-order CFA model of avitourist motivation (*refer to section 5.5*). The results show three new constructs that can explain avitourist motivation, namely *wellbeing*, *intellectual* activity and *engagement* in avitourism.

This study provides a significant contribution to the existing literature through this new information, in the form of constructs. The three new constructs derived from the CFA model are discussed in the next paragraphs.

The *wellbeing* motivator consists of the four dimensions of wellbeing, namely social, emotional, spiritual, and exercise motivations. *Emotional aspects* of birding, such as enjoying the sight and sound of birds, were regarded as very important motivations. Contributing to the conservation of birds was also an important motivating factor for respondents at both the British and Dutch fairs. An interesting observation is that *casual* birders find relaxing and escaping from everyday activities more important than *active* and *committed* birders. *Spiritual aspects*, such as connecting with nature or creation, were less important motivations for birding than emotional aspects. *Social aspects*, such as being with friends and family, were rated neutrally, while competing with birders was not regarded as an important motivation. The *exercise* that birding provides is regarded as an important motivation for birding, as long as exercise is combined with the natural environment and fresh air.

The *intellectual* motivator consists of two dimensions, including observing and studying birds. Studying and observing birds and bird behaviour as a motivation for birding was more important to *committed* birders than to *active* and *casual* birders. The results indicate that *committed* and *active* birders are more interested in studying birds, while *casual* birders are more interested in enjoying the birds. These results indicate that avitourists exhibit changing motivational patterns over their life-cycle which will be impacted upon by their travel experience (Page, 2007:76; Pearce, 2005:54). Aspects of importance in *observing birds* included

seeing many bird species not seen before; and seeing new or rare species of birds. Improving bird identification skills and studying birds in their natural habitats were important aspects in the *studying birds* dimension.

The *engagement* motivator consists of two dimensions, namely, photography and other interests. The least important motivator for birding was *photographing birds*, and was rated as a neutral motivation for birding. It is interesting to note that most aspects related to photographing birds are more important to *casual* birders than to *active* and *committed* birders, with the exception of the few *committed* birders who also specialise in bird photography. Based on these results, bird photography can be considered as a highly specialised activity, in which only a very small group of tourists would become seriously involved. In terms of *other interests when birding*, it is expected that birders that visited the fairs would consider motivations closely related to birding activities as important, such as visiting places of unusual natural beauty. This is especially true for the *committed* birder, while *active* and *casual* birders would also consider other activities, including social and cultural activities, as important motivations.

The important factors that motivate avitourists to undertake a specific birding tour should be applied to the way avitourism is planned, marketed and managed. Avitourist preferences are discussed in the next section.

6.2.5 Avitourism preferences of respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs

In terms of avitourism preferences, birders do most of their birding-related travel as a couple, in a group consisting of 3 or 4 people, or alone. Birders generally avoid larger groups and tend to travel in small groups. Furthermore, birders prefer *independent travel programmes* (British fair respondents – 67.4%, compared with Dutch fair respondents – 77.3%) to group travel, which is consistent with tourism demand trends related to the individuality and independence of tourists (*refer to section 5.6.1*). These results are consistent with new tourism trends, as tourism demand is changing and moving towards a new type of activity in which the individuality and independence of the tourist is becoming increasingly important

(Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:584; Yeoman 2008:37; Buhalis, 2001:71). Provision for independent travel programmes is therefore important to the birding industry in South Africa. This could be an important factor when BLSA or tour operators conduct their birding marketing and plan birding tours.

The most important *attributes at the birding destination* are accessible walking trails, information about birds and bird lists, time spent in bird hides, as well as time spent on boardwalks to enjoy views (*refer to section 5.6.2*). BLSA could use this information in developing or improving birding product offerings in South Africa.

Seeing wildlife and other animals as well as trees, wild flowers and butterflies are considered as the most important other activities while on a birding trip (*refer to section 5.6.3*). These activities are closely related and take place in the natural environment. The results suggest that it is not particularly important to include cultural activities in a birding trip. BLSA should note that other activities, such as local arts and crafts, tend to be more important to *casual* birders than to *active* and *committed* birders. Another important need of birders at the birding destination is that people should be friendly and helpful; avitourism managers should therefore pay attention to good customer service.

The results on *accommodation preferences* (*refer to section 5.6.5*) indicate that accommodation of mid-range price (British fair respondents – 77.8%; Dutch fair respondents – 65.3%) should be available on the birding routes, while expensive luxury accommodation is less important. British birders also prefer to stay in game lodges (2.07) and bed and breakfast establishments (2.02), while Dutch birders show the highest preference for self-catering accommodation (2.08), followed closely by bed and breakfast establishments (2.06). These preferences were indicated on a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 3. Hosts should plan meal times that allow for early mornings and late afternoons in the field, as this was important to all birder types: This is most important to *committed* birders (2.56), followed by *active* (2.46) and *casual* birders (2.00). Some respondents indicate that the whole experience during the birding trip is more important than the accommodation itself, indicating the nature of the more sophisticated of tourist.

These results correspond with tourism demand trends, which can be illustrated in the framework of the four Ss, namely sophistication, specialisation, segmentation and satisfaction (Buhalis, 2001:72). The new tourists are more educated, experienced, sophisticated, knowledgeable and demanding, and these attributes are reflected in the kind of experience they seek, their behaviour and preferences (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009:584; Yeoman, 2008:37; Buhalis, 2001:84). This is in contrast with mass tourism and the traditional four Ss for tourism, namely, sea, sun, sand and sex (Buhalis, 2001:72). BLSA should take note of the new tourist and tourism demand trends in order to predict the needs and wants of avitourists and to develop satisfactory avitourism products.

The results indicate that birder respondents at the British and Dutch bird fairs are highly involved in *technology* (*refer to section 5.6.6*). Participating birders have access to the Internet and e-mail (more than 90%) and are comfortable with planning their birding trips on the Internet (British fair respondents, 81.6%; Dutch fair respondents, 95.3%). BLSA should capitalise on this information by conducting above-the-line marketing communication on the World Wide Web, and including booking facilities using the Internet. The avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles and local community guides is discussed in the next section.

6.2.6 Avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles and local community guides

Since both British and Dutch birders regard the *conservation of nature* (4.299) and *support of local communities* (3.968) as very important principles of ecotourism, the time and effort already spent by BLSA in promoting these aspects are considered to be valuable and a step in the right direction (*refer to section 5.7.1*). The level of agreement to ecotourism principles was indicated on a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 5, where the higher mean score indicated stronger agreement to the factor. These support efforts should continue to improve the image of South Africa to the foreign tourist, while simultaneously benefiting local communities and the surrounding environment. These results are consistent with international

tourism trends, as there is gradual growth in the numbers of environmentally friendly tourists, who are often referred to as 'green', 'responsible' 'eco', 'ethical' or 'alternative' (Yeoman, 2008:37; Swarbrooke & Horner in Buhalis, 2001:75).

According to Buhalis (2001:76), environmental concern and preference will increasingly dominate consumers' choices and will also determine their willingness to pay, as well-preserved destinations will be able to charge premium prices. BLSA's support efforts should continue to improve the image of the country to the foreign tourist, while simultaneously benefiting local communities and the surrounding environment. BLSA could strive to increase the contribution of avitourism to rural communities and local grass-root organisations, given the significant potential of avitourism to generate income through the protection and promotion of natural areas.

Respondents at both fairs indicated that they would *make use of local guides* if they know the area and its birds very well; can find endemic and rare birds; and when this is of benefit to the local community (*refer to section 5.7.2*). The least important reason for using a local guide was that it would be the cheapest option. Helpful and friendly people were rated as one of the most important aspects when visiting a birding destination; local guides should therefore be trained in the skills of communication and hospitality. BLSA could use this information in training local guides. BLSA should continue training local guides, as Ham and Weiler suggest that tourism destinations should concentrate as much on interpretative services as they do on other aspects of their business (in Lee *et al*., 2009:585). BLSA might also consider further investment in other interpretation methods, including unattended interpretation methods, such as brochures for self-guided birding trails, interpretive signs or symbols at birding spots, publications on birds, bird exhibits and visitor centres (Chen *et al*., 2006:1168). Avitourists' awareness of South Africa as a birding destination are discussed in the next section.

6.2.7 Avitourists' awareness of South Africa as a birding destination

More than half (58.9%) the respondents at both fairs *had not visited* South Africa before. However, more than 90% of the respondents at both fairs were *interested*

in travelling to South Africa in future (*refer to section 5.8.1*). These results emphasise the considerable potential for British and Dutch (European) birders to visit South Africa and indicate the importance of a well-planned marketing campaign to attract these potential avitourists to South Africa.

Only 10% of the respondents were not interested in travelling to South Africa and indicated inhibiting factors as reasons for not wanting to do so. Inhibiting factors, such as high cost and travel distance, are rather challenging, and little can be done to mitigate the impact of South Africa's geographic location on the potential for avitourism. Possible solutions might, for example, include group package tours with a focus on birding, where costs could be reduced through group discounts. However, it is important to take note that tourism demand are changing towards individuality and interdependence of travellers and that rigidly packaged tours are out of line with trends towards individual expression (Buhalis, 2001:77). Brently (in Buhalis, 2001:84) states that packaged tours could be combined with individual variations in order to satisfy the desire for an individual experience, but at a lower cost than an individually arranged tour. Crime is also of concern to South Africa's tourism industry. Because the many other potential birding destinations were mentioned as an inhibiting factor, BLSA needs to consider what it could do to compete successfully with its major birding competitors.

In general, the British birder knows more about southern African birds than the Dutch birder (*refer to section 5.8.2*). In spite of this, the *birders' knowledge* of South Africa's birding routes and bird species was generally limited (below 50%), and this could contribute to the fact that many of these birders had not visited South Africa or did not have enough information about birding activities in the country. A well-organised marketing campaign – which could include, for example, a brochure with well-written facts and illustrations about the richness and endemism of bird species, as well as the birding routes in South Africa – would increase birders' knowledge of South Africa as a birding destination. BLSA could capitalise on the awareness of South Africa as a birding destination by using a more focused approach in its marketing campaign.

The most important reasons why birders would visit South Africa were reported as birding, wildlife and scenery, which are closely related to activities in the natural environment. Of less importance were cultural activities, shopping and visiting friends and relatives (*refer to section 5.8.3*).

BLSA's major birding competitors were identified as Central and South America as well as other African destinations, such as Kenya (*refer to section 5.8.4*). This could indicate a willingness among European birders to travel to long-haul destinations, such as Africa, which could be an advantage on which BLSA might capitalise. It is imperative to position South Africa as a birding destination within the birding market and to focus on the competitive advantages that the country has to offer. It is therefore recommended that a SWOT analysis (assessing strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) be conducted.

BLSA should continue with market research, as tourism suppliers that do not understand their market put themselves at risk of competition from competitors who see clearly and offer what the markets or particular segments require.

The limitations of the study are discussed n the next section.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitation of the study might include:

- A population list of birders attending the fairs in 2008, when the fieldwork was conducted, was not available for selecting the sample elements. Approximate numbers of visitors attending both fairs in 2007 were available and were also used as a guideline in determining an appropriate sample size.

- It was not possible to conduct a pilot study overseas; the author therefore selected 14 avitourists in South Africa to participate in the pilot test. The questionnaire was also tested on a family of four that visited South Africa from the Netherlands at the time of the pilot test (July, 2008).

- Bird fair organisers granted permission to distribute questionnaires from the BLSA stall only. A non-probability sampling approach was chosen based on this data collection procedure. However, respondents were *randomly* selected on the basis of passing the stand, irrespective of their intention to visit the stand.

6.4 RECOMMENATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following recommendations are made with respect to future research:

- This study investigated awareness, behavioural involvement, motivation and preferences as vital components that contribute to explaining the decision-making processes and purchase decisions of tourists. Other determinates/variables that might influence avitourists' behaviour in the decision process, such as tourists' psychology (perception, learning, memory, beliefs and attitudes) and tourists' characteristics (cultural, social and personal) could be further investigated (Kotler & Keller, 2009:202).

- The current research acknowledged that avitourists are not all alike and consist of "a group of heterogenous recreationists, exhibiting a diversity of skills and interests" (Eubanks *et al*., 2004:151; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:201; Hvenegaard, 2002:22; McFarlane, 1994:362; Kellert & Brown, 1985:273). The research tested for differences with respect to behavioural involvement, avitourism motivation and avitourists' preferences between avitourist respondents at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, as well as differences between birder types – *casual*, *active* and *committed* birders. Significant group differences were identified for behavioural involvement, motivation and preferences among the different groups of avitourists. The results indicate that generalisations should not be made on overall populations of avitourists. Opportunities thus exist for extending the research in order to understand various avitourist subgroups. This could assist managers and marketers in more effectively targeting different market segments within the avitourist population.

- The information collected for avitourism motivation is important in assisting to predict the type and level of demand for birding destinations (Hvenegaard, 2002:22). This information could also be used in future research to assess the satisfaction levels of birders at particular birding destinations.

- The preferences of avitourists at the birding destination were investigated in the current research. The findings could assist in developing avitourism products to meet the needs of particular avitourists and help plan for a more enjoyable experience at the birding destination. This research identified important attributes preferred by avitourists, which could be used in future research by performing an importance-performance analysis as a monitoring mechanism to ensure high levels of customer satisfaction at the birding destination (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2004:205).

- The current research could also be used to investigate other special interest groups, for example, botanists and people interested in butterflies or other wildlife user groups, such as whale watchers.

- A number of studies on avitourism have been conducted in the USA and Canada (Sali & Kuehn, 2007:318; La Rouche, 2003:4; Scott & Thigpen, 2003:203; Hvenegaard, 2002:21; Kim *et al.,* 1997:326). The current research was conducted in Europe, more specifically Britain and the Netherlands. More research is needed on avitourists' characteristics and behaviour, as well as birder groups outside North America in areas such as Australia and Africa (Hvenegaard, 2002:21). Additional studies are needed to provide greater understanding of the full range of attitudes, behaviour and needs of the avitourist population (Scott & Thigpen, 2003:217).

- Future research could include an investigation of the environmental impacts of avitourism.

- There is also a need for data on the financial contributions of avitourism in South Africa.

6.5 CONCLUSION

Avitourism is recognised as an important niche market with high potential to induce economic, social and conservation benefits for South Africa. Since the publication of research results on marketing intelligence in the South African avitourism niche market have been very limited, this study focused on the international avitourism market, aiming to fill this research gap. Furthermore, the remarkable wealth of birdlife, supportive infrastructure and avitourism industry in South Africa necessitate an investigation into the international market potential of avitourism in this country.

Based on results obtained from questionnaires completed at the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*, this study provides insight into international avitourist profiles, offering the possibility of unleashing its potential for the market. The insights include behavioural involvement in birding activity; the motivation, preferences and agreement to ecotourism principles of birdwatchers; and the levels of awareness of South Africa as a birding destination.

The results of the analysis address each of the secondary objectives of the study. The main findings included:

- Behavioural involvement of international avitourists: Respondents at the British fair had been involved in birding for longer than respondents at the Dutch *Vogelfestival*. The results also confirm that *committed* birders are more intensely involved in birding than *active* birders, and that *active* birders are more involved than *casual* birders.
- Motivations and preferences of the international avitourist: The results show three new constructs that can explain avitourist motivation, namely, wellbeing, intellectual activity and engagement in avitourism. Birders generally travel alone, as a couple or in a small group and prefer independent travel programmes to group travel. The most important attributes at the birding

destination are accessible walking trails, information about birds and bird lists, time spent in bird hides, as well as time spent on boardwalks to enjoy views. Seeing wildlife, other animals, trees, wild flowers and butterflies are considered to be the most important additional activities while on a birding trip. Birders prefer mid-range priced accommodation. Birders have access to the Internet and e-mail and are comfortable with planning their birding trips on the Internet.

- The international avitourist's level of agreement to ecotourism principles: Respondents at both the British and Dutch bird fairs regarded the *conservation of nature* and the *support of local communities* as very important principles of ecotourism.
- The avitourist's awareness of South Africa as a birding destination: South Africa has high potential as an avitourism destination, as more than 90% of the respondents at both fairs indicated that they would be interested in travelling to South Africa. However, it is important to position South Africa as a birding destination within the international birding market, as South Africa's major birding competitors were identified as Central and South America as well as other African destinations, such as Kenya. A marketing strategy focusing on the competitive advantages that the country has to offer could assist in increasing the levels of awareness of South Africa as a birding destination.

In conclusion, this international research into the South African avitourism market would assist avitourism managers and the BLSA in developing avitourism products for the international market to meet the needs of particular birders, help plan more enjoyable experiences at the birding destination, and give guidance regarding the marketing and promotion of South Africa as a birding destination and provider of avitourism products. The information could assist marketers of birding products, avitourism management as well as government in decision-making or policy concerning avitourism in South Africa, thereby enhancing effective planning, management and marketing of the industry. International avitourism also has the ability to contribute significantly towards the tourism sector's objectives of increasing the tourist's length of stay, spending, geographical distribution and volumes; reducing seasonality; driving

transformation in the sector; and reducing unemployment and poverty through employment creation and poverty alleviation. Similar benefits to international examples, with respect to economic, social and conservation benefits, could be obtained in South Africa if the market potential for international avitourism is unleashed.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire

BIRDING in South Africa

Sponsored by Birdlife South Africa in collaboration with the University of South Africa

BirdLife® SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Sir/Madam

As a Master's degree student in Commerce at the University of South Africa and on behalf of BirdLife South Africa, I am researching the market potential for international birders to visit South Africa as a birding destination and their preferences if they were to do so. I value your participation and would appreciate it if you could complete this questionnaire.

The survey is conducted with the permission of the organisers of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch Bird Fair (Vogelfestival).

Thank you for your cooperation!

Nicolene Conradie

For office use only | 1 | | | | | 1-5

A: INVOLVENMENT IN BIRDING

1. For how many years have you been involved in birding? _____ | | | 6-7

2. Which ONE of the following best describes you as a birder? Please indicate with a circle.

Casual – Enjoy birds in the garden or while hiking, on holiday, visiting nature reserves etc.	1
Active – Plan/go on trips primarily to watch birds; attend bird courses	2
Committed – The majority of my spare time is spent birding	3

8

3. Do you keep a life list of birds that you have seen? YES 1 NO 2 9

If "YES" in question **3**, go to question **4, 5, 6** and **7**

If "NO" in question **3**, please go to questions **5, 6** and **7**

4. How many birds do you have on your life list?

0 – 100	1
101 - 200	2
201 – 300	3
301 - 400	4
401 – 500	5
501 – 600	6
601 – 700	7
701 – 800	8
More than 800	9
I do not know, but it is recorded	0

10

Please also complete questions 5, 6 and 7

5. With how many people do you typically watch birds?

Alone	1
As a couple	2
Group of 1–4	3
Group of up to 8	4
Group of 9–15	5
Group of 15 +	6

11

6. How do you prefer to travel when on a birding trip?

Organised birding tour	1
Independently	2

12

7. Please indicate the following:

	Number of:		
1.	bird field guides owned		13-14
2.	other bird books owned		15-16
3.	subscriptions to birding magazines		17-18
4.	memberships of birding organisations		19-20
5.	spotting scopes owned		21-22
6.	binoculars owned		23-24
7.	birding **trips** in the last 12 months		25-26
8.	**days** spent birding in the last 12 months		27-28
9.	**Total** amount of money ($, £, €) spent on birding in the last 12 months. (include accommodation, transport and all incidental expenses.) Please indicate the amount next to the relevant currency	$	29-34
		£	35
		€	
	Other: Please specify currency and amount		
10.	Amount of money ($, £, €) spent **per day** when on a birding trip (include accommodation, transport and all incidental expenses.) Please indicate the amount next to the relevant currency	$	36-41
		£	42
		€	
	Other: Please specify currency and amount		
11.	Distance travelled to go birding in the last 12 months. Please indicate next to the relevant distance measure.	miles	43-48
		km	49

B:	**MOTIVATION** **Please indicate your preferences regarding your birding activities. Circle the number that best reflects your choice.**	Irrelevant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important	
1.	Enjoying the sight and sound of birds	1	2	3	4	5	50
2.	Seeing as many bird species as possible	1	2	3	4	5	51
3.	Seeing new or rare species of birds	1	2	3	4	5	52
4.	Seeing many bird species not seen before	1	2	3	4	5	53
5.	Adding more birds to my life list	1	2	3	4	5	54
6.	Studying bird behaviour and bird migration	1	2	3	4	5	55
7.	Studying birds in their natural habitat	1	2	3	4	5	56
8.	Improving my bird identification skills	1	2	3	4	5	57
9.	Sharing my knowledge of birds with others	1	2	3	4	5	58
10.	Competing with other birders	1	2	3	4	5	59
11.	Photographing birds	1	2	3	4	5	60
12.	Experiencing the peace that birding provides	1	2	3	4	5	61
13.	Connecting with nature or creation	1	2	3	4	5	62
14.	Being alone	1	2	3	4	5	63
15.	Contributing to the conservation of birds	1	2	3	4	5	64
16.	Being outdoors and enjoying wildlife and the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5	65
17.	Enjoying something that is fun, challenging and exciting	1	2	3	4	5	66
18.	Relaxing and escaping from everyday activities	1	2	3	4	5	67
19.	Travelling to different places never visited before	1	2	3	4	5	68
20.	Getting exercise	1	2	3	4	5	69
21.	Renewing or refreshing my spiritual self	1	2	3	4	5	70
22.	Being with friends	1	2	3	4	5	71
23.	Meeting new people with similar interests	1	2	3	4	5	72
24.	Visiting places of historical importance	1	2	3	4	5	73
25.	Escaping from the demands of life	1	2	3	4	5	74
26.	Seeing as many places as possible	1	2	3	4	5	75
27.	Walking in and experiencing natural habitats	1	2	3	4	5	76
28.	Communing with nature	1	2	3	4	5	77
29.	Seeing many interesting places apart from birding interests	1	2	3	4	5	78
30.	Visiting battlefields	1	2	3	4	5	79
31.	Experimenting with photography	1	2	3	4	5	80
32.	Photographing areas of natural beauty and wildlife	1	2	3	4	5	81
33.	Visiting places of unusual natural beauty	1	2	3	4	5	82
34.	Specialising in birdlife photography	1	2	3	4	5	83
35.	Being with family	1	2	3	4	5	84
36.	The physical exercise that goes with birding	1	2	3	4	5	85

C:	ATTRIBUTES AT THE DESTINATION How important are the following aspects when you go birding? Please circle the number that reflects your view.	Irrelevant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important	
1.	Detailed information about birds common in the area and availability of bird lists	1	2	3	4	5	86
2.	Accessible walking trails	1	2	3	4	5	87
3.	Learning opportunities through poster displays	1	2	3	4	5	88
4.	Spending time on boardwalks enjoying the view	1	2	3	4	5	89
5.	Spending time in bird hides	1	2	3	4	5	90
6.	Wheel-chair friendly birding opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	91
7.	The opportunity to organise extended tours to visit other places of interest	1	2	3	4	5	92
	ACTIVITIES						
8.	Seeing wildlife and other animals	1	2	3	4	5	93
9.	Seeing trees and wild flowers	1	2	3	4	5	94
10.	Seeing butterflies	1	2	3	4	5	95
11.	Game drives	1	2	3	4	5	96
12.	Cultural tours	1	2	3	4	5	97
13.	Diving, snorkelling and beach activities	1	2	3	4	5	98
14.	Local arts and crafts	1	2	3	4	5	99
15.	Adventure activities such as mountaineering, abseiling, white water rafting, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	100
16.	Water recreation and boating	1	2	3	4	5	101
	FACILITIES AND INFRASTRUCTURE						
17.	A destination that is easy to reach by rental car	1	2	3	4	5	102
18.	Good roads between airport and final destination	1	2	3	4	5	103
19.	Good restaurants at the final destination	1	2	3	4	5	104
20.	Internet facilities	1	2	3	4	5	105
21.	Friendly or helpful people in the community	1	2	3	4	5	106
22.	24-hour medical facilities	1	2	3	4	5	107
23.	24-hour banking facilities	1	2	3	4	5	108

D:	INTERNET ACCESS Please circle the number that best reflects your choice.	YES	NO	
1.	Do you have access to the Internet	1	2	109
2.	Are you comfortable with planning your trip on the Internet?	1	2	110
3.	Do you have access to e-mail?	1	2	111

E: ACCOMMODATION PREFERENCES What is your preference for different types of accommodation facilities when on a birding trip? Circle the number that best reflects your choice.		PREFERENCE				
		None	Low	Medium	High	
1.	Basic accommodation or camping	0	1	2	3	112
2.	Self-catering accommodation	0	1	2	3	113
3.	Bed & Breakfast establishments	0	1	2	3	114
4.	Hotels	0	1	2	3	115
5.	Game lodges	0	1	2	3	116
6.	Accommodation providers should plan meal times that allow early mornings and late afternoons in the field	0	1	2	3	117

7. Other (Please specify)_____

8. Which category do you prefer in terms of accommodation costs?

Budget accommodation	1	Mid-range accommodation	2	Luxury accommodation	3	118

F: ECOTOURISM PRINCIPLES Please read each statement below and circle the number that best reflects your view.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1.	My choice of destination would be influenced by whether the venue practises responsible tourism principles with respect to the environment	1	2	3	4	5	119
2.	Accommodation providers should operate in an environmentally friendly way by applying ecotourism principles, even if this is more costly	1	2	3	4	5	120
3.	Tour operators should encourage interaction between local communities and birders	1	2	3	4	5	121
4.	As a birding tourist, it is important to learn about the local community on each trip	1	2	3	4	5	122
5.	I would prefer a destination that supports social development in the area in which it operates	1	2	3	4	5	123
6.	The tourism industry should always contribute to the conservation of nature	1	2	3	4	5	124
7.	Tourists should always minimise their impact on the environment	1	2	3	4	5	125
8.	Tourists should always make use of local guides	1	2	3	4	5	126
9.	Tourists should always support the local community, for example, by buying local products, or buying arts and craft products, even if they do not need them	1	2	3	4	5	127

G: THE IMPORTANCE OF FACTORS RELATING TO LOCAL GUIDES How important are the following aspects relating to local guides when you go birding? Please circle the number that reflects your view.		Irrelevant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important	
	A local guide ...						
1.	for sighting endemic birds (occur only in a particular area)	1	2	3	4	5	128
2.	to find rare birds (birds seldom encountered)	1	2	3	4	5	129
3.	that benefits local communities	1	2	3	4	5	130
4.	that provides companionship in a small group	1	2	3	4	5	131
5.	for security and peace of mind while in the field	1	2	3	4	5	132
6.	as long as it is the cheapest option	1	2	3	4	5	133
7.	who knows the area and its birds very well	1	2	3	4	5	134
8.	to learn about local culture	1	2	3	4	5	135
9.	that is knowledgeable and can lead interesting discussions about local	1	2	3	4	5	136

	birds						

H:	AWARENESS OF SOUTH AFRICA Circle the number that best reflects your choice.	YES	NO	
1.	Have you visited South Africa before?	1	2	137
2.	If "YES", did the trip include birding?	1	2	138
3.	Have you previously heard about any one of South Africa's Birding Routes?	1	2	139
4.	Did you know that South Africa has more than 950 bird species?	1	2	140
5.	Did you know that 171 of these species are unique to southern Africa?	1	2	141
6.	Are you interested in travelling to South Africa?	1	2	142

7. If your answer to H6 is "NO", what is the most important reason for not travelling to South Africa?

_____

_____

I:	If you answered "YES" to question H6, indicate the importance of each reason if you consider visiting South Africa. Circle the number that best reflects your choice.	Irrelevant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important	
1.	Scenery	1	2	3	4	5	143
2.	Culture / experience South Africa's diverse cultural groups	1	2	3	4	5	144
3.	Wildlife / Big Five animals of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	145
4.	Birding	1	2	3	4	5	146
5.	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	147
6.	Visiting friend and relatives	1	2	3	4	5	148
7.	To see post-Apartheid South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	149

8. Other (please specify) _____

9. Do you have any concerns about travelling to South Africa? Please mention your most important concern in this regard.

_____

_____

10. Please indicate which ONE of the following destinations you view as South Africa's major birding competitor?

Other African destinations	1	USA and Canada	2	Central and South America	3	Asia	4	Australia	5	Europe	6	150

J: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Age in years

18 or younger	1	19 – 25	2	26 – 35	3	36 – 45	4	
46 – 55	5	56 – 65	6	66 – 75	7	76 +	8	151

2. Gender

Male	1	Female	2	152

3. Your place of residence: Town/City_____ Country_____

4. Your e-mail address (optional) _____

Thank you very much for your time and for participating in this survey!

APPENDIX B: Behavioural Involvement: Post Hoc (Duncan) Test Results

Post Hoc Tests

Homogeneous Subsets

A1: Years involved with birding

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	155	16.43		
Active	171		24.51	
Committed	107			29.28
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A3: Birds on life list

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	155	1.73		
Active	171		5.36	
Committed	107			6.96
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A4: With how many people do you typically watch birds?

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	155	2.46	
Active	170		2.93
Committed	106		2.94
Sig.		1.000	.943

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_1: Number of bird field guides owned

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	154	5.03		
Active	171		13.40	
Committed	107			19.94
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_2: Number of other bird books owned

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	155	6.86	
Active	171		13.67
Committed	107		14.92
Sig.		1.000	.448

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_3: Number of subscriptions to birding magazines

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	155	.79		
Active	171		1.58	
Committed	107			3.14
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_4: Number of memberships of birding organisations

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	155	1.17		
Active	171		2.37	
Committed	107			3.74
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_5: Number of spotting scopes owned

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	155	.59	
Active	171		1.16
Committed	107		1.36
Sig.		1.000	.071

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_6: Number of binoculars owned

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	155	1.76	
Active	171	2.07	2.07
Committed	107		2.22
Sig.		.060	.348

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_7: Number of birding trips in the last 12 months

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	155	1.56		
Active	171		4.19	
Committed	107			6.04
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

A7_8: Number of days spent birding in the last 12 months

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	155	13.69	
Committed	106		23.18
Active	171		26.68
Sig.		1.000	.174

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Euro spent in 12 months

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	105	1688.71		
Active	146		3811.43	
Committed	91			6444.24
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Euro spent per day

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	97	93.68
Committed	88	121.37
Active	138	132.83
Sig.		.382

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Kilometres travelled

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Casual	119	5377.83		
Active	151		11268.04	
Committed	86			20047.87
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C1: Detailed information about birds common in the area and availability of bird lists

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	149	3.48	
Active	167		3.96
Committed	103		4.14
Sig.		1.000	.088

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C2: Accessible walking trails

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	149	3.85
Committed	104	3.86
Active	168	3.99
Sig.		.198

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C3: Learning opportunities through poster displays

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	2.81	
Active	166	3.01	3.01
Casual	148		3.13
Sig.		.082	.321

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C4: Spending time on boardwalks enjoying the view

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	103	3.18	
Active	166		3.43
Casual	149		3.60
Sig.		1.000	.118

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C5: Spending time in bird hides

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Casual	149	3.54	
Committed	104	3.59	3.59
Active	167		3.78
Sig.		.657	.077

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C6: Wheelchair friendly birding opportunities

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Committed	104	2.13
Active	165	2.22
Casual	149	2.34
Sig.		.203

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C7: The opportunity to organise extended tours to visit other places of interest

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Committed	102	2.89
Casual	149	3.02
Active	167	3.09
Sig.		.172

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C8: Seeing wildlife and other animals

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	149	4.34
Committed	105	4.48
Active	168	4.50
Sig.		.052

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C9: Seeing trees and wild flowers

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	3.86	
Active	168	3.98	3.98
Casual	149		4.13
Sig.		.218	.138

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C10: Seeing butterflies

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	149	3.93
Committed	104	3.97
Active	168	4.02
Sig.		.427

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C11: Game drives

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Committed	104	3.21
Casual	145	3.28
Active	168	3.43
Sig.		.178

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C12: Cultural tours

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	2.75	
Active	167		3.02
Casual	148		3.07
Sig.		1.000	.749

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C13: Diving, snorkelling and beach activities

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Active	167	2.28	
Committed	104	2.30	
Casual	148		2.66
Sig.		.883	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C14: Local arts and crafts

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	2.61	
Active	166	2.71	
Casual	149		3.05
Sig.		.385	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C15: Adventure activities such as mountaineering, abseiling, white-water rafting, etc.

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	1.92	
Active	166	1.98	
Casual	147		2.49
Sig.		.672	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C16: Water recreation and boating

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Committed	104	1.87	
Active	167	2.06	
Casual	148		2.59
Sig.		.152	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C17: A destination that is easy to reach by rental car

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	149	3.32
Active	168	3.35
Committed	105	3.50
Sig.		.179

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C18: Good roads between airport and final destination

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	148	3.12
Committed	104	3.32
Active	167	3.35
Sig.		.086

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C19: Good restaurants at the final destination

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Committed	104	3.13
Active	167	3.25
Casual	149	3.25
Sig.		.390

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C20: Internet facilities

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Active	167	2.37
Casual	149	2.42
Committed	104	2.62
Sig.		.091

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C21: Friendly or helpful people in the community

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Casual	149	4.07
Committed	104	4.08
Active	166	4.14
Sig.		.503

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C22: 24-hour medical facilities

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Active	166	3.32
Committed	104	3.34
Casual	148	3.45
Sig.		.370

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

C23: 24-hour banking facilities

Duncan

A2: Type of birder	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Committed	104	2.65
Active	167	2.75
Casual	148	2.93
Sig.		.050

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

APPENDIX C: Confirmatory factor analysis

C1: Estimates of each parameter of Model 2

Maximum likelihood estimated regression weights: (Model 2)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
B24	←	Social	.958	.095	10.131	***
B23	←	Social	1.000			
B29	←	Spiritual	1.391	.101	13.830	***
B22	←	Spiritual	1.588	.122	13.066	***
B12	←	Spiritual	1.168	.072	16.126	***
B11	←	Spiritual	1.000			
B10	←	Photography	.949	.037	25.840	***
B18	←	Photography	1.003	.038	26.188	***
B32	←	Photography	.733	.039	18.629	***
B34	←	Photography	1.000			
B26	←	Spiritual	1.200	.103	11.707	***
B15	←	Emotional	1.000			
B19	←	Emotional	1.545	.151	10.251	***
B36	←	Exercise	1.209	.096	12.613	***
B21	←	Exercise	1.079	.073	14.733	***
B28	←	Exercise	1.000			
B27	←	Other interests	1.074	.089	12.114	***
B30	←	Other interests	1.174	.101	11.597	***
B33	←	Other interests	1.000			
B7	←	Studying	.871	.108	8.060	***
B6	←	Studying	1.000			
B5	←	Observing	.980	.072	13.553	***
B2	←	Observing	.923	.053	17.425	***
B3	←	Observing	1.000			
B4	←	Observing	.893	.048	18.614	***
B32	←	Other interests	.486	.084	5.765	***

Estimated covariances for Model 2

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Social	↔	Observing	.095	.039	2.456	.014
Spiritual	↔	Observing	.000	.027	.003	.998
Photography	↔	Observing	.156	.051	3.027	.002
Emotional	↔	Observing	.012	.020	.599	.549
Exercise	↔	Observing	.049	.026	1.862	.063
Other interests	↔	Observing	.110	.027	4.024	***
Studying	↔	Observing	.159	.040	3.994	***
Social	↔	Spiritual	.287	.040	7.249	***
Social	↔	Photography	.154	.057	2.676	.007
Social	↔	Emotional	.141	.026	5.444	***
Social	↔	Exercise	.278	.036	7.731	***
Social	↔	Other interests	.233	.035	6.575	***
Social	↔	Studying	.199	.046	4.347	***
Spiritual	↔	Photography	.186	.042	4.375	***
Spiritual	↔	Emotional	.197	.025	8.001	***
Spiritual	↔	Exercise	.310	.033	9.480	***
Spiritual	↔	Other interests	.226	.029	7.722	***
Spiritual	↔	Studying	.126	.032	3.929	***
Photography	↔	Emotional	.080	.031	2.593	.010
Photography	↔	Exercise	.103	.039	2.627	.009
Photography	↔	Other interests	.178	.041	4.374	***
Photography	↔	Studying	.093	.056	1.668	.095
Emotional	↔	Exercise	.202	.023	8.899	***
Emotional	↔	Other interests	.138	.020	6.878	***
Emotional	↔	Studying	.113	.025	4.545	***
Exercise	↔	Other interests	.252	.028	8.944	***
Exercise	↔	Studying	.132	.031	4.299	***
Other interests	↔	Studying	.095	.030	3.176	.001
e26	↔	e19	.292	.036	8.124	***
e11	↔	e12	.185	.030	6.218	***
e32	↔	e33	.158	.030	5.205	***

Estimated variances for Model 2

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Social	.629	.088	7.131	***
Spiritual	.378	.053	7.131	***
Photography	1.443	.123	11.738	***
Emotional	.152	.025	6.053	***
Exercise	.309	.035	8.739	***
Other interests	.308	.043	7.075	***
Studying	.682	.104	6.560	***
Observing	.629	.059	10.735	***
e2	.395	.034	11.752	***
e4	.275	.026	10.561	***
e23	.521	.065	8.026	***
e24	.477	.060	8.003	***
e5	.963	.072	13.450	***
e3	.200	.026	7.795	***
e11	.534	.040	13.280	***
e22	.715	.059	12.151	***
e29	.357	.033	10.700	***
e34	.365	.037	9.764	***
e32	.664	.051	12.980	***
e10	.382	.036	10.479	***
e18	.400	.039	10.174	***
e26	.726	.054	13.332	***
e15	.266	.022	12.113	***
e19	.484	.045	10.840	***
e28	.237	.020	11.779	***
e21	.356	.028	12.627	***
e36	.748	.055	13.626	***
e33	.389	.033	11.960	***
e30	.460	.040	11.472	***
e27	.291	.028	10.358	***
e7	.241	.063	3.845	***
e6	.374	.084	4.476	***
e12	.453	.036	12.480	***

Estimated squared multiple correlations

	Estimate		Estimate		Estimate
B6	.646	B15	.365	B29	.672
B7	.682	B26	.429	B3	.759
B33	.442	B34	.798	B5	.385
B30	.480	B32	.595	B23	.547
B27	.549	B18	.784	B24	.548
B28	.567	B10	.773	B4	.646
B21	.502	B11	.415	B2	.576
B36	.377	B12	.532		
B19	.429	B22	.572		

C2: Estimates of each parameter of Model 3

Maximum likelihood estimated regression weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Social	←	Wellbeing	1.000			
Emotional	←	Wellbeing	.629	.079	8.016	***
Spiritual	←	Wellbeing	1.042	.119	8.794	***
Exercise	←	Wellbeing	1.028	.106	9.724	***
Studying	←	Intellectual	2.278	.972	2.344	.019
Observing	←	Intellectual	1.000			
Photography	←	Engagement	1.000			
Other interests	←	Engagement	1.696	.428	3.964	***
B24	←	Social	.864	.090	9.560	***
B23	←	Social	1.000			
B29	←	Spiritual	1.401	.102	13.701	***
B22	←	Spiritual	1.596	.123	12.942	***
B12	←	Spiritual	1.167	.073	15.999	***
B11	←	Spiritual	1.000			
B10	←	Photography	.950	.037	25.889	***
B18	←	Photography	1.001	.038	26.076	***
B32	←	Photography	.732	.039	18.614	***
B34	←	Photography	1.000			
B26	←	Spiritual	1.228	.105	11.736	***
B15	←	Emotional	1.000			
B19	←	Emotional	1.686	.171	9.845	***
B36	←	Exercise	1.263	.099	12.770	***
B21	←	Exercise	1.113	.076	14.610	***
B28	←	Exercise	1.000			
B27	←	Other interests	1.037	.087	11.917	***
B30	←	Other interests	1.165	.100	11.621	***
B33	←	Other interests	1.000			
B7	←	Studying	.896	.128	6.996	***
B6	←	Studying	1.000			
B5	←	Observing	.989	.073	13.542	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
B2	←	Observing	.927	.054	17.252	***
B3	←	Observing	1.000			
B4	←	Observing	.903	.049	18.493	***
B32	←	Other interests	.503	.084	5.997	***

Estimated covariances (Model 3)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Wellbeing	↔	Intellectual	.054	.023	2.342	.019
Intellectual	↔	Engagement	.030	.015	2.006	.045
Wellbeing	↔	Engagement	.136	.037	3.687	***
e26	↔	e19	.279	.035	7.961	***
e11	↔	e12	.190	.030	6.318	***
e32	↔	e33	.148	.030	4.874	***

Estimated variances (Model 3)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Wellbeing	.281	.054	5.180	***
Intellectual	.068	.036	1.918	.055
Engagement	.108	.045	2.418	.016
f4	.010			
f1	.417	.070	5.948	***
f2	.029	.011	2.515	.012
f3	.069	.015	4.457	***
f5	.554	.060	9.201	***
f6	.308	.158	1.951	.051
f7	1.336	.116	11.474	***
f8	.008	.063	.120	.904
e2	.396	.034	11.695	***
e4	.270	.026	10.325	***
e23	.453	.072	6.311	***
e24	.534	.060	8.845	***
e5	.958	.072	13.399	***

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
e3	.207	.026	7.896	***
e11	.539	.041	13.273	***
e22	.716	.059	12.094	***
e29	.355	.034	10.567	***
e34	.365	.037	9.730	***
e32	.654	.051	12.873	***
e10	.379	.036	10.400	***
e18	.406	.040	10.235	***
e26	.719	.054	13.228	***
e15	.278	.022	12.464	***
e19	.445	.046	9.745	***
e28	.242	.020	11.990	***
e21	.336	.027	12.241	***
e36	.710	.054	13.251	***
e33	.379	.033	11.610	***
e30	.453	.041	11.166	***
e27	.305	.029	10.505	***
e7	.226	.074	3.042	.002
e6	.393	.094	4.162	***
e12	.460	.037	12.490	***

C3: Reliability statistics: Cronbach's alpha for second- and first-order constructs (Model 3)

Cronbach's alpha for second and first-order constructs (Model 3)

Wellbeing	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	12	0.891
	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B23	0.495	0.888
B24	0.459	0.890
B15	0.446	0.889
B19	0.613	0.881
B11	0.618	0.881
B12	0.661	0.879
B22	0.680	0.878
B29	0.713	0.875
B26	0.665	0.878
B28	0.639	0.882
B21	0.670	0.879
B36	0.598	0.882
Social	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	2	0.707
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B23	0.547	*
B24	0.547	*
Emotional	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	2	0.539
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B15	0.393	*
B19	0.393	*
Spiritual	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
	5	0.847
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B11	0.622	0.826
B12	0.702	0.806
B22	0.685	0.812
B29	0.735	0.795
B26	0.570	0.840

Exercise	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	3	0.726
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B28	0.518	0.686
B21	0.620	0.558
B36	0.556	0.667

Intellectual	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	6	0.773
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B2	0.589	0.721
B3	0.628	0.713
B4	0.644	0.711
B5	0.568	0.730
B6	0.384	0.773
B7	0.346	0.777
Observing	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	4	0.834
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B2	0.698	0.775
B3	0.740	0.761
B4	0.692	0.782
B5	0.587	0.848
Studying	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	2	0.791
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B6	0.664	*
B7	0.664	*

Engagement	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	7	0.835
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B34	0.719	0.788
B32	0.761	0.780
B18	0.750	0.782
B10	0.730	0.786
B33	0.471	0.829
B30	0.308	0.848
B27	0.325	0.844
Photography	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	4	0.915
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B34	0.836	0.880
B32	0.729	0.916
B18	0.829	0.882
B10	0.833	0.881
Other Interests	**N of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
	3	0.740
	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B33	0.539	0.684
B30	0.586	0.634
B27	0.578	0.643

APPENDIX D: Exploratory factor analysis

D1: Pearson correlation coefficients of ecotourism principles

Pearson correlation coefficients between the 9 ecotourism principles items (N=415, Listwise)

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
F1	1								
F2	**.655*** **	1							
F3	**.526*** **	**.571*** **	1						
F4	**.389*** **	**.382*** **	**.598*** **	1					
F5	**.468*** **	**.480*** **	**.623*** **	**.626*** **	1				
F6	**.495*** **	**.471*** **	**.477*** **	**.366*** **	**.493*** **	1			
F7	**.439*** **	**.402*** **	**.415*** **	**.326*** **	**.381*** **	**.663*** **	1		
F8	.284***	**.303*** **	**.400*** **	**.407*** **	**.378*** **	**.352*** **	**.317*** **	1	
F9	.228***	.221***	**.319*** **	**.418*** **	**.355*** **	.217***	.173***	**.516*** **	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

D2: Principal axis factoring

Communalities of the 9 items (Principal axis factoring)

	Initial	Extraction
F1: My choice of destination would be influenced by whether the venue practises responsible tourism principles with respect to the environment	.500	.540
F2: Accommodation providers should operate in an environmentally friendly way by applying ecotourism principles, even if this is more costly	.513	.525
F3: Tour operators should encourage interaction between local communities and birders	.558	.596
F4: As a birding tourist, it is important to learn about the local community on each trip	.499	.544
F5: I would prefer a destination that supports social development in the area in which it operates	.536	.562
F6: The tourism industry should always contribute to the conservation of nature	.539	.556
F7: Tourists should always minimise their impact on the environment	.467	.437
F8: Tourists should always make use of local guides	.362	.403
F9: Tourists should always support the local community, for example, by buying local products, or buying arts and craft products, even if they do not need them	.325	.452

APPENDIX E: Maps

E1: A map of Europe indicating the location of the British Birdwatching Fair and the Dutch *Vogelfestival*

Source: 172OCAL, n.d.

E2: Map: Location of the British Birdwatching Fair

Source: British Birdwatching Fair, n.d.

E3: Map: Location of the Dutch Bird Fair (Vogelfestival)

Source: *Vogelfestival*, n.d.