

VARIABLES CONTRIBUTING TO SATISFACTION IN WILDLIFE TOURISM

By

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SUMMARY

The study was undertaken to identify and evaluate variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. Clark *et al.* (1999) argue that the hospitality and tourism industries are still relatively under researched. Therefore, this research is particularly important because it focuses on wildlife tourist satisfaction as opposed to customer satisfaction in general. According to Teye and Leclerc (1998), satisfaction is vital for ensuring sustainability of the tourism industry. Similarly, Bramwell (1998) argues that tourist destinations should offer exceptional and satisfying products and services in order to retain and attract more tourists.

The study was conducted at the Chobe National Park (CNP), Botswana's largest and most popular national park. CNP is popular for its abundant and diverse wild species. Following the arguments on the importance of wildlife tourist satisfaction the study sought to establish how wildlife tourists' experiences impact on their overall satisfaction. The study also assessed the extent to which Chobe National Park contributes to wildlife tourist satisfaction in relation to the identified variables.

The convenience sampling method was applied and the success of the pilot study indicated the usability of the research instrument. The research utilised the SERV-PERVAL scale (Petrick 2000). The scale was developed to assess service quality and perceived value. SERV-PERVAL measures quality as a measure of the supplier's performance. The measurement of quality is crucial because quality is argued to be the best predictor of perceived value. Data was collected by the use of a structured self-completion questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: demographic data, the SERV-PERVAL scale to assess questions on service quality, perceived value and satisfaction. The third section was a combination of a Likert scale and open-ended questions gathering information on expectations and motivations.

The descriptive method of analysis, with tables and figures, was applied. The level of significance between variables was determined through the use of the correlation analysis, and the multiple regression model was utilised to investigate the contribution of variables to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

The conclusion derived from the literature reviewed is that the concept *satisfaction* is core in the wildlife tourism industry because it involves feelings of wildlife tourists after experiencing wildlife tourism services. The literature has positively associated and it emphasised the importance of several concepts to wildlife tourist satisfaction. These concepts are: service quality, price and value for money, tourist experience and expectations.

While the results of the survey condoned the significance of service quality, price, value for money and tourist experience to wildlife tourist satisfaction, they also indicated and emphasised the importance of wildlife-related variables. These are: safety measures from attack by wild animals, availability and diversity of wild species, condition of vegetation in the wildlife area and accessibility. It is through the use of these variables that wildlife tourists evaluate their experiences and rate their satisfaction levels.

Some of the results are, however, in conflict with two arguments found in the literature. Firstly the results contradicted the argument that wildlife tourists assess their satisfaction on the basis of whether or not their initial expectations were met. Some tourists indicated they had a satisfactory experience and yet they did not have prior expectations before they travelled to CNP. As a result, tourists' expectations were found not to be one of the critical variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

Secondly, despite the argument that one benefit of tourist satisfaction is the re-visits by satisfied tourists, satisfied wildlife tourists in this study indicated they were satisfied with their experience but would not re-visit CNP, mainly because they had other commitments.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication	(i)
Acknowledgements	(ii)
Summary	(iii)
Table of Contents	(v)
List of Figures	(x)
List of Tables	(xi)

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, GENERAL AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Purpose, objectives and rationale of the research	6
1.3	Research problem	7
1.4	Limitations of the study	10
1.5	Methodology	10
1.5.1	Data collection techniques	11
1.5.2	Sampling	11
1.5.3	Data analysis	11
1.5.4	Literature study	11
1.6.	The survey area	12
1.6.1	The survey	14
1.6.2	Pilot study	14
1.7	Definition of terms	14
1.8	Conclusion	19
1.9	Chapter layout	19

CHAPTER 2: WILDLIFE TOURISM

2.1	Introduction	21
2.2	Tourism	21

2.2.1	Nature of services in the tourism industry	22
2.2.2	Content and structure of the tourism product	24
2.3	Wildlife tourism	26
2.3.1	Wildlife tourism and the environment	29
2.3.2	Wildlife tourism and ecotourism	32
2.3.3	Wildlife tourism and sustainability	46
2.3.4	Wildlife tourism and entrepreneurship	52
2.4	Conclusion	55

CHAPTER 3: SERVICE QUALITY AND TOURIST SATISFACTION

3.1	Introduction	58
3.2	Service quality	61
3.2.1	Defining service quality	62
3.2.2	Quality and profitability	64
3.2.3	Dimensions of service quality	65
3.2.4	Importance of service quality in the tourism industry	66
3.2.5	The role of interpersonal relationships in service quality	67
3.2.6	Measurement tools in service quality	68
3.3	The tourist experience	71
3.3.1	Types of experience	73
3.3.2	Effects of motivation on experience	74
3.4	Tourist satisfaction	75
3.4.1	Service satisfaction	80
3.4.2	Tourist satisfaction	80
3.4.3	Effects of price and value of service on satisfaction	81
3.4.4	Mood and satisfaction	85
3.4.5	Importance of satisfaction in wildlife tourism	86
3.4.6	The relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction	87
3.5	Expectations and perceptions	92
3.6	Measuring tourist satisfaction	96
3.6.1	Examples of measuring scales	97

3.6.2	Motivation and tourist satisfaction	98
3.7	Conclusion	104

CHAPTER 4: DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1	Introduction	106
4.2	Research Instruments	106
4.2.1	SERVQUAL	107
4.2.2	Holiday satisfaction model (HOLSAT)	108
4.2.3	Service performance-based scale (SERVPERF)	108
4.2.4	The expectancy disconfirmation model	109
4.2.5	SERV-PERVAL	110
4.3	Data collection techniques	111
4.3.1	The questionnaire	111
4.3.2	Questionnaire components	113
4.3.3	Questionnaire distribution	118
4.3.4	Sampling	118
4.3.5	Survey area	118
4.3.6	Data analysis	118
4.4	Research methods	119
4.4.1	Literature study	119
4.4.2	The survey	119
4.5	Conclusion	119

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1	Introduction	121
5.2	Demographic analysis	121
5.3	Motivations and expectations	123
5.4	Value and quality of experience	128
5.5	Likelihood of re-visiting CNP	131
5.6	Assessment of satisfaction on CNP facilities	133
5.7	An output on all variables	138

5.8	Recommending CNP as a wildlife tourism destination	144
5.9	Wildlife tourists' experience at CNP	145
5.10	Assessment of wildlife tourists' overall satisfaction	147
5.11	Conclusion	148

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1	Introduction	150
6.2	Wildlife tourists' demographic details	150
6.2.1	Age distribution	150
6.2.2	Gender distribution	151
6.2.3	Accommodation type and length of stay	151
6.3	Motivations and expectations	152
6.3.1	Wildlife tourists' motivators	153
6.3.2	Wildlife tourists' expectations	154
6.4	Quality of experience	156
6.4.1	Experiences by wildlife tourists	156
6.5	Perceived value for money and quality of service	158
6.5.1	Perceived value for money	158
6.5.2	Perceived quality of service	159
6.6	Likelihood of re-visiting CNP	159
6.7	Satisfaction levels on CNP facilities and attractions	161
6.8	Assessment of all variables	165
6.9	Recommendation of CNP as a wildlife tourism destination	168
6.9.1	Tourists' reasons for recommending/not recommending CNP	168
6.9.2	Outstanding and disappointing encounters by wildlife tourists	169
6.10	Overall satisfaction	170
6.11	Conclusion	170

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1	Introduction	172
7.1.1	Tourism	173
7.1.2	Wildlife tourism	174
7.1.3	Wildlife tourist satisfaction	176
7.2	Contribution of the research	182
7.3	Conclusions with regard to literature review	185
7.4	Conclusions with regard to the survey	186
7.5	Recommendations	188
7.6	Recommendations for further research	189
7.7	Conclusion	190
BIBLIOGRAPHY		191
APPENDICES		
1.	Questionnaire	204
2.	Correlation tables	211
3.	Regression tables	222

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1	The Chobe National Park (CNP)	13
2.1	Components of the tourism product	24
2.2	Interactions between components of the wildlife tourism experience	27
2.3	Wildlife-based tourism	29
2.4	Comprehensive and minimalist ecotourism types	35
2.5	Hard and soft types of ecotourism	37
2.6	Steps for developing a sustainable development project	48
2.7	An overview of the entrepreneurial climate elements	53
3.1	The service encounter	72
3.2	Factors that influence satisfaction	95
3.3	Effects of motivation to travel on tourist satisfaction	101
5.1	Gender distribution	122
5.2	Duration of visit by tourists	122
5.3	How expectations were met	126
5.4	Frequency and percentages of how expectations were met	127
5.5	Total expectations met	130
5.6	Perceived value for money and perceived quality of service	131
5.7	Likelihood of tourists to re-visits CNP	132
5.8	Recommendations on CNP as a wildlife tourist destination	144
5.9	Tourists' outstanding/disappointing encounters at CNP	146
5.10	Overall satisfaction	147
7.1	Variables for wildlife tourist satisfaction	184

LIST OF TABLES

2.1	Key elements for designing an effective management program	31
2.2	Impact of tourism on the quality of life	32
2.3	Defining parameters of ecotourism	36
2.4	Guidelines of ecotourism development	38
2.5	Characteristics of a community	41
2.6	A journey towards sustainability for tourism enterprises	49
2.7	Factors for stakeholder collaboration	51
2.8	Advantages of entrepreneurship in tourism development	55
3.1	The concept <i>satisfaction</i>	78
3.2	Multi-dimensional approach to perceived value	83
3.3	Typology of consumer value	84
3.4	The relationship between service quality and satisfaction	91
4.1	SERV-PERVAL as incorporated in the questionnaire	114
4.2	Components used for constructing the questionnaire	117
5.1	Age distribution	121
5.2	Type of accommodation	123
5.3	Wildlife tourists' motivating factors	124
5.4	Expectations tourists had prior to visiting CNP	125
5.5	How wildlife tourists' expectations were met	126
5.6	Variables according to categories	128
5.7	Assessment of overall value and quality of experience	129
5.8	Reasons for likelihood of re-visits and non-revisits to CNP	133
5.9	Assessment of satisfaction regarding CNP facilities	135
5.10	Categories for variables assessing satisfaction on CNP facilities	136
5.11	Correlation results for variables assessing satisfaction on facilities	137
5.12	Output on all variables	139
5.13	Model summary on all variables	141
5.14	Output on highly significant variables	142
5.15	Model summary on the highly significant variables	143

5.16	Reasons for recommending/not recommending CNP	145
5.17	Outstanding and disappointing encounters at CNP	146
6.1	Significant variables	163
6.2	Highly significant variables	164
7.1	Wildlife tourism categories	174

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, GENERAL AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a temporary short-term movement of people to destinations other than the places they normally live and work in and their activities during their stay at those destinations (Bennett, 2000). It comprises a wide range of interdependent sections of transport, accommodation, attractions and entertainment. The transport section entails the mode that tourists use to reach a destination; air and road are the most commonly used modes of transport by tourists. The accommodation component of tourism is vital, since tourists usually stay at a destination for several days. Forms of accommodation usually found at destination areas are hotels, lodges, guesthouses and camping sites. According to Ward (1996), tourism requires provision of services and facilities for all sections at a tourist destination. Haywood, Kew, Bramham, Spink, Capenerhurst and Henry (1995) also mention that tourism comprises the cost of travelling, a temporary stay, a particular destination and activities undertaken at the destination. Activities at tourist destinations vary. They include recreational sport, entertainment, shopping, gaming and gambling, natural and man-made attraction viewing. As a resource-based and complex industry, tourism is further subdivided into specialised areas. Some of these areas are wildlife tourism, rural tourism, business tourism and nature tourism (Brunt, 1997; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). Furthermore, Bennett (2000) concludes that the following activities and necessities are captured in the definition of tourism:

- Engaging in daily life activities out of the normal routines of work and social commitments.
- Activities participated in during the stay at a tourist destination.
- Travel to and from the destination.
- Facilities available to the needs of tourists; that is, tangible products and services provided for the tourists to use.

Mbaiwa (2005) states that the tourism industry has grown and become one of the main sources of income in many countries. This growth is attributed to higher standards of living in developed countries and improved modes of travel. The tourism industry is an important economic activity in many countries; hence it continues to grow. Shackley (1996) asserts that tourism is a large industry that is growing at a global rate of 23% faster than the overall world economy, with more than 500 million tourists travelling each year. He estimated that the number of tourists is likely to increase to 937 million by the year 2010. Similarly, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) indicates that tourist arrivals in 1998 grew by 2.4% world-wide (WTO, 1998). Pine (1992) argues that tourism is the largest industry in the world in terms of employment. According to Mbaiwa (2005:203), tourism is viewed as “a means for national and regional development, bringing employment, exchange earnings, balance of payments advantages and important infrastructure developments benefiting both host populations and visitors”.

According to the WTO report (2006), the tourism industry grows faster than GDP's of many countries; hence the tourism vision 2020 forecasts a 1.56 billion of international arrivals by the year 2020. Africa as one of the popular tourist destinations is forecasted a growth rate of over 5% per year compared to the world's average percentage.

Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) argue that tourism is a vital source of economic development in developing countries. The argument for its existence in these countries is that:

- It significantly contributes to fast-growing economies.
- It helps countries earn hard currency.
- It is an export activity, performing better than other forms of exports.
- It is an employment-intensive activity.
- It easily attracts tourists with the natural infrastructure and local traditions.

In Botswana, like in other African countries, tourism was almost non-existent at the country's independence from the British rule in 1966. However, by the year 2002, it had grown to become the second largest economic sector contributing 4.5% to Botswana's GDP. It is Botswana's new engine of economic growth of which its objective is to diversify the economy from being diamond driven to include tourism (Government of Botswana, 2004).

This survey focuses on factors that contribute to wildlife tourism satisfaction. Hughes *et al.* (2005) highlight that wildlife tourism involves a broad spectrum of experiences included in all aspects of tourism with the distinguishing feature of animals as the primary attraction. The important features required in wildlife tourism are uniqueness, ease of viewing species of interest, vulnerability and charisma of certain species. According to Shackley (1996), the word wildlife encompasses the faunal and floral components of a natural environment. Wildlife tourism originates in the physical environment; hence the nature of its attractions is mainly determined by animals and plants. Examples of natural attractions in Botswana include the national parks and game reserves.

The natural environment is very important for the success and sustainability of wildlife tourism. Bennett (2000:9) emphasises this importance in the following statement:

“The scenic attractions of the holiday destination stand at the central focus of tourist needs and are in fact the most important tourist motivation. The landscape is the real material of tourism.”

Wildlife tourism is one of the leading foreign exchange earners in several countries (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). Similarly, Hughes, Newsome and Macbeth (2005) argue that wildlife tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry.

The wildlife tourism industry is usually based on the outskirts of villages and on the outer part of countries; hence Martin and Mason (1993:135) have called it an “invisible industry, lying out of sight and mind of most people”.

Botswana boasts to the effect that, together with diamonds, wildlife tourism is at the heart of Botswana’s economy. It is estimated to raise 495 million Pula (BWP) in foreign receipts, with an estimated employment figure of 10 000 people by the year 2010. As Botswana’s largest holiday attraction, wildlife tourism has shown a steady increase over the past few years, with holiday arrivals rising from 1,193,399 in 2001 to 1,625,132 in 2005 (Botswana Tourism Statistics, 2001 - 2005). The visitor expenditure input into the country’s economy was estimated at BWP320 million in 1997. Holiday arrivals were forecasted to increase by 10% over the period of 1997–2020, showing a constant contribution of the tourism industry to the economy. As the second largest export sector after diamonds, wildlife tourism is a significant contributor (4.5%) to Botswana’s Gross Domestic Product (Botswana Tourism Statistics, 2001 - 2005)

Martin and Mason (1993) argue that changing demographic development and interest trends have led to the introduction of *wildlife tourism* and adventure activities at most destinations. When people travel, they indicate the need for adventure as one of the motivating factors. In most cases, this adventure experience is found in wildlife tourism (Ricci & Holland, 1992).

Since wildlife tourism serves as an economy boost in most countries, tourist satisfaction is an important factor that can be used to sustain the wildlife industry. According to Bowen (2001), tourist satisfaction involves tourists’ feelings about the experience. Gabbott and Hogg (1998) believe that tourist satisfaction is a state of mind and can constantly change during experience. Therefore, in order to determine satisfaction, questions such as “Did you like it?” are commonly asked rather than questions on experience. Millan and Esteban (2004) contend that all definitions of customer satisfaction describe it as a final step of a

psychological process. Satisfaction is a final stage of all activities undertaken during the process of purchase and consumption. Millan and Esteban (2004) conclude that all definitions maintain, in one way or the other that satisfaction implies

- the intervention of at least two stimuli, a result and a reference (a standard of comparison);
- that there is an objective a consumer wants to reach; and
- that the attainment of this objective can only be judged by comparing variables or segments.

However, when it comes to measuring tourist satisfaction, literature has shown that there is no one best method; hence Kozak's (2001:393) statement that "although there is no consensus on how to measure customer satisfaction, the literature suggests that satisfaction is an overall post purchase evaluation."

In spite of the lack of a single best method of measuring tourist satisfaction, literature emphasises the importance of achieving tourist satisfaction. Therefore an evaluation of variables that contribute to tourist satisfaction is vital for achieving wildlife tourist satisfaction. If attained, satisfaction can generate consumer loyalty, repeated visits and more word of mouth advertisement of the visited area (Bennett, 2000).

This chapter aims to broadly introduce the subject of the study and in particular, to describe the tourism industry, wildlife tourism. The chapter also states and elaborates on the purpose and the rationale of the research, the research problem, limitations of the study, the methodology applied, the survey area and the definitions of terms.

1.2 PURPOSE, OBJECTIVES AND RATIONALE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to identify, evaluate and recommend variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

1.2.1 Objectives of the research are

- to identify variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to discuss wildlife tourism as an essential industry and provide a platform to argue for a need for its sustainability;
- to identify and explain the relationship between the identified variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to investigate the relationship between identified variables and wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to use the literature to explore tourism-related concepts such as ecotourism, tourism development and entrepreneurship so as to create a broad understanding of the wildlife tourism industry;
- to provide arguments for the importance of the concepts of service quality and satisfaction in the wildlife tourism industry;
- to draw conclusions on the basis of the discussion of the reviewed literature on wildlife tourism and wildlife tourist satisfaction variables;
- to make recommendations based on the results of the research, with regard to the identified variables; and
- to discuss issues arising from the findings of the research and draw conclusions.

1.2.2 Rationale of the research

Wildlife tourism gives tourists the opportunity to experience heightened excitement. This happens when tourists view the flora and fauna within a natural setting. Ricci and Holland (1992) argue that a need for wildlife tourism is the major factor in travel motivation. Tourists always look for meaningful experiences with more sights and actions, stimulants and physical challenges. The subject of tourist interaction with the environment becomes very important in wildlife tourism

because one of the main objectives of the tourists' visits is to experience wild animals in their natural habitat. Webb (2003) argues that tourist interaction should not be seen to disturb animals because tourists' experiences are realised through this interaction. According to Teye and Leclerc (1998), satisfaction is important for ensuring the sustainability of the tourism industry. Similarly, Bramwell (1998) argues that tourist places should offer exceptional and satisfying products and services in order to retain and attract more tourists.

With the arguments advanced, the following is the rationale of the study:

- It would be vital to establish how wildlife tourist experiences impact on overall satisfaction.
- By evaluating variables that contribute to wildlife tourism satisfaction, it is important to understand how the tourists would like to interact with the natural environment. An informed understanding of tourists' preferred experiences would assist in determining variables vital to the wildlife tourism sector.
- This study will assess the extent to which Chobe National Park contributes to wildlife tourist satisfaction in relation to the identified variables.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Wildlife tourism generally takes place in developing countries. Most of its benefits are economic, including development and improvement of infrastructure, creation of employment and attraction of foreign exchange (Shackley, 1996). The relationship between wildlife tourism and the natural environment calls for wildlife tourism to be practised in a way that the two do not clash. In addition to its relationship with the environment, wildlife tourism also has a positive relationship with conservation. Like wildlife tourism, conservation grew as a social concern for natural beauty and protection from negative environmental impacts brought by industrialisation. These impacts include pollution of the environment, soil erosion and extinction of wild species (Singh, Kaur & Singh, 1982).

Shackley (1996) notes that nature-based tourism like wildlife tourism often results in heightened experiences, which can affect satisfaction levels. He argues that a first-time tourist is likely to have a different satisfaction level from that of the experienced one. His argument suggests that expectations of tourists need to be determined for purposes of understanding wildlife tourist satisfaction. However, other authors (Cronin & Taylor, 1997; Tribe & Snaith, 1998; Petrick, 2004) disagree with arguments that expectations have an important role in understanding satisfaction.

Bennett (2000) remarks that the assessment of service quality is also necessary to ascertain tourist satisfaction levels and that this assessment should be linked to the expectations of tourists and determine the extent to which expectations were met (Bennett, 2000). He also suggests that there is a need to have more knowledge on the motivations of tourists in order to be able to measure their satisfaction.

Although the afore-mentioned arguments suggest that understanding variables of wildlife tourist satisfaction is imperative for efficient service delivery, Clark, Riley, Wilkie and Wood (1999) argue that the hospitality and tourism industries are still relatively under researched. Research has been conducted in the area of satisfaction but not specifically in wildlife tourism. The following are some of the studies conducted on satisfaction:

- Tribe and Snaith (1998) – *from SERVQUAL to HOLSAT: holiday satisfaction in Varadero, Cuba.*
- Terblanch and Boshoff (2001) – *the measurement of customer satisfaction with selected elements of the total retail experience: an exploratory study of fast food and supermarket retailers.*
- Kozak (2001) – *comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with destinations across two nationalities.*
- Heung and Cheng (2000) – *assessing tourist satisfaction with shopping in the Hong Kong special administrative region of China.*

- Nash, Thyne and Davies (2006) – *an investigation into customer satisfaction levels in the budget accommodation sector in Scotland: a case study of backpacker tourists and the Scottish Youth Hostels Association.*
- Simpson (2000) – *customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in a rural community museum environment.*

Therefore there is a need for research with regard to tourist satisfaction in the area of wildlife tourism, which is a caterpillar for most economies in developing countries.

This research is particularly important because it focuses on wildlife tourist satisfaction as opposed to customer satisfaction in general. Since wildlife tourism is an economy booster in most developing countries, it is imperative that tourist satisfaction is achieved and maintained. This would ensure the sustainability of the industry.

A tourist-satisfying destination is likely to experience a growing number of tourists. With the improvement of service delivery at the same destination, tourists' satisfaction levels are likely to rise. If not, there will be no satisfaction and consequently no forthcoming tourists and no economic growth contribution by the wildlife tourism industry. Hence there is a need to evaluate variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

The research question that arises from the arguments above is:

- *What are the variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction?*

1.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following were the limitations of the study:

- Some managers refused entry in their hotels with the argument that they did not want their guests disturbed by being requested to complete questionnaires because they were on holiday. As such, it was not easy to access wildlife tourists to hand the questionnaire to them.
- There were other researchers who also sought the audience of tourists in the same area at the same time. Therefore some wildlife tourists felt irritated at the idea of having to fill in several questionnaires during their stay at CNP.
- There were many tourists at the time of study but only few were willing to participate in the study.
- More time was needed to find a large number of tourists who could willingly complete questionnaires. It was evident that a fast and positive response rate would have enabled the researcher to increase the number of respondents for more data.
- Several tourists volunteered to complete questionnaires at their lodging places for completion during their free time. However, almost none of those questionnaires were returned.

1.5 METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire was divided into three sections: demographic data, questions on service quality, perceived value and satisfaction. It also contained questions on wildlife-specific issues such as the condition of vegetation and species. There were other researchers in the Chobe area at the time of this survey. This affected the tourists' willingness to further participate in surveys. As a result, 100 tourists participated.

Three researchers, namely the principal researcher and two research assistants conducted the survey.

1.5.1 Data collection techniques

Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez (2001) contend that data can be collected in terms of the perception-expectation difference rather than by employing two different questionnaires on perceptions and expectations. It was on the basis of this contention that data was collected by using a structured self-completed questionnaire.

1.5.2 Sampling

The convenience sampling method was applied in this survey; hence the sample unit was any tourist who was at the CNP at the time of research. The survey was conducted during the month of October 2005. Tourists were found within the park at the park entry points, camping sites and hotels in and outside the park.

1.5.3 Data analysis

The descriptive method of analysis was applied, along with tables and figures for a comprehensive presentation of results. Statistical analysis was also applied in order to determine the level of significance between variables. In addition to these, a multiple regression model was utilised to investigate the contribution of variables to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

1.5.4 Literature study

A qualitative literature study was conducted. The literature search utilised the following search engines: general, the library databases, the World Wide Web, articles from different journals including journals of consumer research and the tourism management journals. Other tourism-related literature used includes literature on service quality, tourist satisfaction, the tourism industry, tourist expectations and perceptions and the structure and content of the tourism product.

1.6 THE SURVEY AREA

The research was conducted in October 2005 in Botswana where wildlife tourism is one of the large export sectors. The research area was the Chobe sub-district, specifically focusing on the Chobe National Park (CNP). As one of Botswana's large parks, CNP is rich in wildlife; hence it is the main attraction site for international wildlife tourists. The Chobe area is well known by citizens of Botswana as well as international tourists for its abundance of wild animals. The CNP is one of the country's large parks and it measures 10 566/km². The park is divided into four different ecosystems: Serondela with its lush plains and dense forests in the Chobe river area in the north-east; the Savuti Marsh in the west; the Linyanti Swamps in the north-west and the hot dry hinterland in between.

The original inhabitants were the San people, hunters and gatherers otherwise known as Basarwa in Botswana. In 1932, an area of 24 000 square kilometres within the Chobe district was declared a non-hunting area. The idea of a national park was raised in 1957 and the protected area was known as Chobe Game Reserve in 1960. Later, in 1967, the reserve was declared a national park. There was a large settlement based on the timber industry in Serondela, some remains of which can still be seen today. This settlement was gradually phased out and the CNP was finally empty of human occupation in 1975. The boundaries were altered in 1987, increasing the park to its present size.

The major feature of CNP is the elephant population, probably the largest surviving elephant population in Africa, currently estimated at 120 000. CNP offers three main camping sites with ablution facilities, Ihaha, Savuti and Linyanti. In addition to these, other tourist sites are Sebobu water rapids, Pandamatenga farms, Lesoma memorial monument, Kasane hot springs and the Chobe (Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy, 2002)

The Chobe River is one of the favourable nature sights. It runs through the northern border of CNP, flows in the northern Angolan highlands and travels

throughout the Kalahari sands before reaching Botswana, where it is named the Chobe. In addition to the Okavango and Zambezi, Chobe River carries more water than all other rivers in Southern Africa.

Kasane town is the administrative centre of the Chobe district and offers access to the national park in the northern side. The town also offers access to two other sights; Namibia's Caprivi Strip to the west and the Victoria Falls to the east on the Zimbabwe/Zambia border.

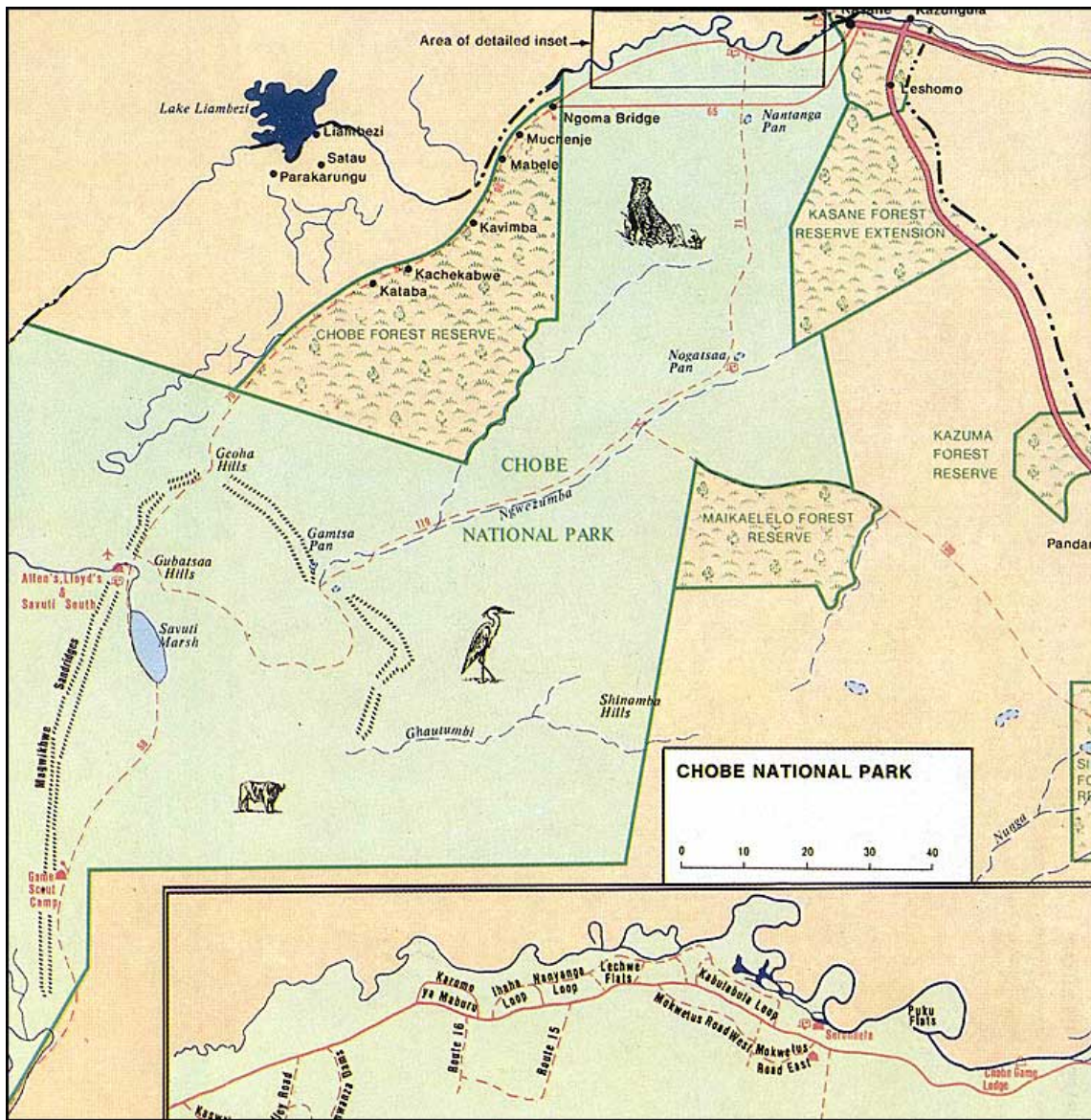


FIGURE 1.1: THE CHOBE NATIONAL PARK (CNP)

1.6.1 Survey

The survey was conducted at CNP. It attempted to answer questions derived from arguments on tourist expectations, motivations, tourist experience, service quality and satisfaction. Several methods were used to hand out and collect questionnaires:

- Questionnaires were left at the park gates for tourists to pick and hand them in after completion.
- Tour guides handed questionnaires to tourists at the camping sites to distribute to tourists who were willing to participate in the survey.
- Questionnaires were placed at some hotel reception areas for tourists to complete before they left CNP.

The researcher and her assistants went to all distribution points on a daily basis to monitor questionnaire distribution and collect the completed forms.

1.6.2 Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted for one week with fifteen tourists completing the questionnaire. The result of the pilot study showed that questions were comprehensive to tourists. Although few complained about the lengthy questionnaire, the response demonstrated a general willingness of wildlife tourists to complete the questionnaires. The respondents clearly understood all the questions and no amendments were suggested or made.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Several terms were identified as crucial; thus a reason to provide an understanding of their definitions in relation to this study. Each term is provided with several definitions from which a more relevant one is drawn and held applicable to the rest of the study.

1. Service quality

- a) The customer's overall impression of the relative superiority/inferiority of the organisation and its services. It is

usually determined after service consumption (Gabbott & Hogg, 1998).

b) The performance of management and/or the quality of opportunities (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003).

c) A desired service: the ideal or what the service should be. The gap between perceptions of the actual service and the ideal performance (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003).

These definitions sum up that service quality is concerned with the overall impression, services and service consumption. However, the definition adopted as more relevant to this study is the one by Gabbott and Hogg (1998). In order for tourists to assess quality, they have to evaluate the organisation in terms of how the services are provided. The services provided are also evaluated. This assessment is best done after the consumption of services.

2. Tourist destination

a) Country, region or city to which tourists travel and at which they do not usually reside. A tourist destination has the following properties:

- Attractions and facilities that appeal to tourists
- It is readily accessible via the transport mode tourists prefer
- It is affordable
- It projects an image in line with tourists' needs and preferences (Bennett, 2000).

b) A geographical unit visited by a tourist. It may be a centre, a village, a town, a region, a country or a continent (Burkart & Medlik, 1989).

A tourist destination is an area with facilities and activities in which tourists participate during their stay. It is a temporary stay; outside places of usual residence; hence tourists stay in hotels, lodges and campsites. The definition by Bennett (2000) is thus applied in this study because it captures more relevant aspects.

3. Tourism

- a) A temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside their normal abode. It involves activities people do during their stay at those destinations (Bennett, 2000).
- b) A resource-based and complex industry made of a wide range of interdependent sections such as transport, accommodation, attractions and entertainment. It is a package within which every aspect has to be experienced (Ward, 1996).
- c) It comprises travelling to a destination, a temporary stay and activities undertaken at the destination (Haywood, *et al.*, 1995).
- d) It is a human behaviour and the use of resources when tourists interact with others and the environment (Bull, 1993).

The definition by Ward (1996) is applied to this study. It captures the main characteristics of tourism as; the industry, with transport and accommodation and that there should be activities within which tourists participate.

4. Wildlife

- a) Life of non-domesticated animals in the natural environment (Rodger & Moore, 2004).
- b) It is about viewing wild animals and the environment (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001).
- c) Wild animals and wild vegetation often referred to as the faunal and floral components of a natural environment (Shackley, 1996).

All the definitions provided suggest wildlife is about wild animals and the natural environment. However, the definition by Shackley (1996) is more relevant to this study because it captures life of both animals and plants within a natural environment.

5. Wildlife tourism

- a) Wildlife tourism involves travelling to a destination to view wild animals and the environment (Reynolds and Braithwaite 2001)

b) “a hedonistic activity; the purchase of which is shrouded in imaginary, myth and intangibility, especially given that in many cases, there are no guarantees that the focal species will be seen” (Curtin 2005:2) He continues to argue that in wildlife tourism, pleasure is derived from five factors:

- i) Viewing animals in the natural habitat
- ii) Seeing a wide range of species
- iii) Interacting with wild animals in close proximity
- iv) Experiencing the sense of habitat (place)
- v) Sharing experiences with others

c) Wildlife tourism is based on encounters with non-domesticated animals in their natural environment (Rodger & Moore, 2004).

In general, wildlife tourism concerns itself with the flora and fauna within the natural environment. While all the three definitions mention wild animals and the natural environment as factors in wildlife, the definition by Curtin (2005) is found to be more relevant to this study mainly because it mentions the environmental experience as one of the factors from which pleasure is derived.

6. Tourism products

- a) All tangible and non-tangible sales at tourist destinations. Tangibles are usually sold in the curio shops at destination areas. Non-tangibles are services such as game viewing, and boat cruising (Bennett, 2000).
- b) Standardised, quality controlled and repeatable offers comprising two or more elements of transport, accommodation, attractions, facilities and services (Bowen, 2001).
- c) Physical features and services expected to fulfil the needs of the tourist (Pearce, 1989).

Tourism products are both tangible and non-tangible sales found at a tourist destination. These offers have to be of high-quality standard in order for tourists

to have interests in and actually purchase them. Therefore this study adopts the definition by Bowen (2001) which captures all features of the tourism product.

6. Satisfaction

- a) The fulfilment of needs or drives and motives. Satisfaction levels are determined after service consumption. It is often referred to as post-service evaluation (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003).
- b) An emotional state of mind which involves consumers' feelings about an experience and not the real quality of services (Bowen, 2001).
- c) The comparison between the experience of a service quality and what was expected initially (Taylor & Baker, 1994).
- d) The result of the comparison between expectations and the perception of the performance (Bigne *et al.*, 2001).
- e) The final stage of all activities carried out during the process of purchase and consumption (Millan & Esteban, 2004).

Satisfaction can be viewed as an emotional concept because it involves feelings about a product or service. It is determined after the service has been consumed; hence it is often referred to as an after-purchase evaluation. In order not to leave out other vital characteristics of satisfaction, both definitions by Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) and Bowen (2001) are applicable in this study. The definition of satisfaction is summed up as: an after-purchase and after-consumption evaluation that involves the consumer's feelings about the service.

7. Service

- a) A purchase package of the tourism industry (Bowen, 2001).
- b) Non-tangible offerings comprising various elements that should individually be assessed to determine satisfaction (Teye & Leclerc, 1998).
- c) Non-tangible offerings with different elements characterised by inseparability, perishability and heterogeneity (Williams & Buswell, 2003).

The definition by Williams and Buswell (2003) will suffice for this study because it captures the three main characteristics of a service.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the general introduction to tourism and wildlife tourism and the problem statement. The definition of tourism has been captured as a resource-based industry within which tourists temporarily travel to destinations other than their normal abode. The tourism industry has grown to become one of the main income generators in many countries (Mbaiwa, 2005; Shackley, 1996); hence it needs to be managed in a way that it is further developed to be self-sustaining.

As one of the leading foreign exchange earners in developing countries (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001), wildlife tourism is central to the economy of Botswana. The concept *satisfaction* is crucial in the wildlife tourism industry in order for it to grow and be sustainable. Research has been conducted in the area of satisfaction, but none specifically on wildlife tourist satisfaction. The purpose of this research therefore was to identify and evaluate variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

The survey was conducted in the Chobe National Park in Botswana. Data collection was done through a structured self-administered questionnaire with the application of the convenience sampling method. Data analysis utilised descriptive method with the use of tables and figures, the multiple regression model and the statistical method to determine the level of significance between variables.

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

This survey has been organised to include the following topics as chapters:

Chapter 2- Wildlife tourism

Chapter 3- Service quality and tourist satisfaction

Chapter 4- Design and methodology

Chapter 5- Data analysis and results

Chapter 6- Discussion of the results

Chapter 7- Conclusion and recommendations

Conclusions drawn are twofold: conclusions on the basis of the findings from the literature reviewed regarding variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction and conclusions drawn from the survey results. Recommendations are also made on the basis of the literature reviewed and results of the survey.

CHAPTER TWO

WILDLIFE TOURISM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Wildlife tourism is one of the sub-divisions or specialised areas within the tourism industry. It is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors in the world (Rodger & Moore, 2004; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001) and yet it has received inadequate attention in research in the area of satisfaction. Most studies (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Su, 2004; Nash *et al.*, 2006; Simpson, 2000) concerned themselves with satisfaction in other sectors such as retailing and hotel services.

In order to enhance the reader's understanding of wildlife tourism, this chapter has been organised to start with the presentation of literature on the tourism industry in general. It is then narrowed down to focus on wildlife tourism

2.2 TOURISM

Several authors have attempted to define tourism – in most cases using similar words and phrases. Bull (1993) argues that tourism does not have a universally agreed upon definition and that there is just a basic agreement that it includes travel away from home, needs, motivations and impacts on environments.

Tourism is made up of a wide range of interdependent sections such as transport, accommodation, attractions and entertainment. It requires a provision of services and facilities for all sections at a tourist destination (Ward, 1996).

Haywood *et al.* (1995) agrees with the argument above by Ward (1996) when they contend that tourism is made of several components, which are the cost of travelling, a temporary stay, a particular destination, and activities undertaken at the destination. Activities at tourist destinations vary. They include recreational

sport, entertainment, shopping, gaming, gambling and natural and man-made attraction viewing.

According to Bull (1993), tourism is about human behaviour and the use of resources. Tourists display their behaviour by interacting with other people as well as the environment within which tourism takes place.

Tourism is a complex experience because it is subjected to the human experience. It involves movement to places or localities that are not usual residence. It uses resources that include finance and transportation. Tourism also involves intrinsic motivations of a pleasurable travel and stay at a tourist destination. People decide to travel because of a particular interest (Bull, 1993). Gilbert, in Cooper (1990), argued that a tourist demonstrates certain actions of behaviour, of which some are values, perceptions, needs, attitudes and motivation. All these actions of behaviour lead to specified preferences for tourism activities. Tourists are always looking forward to having a pleasurable and memorable experience. This experience is mostly derived from their participation in tourist recreational attractions mostly available at tourist destinations.

As a resource-based and complex industry, tourism is further subdivided into specialised areas. Some of these areas are wildlife tourism, rural tourism, business tourism and nature tourism (Brunt, 1997; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). Martin and Mason (1993) argue that changing demographic development and interest trends have led to the introduction of wildlife tourism and adventure activities at most destinations. When people travel, they tend to advance the need for adventure as one of the motivating factors (Ricci & Holland, 1992).

2.2.1 Nature of services in the tourism industry

Services of the tourism industry have several determinants, namely the personnel, travel, tourist needs and expectations and the fact that tourism

industry has a unique characteristic. That is; all its elements have to be purchased (Teye, 1988). According to Bowen (2001), this characteristic can also be called a purchase package. Webb (2003) argues that content and structure of the tourism product have to be understood by managers in tourism organisations.

Teye & Leclerc (1998) believe services are non-tangible and they comprise various elements that should be assessed individually in order to determine satisfaction. Williams and Buswell (2003) argue that one needs to know the characteristics of services in order to understand the nature of services in the tourism industry.

Three characteristics of services are identified by Williams and Buswell (2003) as:

- Inseparability – consumption and production of services take place simultaneously. Consumers have to be present when a service is performed and occasionally take part in the process of delivery, for example: self-service.
- Perishability – services cannot be stored. For example, a theatre ticket would be for a particular seat and day.
- Heterogeneity – there are various kinds of services.

In addition to these unique characteristics, several determinants of a service exist in the tourism industry. Teye and Leclerc (1998) identified three determinants:

- The tourism delivery personnel, which includes qualified tour guides, catering staff, cleaning staff, administrative and management staff. Each employee's part of duty can contribute to tourist satisfaction.
- Varying travel and tourism needs and expectations. This is particularly important because tourists are human beings, and each human being is unique. Tourists would therefore need different types and levels of satisfaction. Since satisfaction is affective, satisfaction rating per tourist destination would be determined by an evaluation by each tourist.

- Unique characteristics of the tourism industry (the tourism product, content and structure). Each characteristic is important in understanding tourist satisfaction.

Bowen (2001:51) has referred to characteristics of the tourism industry as tourism packages. He defines them as

“standardised, quality controlled, repeatable offers comprising two or more elements of transport, accommodation, food, destination attractions, other facilities and services.”

Otto and Ritchie (1996:165) stated that tourism is “an amalgam of service industries”, and according to Trigg (1995), the word tourism is used to describe various components of the tourism industry such as travel, accommodation and entertainment. Pearce (1989) has similarly argued that tourism is a multi-faceted activity in which different services are sought and supplied at different stages, with the travel component being one of the unique characteristics of the industry.

2.2.2 Content and structure of the tourism product

Content is composed of several components of the experience and structure refers to how components combine to create the experience (Webb, 2003). Tourism service providers, especially managers, have to understand both content and structure of the product and service experience for tourists. According to Bennett (2000), components that make the tourism product are attractions, facilities, accessibility, image and price as illustrated in Figure 2.1).

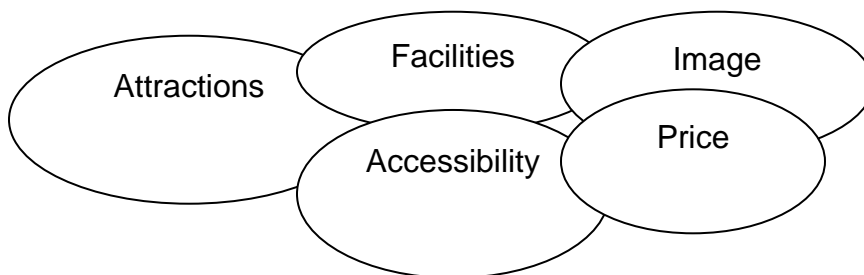


FIGURE 2.1: COMPONENTS OF THE TOURISM PRODUCT

Source: Bennett (2000)

Attractions must be appealing so as to motivate tourists. Facilities complement attractions. They do not attract tourists as such, but their absence could discourage people to visit tourist destinations. Examples of such facilities are accommodation, transport and restaurants. The other fact is that tourist destinations must be accessible. This means that infrastructure such as roads and rail, equipment such as vehicles, operational factors such as frequency of services and fares and regulations on transport operations have to be kept in good form and standard.

Similarly, Pearce (1989) believes that the tourism product comprises physical and service features expected to fulfil the needs of the buyer.

The image tourists have of a destination is vital for ensuring continued visits. People's perceptions are formed on the basis of experience, word-of-mouth recommendation, marketing and the prospective tourists' needs. Tourists form an image of destinations on the basis of their perceptions.

Price is another important component of the tourism product because the tourism experience is purchased (Bennett, 2000). According to Pearce (1989), components within the content of the tourism product (attractions, facilities, accessibility, image and price) combine to form the structure of the product. That is, the structure of the tourism product is created when all components complement each other.

Product development must concern all components of the tourism product in order to enhance the tourist experience. Therefore resources in the tourism industry such as nature sights should be used only when it is known that potential tourists would be fully satisfied. According to Bramwell (1998), tourism products and services should meet the market place demand and be based on the efficient and effective use of natural resources at a destination in order to ensure quality experience.

2.3 WILDLIFE TOURISM

Wildlife tourism is based on encounters with non-domesticated animals in their natural environment or captivity, and is becoming an important component of tourism world-wide (Rodger & Moore, 2004; Higginbottom, 2004).

According to Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001), wildlife tourism involves travelling to a destination to view animals and the environment. Curtin (2005:2) defines wildlife tourism as

“a hedonistic activity; the purchase of which is shrouded in imaginary, myth and intangibility, especially given that in many cases, there are no guarantees that the focal species will be seen.”

Higginbottom (2004) classified wildlife tourism into four categories:

- Wildlife-watching tourism – it involves viewing and interacting with free ranging wild animals.
- Captive-wildlife tourism – it concerns viewing wild animals within a man-made confinement such as zoos, national parks and animal sanctuaries.
- Hunting tourism – it is about hunting wild animals.
- Fishing tourism – involves interacting with water-living wild animals by way of killing them mainly for consumption.

According to Higginbottom (2004), the goals for wildlife tourism are sustainability and maximising benefits. Sustainable tourism is tourism developed and maintained in such a manner that it remains viable and does not change the environment. It aims at minimising long-term costs to the physical environment.

The concept *sustainability* in wildlife tourism emphasises that wildlife tourism should be planned in a way that it maximises benefits to both the community and stakeholders. The wildlife tourism benefits are derived in the following manner:

- Wildlife tourism brings financial benefits to individual business beyond those needed to sustain the business.
- Wildlife tourism brings psychological benefits to visitors beyond the ones needed to cope with the demand.
- Wildlife tourism brings economic benefits to the host communities.

- Wildlife tourism brings social benefits to host communities such that their quality of life is enhanced.

Wildlife tourism purchasing decisions are based on promise and a socially constructed image of an appealing experience. Tourists mostly want physical, intellectual and spiritual stimulation from their travel. Thus wildlife tourism consumption is about purchasing experiences rather than items. Experiences include natural spaces and wildlife with the key feature of the visitor experience being the close proximity to the wildlife. According to Curtin (2005), urbanisation brought the need for new, exciting and adventuresome experiences through wildlife tourism; hence it mostly takes place in developing countries. It has become a leading foreign exchange earner in those developing countries and is also accounted for 10% of all international tourism (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). Figure 2.2 presents an illustration of interactions between components of the wildlife tourism experience.

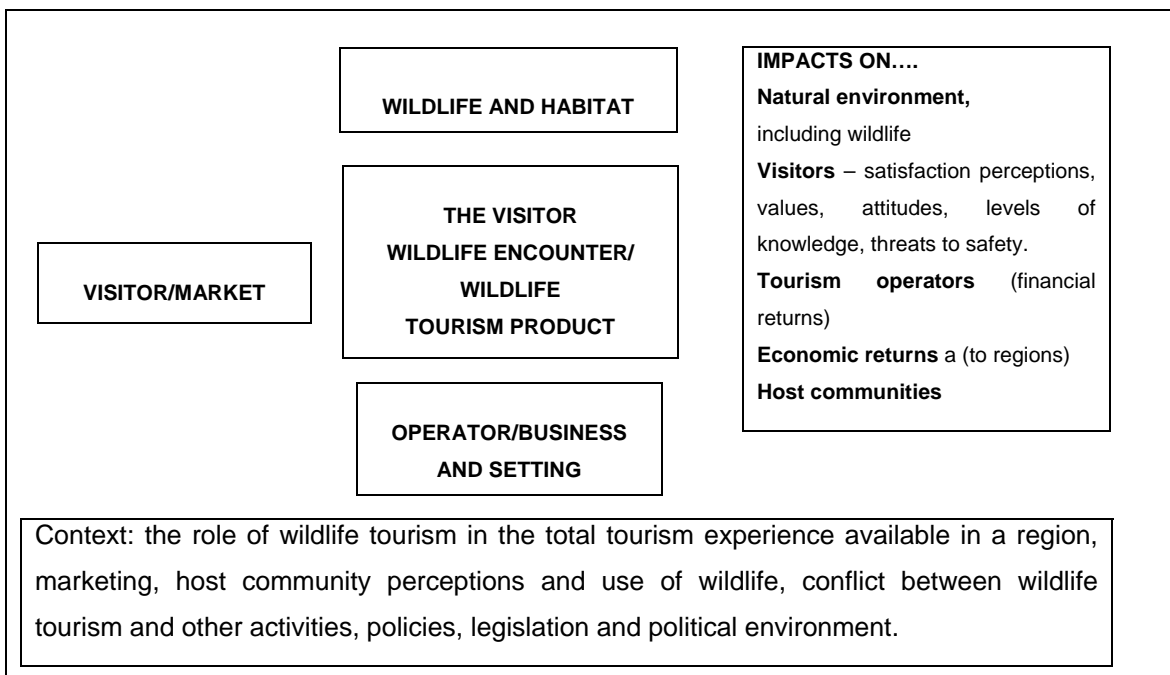


FIGURE 2.2 INTERACTIONS BETWEEN COMPONENTS OF THE WILDLIFE TOURISM EXPERIENCE. *Source:* Higginbottom (2004:6)

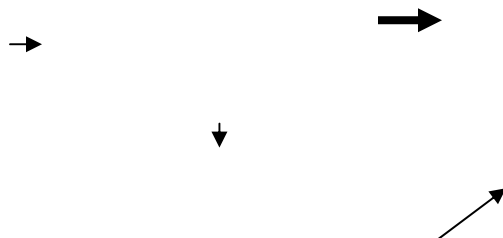


Figure 2.2 illustrates the interaction between wildlife, the visitor, the visitor market and the wildlife service provider (operator/business). These interact in such a way that they impact on the environment, tourists (visitors), tourism operators, economic returns and the host communities. This Figure indicates that the wildlife tourism experience is derived from a combination of components.

The tourist experience is genuine because individuals feel they are in touch with the real world (nature). It then follows that the importance of the tourist place is central to the concept *enjoying wildlife* in the natural setting. In some cases, the habitat can be a more enjoyable experience than the wildlife sights themselves. Curtin (2005) argues that the identity of tourist places is based on the physical setting, activities and the degree of involvement the consumer has with the environment. He continues to argue that in wildlife tourism, pleasure is derived from five factors: viewing animals in the natural habitat; seeing a wide range of species; interacting with wild animals in close proximity; experiencing the sense of habitat (place) and sharing experiences with others. Higginbottom (2004) argues that some natural environments are more species-rich than others and as such; the context of experience may be varied as follows:

- Unguided encounters with wildlife in the natural environment
- Nature-based tours that may include wildlife
- Sightseeing tours that include some wildlife-watching
- Research, conservation and/or education tours that involve wildlife
- Specialised wildlife tours such as safari tours and bird-watching tours
- Tourism facilities within which there is some wildlife in the surroundings

According to Braithwaite (2001), wildlife tourism has an overlapping relationship with other types of tourism such as nature-based tourism, ecotourism and rural tourism. All the three mentioned types of tourism are affected by the consumptive use of wildlife and human relations with animals. Figure 2.3 illustrates the nature of relationships between different types of tourism as indicated in the literature.

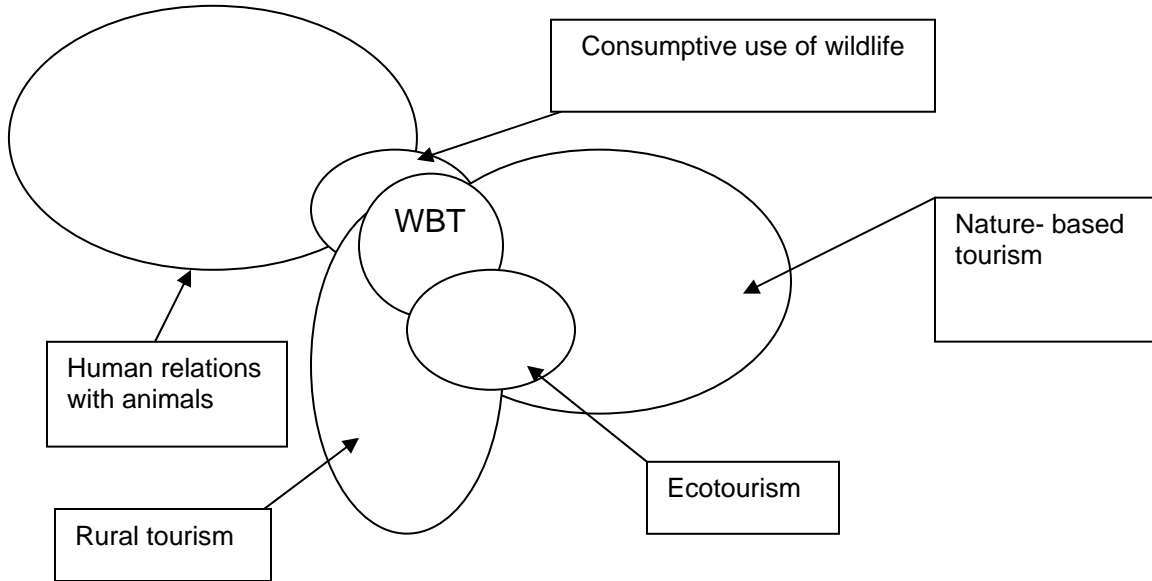


FIGURE 2.3: WILDLIFE-BASED TOURISM (WBT)

Source: Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001:32)

Figure 2.3 illustrates that wildlife-based tourism has a relationship with nature-based tourism, ecotourism and rural tourism. This relationship is such that wildlife-based tourism is presented in a natural setting, normally in rural areas, and it incorporates the concept *ecotourism*. It is crucial for wildlife tourists to develop a relationship with wildlife that does not clash with nature and that any consumptive use of wildlife is done responsibly.

2.3.1 Wildlife tourism and the environment

The relationship between wildlife tourism and the environment calls for a need for tourism to be practised in a way that the two do not clash. This relationship is important because most tourists love the experience of wildlife in a natural environment. Since wildlife tourism takes place in a natural environment, it also has a positive relationship with other forms of nature-based tourism such as rural tourism and ecotourism (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). In addition to the above-mentioned relationships, wildlife tourism has a positive relationship with

conservation. They are both aimed at protecting natural resources and conserving them for use by future generations.

In wildlife tourism, the relationship between tourists and the environment is such that wildlife tourism has to be practised in a way that the two do not clash; thus tourists often advance positive arguments for the importance of conservation and wildlife tourism.

Wildlife tourism service providers therefore seem justified to sell their services by using conserved natural and man-made attractions found at destinations. These include fish, man-made sights, bird-watching and rivers (Simmons, 1994).

Shackley (1996) argues that with the realisation that wildlife tourism impacts on the environment, terms such as environmentally friendly tourism, responsible tourism, low impact tourism and ecotourism have been developed. In order for wildlife tourism to succeed, there should be clear environmental, social and economic objectives. In wildlife tourism, tourists interact with wildlife. Consequently negative impacts on the environment are bound to occur. Some of the impacts of wildlife tourism on the environment are:

- Disturbance of animals – this is likely to lead to an adjusted quality of animal life.
- Modification of the natural habitat
- Habituation – when animals are conditioned to accept humans in the environment, their natural behaviour is modified.
- Exceeding the carrying capacity of the tourist area may lead to soil erosion and/or extinction of certain species (Shackley, 1996).

Higginbottom (2004) developed several key elements that may be used to design effective programs for managing the environmental impacts of wildlife tourism. They are presented in Table 2.1.

**TABLE 2.1: KEY ELEMENTS FOR DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE
MANAGEMENT PROGRAM**

i.	Clearly stated management <i>objectives</i> that are linked to the <i>goals</i>
ii.	<i>Indicators</i> and <i>standards</i> that specify when the objectives are considered to have been achieved
iii.	Appropriate choice and implementation of <i>management actions</i> designed to meet the objectives
iv.	A suitable <i>monitoring</i> program with an effective mechanism for feedback
v.	An adequate process for <i>stakeholder participation</i> at all stages of the management process
vi.	A clearly documents <i>process</i> that brings the above elements together and guides ongoing management

Wildlife tourism also brings positive impacts to the environment. Cooper (1990) argues that as tourism develops, there must be environmental awareness with a development of strategies of looking after the environment. He states that a positive impact of tourism on the environment is that tourism offers a platform for conserving historic buildings, monuments and wildlife. It also contributes to the survival of local art and craft. Other positive impacts of tourism on the environment are:

- The conservation of important natural sites
- Enhancement of the environment
- Improvement of the infrastructure at the tourist area (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

Andereck, Valentine, Knopf and Vogt (2005) believe that, in addition to environmental impacts, tourism brings economic and socio-cultural advantages and disadvantages. Economic advantages are creation of jobs and tax returns. These in turn create inflation. Socio-cultural advantages are improved community services and improved intercultural communications. Disadvantages caused by the socio-cultural impacts are loss of culture, migration, increased crime rates and psychological tension among community members. Negative and positive consequences of tourism development are summarised in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2: IMPACT OF TOURISM ON THE QUALITY OF LIFE

Sectors	Positive consequences	Negative consequences
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Creation of jobs- Tax revenue	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Inflation- Increased price of goods and services
Socio-cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Intercultural communications- Improved community services, infrastructure and facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Increased crime rates- Loss of culture- Psychological tension- Migration
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Protection of parks and wildlife	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Crowding- Air, water and noise pollution

Source: Andereck *et al.* (2005)

2.3.2 Wildlife tourism and ecotourism

Galley and Clifton (2004:71) define ecotourism as

“Travel to natural areas to understand the cultural and natural history of the environment, taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem while producing opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to local citizens.”

According to Ormsby and Mannle (2006), ecotourism is environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas in order to enjoy and appreciate nature. It promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and promotes for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations. It is an interaction of several factors, namely tourists, residents and managers within which there is a union between natural areas and local people (Tsaur *et al.*, 2006). Duffy (2006) argues that ecotourism is responsible travel to natural areas, which aims at conserving the environment and contributing to the well being of local people.

The community participates by managing projects from which they benefit. Thus ecotourism is used as development strategy or a means of achieving sustainable development, especially in developing countries. On a similar note, Sharpley

(2006) argues that ecotourism is a form of tourism development seen as a means of achieving sustainable development at destination areas.

Ecotourism continues to grow because it seeks to express concern for the negative consequences brought by mass tourism by promoting both environmental and socio-economic needs. It promotes economic benefits and environmental awareness for both tourists and the community. The economic benefits come in the form of entrance fees, employment of residents and tourists' expenditures as well as foreign exchange. As a result of these benefits there is an attraction for community infrastructure development and services.

Environmental awareness encourages natural resource conservation, which is an ideal atmosphere for tourists to learn about nature. Clifton and Benson (2006) concede that ecotourism conserves the environment, creates economic opportunities for locals and helps avoid adverse socio-cultural impacts through the presence of visitors. According to Southgate (2006), ecotourism reconciles development with conservation and offers opportunities for economic diversification.

Several authors (Khan & Su, 2003; Stein, Clark & Rikards 2003; Buckley, 2003; Higham & Carr, 2003; Fennel & Weaver, 2005; Ormsby & Mannle, 2006) argue that ecotourism has no universal definition but agree that it has three main characteristics;

- It is nature-based
- It fosters learning opportunities and requires management of ecotourist activities
- It is concerned with sustainability

Lai and Nepal (2006) also argue that ecotourism is an economic and social incentive-driven program that links conservation with community development.

They agree that ecotourism has four key dimensions:

- Conservation of natural resources
- Preservation of cultural tradition

- Sustainable community development
- Participation in ecotourism planning and management

Ecotourism seems to be more concerned with the welfare of the local people who live within the tourist area; hence there is an emphasis on sustainability. Stein *et al.* (2003) points out that like wildlife tourism, ecotourism is nature-based and encourages participation of locals for purposes of sustainability. Stein *et al.* (2003:156) state,

“ecotourism is an approach to encourage nature-based tourism opportunities that encourage responsible travel to natural areas, and improve the welfare of local people.”

Winson (2006) and Sharpley (2006) believe ecotourism is a form of sustainable development and is often referred to as responsible tourism. Its characteristics are that:

- It occurs in natural areas and promotes positive environmental ethics.
- It is a subject within which tourists learn about the importance of not degrading the environment so that they benefit from the flora and fauna.
- It improves the socio-economic condition of local communities.
- It shifts power to local tourism service providers through encouragement of local participation.

According to Tsaur and Lin (2006), in order for ecotourism to succeed, it has to be developed such that all its dimensions and characteristics are satisfactorily met. Awareness must exist that tourism resources at destination areas are vital for ecotourist attraction. The environmental dimension ensures protection of local resources such as water and forestry through good administration.

Conservation provides residents with sustainable agriculture and fishery. The economic dimension ensures residents' participation in tour guiding and environmental conservation work. As a result, employment opportunities for

residents are safe guarded. Through the social dimension of ecotourism, education and training raise residents' resources and cultural identity and elevate their awareness of environmental protection.

In order to emphasise the characteristics of ecotourism, Fennel and Weaver (2005) suggest two ideal types of ecotourism: minimalist and comprehensive. The former focuses on specific scenery within the natural environment. It is site-specific and status quo oriented while maintaining a weak approach of sustainability. The latter emphasises a holistic approach on the environment. It is also concerned with human interaction within a specific ecotourism environment. Figure 2.4 presents characteristics of minimalist and comprehensive ecotourism.

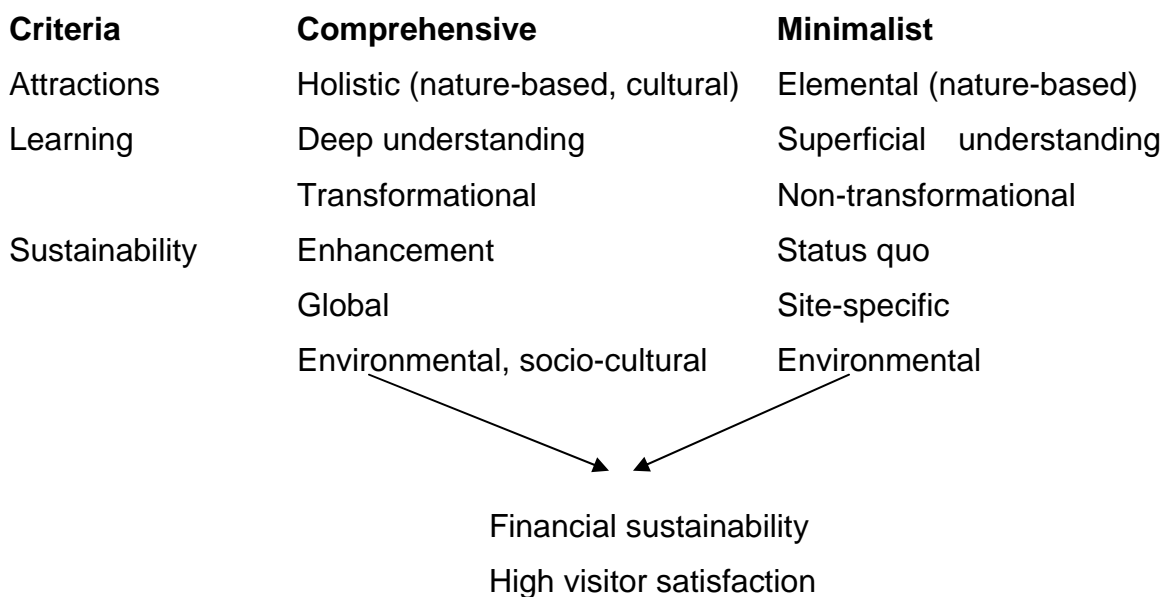


FIGURE 2.4: COMPREHENSIVE AND MINIMALIST ECOTOURISM TYPES

Source: Fennel and Weaver (2005)

Figure 2.4 emphasises the three criteria of ecotourism: attractions, learning opportunities for the community members and sustainable use of resources.

Higham and Carr (2003:22) developed parameters with which to define ecotourism. These are presented in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3: DEFINING PARAMETERS OF ECOTOURISM

Essential parameters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Commercially viable - Nature-based - Visitor management - Low impact - Ecologically sustainable - Conservation advocacy - General visitor interpretation
Preferable parameters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Restore environments - Small scale - Low visitor numbers - Visitor education - Interpretation of environmental values - Product development
Employed where applicable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Community involvement - Local ownership - Cultural interpretation - Consumptive - Linked to science and research

As indicated in Table 2.3, the defining parameters of ecotourism are threefold: essential, preferable parameters and those that are employed where it is applicable.

Fennel and Weaver (2005) contend that there are two types of ecotourism: hard and soft ecotourism. They present the two types in a figure form.

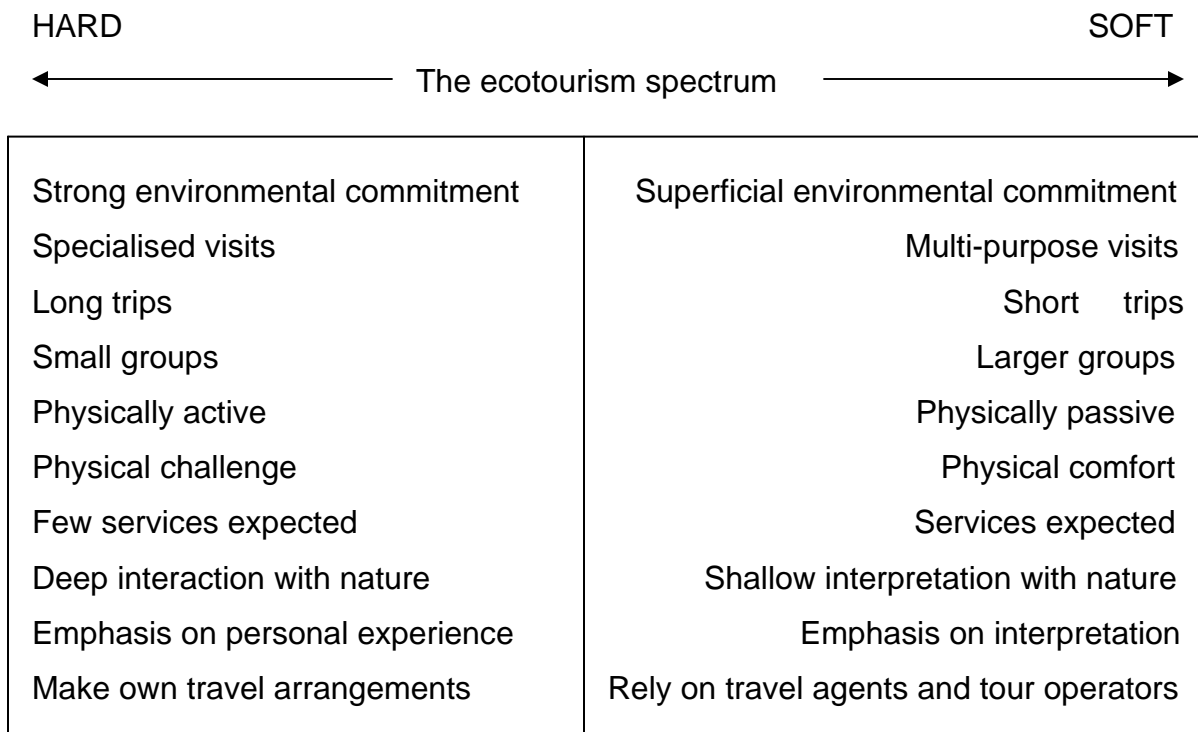


FIGURE 2.5: HARD AND SOFT TYPES OF ECOTOURISM

Source: Fennel and Weaver (2005:378)

Lai and Nepal (2006) believe ecotourism projects need to be developed such that they do incorporate all the ecotourism characteristics and dimensions. They then developed guidelines of ecotourism development as presented in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.4: GUIDELINES OF ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Dimensions and guidelines of ecotourism development
<p><i>Dimension 1: conservation of natural resources</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ecotourism development should contribute to the conservation of natural ecosystems (Honey, 1999; Wallace, 1996).• Ecotourism development should encourage local communities to build the partnership for protected area conservation (Wight, 1994).• Ecotourism development should provide education programs for local communities to learn and raise their awareness of natural heritage (Honey, 1999; Wallace, 1996; Wight, 1994).
<p><i>Dimension 2: preservation of cultural tradition</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ecotourism development should ensure that the economic benefits to local people should complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices (Cooke, 1982; Wallace, 1996).• Ecotourism development should provide education programs for local communities to learn and raise their awareness of their cultural heritage (Wight, 1994).
<p><i>Dimension 3: sustainable community development</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ecotourism development should be operated in an environmentally and socially responsible manner so that negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts could be minimized (Honey, 1999; Wallace, 1996; Cooke, 1982; Wight, 1994).• Ecotourism development should provide long-term environmental, socio-cultural and economic benefits to the protected area as well as the nearby communities (Honey, 1999; Wight, 1994).
<p><i>Dimension 4: participation in ecotourism planning and management</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The promotion of local attractions should be subject to residents' endorsement (Cooke, 1982; Wallace, 1996).• Ecotourism development should promote communication and interaction between all interested groups including local residents, tourists, protected area managers, government, NGOs, tour operators and scientists, both before and during operations (Sproule and Suhandi, 1998; Wight, 1994).• Ecotourism development should maximize local participation (Cooke, 1982; Sproule & Suhandi, 1998; Wallace, 1996).

Source: Lai and Nepal (2006:1120)

Similarly, Parker and Khare (2005) propose factors that are critical in economic development as follows:

- Environmental success factors: the environment determines the feasibility of any ecotourism project. Success factors are the quality of the project site (wilderness setting, wildlife viewing and climate), water situation and opportunity costs incurred by the users.
- Community success factors: projects should originate from the community and not from the external entrepreneurs. Critical success factors of the community are the community partnerships, definition of the community, dialogue between the project managers and the community and the community poverty and social inclusion.
- Economic success factors: they include a fine political environment, adequate legal system and security, infrastructure such as an airport and a good road network and an accommodative government policy.

Sharpley (2006) also mentions that there are pillars that should be used to develop ecotourism. They are:

- 1) *Environment*: ecotourism is a low-impact tourism that should be managed in such a way that it contributes to the conservation of flora and fauna of natural areas.
- 2) *Development*: ecotourism should encourage local participation and sustain and control tourism development to the benefit of the local communities.
- 3) *Experience*: ecotourism should provide learning opportunities and a meaningful relationship between tourists, the environment and the local community.

Sharpley (2006) continues by arguing that in order for ecotourism to achieve its goals, tourists have to behave in a manner that does not conflict its pillars. Such behaviour is essential to the development and sustainability of ecotourism.

Hernandez Cruz, R.E., Baltazar, E. B., Gomez, G.M. & Estrada Lugo, E.I.J. (2005) and Saarinen (2006) contend that ecotourism as an option for promoting

economic development and conservation came as a result of the following factors:

- Industrial growth and urbanisation that led to the destruction of ecosystems and deterioration of the environment
- Negative impacts of mass tourism

Declining commodity prices and foreign debts forced developing countries to search for economic alternatives such as ecotourism in order to generate foreign exchange.

Literature reveals that participation of local community members in ecotourism projects is critical. Parker and Khare (2005) therefore argue that it is important to understand the concept *community* in order to implement successful community development projects. They proposed four models for defining a community:

- The resource model: this model does not provide for community members who are not directly involved in the project.
- The ecological model: this model is likely to include people who are not directly involved in the project because it caters for all people living in the ecosystem within which the project is situated.
- The biological model: it provides for the protection of certain species outside the project area and increases the number of community members the project is responsible for.
- The territorial model: it is concerned with the proximity to the project and is usually defined by existing administrative boundaries. This is a widely used model.

Table 2.5 describes and summarises characteristics of a community that are vital for the successful implementation of any tourism community-based project.

TABLE 2.5: CHARACTERISTICS OF A COMMUNITY

Cohesion: it refers to a sense of common identity and interest which brings people together for a collaborative action and leads them to collectively differentiate themselves from others. Its source arises from culture and history, so it may result from political and economic factors, which often force people to share a resource base.

Demarcation: cohesion sets social boundaries and determines membership. Demarcation sets the boundaries of jurisdiction for the collective regime. It is commonly based on spatial criteria, a delineation of fixed land area and the resources on it.

Legitimacy: internal legitimacy of a community, which often arises from socio-cultural and a socio-economic criterion is vital. Legitimacy is required for the community leadership and processes.

Resilience: allows the community to adapt in content and structure and is a key tool to the management of risk in uncertain environments and livelihood systems.

Source: Southgate (2006)

Tosun (2006) believes the different types of community participation enables project implementers to assess the level of participation by community members. He developed the following types of community participation:

- Spontaneous participation: it is an active, bottom-up participation type. Community members directly participate in decision-making and the planning process.
- Induced participation: it is a top-down, formal and passive participation. It is indirect and often characterised by manipulation.
- Coercive participation: it is also top-down and passive. Community members may participate in project implementation but not necessarily share benefits. This kind of participation is often characterised by paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation.

According to Ormsby and Mannle (2006), ecotourism will meet its objectives when all collaborating partners are involved in the development of programmes.

They state that

“environmentally and culturally sensitive ecotourism programmes can play a key role in justifying the rationale for the existence, maintenance and future benefits of protected areas worldwide (Ormsby & Mannle, 2006:283).”

2.3.2.1 Ecotourists

According to Khan and Su (2003), ecotourists travel to uncontaminated areas for purposes of studying and enjoying the natural scenery and the cultural features found at the area. It is seen as a low impact and sustainable alternative to mass tourism (Pennisi, Holland & Stein, 2004). Sharpley (2006) defines ecotourists as “people who require environmentally compatible recreational opportunities” (Sharpley, 2006:8). He argues, “an ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labour or financial means.” (Sharpley, 2006:9.)

Khan and Su (2003) suggest that ecotourists are willing to modify their behaviour because they are aware of negative environmental impacts on tourism. Thus, prior to departure, an ecotourist should be informed about issues relating to the following aspects:

- Destination area and its culture
- Acting responsible, respecting local communities and avoiding any damage to the environment
- Further appreciation of the place visited and providing feedback to others

Galley and Clifton (2004) argue that ecotourists seek different experiences from those found at home through the enjoyment of undisturbed nature. They developed four categories of ecotourists:

- Hard-core nature tourists – they involve in activities such as education about sustainability and removal of litter at a tourist destination.

- Dedicated nature tourists – they travel to protected areas to understand local, natural and cultural history of the area.
- Mainstream nature tourists – they travel to a particular area to take an unusual trip.
- Casual nature tourists – they incidentally participate in nature activities as part of a broader trip.

Similarly, Sharpley (2006) further proposed three main groups of ecotourists:

- “do it yourself tourists” – they are independent, flexible and mobile
- “ecotourists on tours” – these are the up-market group of tours
- “school or scientific groups” – they focus on environmental education and research

Novelli *et al.* (2006) proposed psycho-graphic characteristics of ecotourists as follows:

- They have environmental ethics.
- They have the willingness not to degrade the resources.
- They focus on the intrinsic rather than the extrinsic motivations.
- Their aim is to benefit wildlife and the environment.
- They strive for firsthand experience with the natural environment.
- They possess both cognitive and affective dimensions.

According to Galley and Clifton (2004), the environmental commitment within ecotourists is influenced by three factors:

- Knowledge of issues associated with tourism and the environment
- Attitude towards the environment
- The degree of other commitments in their lives

Although ecotourism is generally seen as a positive program in terms of the benefits it brings to communities, it often yields negative results if not wisely

implemented. Ormsby and Mannle (2006) highlighted some of the negative impacts of ecotourism as the following:

- It brings a change of natural norms.
- Ecotourism impacts on the ecosystem e.g. it has the ability of causing stress to wild animals.
- It leads to trampling of vegetation and soil erosion.
- The quality of water in the area is often degraded.
- Overuse of the tourism area may result in loss of wildlife and natural habitat.
- The ecotourism area may lose qualities of natural beauty, charm and seclusion that initially made it appealing.

Southgate (2006) argues that the heterogeneity of a community can hamper the success of a community-based tourism such as ecotourism projects. For such projects to succeed there has to be cohesion, legitimacy, delineation and resilience within communities.

2.3.2.2 Similarities of ecotourism and wildlife tourism

- Ecotourism has wildlife tourism-related activities such as game viewing, bird-watching and photography (Higham & Carr, 2003; Hughes *et al.*, 2005).
- Tourists experience natural environment/wilderness (Galley & Clifton, 2004).
- They are both conservation-oriented (Pennisi *et al.*, 2004).
- They promote protection of the natural environment (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Stein *et al.*, 2003).
- They promote environmental awareness (Khan & Su, 2003; Stein *et al.*, 2003). Their activities are set within national parks and other protected areas (Wearing *et al.*, 2002; Buckley, 2002).

2.3.2.3 Differences between ecotourism and wildlife tourism

- Ecotourism focuses more on the educational component of tourism (Galley & Clifton, 2004; Higham & Carr, 2003).
- Ecotourism is more concerned with sustainability (Wearing *et al.*, 2002; Higham & Carr, 2003).
- Involvement of locals in activities is vital in ecotourism (Higham & Carr, 2003).
- Ecotourism is more of a concept than an industry (Buckley, 2003; Stein *et al.*, 2003).
- Wildlife tourism has a consumptive dimension e.g. hunting and fishing (Pennisi *et al.*, 2004; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001).
- Ecotourism is more concerned with improving the welfare of the local people (Stein *et al.*, 2003; Galley & Clifton, 2004).

According to Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001), the characteristics of ecotourism (education and conservation) overlap with consumptive use of wildlife such as hunting and fishing.

Rural tourism is also similar to both wildlife tourism and ecotourism in that although it is concerned with issues of regional development in a farmed landscape, it usually has substantial natural areas. In this sense, Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001:32) argue that

“wildlife tourism may be defined as an area of overlap between nature-based tourism, ecotourism, consumptive use of wildlife, rural tourism and human relations with animals.”

2.3.3 *Wildlife tourism and sustainability*

Sustainability refers to maximum levels of perceived impacts before the negative impacts are considered disturbing. It should be linked to the needs of the people and use of natural and cultural resources in a way that will safeguard human needs in the future (Saarinen, 2006). Kernel (2005) emphasises that the concept sustainability comprises three factors: ecological, socio-cultural and economic factors. According to Lordkipanidze, Brezet and Backman (2004), diversification of tourism products and services is needed in order to cope with the increasing demand of new tourism needs. This can be made feasible by stronger involvement of the entrepreneurial sector and the utilisation of opportunities for sustainable tourism development.

Sustainable tourism development is

“management of resources in a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural heritage, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems (Lordkipanidze *et al.*, 2004:787).”

Choi and Sirakaya (2006) argue that sustainable development for tourism should aim at improving community members' quality of life with economic benefits by protecting natural environment and providing a high-quality experience for tourists. It should create a long-term economic link between communities and industries minimise negative effects of tourism and improve socio-cultural well being of community members. Following this argument, sustainable tourism development affects variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. If the principles of sustainability are incorporated in the development of wildlife tourism, tourists are more likely to have a satisfactory experience at tourist destinations.

Tosun (2001:291) defines sustainable development as

“development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It is a development strategy that manages all assets, natural

resources, and human resources, as well as financial and physical assets, for increasing long-term wealth and well-being.“

Sustainable development as a goal rejects policies and practices that support current living standards by depleting the productive base, including natural resources, and that leave future generations with poorer prospects and greater risks than their own.

Definitions of sustainable tourism development highlight three arguments namely that:

- it is a long-term strategy for preserving and conserving the environment;
- it proposes an inter and intra-generational balanced level of welfare;
- it is perceived to be a universally valid prescription that does not consider a country's level of development, socio-cultural and political conditions.

The importance of sustainable development calls for a need for principles to be considered when developing wildlife tourism. The following are principles needed for developing tourism.

- 1) Sustainable tourism development (STD) should contribute to the satisfaction of basic and felt needs of those excluded in local tourist destinations.
- 2) STD should reduce inequality and absolute poverty in local tourist destinations.
- 3) STD should accelerate national, regional and local economic growth and this growth must be fairly shared across the social spectrum.
- 4) STD should contribute to the emergence of necessary conditions in tourist destinations, which will lead local people to grow in self-esteem.
- 5) STD should achieve all principles in an indefinite period of time without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Source: Tosun (2001).

According to Kernel (2005), there are steps that need to be taken to develop a successful sustainable development wildlife tourism project. They are illustrated in Figure 2.6.

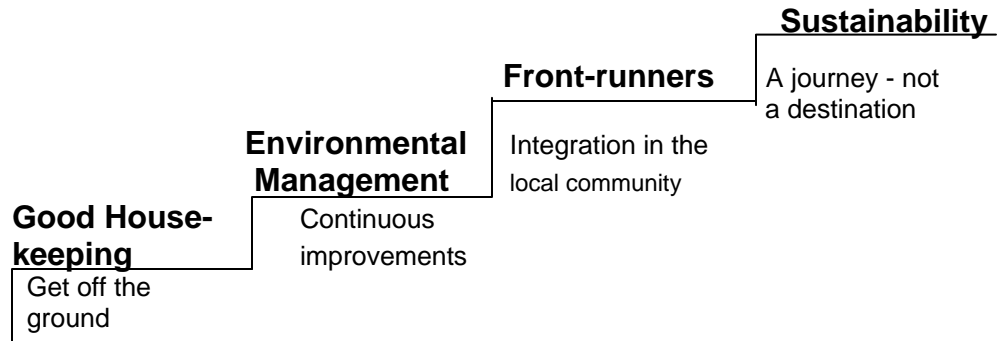


FIGURE: 2.6: STEPS FOR DEVELOPING A SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT *Source: Kernel (2005:158).*

Figure 2.6 illustrates critical steps that need to be taken when developing a sustainable development project. Such steps are further elaborated in Table 2.6.

TABLE 2.6: A JOURNEY TOWARDS SUSTAINABILITY FOR TOURISM ENTERPRISES *Source: Kernel (2005:159)*

Step 1 Good house-keeping	Step 2 Environmental Management	Step 3 Front-runners	Step 4 Sustainability
Activity Indicators <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make environmental policy - Designate a person responsible for the environment - Compliance with regulations - Systematic recycling of waste and composting organic waste 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Implement systematic environmental management with new targets and action plans - Eco-friendly Maintenance of green areas - Develop green shopping policy - Offer organic food 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Implement certified environmental management system - Eco-friendly building and construction extended green shopping policy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sustainability is integrated in the vision and development plans of the enterprise - Making customer Investigations
Performance Indicators <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review and begin to reduce use of water and electricity - Management of cleaning and washing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduce use of water and electricity - Review health and safety - Management of noise and air emissions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management of safety and indoor climate - Make a review of important environmental impacts - Management of own transport - Management of environment and health damaging substances 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make indicators based on a life cycle assessment - Social and ethical indicators
Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Internal environmental report 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Green account including green areas - Tourist information on green services, activities and public transport - Initiating eco-friendly behaviour by tourists 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Green account, including transport - Health and safety account - Socio-cultural activities for tourists 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Environmental, economic and social account
Stakeholder relations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employee participation in the environmental activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Involvement in local networks - Employees have had an introduction to environmental management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Green demands to suppliers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Surplus on the ethical balance in the local community

Table 2.6 and Figure 2.6 indicate four steps that should be taken in developing a sustainable tourism enterprise. They are: good housekeeping; environmental management; front-runners and sustainability. There are activity indicators,

performance indicators and communication and stakeholder participation relations in each step. The purpose of activity and performance indicators is to ensure all necessary activities in each step are well implemented. Communication and participation of all stakeholders is crucial for the sustainability of tourism projects.

Sustainable tourism is closely related to the concept *ecotourism*. Like ecotourism, sustainable tourism emphasises the needs of the industry and the sustainable use of resources. Sustainability is concerned with the needs of the community and the use of natural and cultural resources in a way that will safeguard future human needs. Saarinen (2006:1124) defines sustainable tourism as

“tourism, which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community.”

Kernel (2005) argues that sustainable tourism presents a challenge to integrate economic, social and environmental issues in tourism planning. Stakeholders must be involved in the change processes towards sustainable tourism.

Table 2.7 presents critical factors that need to be considered in stakeholder collaboration.

TABLE 2.7: FACTORS FOR STAKEHOLDER COLLABORATION

Source: Kernel (2005:153)

Phases in the collaboration process	Factors critical to the collaboration process
Problem-setting, diagnosis of the problem and joint search for information	1. Appointment of a legitimate convener to initiate and facilitate collaboration 2. Inclusion of key stakeholders 3. Recognition of individual/mutual benefits from the process
Direction-setting, achieving political consensus, inventing mutually agreed upon solution	4. Recognition of high degree of interdependence in planning and managing the project 5. Solutions based on mapping of and constructive dealing with differences 6. Joint formulation of aims and objectives
Structuring, ratification of agreement and plans for implementation	7. Joint ownership of decisions and collective responsibility for future development 8. Perceptions that decisions arrived at will be implemented

Factors for stakeholder collaboration presented in Table 2.7 are problem-setting, direction-setting and structuring. Their purpose is to ensure a successful stakeholder collaboration process. Eight critical factors in the collaboration process are also indicated in Table 2.7.

Saarinen (2006) developed the following perspectives of sustainable tourism:

- 1) The resource-based tradition – a resource-based sustainability founded on a search for a number that should not be exceeded (the carrying capacity) without negative impact on tourism resources and the environment. The numbers of tourists and their behaviour have to be altered in order to achieve tourism growth and development. The limit to impacts is evaluated by the resource (environment) and its condition or by comparing conditions of used area (impacted area/environment) to a similar area not used (potential resource).

- 2) Activity-based tradition – it implies that certain tourist activities may have a maximum capacity, i.e. certain activities having limits to their growth or certain industry segments having different abilities to cope with impacts and tourists. In this tradition, tourism is seen as an economic activity. The limit of growth is based on the industry (activity) and its capacity and can only be modified with new facilities and infrastructure. Tourism is evaluated by its capacity for growth. Non-growth would mean that the limit has been reached and modifications are needed for future development. In conclusion, activity-based sustainability is about the relationship between activities (the nature of the industry) and development (the intensity of the industry).
- 3) Community-based tradition – this tradition of sustainable tourism refers to the use of negotiations and participation to set limits to tourism growth. It implies that sustainability can be defined through a negotiation process, which will socially construct the limits of growth.

2.3.4 Wildlife tourism and entrepreneurship

According to Lordkipanidze *et al.* (2004), an increased demand for nature-based tourism calls for a higher degree of involvement of the entrepreneurial sector. It is in this way that jobs can be created, with added economic value to the community with the aim of keeping tourism resources within that community.

They argue that entrepreneurship is the primary engine for economic development with innovation as its central element. Following this argument, it is clear that as the engine for economic development, entrepreneurship may affect wildlife tourist satisfaction. Development of infrastructure may impact on the variables of wildlife tourist satisfaction. Consequently there is a need to discuss the role of entrepreneurship in wildlife tourism.

The following are important roles of an entrepreneur:

- Introducing new goods or quality of goods
- Introducing a new method of production (something untried in the industry)

- Opening a new market
- Utilising a new source of supply
- Carrying out some new organisational forms of the industry
- Understanding market principles
- Protecting the environment
- Building strong and lasting relationship with the local community
- Understanding success factors for the project

Lordkipanidze *et al.* (2004) argue that the entrepreneurial climate is vital for the success of wildlife tourism projects; hence utilities, service taxes and regulations are important to them. In addition to an enabling climate, entrepreneurs need motivations and other conditions for success. Motivations include a need for achievement, satisfaction from work and risk-taking. Other conditions are skills and expertise, economic benefits and new technologies.

Figure 2.7 presents a summary of the entrepreneurial climate elements.

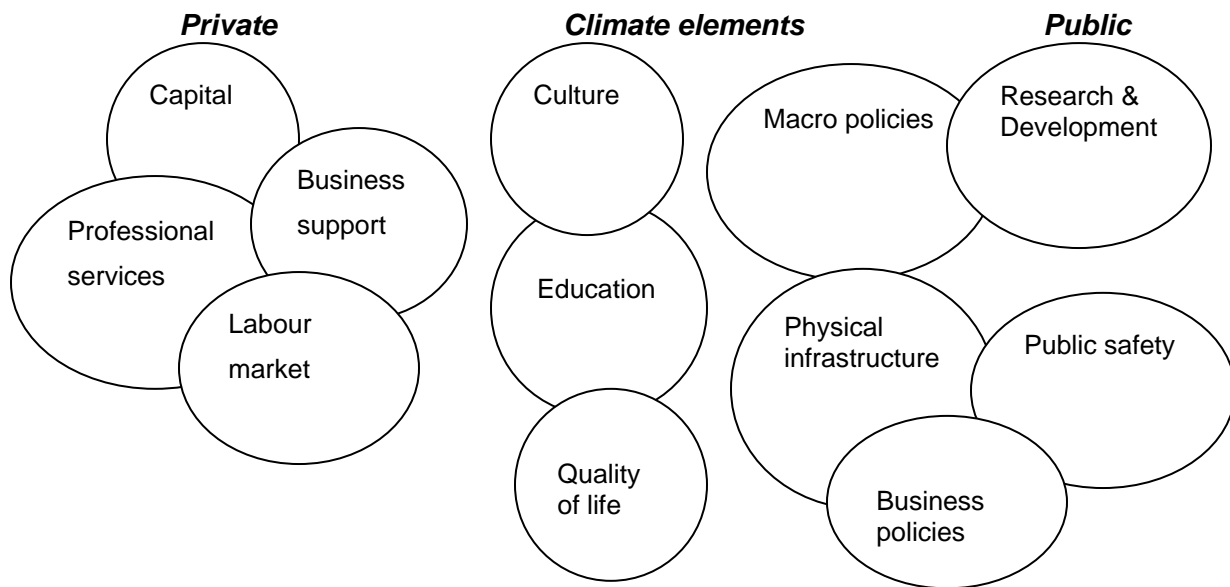


FIGURE 2.7: AN OVERVIEW OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL CLIMATE ELEMENTS *Source: Lordkipanidze et al. (2004)*

Entrepreneurial climate elements presented in Figure 2.7 are private, climate and public elements. This implies that the public and private sector must collaborate in order to develop a successful entrepreneurial project. As they collaborate, culture, education and the quality of life must be considered. The three climate elements are crucial because sustainable tourism development involves community members. Hence the culture, education and quality of life of the community members have to be enhanced through sustainable tourism development.

The relationship between entrepreneurship and sustainable tourism development is the link between business and the environment. Innovation should be used to create a harmonial relationship between the two concepts so that they do not contradict one another with the way they are implemented. Sustainable entrepreneurship is concerned with social, environment and economic issues. Thus it can maximise efficiency of the resource use, minimize waste and safeguard environment and cultural qualities.

The concept *entrepreneurship* is vital within the wildlife tourism industry because it assists in the development of rural communities. It is a good strategy for rural communities located near national parks because they are unable to practise agricultural projects for fear of crop destruction by wildlife. The following are categories of wildlife-based entrepreneurship:

- Experience of services based on opportunities offered by nature
- Game and bird-watching
- Exploitation of water resources
- Photography of nature

Entrepreneurship has positive impacts on tourism development. Table 2.8 summarises the economic, socio-cultural and environmental advantages of entrepreneurship in sustainable tourism development.

TABLE 2.8: ADVANTAGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Economic advantages	Socio-cultural advantages	Environmental advantages
- An increase in overall employment	- Strengthening the local culture and identity through promoting local products	- Protection and preservation of the rural/cultural/natural heritage
- A diversification of local economic activity	- Decreased migration, good occupational opportunities and an educational background for the young generation	- Reduction of resource use, minimizing waste and safeguarding environmental qualities
- Strengthening and expansion of existing enterprises	- Improvement of the quality of life	- Promotion of sustainable development of tourism products and related business areas
- An increase in the number of investors	- Increase awareness of the value of heritage and need for its protection	- Sustainable land management
- An increase in the number of local tourism enterprises	- Improved educational level	- Less environmental impact due to the small scale of rural tourism entrepreneurs

Source: Lordkipanidze *et al.* (2004:796)

Advantages of entrepreneurship in tourism development are economic, socio-cultural and environmental. These advantages indicate that tourism development serves to develop community members. Incorporation of the concept *entrepreneurship* ensures, amongst others, education to community members.

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the literature reviewed on the tourism industry and wildlife tourism. Tourism comprises interdependent sections, namely transport, accommodation, attractions and entertainment. It is an industry that has been affected by changing interest trends (Martin & Mason, 1993) which has led to a

further sub-division of tourism into specialised areas such as wildlife tourism and nature tourism (Brunt, 1997; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001). The three characteristics of services (inseparability, perishability and heterogeneity) are applicable to tourism because it is a service industry.

Wildlife tourism is based on encounters with the flora and the fauna in the natural environment (Shackley, 1996). It has become a source of foreign exchange in most developing countries (Rodger & Moore, 2004).

Wildlife tourism is associated with the environment, ecotourism, sustainability and entrepreneurship. The association of wildlife tourism and the environment is fragile because it requires that the two are handled in a way that they do not clash. Wildlife tourism has positive and negative impacts on the environment. Among other advantages, wildlife tourism enhances the environment through conservation and facilitates the improvement of infrastructure at the tourist area. The negative impacts are that it alters the animal behaviour and affects the cultural practices of communities at destination areas (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

The three pillars of ecotourism are the environment, development of locals and the provision of learning opportunities for local community members. Ecotourism is therefore often applied to wildlife tourism as a concept (Buckley, 2003).

According to Galley and Clifton (2004), the concept *sustainability* is crucial to wildlife tourism because it has become a popular industry in many countries. Wildlife tourism resources have to be sustained for consumption for future generations (Tosun, 2001). It is for this reason that Lordkipanidze *et al.* (2004) maintain that sustainability in wildlife tourism calls for resources to be utilised in an economical way.

Entrepreneurship is concerned with innovation and economic development. Therefore its application to wildlife tourism development guards against development of infrastructure impaction on natural resources. Characteristics of entrepreneurship bring positive economic, socio-cultural and environmental impact on wildlife tourism development.

CHAPTER THREE

SERVICE QUALITY AND TOURIST SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Quality is a crucial tool for industries. It plays an important role in the buying decisions of consumers and has been described as the most important consumer trend of the 1980s and beyond (Rabin, 1983). Failure to satisfy consumer demand for quality is likely to have serious implications. According to Townsend and Gebhardt (1986), if there is no quality, there will be no sale.

Juran (1988) mentions that the possible implications of producing poor quality products and services are loss of sales due to the superior quality offered by competitors; customer complaints; product liability; re-doing defective work and the scrapping of products will result in an increase in costs as well as a threat to society. Products of an industrial society have an influence on the general quality of human life.

Superior quality is likely to bring advantages to an industry. Juran (1988) argues that firms that produce high-quality products are likely to benefit continuously in that they have lower manufacturing costs, they have higher profit margins and larger shares of the market

Quality is very important to business industries. Gavin (1988) believes that there is no doubt that quality influences a firm's profitability prospects. He described certain variables as "the correlates of quality", which means the marketing influences of quality. These variables are profitability, price/cost and market share.

Webb (2003) emphasises a need to understand the tourism experience because it can assist in deciding the management style of the tourism industry. He

believes that this understanding is also important for determining levels of satisfaction.

According to Otto and Ritchie (1996), experience is related to the reactions and feelings of consumers. They defined both the tourism and service experience. Tourism experience is “the subjective mental state felt by the participants while service experience is the subjective personal reactions and feelings experienced by consumers when they consume a service” (Otto & Ritchie, 1996:165, 166).

Go and Govers (2000) argue that wildlife tourism offers tourists an opportunity to experience nature. Bennett (2000) contends that tourism experience is not only about the time the tourist spends at a destination area; it covers several activities that fall into five phases:

- The planning phase involves decision-making on a destination, mode of transport and the type of accommodation.
- The journey phase is about the physical movement of the tourist to a destination.
- The destination phase is the “highlight of the holiday” (Bennett, 2000:15). It is a time when the objective of a holiday is accomplished through the use of the tourism produce (attractions and facilities).
- The return journey phase is when the tourist returns to her/his place of usual residence.
- The revival phase is a phase at which the tourist relives the experience.

Satisfaction remains an important element that ensures sustainability in different service industries, including tourism. According to Akama and Kieti (2003), it is necessary to measure satisfaction of tourists in order to manage performance of the industry. Bigne, Andreu, Kuster and Blesa (2005) suggest that tourist satisfaction research incorporates both affective and cognitive components of satisfaction. This is so because it has been realised that emotional variables also

contribute to the satisfaction process. Hence it is necessary to consider both cognitive and affective variables to explain tourist satisfaction.

Assessment of service quality is mostly used to ascertain satisfaction of consumers. Akama and Kieti (2003) argue that when tourism satisfaction measurement is performed, the level of satisfaction is determined by the extent to which tourist expectations are met. Satisfaction measurement becomes even more important because it is generally believed that satisfied customers are more likely to recommend the tourist destination to others.

According to Bowen (2001), satisfaction can be said to have more to do with emotion than with quality. It seems to involve consumers' feelings about an experience rather than the real quality of services and other tourism products. Bigne *et al.* (2005) add that emotional variables are important in the decision-making process of tourist satisfaction. In order to determine a level of satisfaction, questions such as "did you like it?" are commonly asked, rather than asking about the quality of the experience.

Gabbott and Hogg (1998) contend that satisfaction is a state of mind that can constantly change during experience. In the case of tourism, satisfaction levels can be different for different elements. For example, a tourist may be dissatisfied when he had been kept waiting to be served at dinner, but be satisfied because of spacious and colourful accommodation rooms (Gabbott & Hogg, 1998).

The main aim of this chapter is to discuss the literature review pertaining to the terms service quality and tourist satisfaction. The chapter contains an in-depth discussion of service quality and tourist satisfaction in relation to other relevant aspects such as the tourist experience, expectations and perceptions as well as the measurement of tourist satisfaction.

Critical issues discussed under service quality include definitions of service quality and the importance of service quality within the wildlife tourism industry.

The discussion on tourist satisfaction highlights the effects of price, value and mood on satisfaction.

The chapter concludes with an observation that quality is one of the crucial tools in the wildlife tourism industry.

3.2 SERVICE QUALITY

Zeithaml (1988) has a view that quality can either be objective or perceived. Objective quality can be measured and verified against predetermined ideal standards and perceived quality is a consumer's judgment concerning a service's overall excellence. Zeithaml (1988:78) summarised the difference between the two views by stating that

“perceived quality is different from objective quality, a higher level of abstraction rather than a specific attribute or product; a global assessment that in some cases resembles attitude, and a judgment usually made within a consumer's evoked set.”

In addition to the cited definitions, Garvin (1988) developed five approaches to defining quality:

- The transcendent approach – this approach argues that quality cannot be precisely defined and that it is only recognized through experience.
- The product-based approach – according to this approach, quality is a precise and measurable variable. For example, quality can refer to the amounts of unpriced attributes contained in each unit of the priced attribute.
- The manufacturing-based approach – quality means conforming to predetermined standards and specifications. That is, quality is conformance to requirements.
- The value-based approach – quality is product performance to specifications at an acceptable price or cost. This approach defines quality in terms of costs and prices. That is, quality is a degree of excellence at an acceptable price and the control of variability at an acceptable cost.

According to Garvin (1988), none of the approaches is perfect, but relying on one approach only could cause problems. He argues that each approach could be useful during development stages of a product development process.

Although there are different definitions of quality, most of them emphasise the following:

- The importance of quality.
- The lack of consensus among those who have attempted to define quality has serious implications for all research that involved quality.
- There is emphasis on the importance of consumer needs and preferences.

Managers' perceptions of quality may differ from what consumers regard to be quality. It is for this reason that Zeithaml (1988) suggests the use of perceived quality for definitional purposes rather than product-based, manufacturing-based or objective quality-based attempts to define quality. Perceived quality is what the consumer regards to be quality. Quality seems to be a multidimensional concept, with different meanings for different industries. It appears impossible to capture its definition in a few words.

3.2.1 Defining service quality

Gabbott and Hogg (1998:155) have defined service quality as

“the customer's overall impression of the relative inferiority/superiority of the organisation and its services.”

Townsend & Gebhardt (1986) used two perspectives to define quality:

- quality in fact, which is a degree to which a service is produced according to set specifications. This is a producer's perspective.
- quality in perception, which is a subjective quality according to the customer.

Witt and Muhlemann (1994) have used total quality management (TQM), which is a way of managing the business process to ensure complete customer satisfaction at every stage, internally and externally to explain service quality. Quality refers to satisfying tourists; total quality is to achieve quality at a low cost and TQM means obtaining total quality by involving all parties (Witt & Muhlemann, 1994). Therefore determining satisfaction and quality can be a complicated process, because service quality has different meanings to different people, as both individuals and groups (Teye & Leclerc, 1998).

There is no physical exchange that takes place in most service situations. Therefore “consumer satisfaction, quality perception and possible repeat patronage may be determined solely by the quality of the personal encounter between the service provider and the consumer” (Boshoff, 1989:107).

According to Go and Govers (2000), integrated quality management is important for ensuring that tourists’ needs and expectations are met. They explained integrated quality management as

“the management process designed to enhance the quality of tourism, so as to satisfy tourists’ needs and expectations, achieve a competitive tourist trade, and create and sustain liveable host communities (Go & Govers, 2000:80).“

The two authors argue that collaboration between relevant parties is the key to quality management. This implies that in order to have quality service in Botswana, the wildlife tourism industry and the two relevant departments (Department of Tourism and Department of Wildlife and National Parks) have to collaborate. This collaboration would contribute to the ability and commitment of the wildlife tourist destinations to meet tourists’ needs because there would be minimised conflict of interest. Consequently tourists would be more likely to experience satisfactory services.

The Total Quality Management Guidelines (TQM) by Witt and Muhlemann (1994) suggest that the service package can ensure quality by following these guidelines stated below:

- Tourism service providers must have a clear understanding of their service. This understanding would assist them in adopting a feasible strategy for maximising their service delivery. Understanding of services and a strategy would ensure clear internal and external expectations.
- The service package should be designed in a structured way so that quality is added into the service.
- The service package should be divided into processes, each process with a specific objective and approach.
- Each process should have identified key skills and competences.

In delivering the service, all problem areas should be identified and plans to resolve them should be developed immediately.

3.2.2 Quality and profitability

Kotler (1988) argues that firms that offer superior quality achieve improved profitability through premium pricing, repeat purchasing and customer loyalty and yet are still able to keep costs under control. Garvin (1988) argues that improved quality may lead to higher profitability in two ways; firstly through the market. Improvements in performance or other dimensions of quality lead to an increase in sales and larger market shares. Secondly, profitability may come through costs; lower costs resulting from fewer defects and failures should result in higher profits, provided the costs of these gains do not exceed the resultant savings. In a similar argument, Philips, Chang and Buzzell (1983) point out that quality improvement leads to savings due to experience-based scale economies through their production levels.

Philips *et al.* (1983) found that quality had an indirect influence on profitability through its effects on the market share. They concluded that

“...pursuit of a quality strategy enables the company to command profit margins superior to lower quality competitors” (Philips *et al.*, 1983:4).

3.2.3 Dimensions of service quality

Gavin (1988:49-61) in Boshoff (1989) identified eight dimensions of quality as follows:

- Performance – the primary operating characteristics of products
- Features - the secondary characteristics that supplement the product's basic characteristics
- Reliability – the degree of probability of a product failure within a specified period of time
- Conformance – the degree to which a product design and operating characteristics match pre-established standards
- Durability – the useful life before a product physically deteriorates
- Serviceability – the ease, speed, courtesy and competence of repair
- Aesthetics – the customer's perceptions of how a product looks, feels, sounds, tastes or smells
- Perceived quality – the image, reputation, and name of the product

Although the identified dimensions of quality are believed to be general, some are not applicable to the service industry. These are aesthetics, serviceability and durability. Gavin (1988) contends that each quality dimension is self-contained and distinct; such that a product can be ranked high on one dimension and low on the other. These dimensions cover a broad range of concepts. Some are measurable; others objective and timeless, while others shift with changing fashion.

LeBlanc and Nguyen (1988) believe that service quality depends on customers' perceptions of five service dimensions:

- 1) Corporate image: various attributes including the name of the organisation, its reputation, accessibility, distinctive character, variety of services offered and concern for customers' well-being.
- 2) Internal organisation: nature and efficiency of the back-office operation supplying supporting services.
- 3) Physical environment and instruments: all tangible elements of service delivery; décor, appearance of buildings, business hours and location.
- 4) The service encounter or the interaction between personnel and customers. The evaluation of the encounter is likely to be influenced by the competence, friendliness, reliability, punctuality and attitude of service delivery personnel, behaviour of other customers and procedures used during service delivery.
- 5) Customer satisfaction: the outcome of customers' comparisons of expectations of service delivery and their evaluation of actual service delivery.

These dimensions suggest that the most important factor in accounting for overall service quality is satisfaction with service delivery. In this case, three items would measure satisfaction:

- the organisation's ability to satisfy customer needs
- the degree to which needs are satisfied
- the degree to which past service experiences were liked or disliked.

3.2.4 Importance of service quality in the tourism industry

Service quality is significant because it is concerned with social trends, technology, consumer behaviour and demand. In addition to these there are ever-increasing customer expectations and requirements as well as the value for time and money. Service providers have to convince consumers that benefits of their tourism consumption are worth their investment in time, effort and money. Williams and Buswell (2003) argue that the service quality level is sufficient when consumers are satisfied. They define service quality as "the degree of excellence intended, that meets customer requirements" (Williams & Buswell, 2003:47). An

excellent service quality in the tourism industry is likely to ensure tourists' loyalty and re-visits to tourism destinations.

Teye and Leclerc (1998) maintain that a service has to be delivered as and when needed. The provision of consistent and high-quality service has to be attained at all times. However, they contend that it is not easy to be consistent in providing high-quality service in many service industries, tourism included due to the fact that a service is made of different segments.

According to Bennett (2000), the most critical step in delivering service quality is to determine exactly what the tourists need. Failure to do this would result in failure to provide quality service to tourists. He suggested that service providers need to conduct a marketing research aimed at determining tourists' needs.

3.2.5 The role of interpersonal relationships in service quality

According to Bennett (2000), good interpersonal relations contribute to a balanced service provision. A personal relation is the ability of service providers to relate "to customers as people, to establish rapport with them and to meet their specific needs" (Bennett, 2000:256). Some components that contribute to personal relations are attributes, body language, tone of voice, attentiveness, guidance and problem solving. These components can be used as guidelines for developing service standards for jobs in tourism organizations (Bennett, 2000). Similarly, Witt and Muhlemann, (1994) argue that the human aspect of the service delivery system is a vital contribution to service quality.

Amongst others, important human aspects of the delivery system are clear communication of expectations to staff, trained staff, clear recruitment policies and strategies, specified tourists' roles, good interpersonal skills and problem-solving skills. The presence of the listed elements in service provision would ensure that staff is committed towards providing quality services (Witt and Muhlemann, 1994). Similarly, Ross (1994) argues that an understanding of interpersonal relations in the tourism industry is necessary because service is a

result of the interaction between tourists and the service system, that is, staff, environment and facilities.

3.2.6 Measurement tools in service quality

Measurement tools enable the management of the organisation to evaluate progress in meeting their objectives of providing quality service (Bennett, 2000). Hence the use of measurement tools has to be considered for the evaluation process in providing quality service. Some of the measurement tools are focus group questionnaires, staff feedback on performance and analysis of difficulties encountered.

3.2.6.1 Measurement of service quality

Perceived quality is not easy to define for service sector because of three main reasons. Firstly services are intangible and consumers have few, if any, cues from which to deduce quality (Zeithaml, 1988). Secondly, services are often produced and consumed simultaneously, so there is a limited opportunity for customers to evaluate quality prior to purchasing a service. The third reason is that services are often produced in association with customers during employee-customer interaction. This makes the standardisation of service quality almost impossible. These reasons present themselves as problems and they have made the use of objective measures of service quality almost impossible. Alternative measures of measuring quality in services had to be considered.

Even if quality specifications and standards are laid down, they are likely to be subjective because they are the result of what is perceived by someone to be quality. Consequently, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) proposed that service quality be measured in terms of what customers regard as quality rather than in terms of devised objective or technical service quality specifications. The measurement of service quality has received scant attention because it is a difficult concept to measure. According to LeBlanc and Nguyen (1988), there are three schools of thought that try to address the quality measurement issue:

- those who believe service quality is determined by physical considerations such as facilities and environment
- those who equate service quality with the quality of the service encounter
- those who view service quality as the result of satisfaction derived from the service encounter.

These various points should not be seen as contradictory; they are rather complementary or only emphasise different aspects of service quality.

3.2.6.2 The role of measurement tools in service quality

Witt and Muhlemann (1994) argue that the use of measurement tools has to be considered for the evaluation process in providing quality service. In addition to its contribution to the evaluation process, measurement tools allow the management to collect performance data, analyze it and use the information to make decisions. Measurement tools include focus group questionnaires, staff feedback on performance, analysis of encountered difficulties and a follow-up on all negative evaluation. Ross (1994) also contends that tourist destinations may measure their service quality on the basis of both their internal and external data. This data is usually derived from attempts of monitoring tourist satisfaction. Qu and Ping (1999) stated that some components that can be used to obtain data are tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, communication, credibility, security, courtesy, competence and understanding tourists. They further suggested that tourists could use the components to evaluate the overall service. In addition to the above measurement components, Bennett (2000) included tangibles such as modern equipment, appealing facilities and professional appearance of employees. Management can use these components to obtain information on the customers' rating of the service quality.

3.2.6.3 The SERVQUAL model

Otto and Ritchie (1996) assert that the SERVQUAL, the model developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985), used to measure and evaluate service quality, can be used to monitor services in the wildlife tourism industry. In agreement with Ross

(1994), Bennett (1995:300) suggests that service quality depends on the expected and perceived service; hence “perceived service quality (PSQ) equals Perceptions (P) minus Expectations (E)”. According to Bennett (2000), the SERVQUAL model has five gaps. When these gaps are bridged, the service quality standard can be satisfactory.

The gaps are as follows:

- The gap between customer expectations and management perceptions of these expectations. This gap is created by a lack of marketing research by the service provider and insufficient communication with all employees.
- The gap between management perceptions of customer expectations and the company’s service quality specifications. This is caused by several factors. They are; lack of commitment to service quality by management, absence of goal setting, doubting feasibility and inadequate task standardisation.
- The gap between service quality specifications and actual service delivery. This gap can be due to role conflict among employees, poor technology, lack of teamwork, inappropriate supervision and role ambiguity by employees.
- The gap between the actual service delivery and external communications regarding the service. Raising customer expectations without being able to meet them causes the service delivery communication gap.
- The gap between the quality perceived by a customer and his expectations. The customer’s past experience, service promises, word of mouth advertising, explicit and implicit service promises and personal needs can cause this gap. Bennett (2000:250) believes that this is the most important gap because “it reveals how customers rate a particular company’s service quality”.

3.3 THE TOURIST EXPERIENCE

Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) believe different tourism activities and services are likely to have different patterns of preferred experience at a particular destination. Therefore experiences are bound to differ because of tourists' different expectations.

Uriely (2005) identified four conceptualisations of the tourist experience:

- De-differentiating the experience – tourist experience is different from everyday life. Its key elements are novelty and strangeness in that a tourist goes away from home in order to experience change. This experience gives tourists the opportunity to suspend everyday norms and values and think about their lives from a different view.
- Pluralising the experience – this conceptualisation argues that different tourists may desire to encounter different experiences. They may travel in a similar form and yet may not share similar experiences. This argument means that tourist experience is a diverse notion.
- The role of subjectivity – experience is a subjective construct. This subjectivity is often illustrated in the ability of tourists to assign different meanings to their experiences even in cases of mass travel. The subjectivity of experience is closely related to the concept *authenticity*. The two kinds of authenticity are firstly, objective authenticity is seen in situations where a toured object is original or displayed objects are genuine. For example: a museum. Secondly, there is constructive authenticity in which displayed objects are considered to be authentic because of their construction. However, both perspectives argue that authentic experiences are derived from visiting attractions. Uriely (2005) suggests that subjective perceptions of tourists are the core elements of the tourism experience.
- Toward relative interpretations – the two relative interpretations are:
 - Modern tourism that conceptualises the tourist experience in terms of absolute truths.

Tourism is seen as a modern phenomenon in which the experience is viewed as superficial and a quest for artificial attraction.

- Post-modern tourism is referred to as simulational. It refers to theme parks and other manmade attractions of the post-modern environment. Other post-modern developments are mass tourism and heritage-related sites.

The tourist experience can be seen as a process that contains a series of encounters as indicated by Figure 3.1.

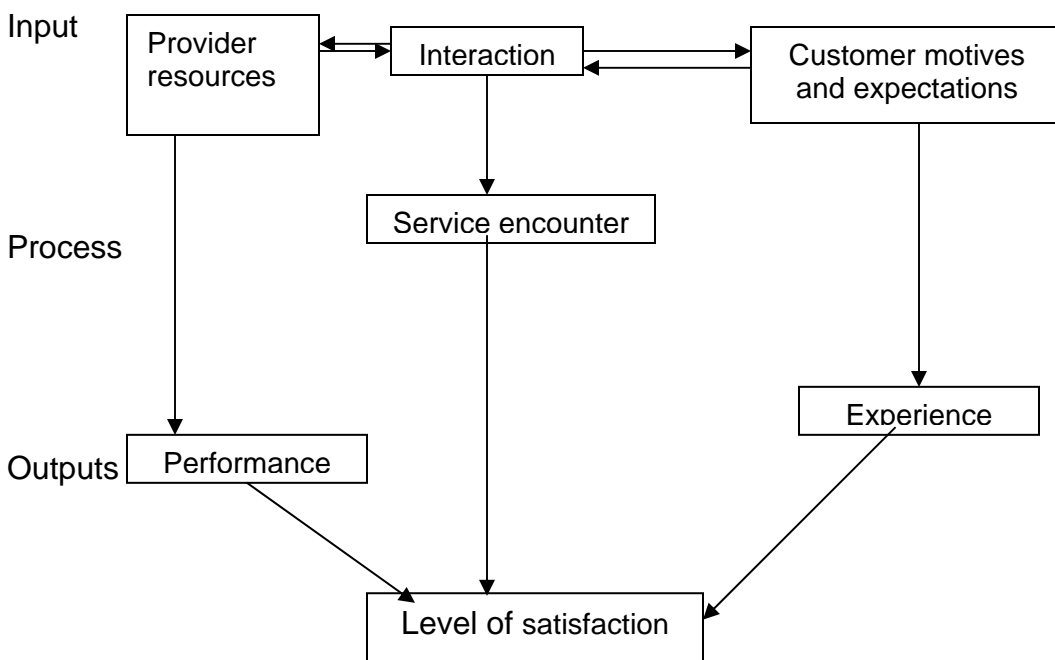


FIGURE 3.1: THE SERVICE ENCOUNTER

Source: Williams and Buswell, 2003:71

Figure 3.1 illustrates the relationship between the input, the process and the output of the tourist experience. At the input stage, there is an interaction between the tourists and the service provider. The tourist then interacts with the service during the process of the experience. At the output stage, the service provider reviews their service and the tourists evaluate their level of satisfaction based on the experiences they encountered. This relationship indicates the importance of the tourist experience and service provision to overall satisfaction.

In wildlife tourism, the service encounter and the experience will have an impact on the wildlife tourist's level of satisfaction.

3.3.1 Types of experience

In their study of visitor experiences at Kaikoura in New Zealand, Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) came up with different types of experience for tourists. These are eco-tourist experience, such as watching whales and seals; recreational experience, such as walking, fishing and boating; coastal community experience, such as participating in natural settings, landscape experience, such as coastal setting and viewing inland areas and family coastal holiday experience, such as marine activities. Social interaction can also be experienced within the natural environment. This suggests that different tourists can have and enjoy different experiences at one destination. Tourists interact with the environment at various levels and a level of satisfaction has to be attained at each level.

Webb (2003) has identified five ways (types of experience) in which tourists experience the natural environment.

They are:

- The environment is an external physical place to the tourists who have travelled out of their normal places of residence to experience wildlife tourism.
- The environment is a “self” in which individuals are totally integrated. Once they are in a natural setting, tourists have to adapt in such a way that nature is not disturbed. This is particularly relevant for wildlife tourism where there has to be an understanding that animals in a conservation area are wild and in their natural habitat.
- The environment is a social system. The natural environment at a tourist destination becomes a socialization place for tourists.
- The environment is an emotional territory.

Tourists express their feelings about a destination and its environment. They also express their feelings and experiences within this natural environment; hence it is an emotional territory.

- The environment is a setting for action.

At a tourist destination, there are usually various leisure activities in which tourists participate.

3.3.2 Effects of motivation on experience

The tourism experience can be affected by motivation for participation in the selected tourism industry. According to Bennett (2000), motivation is about the reason to participate in tourism activities. Motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic. The more experienced tourist may be motivated by intrinsic factors.

These include challenge and a need to have an improved self-esteem and self-perception. The less experienced tourist may be more motivated by extrinsic factors such as socialising with fellow tourists at a destination. Webb (2003: 151) explains effects of motivation by extrinsic factors by arguing that,

“in terms of the benefits derived from environmental experiences, an extensive body of literature has identified that environmental settings are therapeutic and of general psychological benefit to individuals.”

According to Heung *et al.* (2001), factors exist that contribute to holiday and travel motives. These authors named such factors the push and pull factors. Push factors are cognitive, socialisation, novelty and adventure seeking and pull factors are tangible and intangible components at a destination. Examples of these are food, natural attraction and people. In their research on the relationship between vacation factors and socio-demographic and travelling characteristics, Heung, Qu and Chu (2001) found that socio-demographic factors such as age, income and occupation, which influence motivation, are critical because they also influence perceptions of the experience and destination image. They used a 5-point Likert scale (1=extremely unimportant, 5=extremely important) and

determined that food, safe destination, fun and sightseeing were listed as being extremely important.

It is evident from this discussion that motivation has an impact on the quality of services purchased and consumed. This is due to the fact that the aforementioned factors believed to influence motivation can also influence the quality of the tourist experience. Therefore, it is imperative that the tourism service providers are knowledgeable on the tourists' motivators in order to be able to provide services that are relevant and satisfactory.

The Heung *et al.* (2001) study shows that, like service, experience is composed of several elements (attractions, entertainment, safety and facilities) so that when one element is unsatisfying, it would negatively affect the quality of experience. From arguments by the cited authors, it appears that tourists experience activities in a dynamic, unique and subjective manner. Experiences depend on the tourists' motivation and on how they think, feel and behave towards and within a given environment. Therefore, tourists often use them to assess quality of services they received. Bennett (2000) believes that experience is determined by motivation; hence experience has an impact on the quality of the services offered at a tourist destination.

3.4 TOURIST SATISFACTION

In order to have a better understanding of tourist satisfaction as a concept, there is need to define satisfaction. This section provides several definitions and descriptions of satisfaction. The Little Oxford English Dictionary (2002:620) states that satisfaction is

“the feeling of pleasure that arises when you have the things you need or want or when the things you want to happen have happened.”

Several authors define satisfaction in a similar manner to the stated definition. These include authors such as Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) who hold that satisfaction is the fulfilment of needs or drives and motives. Bolton and Drew (1991:375) define satisfaction as “the surprise a customer experiences after a purchase”, and Bigne *et al.* (2001:609) state that satisfaction is

“the result of comparison between expectations and the perception of the performance.”

Similarly, Taylor and Baker (1994) argue that satisfaction is the comparison between the experience of a service quality and what was initially expected. Different authors suggested different approaches that can be used to describe satisfaction. Firstly, Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) came up with two approaches to describe satisfaction. Firstly, they indicate a need-based approach, which holds that satisfaction is closely related to motivation. In this case, satisfaction will result from corresponding motives being met. This perspective describes satisfaction as a static fulfilment of needs. The second approach is unrelated to motives and needs. It is called an appraisal satisfaction approach and holds that satisfaction is a process. It is “the evaluation of the extent to which an individual’s perceived reality meets with his or her current expectations (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003:66). In this context, satisfaction is seen as the difference between expectations and perceived experiences.

Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) argue that satisfaction can further be classified into two categories: facet satisfaction and global satisfaction. On the one hand, facet satisfaction is concerned with particular or specific facets of the tourism experience. Facets of the tourism experience include the beginning of the journey, services experienced at the destination area, tourism activities and the journey back from the tourist destination area. On the other hand, global satisfaction is the overall assessment or evaluation of the tourism experience.

Taylor and Baker (1994) describe satisfaction in two ways:

- satisfaction involves states not limited to satiation, i.e. satisfaction is not only limited to meeting or exceeding customers' initial expectations.
- satisfaction is a process - this description is the same as that of Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003).

Taylor and Baker (1994) further argue that satisfaction judgments are influenced by the positive and negative affective responses and cognitive disconfirmation.

Arguments on satisfaction highlight the fact that satisfaction is an important factor, especially in service industries. It can be said to be a state of mind (need-based approach, not limited to satiation and global satisfaction) and a process, concerned with different facets, reality and expectations. According to Millan and Esteban (2004:535), all reviewed definitions maintain that satisfaction implies:

- The existence of an objective that the consumer wishes to reach.
- The attainment of this objective can only be judged by using the standard of comparison as a reference.
- The evaluation process of satisfaction implies the intervention of at least two stimuli: a result and a reference.

Table 3.1 presents a summary of different definitions of satisfaction by different authors.

TABLE 3.1: THE CONCEPT SATISFACTION

Reference	Definition	Key words	Object
Oliver (1981:27)	Final psychological state resulting from the disconfirmed expectancy related to initial consumer expectations.	Evaluation Final psychological state Emotional response	Surprise Disconfirmed expectancy with relation to pre-purchase expectations
Swan, Trawick and Carroll (1982:17)	Evaluative or cognitive opinion, which analyses whether the product represents a satisfactory or poor result for its end users emotional response towards product.	Evaluative or cognitive opinion Emotional response	Product results
Churchill and Surprenant (1982:491)	The conceptual response by the consumer to the purchase and use of a product, which comes from the comparison of the rewards and cost of purchase relative to expectations. Operatively, similar to an attitude because it can be measured as the total satisfaction from various attributes.	Result Attitude	Comparison of costs and rewards of product relative to expectations
Labarbera and Mazursky (1983:394)	Subsequent evaluation of purchase. Evaluation of surprise derived from purchase of a product or service.	Evaluation	Surprise
Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1987:305)	Impression after the evaluation of use of the product or service.	Impression created by evaluation	Use of product or service
Tse and Wilton (1988:204)	Consumer response to the evaluation of the perceived difference between expectations and final result after consumption.	Response made by evaluation.	Perceived difference between expectations (other measures of results) and the actual result of the product.
Westbrook and Oliver (1991:84)	Subsequent evaluative opinion of choice relative to specific purchase.	Evaluative opinion	Choice of specific purchase.
Fornell (1982:11)	Overall evaluation after purchase	Overall evaluation	Comparison of the perceived result after purchase with expectations prior to purchase.
Oliver (1992:242)	The coupling of coexisting attributes to other sensations derived from consumption.	Addition of attributes to other sensations derived from consumption.	Product attributes
Halstead, Hartman and Schmidt (1994:122)	Emotional response associated with a specific transaction resulting from a comparison of the result of the product to some set standard prior to purchase.	Emotional response	Product result compared to standard expected prior to purchase
Oliver (1996:13)	Judgment of sufficient level of satisfaction offered by a product or service during consumption	Evaluative response of satisfaction level during consumption	Product or service

Source: Millan and Esteban (2004:534)

Table 3.1 indicates that many authors believe satisfaction is an evaluation after consuming a service. This is illustrated in the *key words* column within which reoccurrence of the word evaluation indicates an agreement amongst eight authors. Other key words derived from given definitions are emotional response, result and attitude. Five authors suggest that satisfaction is a difference between received service and expectations consumers had prior to consuming services. This is indicated in the *object* column of Table 3.1. Other objects indicated include surprise, results and use of service. As previously discussed, these definitions and their key words confirm that several authors have different and yet similar expressions of the concept *satisfaction*.

According to Ryan and Cessford (2003:470), tourists can equally be satisfied at both high and low levels of use of a service. They suggested different reasons for tourists to experience this kind of satisfaction. The reasons are:

- Self-selection – people choose activities they enjoy while other factors such as crowding are secondary;
- Multiple sources of satisfaction – people derive satisfaction from many elements within an activity and if one component within the activity is not as satisfying, they derive pleasure from the other aspects;
- Displacement – people move to areas that meet their needs and avoid those that may dissatisfy them, thus when asked at a site about their satisfaction, high levels of satisfaction might be recorded;
- Product shift – it is another form of displacement in which people switch to activities that provide satisfaction and avoid those that are less satisfactory;
- Rationalisation – people re-value situations to get the best from them.

In this study, satisfaction is viewed as an after-consumption evaluation that involves cognitive and affective variables displayed during consumption.

3.4.1 Service satisfaction

Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) contend that service satisfaction is the process that involves a subjective assessment on the difference between expectations and perceived service; it is an independent psychological state.

Akama and Kieti (2003) argue that customer satisfaction is increasingly becoming a salient issue in most service industries. When there is customer satisfaction, there is likely to be an increased customer loyalty and number of customers. Taylor and Baker (1994:164) suggest that customer satisfaction is widely recognised as a key influence in the consumer's purchase intentions in service industries. They define customer satisfaction as "a summary cognitive and affective reaction to a service incident".

The stated arguments and definitions suggest that service satisfaction is critical in service industries such as tourism. For instance, in the tourism industry, customers need to be pleased with service components such as food and accommodation in order for them to sell the industry to other potential tourists.

3.4.2 Tourist satisfaction

In defining tourist satisfaction, several researchers came up with different and yet similar expressions. Ragheb and Tate (1993) contend that tourist satisfaction is the positive perceptions that tourists form or gain after engaging in tourism activities or the degree to which tourists are pleased with their experiences. Tribe and Snaith (1998:27) state that tourist satisfaction is

"the degree to which a tourist's assessment of the attributes of a destination exceed his or her expectations for those attributes."

Similarly, Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) hold that tourist satisfaction is the realisation of desired outcomes. They argue that the quality of tourism opportunities at a destination can influence how much satisfaction a tourist derives from his/her stay.

Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003:67) sum their definition of tourist satisfaction as “the visitors’ quality of experience, which is the psychological outcome resulting from their participation in tourism activities.”

Williams and Buswell (2003:59) believe that “satisfaction is a psychological outcome from an experience” and service quality is concerned with the attributes of the service itself. They argue that consumers tend to use both concepts to judge a service because they are interrelated.

Tourist satisfaction is often equated to customer satisfaction being perceptions minus expectations. Factors that influence the formation of customer expectations are word of mouth, personal needs, external communications, past experience and image.

According to the above arguments used to define tourist satisfaction, tourists have to be mentally pleased with the entire experience, including satisfaction with activities in which they participated. However, tourist satisfaction becomes a process when there is an assessment of the whole experience; hence definitions of tourist satisfaction indicate a relationship between tourist satisfaction and quality of experience. It can therefore be suggested that satisfaction measurement in relation to tourist satisfaction is likely to be a process that involves, amongst other concepts, satisfaction and quality of experience.

3.4.3 Effects of price and value of service on satisfaction

According to Akama and Kieti (2003), satisfaction levels can be affected by the price and value of a service. It is therefore important for service providers to ensure that prices match the quality of the service being purchased. Gallarza and Saura (2004) suggest three meanings of the concept *value*:

- Value is linked to perceived prices through a transaction

- Value has a psychological side in that it influences the choice of product. In this context, value can help explain different areas of consumer behaviour such as product choice and purchase intention.
- Value is linked to quality and satisfaction; hence it is often used by consumers to assess a service.

According to Petrick and Backman (2002), other potential definitions of value are low price, whatever one wants in a product, the quality that the consumer receives for the price paid and what consumers get for what they give.

Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez and Moliner (2006) point out that value is a dynamic variable experienced before purchase, at the time of purchase, at the time of consumption and after consumption of a service. It is a subjective concept that varies between consumers. At the time of purchase, the determining factor is price, and during consumption, the tourist value the result obtained from the purchase. Sanchez *et al.* (2006) argue that perceived value of a tourist is holistic in that it is the overall post purchase evaluation. They developed two approaches to the conceptualisation of value:

- a. Value consists of two parts; economic and social benefits received and sacrifice in terms of price, time and convenience made by the tourist.
- b. Value as a multidimensional construct; it moves away from the characteristic of economic utility and introduces the tourist behaviour during purchase and consumption of service.

Table 3.2 presents a multi-dimensional approach to perceived value.

An approach to perceived value presented in Table 3.2 implies that value, as a concept, has several dimensions. Different authors developed similar dimensions that can be summed in four categories as social, emotional, functional and conditional. These dimensions conform to the conclusion by Gallarza and Saura (2004) that value is a multi-faceted and complex concept because it has many meanings:

- It can be extrinsic versus intrinsic
- It can be active versus reactive when there is a passive or active control of the consumer on the service
- It can be self-oriented or other-oriented

Gallarza and Saura (2004:439) define value by summarising it as

“the overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given.”

Table 3.3 presents different ways in which consumers view and express the concept *value* during consumption.

TABLE 3.3: TYPOLOGY OF CONSUMER VALUE

	Extrinsic	Intrinsic
Self-oriented - Active	Efficiency (convenience)	Play (fun)
Reactive	Excellence (quality)	Aesthetics (beauty)
Other-oriented - Active	Status (success, impression)	Ethics (virtue, justice)
Reactive	Esteem (reputation, materialism)	Spirituality (faith)

Source: Gallarza and Saura (2004).

There are two types of orientation indicated in Table 3.3, namely self-oriented and other-oriented. In the self-oriented, value is realised when consumers experiences convenience in what they are doing. Value will be seen as quality when services received are perceived to be excellent. In the other types of value, consumers perceive value in projects or actions that are likely to bring them

success or elevate their reputation. Ethics and spirituality become valuable when experienced intrinsically. It is crucial to understand this typology of consumer value because tourists often use value when they evaluate services they consumed at destination areas. This implies that wildlife tourists can use value to assess satisfaction levels.

According to Rogers (1995), the concept *value for money* tends to be used within the process of determining pricing objectives. This concept helps to ensure maximum tourist satisfaction of a purchased service. Price and value for money are often used to assess quality of services offered; hence they are called management tools. When the two concepts are incorporated well into a service delivery system, they can account for a successful service business. Good service quality is likely to increase the value of a service within the tourism organisations. When the quality of a service is high, tourists are led to believe that it is worthwhile to purchase it. Therefore, good service quality is likely to influence tourists to re-purchase the service (Qu & Ping, 1999).

3.4.4 Mood and satisfaction

Mood is another factor that can affect evaluations of service delivery. Sirakaya, Petrick and Choi (2004) argue that customers provide favourable service evaluations while they are in the positive mood state; therefore an understanding of the influence of mood on service evaluations should help prevent biased measures of service performance. Mood is defined as the “mild, transient and generalised affective state” (Sirakiya *et al.*, 2004:520). It is a state of mind that affects one’s feelings at a particular moment. A person in a negative mood reacts to environmental conditions with a generalised negative set and the one in a positive mood is happy through situations and generally positive about environments.

Moods have the ability to reflect how consumers feel during their service consumption. For example, consumers can be influenced by aspects of service

providers' behaviour such as a smile. According to Sirakaya *et al.* (2004), in addition to this ability, mood has an influence on memory in three ways:

- Retrieval effect – mood has a significant influence on the retrieval of information. For example, a tourist in a positive mood at the time of service evaluation is likely to recall positive encounters.
- The encoding effect of mood – when tourists are in a positive mood state during their tour, they are likely to recall positive experiences.
- State-dependent learning – tourists are more likely to recall experiences easily when their mood state at consumption matches the one at evaluation.

These arguments indicate a positive relationship between satisfaction with a service and the state of mood during evaluation.

With regard to evaluating quality of a service, mood can either negatively or positively influence a tourist decision. Tourists have the ability to present biased service quality evaluation results depending on their state of mood. Therefore, positive and/or negative service quality evaluation scores may not necessarily reflect problems or lack of them in the service delivery system. For instance, if tourists were in a bad mood when forming images of a destination and tourism products, they are likely to recall biased evaluations of the quality of those products.

3.4.5 Importance of satisfaction in wildlife tourism

The importance of tourist satisfaction is that it can generate consumer loyalty, more word of mouth advertising and increased repeated visits. A tourist satisfying destination is likely to grow and the overall improved service delivery is likely to increase tourist satisfaction levels. However, it must be noted that a poor performance in one component of tourism service is likely to negatively affect good performance in other components.

Teye and Leclerc (1998:154) emphasise the need for good overall performance by stating that

“the quality of each of the product areas and the manner in which they are delivered contributes to the guest’s perception, enjoyment and satisfaction with the overall vacation experience.”

Satisfaction cannot exist before a service is consumed because it is the tourist who decides on what is important in achieving personal satisfaction. Hence to achieve a goal of providing a satisfactory service, service providers need to understand what the tourists expect. Managing tourist satisfaction should be an on-going process and program because perceptions and tourists expectations change constantly (Noe, 1999).

3.4.6 The relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction

Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) believe there is consensus that service quality and tourist satisfaction are unique and different constructs. They strengthen their position by arguing that service quality contributes to overall satisfaction. It can therefore, be viewed as one of the factors that determine tourist satisfaction. Other factors are the experience, desired outcomes, perceptions, needs and desires. With the argument given above, it is clear that there is a need to clarify the relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction in terms of differences and similarities in order to evaluate variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003:72) state that

“service quality relates to quality of opportunities or performance of management, while satisfaction relates to the psychological outcome resulting from the experience, which is out of direct control of management.”

That is, service quality is the gap between perceptions of the actual service and ideal performance while satisfaction is related to a specific consumption of experience as a whole.

In order to better understand the relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction, there is need to define the two concepts. Taylor and Baker (1994:165) define service quality as

“the consumer’s overall impression of the relative inferiority/superiority of the organisation and its services.”

Tribe and Snaith (1998) argue that tourist satisfaction is likely to be affected by a series of experiences tourists have from participating in different activities such as game viewing. Thus tourist satisfaction levels can be determined by several factors such as service perceptions, expectations, desired outcomes and not the quality of performance by management of a tourist organization only (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003). These authors also contend that while a level of service quality is likely to be correlated with the amount of satisfaction, there are other variables that may intervene. For example, a tourist service provider may perform well but tourists may perceive a high cost of services, which negatively impacts on overall satisfaction. Intervening factors such as cost can influence satisfaction judgments; therefore high quality does not always lead to high levels of tourist satisfaction. That is, tourists may have an attitude or a perception towards quality of a destination without having experienced it. They may have received negative evaluation information from other people who have experienced a destination or a positive one from adverts. This argument is further confirmed by Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003:75) when they state that

“a differentiating feature between overall service quality and overall visitor satisfaction is that satisfaction is experience specific while service quality is not.”

Taylor and Baker (1994) add that there is further evidence that supports the distinction between the conceptual domains of customer satisfaction and service quality. They are:

- Satisfaction judgments can be formed from a large number of non-quality issues such as needs, equity and fairness, while expectations for quality are based on ideals or perceptions of excellence.
- Satisfaction judgments require experience with the service or/and service provider whereas quality perceptions do not. Satisfaction is believed to have fewer conceptual antecedents than service quality.
- Satisfaction can result from any dimension, quality or non-quality-related and the dimensions underlying service quality judgments are specific.

Taylor and Baker (1994) conclude that service quality appears to be a causal antecedent of customer satisfaction. A study by Taylor and Baker (1994) supported the argument given above when it identified a possible relationship between service quality and satisfaction, i.e. Service quality satisfaction.

Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) came up with six conceptualizations of the relationship between service quality and visitor satisfaction.

- Service quality and visitor satisfaction have different reference standards – the comparison standard used for visitor satisfaction is the predicted service, i.e. expectation of what the service is likely to be. On the other hand, the comparison standard for service quality is the ideal or desire. That is, what the service should be.
- The role of disconfirmation differs in visitor satisfaction and service quality – when visitors evaluate service quality, they compare perception of actual performance with desired performance and the result directly determines their perceptions of quality of performance of a destination. In contrast, with satisfaction, disconfirmation is a subjective assessment. It is done according to consumers' own judgments of perceived reality. It is therefore an independent psychological state.
- Visitor satisfaction is transaction-specific while service quality is a global attitude – service quality is seen as an attitude that relates to the superiority of a service while satisfaction is seen as being related to a

specific transaction. Hence Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) argue that service quality is related but not equivalent to satisfaction.

- Service quality is transaction-specific and visitor satisfaction is a global attitude – this perspective argues that service quality contributes to overall satisfaction and therefore is viewed as an antecedent to satisfaction.
- Both service quality and visitor satisfaction are transaction specific – this perspective holds that, when both service quality and visitor satisfaction are viewed as transaction specific, satisfaction becomes a higher-level concept. That is, quality of performance becomes an antecedent to visitor satisfaction.
- Both overall service quality and visitor satisfaction are global attitudes – when service quality is viewed as an assessment of the overall excellence and superiority of a tourism service, it can be seen as an attitude. Visitor satisfaction is the overall evaluation of the consumption experience and purchase. In this case, this evaluation becomes an attitude.

The similarity between service quality and tourism satisfaction is that they are both concerned with the difference between expectations and perceptions. Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) argue that this difference stems from the theory called the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm. This theory argues that when tourists compare the outcome against expectations, a disconfirmation results. A positive disconfirmation results if performance exceeds expectations and vice-versa. However, despite this similarity, service attributes often used to measure satisfaction levels and quality are not appropriate for evaluating the psychological outcomes (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003). The same authors summarised the two concepts as follows:

- service quality – a desired service; the ideal or what the service should be
- tourist / service satisfaction - predicted service; expectations of what the service is likely to be.

Table 3.4 presents a summary of alternative conceptualisations that have been proposed to differentiate visitor satisfaction and service quality.

TABLE 3.4: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE QUALITY AND SATISFACTION

Framework	Relationship	Studies
SQ and VS have different reference standards	SQ is defined by desired expectation, VS is defined by predicted expectation	Parasuraman <i>et al.</i> (1985); Tse and Wilton (1988); Oliver (1993a; 1994; 1997)
Disconfirmation	Disconfirmation defines SQ; but it is an independent psychological state that influences VS	Oliver (1997; 1980; 1981); Oliver and DeSarbo (1988); Tse and Wilton (1985)
VS is transaction-specific, SQ is an attitude	VS is an antecedent of SQ	Parasuraman <i>et al.</i> (1985); Bitner (1990); Bolton and Drew (1991a, b; 1992); Patterson and Johnson (1993)
SQ is transaction-specific and VS is an attitude	SQ is an antecedent of VS	Cronin and Taylor (1997); Bloemer and Ruyter (1995)
Both SQ and VS are transaction-specific and are at the transaction level	SQ is an antecedent of VS	Crompton and MacKay (1989); Crompton <i>et al.</i> (1991); Crompton and Love (1995); Otto and Ritchie (1995); Baker and Crompton (1998)
Both SQ and VS are global attitudes	VS is experience specific thus can contribute to SQ	Pizam <i>et al.</i> (1978); Geva and Goldman (1991); Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991); Boulding <i>et al.</i> (1993); Bitner and Hubbert (1994); Thach and Axinn (1994); Parasuraman <i>et al.</i> (1994)

Key: VS =visitor satisfaction; SQ=service quality

Source: Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003:69)

The relationship between service quality and satisfaction presented in Table 3.4 indicates that service quality contributes to satisfaction and satisfaction also

contributes to service quality. This implies that, when wildlife tourists perceive service as of peasant quality, they are likely to be satisfied. Thus the two concepts are crucial in determining wildlife tourist satisfaction.

3.5 EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS

Akama and Kieti (2003) argue that tourists usually have initial expectations on a service before they consume it. According to Tribe and Snaith (1998), expectations are what people anticipate regarding their experience. Akama and Kieti (2003) hold that such expectations are formed through information from adverts and word of mouth perceptions from other consumers during past experience. Expectations of a frequent consumer of service would rely more on the influence of past experience than sources of information. The four levels of customer expectations are the ideal, predicted, deserved and minimum tolerance. Expectations are always changing because consumers are aware of alternative service providers in the ever-growing industry. Hence increased competition suggests a need for an improved standard of service. Rodriguez del Bosque, Martin and Collado (2006) add four similar factors to those by Akama and Kieti (2003). They are past experience, tourists' level of previous satisfaction with the service, communication from the service provider such as promises and the tourist's perceived image of the service.

Williams and Buswell (2003:65) define perceptions as "a comparison to excellence in service by the customer" and argue that perceptions are made at the end of a service encounter. However, Zeithaml (1988) believe that a process of judgment is performed during the service delivery process and then once more at the post-consumption stage.

The nature of judgment can be subjective, for example two consumers can formulate totally different perceptions of an identical service experience. Customer perceptions of a service are complex judgments and can be modified by factors such as the consumer's mood and/or importance of the encounter. On

another note, Bennett (2000) believes that expectations and perceptions can form a basis for travel.

Qu and Ping (1999) also argue that tourist satisfaction can be affected by tourists' initial expectations concerning a destination. Such expectations are influenced by several factors. Firstly, the advertising strategy applied by service providers is important because, if not well developed, it can create expectations that can be difficult to satisfy. Advertisements include brochures, media and informal interactions from friends and relatives (word of mouth advertising). Secondly, experience with similar services and their personnel can cause tourists to compare and make judgment regarding quality. Added to this is the fact that some tourists simply expect more service and are therefore likely to set high expectation standards.

Simpson (2000) point out that expectations may determine experiences tourists will enjoy because every tourist has a unique agenda prior to visit. Akama and Kieti (2003) add that the extent to which tourists' initial expectations are met or exceeded determines the level of satisfaction. In situations where the overall performance by the tourism service provider meets or exceeds initial expectation, the tourist is considered satisfied. Where performance is below the tourists' initial expectation, satisfaction level is considered low or non-existent.

In order to emphasise the importance of perceptions in contributing to satisfaction, Saleh and Ryan (1993:107) state:

“Satisfaction is determined by the consumers' perceptions of the service and attention they receive from the representative of the service company with whom they are dealing.”

In addition, Heung *et al.* (2001) argue that people's perceptions can be influenced by internal factors such as values, motives and socio-demographics and external factors such as media and past experience. They also argue that

tourists make decisions on satisfaction based on how they perceive services; hence it is crucial that they perceive that a service will satisfy them.

Following the arguments on expectations and perceptions in the literature, it becomes obvious that the key to improving tourist satisfaction is to reduce the gap between tourist expectation and the perception on the services consumed at a destination. This is important because good service quality is likely to result in tourist satisfaction since satisfaction is an affective concept based on the individual's needs and desires (Qu & Ping, 1999). Arguments by the cited authors suggest that expectations and perceptions play an important role in determining satisfaction.

Figure 3.2 presents factors that influence satisfaction.

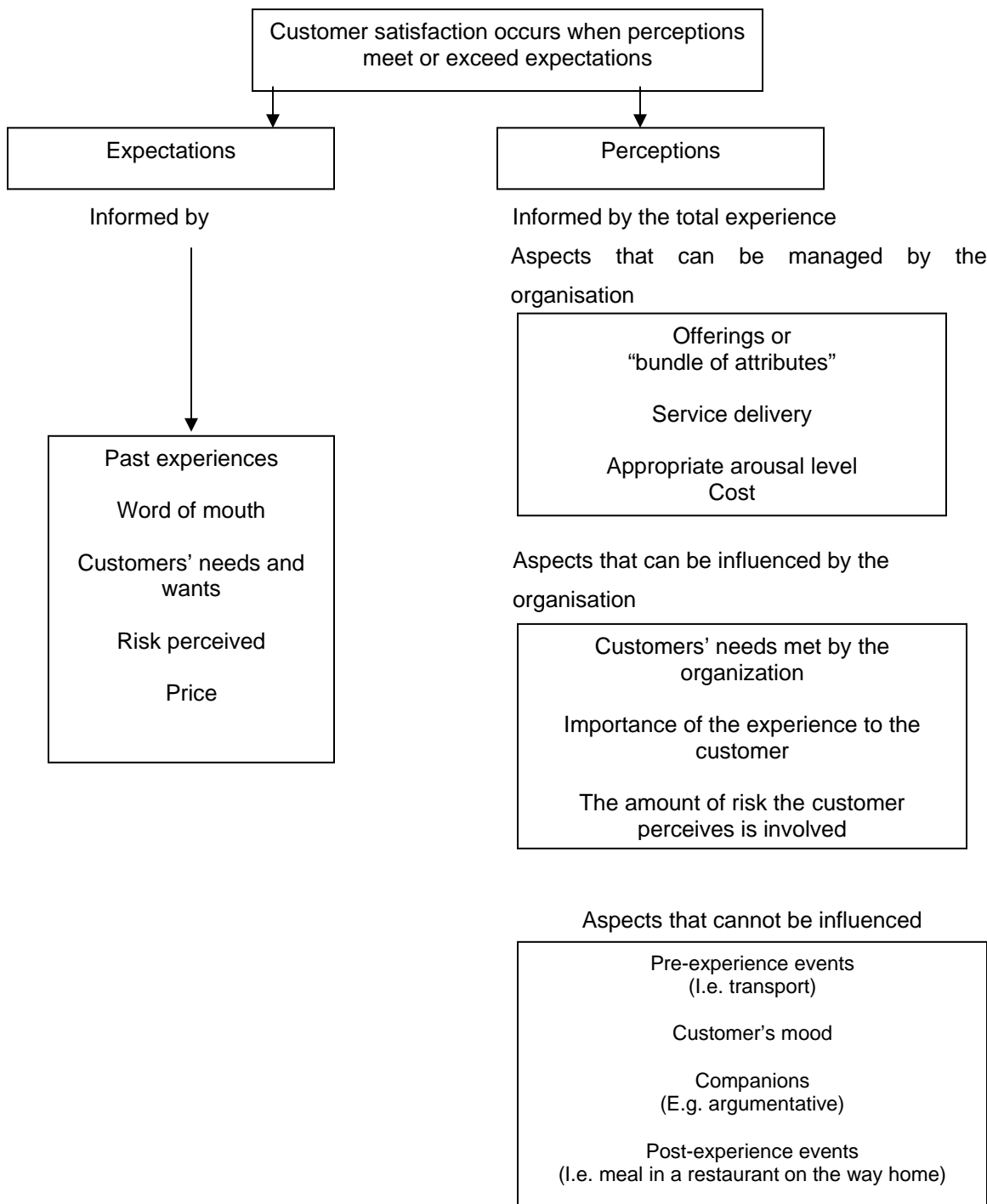


FIGURE 3.2: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SATISFACTION

Source: Williams and Buswell (2003:67)

Figure 3.2 illustrates arguments on perceptions and expectations:

- Perceptions are influenced by the tourist's total experience. This experience comprises three kinds of aspects:
 - Those that can be managed by the organisation: offerings or services, service delivery, arousal level and cost.
 - Those that can be influenced by the organisation: consumer needs that the organisation has to meet, importance of the experience to the consumer and the amount of risk the consumer thinks is involved.
 - Those that cannot be influenced by the organisation: pre-experience events such as transport problems, consumer's mood, character of companions and post-experience events such as the restaurant encounter on the way home.
- Expectations are influenced by several factors:
 - Past experience
 - Word of mouth advertisements
 - Consumer's needs and want
 - Risk perceived by the consumer
 - Price of service

3.6 MEASURING TOURIST SATISFACTION

Since satisfaction is affective and subjective to each tourist, it is important to discuss measurements of satisfaction levels because satisfaction is related to tourists' needs and purposes for travel. In their study on a service performance of Hong Kong cruise travellers' motivation factors and satisfaction, Qu and Ping (1999) explored three models that could be used to measure satisfaction level.

They are:

- The expectancy disconfirmation model - It requires tourists to compare their expectation to the actual service performance. When performance is above expectations, the result is emotional satisfaction. Emotional dissatisfaction occurs when performance is below expectations.

- The equity theory - It predicts the satisfaction/dissatisfaction level the tourist obtains from purchasing a service. This theory argues that tourists would analyse the ratio of their inputs and outcomes to the ratio of the inputs and outcomes of the service provider. If the tourists are convinced that their ratio is unfavourable in relation to the provider, they experience a feeling of inequity.
- The actual service performance model - In this model, service performance influences tourists' satisfaction independent of the tourists' expectations. This happens mostly at destinations that are unambiguous and easy to evaluate. Qu and Ping (1999) used the third model to measure the level of satisfaction. They used 31 attribute groups that were placed in five categories of accommodation, food and beverage, entertainment, other facilities and staff. They then used a Likert 5-point satisfaction rating scale (5- very satisfied, 1 – very dissatisfied).

3.6.1 Examples of measuring scales

In their study of culture and vacation satisfaction, Master and Prideaux (2000) used several service quality factors to develop a questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale to determine satisfaction levels. The scale moved from very high (1) to very low level of satisfaction (5). They measured the overall satisfaction levels by asking tourists whether they were very satisfied, quite satisfied, somewhat satisfied and not satisfied.

According to Kozak (2001), the delighted-terrible scale developed by Andrews and Withey (1976) is believed to be suitable for the measurement of customer satisfaction because it reduces the skewness of satisfaction responses. Delighted-terrible is a seven-point scale that moves from dissatisfaction to satisfaction. Its components are terrible (1), unhappy (2), mostly unsatisfied (3), neither unsatisfied nor satisfied (4), mostly satisfied (5) pleased (6) and delighted (7). This scale enabled tourists to indicate the extent to which they were satisfied

or dissatisfied. Kozak (2001) stated that this scale has been modified and used by other researchers to measure satisfaction levels.

Measurement scales used by both Kozak (2001) and Master and Prideaux (2000) can be useful in measuring tourist satisfaction in this study. Kozak (2001) believes scales could be modified to suit the area under study.

3.6.2 Motivation and tourist satisfaction

Bennett (2000) contends that travel motivators are important for the tourism industry because they form a basis for tourism demand. According to Yoon and Uysal (2005), people travel because psychological forces push them into making travel decisions and they are pulled by external forces of the destination attributes. Motivation is psychological needs and wants that integrate a person's behaviour and activity (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Push motivations are the internal emotional aspects related to tourists' desire while pull motivations are the cognitive aspects related to the attributes of the destination. Bennett (2000) defines motivation as the reasons for doing something or acting in a particular way and that motives are determined by needs and desires.

Brown and Lehto (2005) maintain that Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which are self-actualisation, esteem needs, love needs, safety need and psychological needs form the basis for understanding tourists' travel behaviour and demand for tourism. They argue that if people had their psychological needs met, they would not be interested in travelling. They identified nine motives for travel:

- Escape from a mundane environment
- Exploration and evaluation of self
- Relaxation
- Prestige
- Regression
- Enhancement of kinship relationships
- Facilitation of social interaction

- Novelty
- Education

These were further grouped into four categories:

- Physical motivations e.g. rest
- Cultural motivations e.g. desire for knowledge
- Interpersonal motivations e.g. desire to meet people
- Status and prestige motivations e.g. desire for recognition

Brown and Lehto (2005) argue that the main factors that determine tourist motivation are personality, lifestyle, past experience, perceptions and image and the fact that tourists are more likely to be motivated by several motivators.

Bennett (2000) argues that travel motivations should be identified in order to measure tourist satisfaction. Brown and Lehto (2005) add that understanding travel motivation is vital because it acts as a trigger that sets off all the events involved in travel.

On a similar note, Ragheb and Tate (1993) are convinced that one needs to know travel motivations of tourists in order to understand satisfaction. Bennett (2000) identified four basic travel motivations as physical and psychological, cultural, social and fantasy motivators. One of the psychological motivators is changing lifestyles, which can call for a need to seek adventure and self-fulfilment.

Demographic and socio-economic characteristics can also have an effect on the motivation to travel. For example, travel patterns can relate to age, gender, occupation, education and income. Qu and Ping (1999) have listed escape from normal life, social gathering and beautiful environment as some main travel motivators. They argue that it is important to know tourists' travel motivations because satisfaction levels are related to needs and purpose of travel.

This argument is illustrated in the definition of satisfaction in the Little Oxford Dictionary (2002:620), which states that

“satisfaction is the feeling of pleasure that arises when you have things that you need or want or when things you want to happen have happened.”

Figure 3.3 presents the effects of motivation to travel on tourist satisfaction.

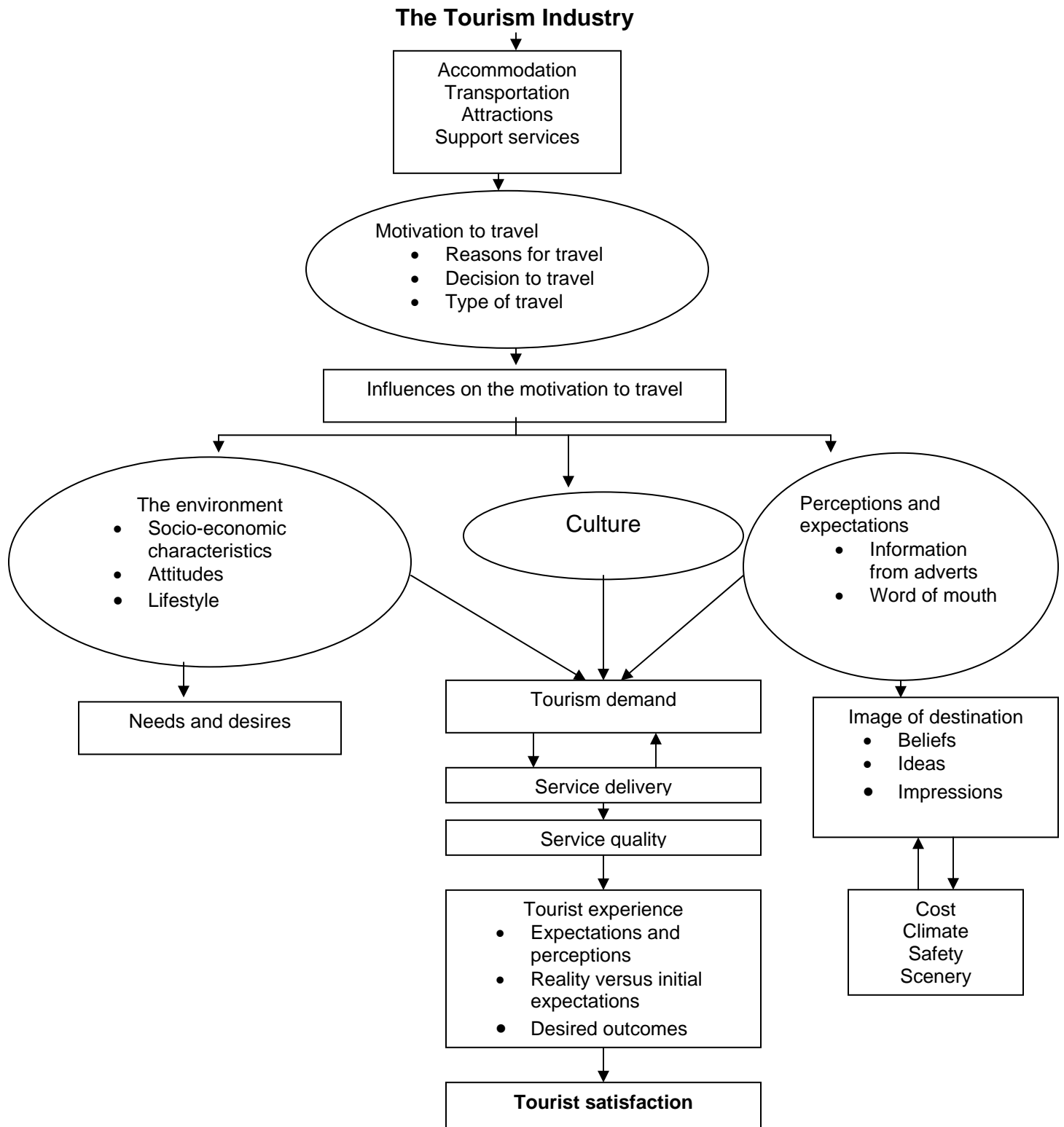


FIGURE 3.3: EFFECTS OF MOTIVATION TO TRAVEL ON TOURIST SATISFACTION. *Own source, 2007*

Effects of motivation to travel presented in Figure 3.3 imply the following arguments:

- The tourism industry is composed of attractions, accommodation, transportation and support services. Types of attractions are nature, e.g. wildlife and wild vegetation and man-made such as monuments and socio-cultural attractions. Socio-cultural attractions include cultural lifestyle found at a destination. These attractions exist because some tourists have a desire to gain insight pertaining to cultures different from their own. In most cases, types of accommodation found at destinations are lodges, camping sites and hotels. Transportation types are rail, road and air. Support services refer to the intermediaries such as tour operators, travel agents and private and public tourist organisations. All four sectors of the tourism industry are interrelated in the sense that they support each other's existence.
- The presence of the tourism industry leads to people being motivated to travel. Tourists establish reasons for travel and become motivated to travel. They then reach a decision to travel and further decide on a type of travel.
- Motivation to travel is influenced by several factors, namely the environment, culture as well as perceptions and expectations. Attributes within the environment factor are attitudes, lifestyle and socio-economic characteristics such as age, gender, educational status and occupation. People's attitudes and lifestyle are always changing. Bennett (2000) illustrated these changes by using the Maslow's hierarchy of needs paradigm within which there is need to satisfy a higher need after satisfying the lower one. For example, people who have satisfied a need to belong may want to acquire self-esteem through tourism activities.

- The environment further influences needs and desires to travel. This influence comes through lifestyle, attitude and socio-economic characteristics. For example, people are likely to feel a need to travel when they have more time off from their jobs or/and when they have extra finance to cover travel costs. Thus needs and desires also influence the motivation to travel.
- Like the environment, culture influences motivation to travel. With more infrastructure and media developments, culture is not static. These developments affect people's culture in that they cause them to want to travel and learn more about other places and cultures.
- Perceptions and expectations are usually formed from information found in advertisements and other people who had been to a destination. Potential tourists then use the information to form a particular image of a destination. This influences motivation to travel, because if the information on a destination is positive, people will be motivated to visit it.
- The image of a tourist destination can also have an influence on the motivation to travel. People apply their perceptions and expectations to form the image of a destination. From their perceptions and expectations, people form beliefs, ideas and impressions on a particular destination. In order to form an image of a destination, tourists use attributes such as cost, climate, safety and scenery. The image of a destination can influence some attributes such as cost, safety and scenery, and the same attributes can also influence the image of a destination.
- Influences on the motivation to travel will have an impact on tourism demand. That is, when people have information on a destination in the form of positive perceptions, expectations and image, they are likely to feel a need for travel and hence create a demand for tourism services.

- The absence or presence of service delivery would have some impact on demand. As much as tourism demand influences service quality, service quality can also influence tourism demand. That is, tourists are likely to demand tourism services if there is service quality. Tourism demand influences service quality in that when there is demand, service providers will be pressurised to maintain good quality or/and improve quality.
- Service quality impacts on the tourism experience, which occurs at the time of consumption. As they experience services, tourists constantly evaluate to determine whether their expectations are met and whether perceptions were true. They evaluate to establish whether or not their perception of reality at a destination differs from their initial expectations. Tourists also judge whether the overall outcome of the entire experience was a desired one.

Figure 3.3 confirms that there are several variables that contribute to tourist satisfaction indicated in the literature. Some variables indicated in the figure are accommodation, attractions, motivation to travel, perceptions, expectations, image of the destination, tourist experience and service quality. Having evaluated these variables, tourists determine their satisfaction levels. With relevance to expectations, it can be concluded that when the overall performance exceeds or meets initial expectations, the tourist will be satisfied. However, if perceived performance does not meet or is below initial expectations, the tourist will be dissatisfied.

3.7 CONCLUSION

Quality is a crucial tool for the wildlife tourism industry. It influences the industry's profitability prospects and has a role on the buying decisions of tourists (Rabin, 1983; Gavin, 1988). The most critical step in delivering service quality is to determine what tourists need because services have to meet their requirements. Value of time and money are some of the aspects central to ensuring service

quality in the wildlife tourism industry. Service has to be delivered as and when needed.

Webb (2003) believes that understanding the tourist experience is vital for achieving tourist satisfaction. Wildlife tourists interact with the environment at various stages; therefore a level of satisfaction has to be attained at each stage. Ensuring a memorable experience for tourists is part of service quality and has the ability to contribute to overall satisfaction.

Satisfaction involves a subjective assessment on the consumed service. It is believed to positively influence tourist loyalty and increase the number of potential tourists. Achieved satisfaction ensures sustainability of the industry. Therefore in order to manage good performance, service providers must know the satisfaction levels of tourists (Akama & Kieti, 2003). Tourist satisfaction is affected by the price and value of service. When tourists believe the price of service matches the value they received, they are likely to be satisfied. According to Tribe and Snaith (1998), tourist satisfaction also involves expectations and motivation of tourists. Perception of tourists on the service they received is based on whether their initial expectations have been met.

Arguments on the importance of tourist satisfaction require that satisfaction levels should be determined in order to maintain an excellent service. Some of the theories developed for usage in determining tourist satisfaction levels are the expectancy disconfirmation model, the equity theory and the actual service performance model. Instruments will be discussed in detail in chapter 4.

CHAPTER FOUR

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to identify and evaluate variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. After identifying variables, their relationship was evaluated in order to determine their contribution to wildlife tourist satisfaction. Identified variables were then used to present a model that could ensure tourist satisfaction in the wildlife tourism industry. Von Storch and Floser (2001) argue that a model is a simplified representation of what is thought to be a reality. A model should reflect reality because it is a simplified representation (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981). In addition to these definitions of a model, Mouton and Marais (1990) argue that a model shows relationships between elements of a concept in a simplified manner.

A survey method which, according to Brunt (1997), is widely used for research in the tourism industry was administered for this study. Its advantage is that reliable results have the potential of being generalised to other wildlife tourism areas. Argument on the reliability of results of a survey is provided by Hoinville and Jovel in Brunt (1997) when they claim that surveys can give more accurate measurements of a population's characteristics, attributes and behaviour than could be obtained by mere causal observation.

4.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Different authors (Qu & Ping, 1999; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Kozak, 2001) have used several research instruments to measure tourism satisfaction. Five of such instruments will be briefly discussed as a way of illustrating how various instruments can be applied to measure one concept. Although some instruments such as the SERVQUAL, expectancy disconfirmation and equity theory have already been discussed in the previous chapter, they are mentioned again in this

chapter as some of the instruments that have previously been used to measure satisfaction.

4.2.1 Service Quality (SERVQUAL)

According to Bolton and Drew (1991), SERVQUAL, a model developed by Parasuraman et al. (1985), is used to measure customers' perception of service quality and is seen as an instrument of measuring satisfaction. Likewise, Tribe and Snaith (1998) contend that SERVQUAL is based on the difference between consumers' expectations and perceptions of service. That is, what an excellent service should provide and what service actually was provided. These authors agree with the other two, namely Bolton & Drew, (1991) when they hold that SERVQUAL measures perceived quality because it is based on the difference between expectations and perceptions of a service.

While Terblanch and Boshoff (2001:106) state that the "SERVQUAL method has proved to be an adequate measure of the reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance dimensions of service delivery", Tribe and Snaith (1998) argue that this instrument assumes that tourist satisfaction is the difference between ideal provision and perception of actual provision of services. Since it is important to know the tourists' expectations and motivations in order to measure tourist satisfaction (Ragheb & Tate, 1993), Tribe and Snaith (1998) are convinced that SERVQUAL alone cannot be adequate for measuring tourist satisfaction. They suggest that SERVQUAL should not be used in its unmodified form when the study does not seek to measure perceived quality only. Tribe and Snaith (1998) believe that survey instruments should be flexible to meet different situations. In agreement with mentioned authors, Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) argue that SERVQUAL rather measures service quality than service satisfaction and that it cannot be used singularly to measure tourist satisfaction. Following these arguments, it can be deducted that the SERVQUAL method should be modified in order to meet the needs of measuring wildlife tourist satisfaction. This is

confirmed by Bolton and Drew (1991), since they argue that SERVQUAL should be modified to meet different situations or industries due to its limitations.

4.2.2 Holiday satisfaction method (HOLSAT)

Tribe and Snaith (1998) contend that HOLSAT is a measurement instrument in which satisfaction is seen as the relationship between performance and prior expectations. This method differs from SERVQUAL being that, in addition to performance and best quality, it includes expectations. HOLSAT was designed to measure tourist satisfaction with a holiday or holiday satisfaction.

The two characteristics of HOLSAT are that

- it identifies key attributes to be included in the survey; and
- it shows how the attitude of satisfaction will be measured with regard to the identified attributes. In this regard, satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be produced from measuring attitudes towards attributes.

Tribe and Snaith (1998) further argue that the construction of HOLSAT is influenced by the price factor. Their conviction is that tourists will take price into account when responding to questions on expectations. Similarly, Gabbott and Hogg (1998) argue that consumers are affected by price because they often use it to measure value. Therefore when consumers evaluate services they also judge the value. Tribe and Snaith (1998) thus believe that HOLSAT can be used alongside SERVQUAL so that it takes care of expectations and attitudes while SERVQUAL measures service quality attributes.

4.2.3 Service performance-based scale (SERVPERF)

The SERVPERF scale acts on the assumption that performance alone can determine satisfaction of consumers. Tribe and Snaith (1998) believe that SERVPERF can give a full picture of tourist satisfaction without knowing and measuring their prior expectations. Kozak (2001) also argues that tourists are more likely to be satisfied with service when it is at a desired level. He used SERVPERF to measure tourist satisfaction, arguing that it is a convenient

method because it avoids the use of tourists' expectations. Kozak (2001:393) states that SERVPERF is the ideal method to measure tourist satisfaction because satisfaction is "an overall post-purchase evaluation". He further argues that other researchers have used SERVPERF for measuring tourist satisfaction and showed high reliability and validity than other instruments.

4.2.4 The expectancy disconfirmation model

According to Qu and Ping (1999), this instrument requires tourists to compare their expectation to the actual service performance. When performance is above expectations, the result is emotional satisfaction or positive disconfirmation. Emotional dissatisfaction or negative disconfirmation occurs when performance is below expectations. Similarly, Gabbott and Hogg (1998) contend that with this instrument, dissatisfaction or poorly perceived quality is predicted when there is negative disconfirmation and satisfaction or good perceived quality results from positive disconfirmation.

Gabbott and Hogg (1998:107) further argue that this instrument has limitations because firstly, "it predicts a consumer's evaluation of service as long as their expectations are met or exceeded, regardless of whether their prior expectations were high or low and regardless of whether actual or absolute performance was high or low". That is, confirmation of expectations does not necessarily lead to satisfaction or positive perception of quality because there are other intervening variables that influence satisfaction (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003). Secondly, this instrument does not consider the fact that expectations are dynamic; therefore a perfect or good service might not be able to exceed customers' expectations, yet it argues that satisfaction results only when expectations have been exceeded. Millan and Esteban (2004) also listed the limitations of this model as follows:

- It is possible to obtain deficient evaluation in cases where individuals evaluate desired levels as inferior to that which has been received.

- If expectations and performance are measured simultaneously, scales of expectations are conditioned and fail to represent expectations of consumers before service consumption.

In view of the mentioned limitations, the two authors contend that limitations can be overcome by directly measuring perceptions and expectations simultaneously instead of developing two separate measures for each. Therefore, as in the case of other instruments, the expectancy disconfirmation method has to be used alongside others in order to limit the effects of its limitations.

4.2.5 Service and perceived value (SERV-PERVAL)

According to Petrick (2004), the measurement of satisfaction should be used in conjunction with the measurement of perceived value in order to know the tourist's views on services provided. He argues that perceived value of services influences consumer behaviour; hence it is a superior predictor of satisfaction and repurchase intentions. The SERV-PERVAL instrument summarises perceived value as a 5-dimensional construct consisting of

- Quality – a consumer's judgement about the overall excellence or superiority of a service.
- Monetary price – the price of a service.
- Non-monetary price – the non-monetary price of obtaining a service. It includes time and effort used to search for the service.
- Reputation – the status of a service as perceived by the consumer.
- Emotional response – a descriptive judgement regarding the pleasure a service gives the consumer.

Petrick (2004) used SERV-PERVAL to measure perceived value and found results to be reliable and valid.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

4.3.1 The questionnaire

Data was collected by using a single structured self-completed questionnaire. Arguments for using a single questionnaire are:

- According to Akama and Kieti (2003), the limitation to interviewing tourists before and after service consumption is the “gap measure”. The gap results because the service quality score obtained from the gap measurement of perceived and expected expectations may not be a very reliable measurement of service quality as it relates to tourist satisfaction. Simpson (2000:14) agrees with the afore-mentioned authors by stating that

“the before and after visits interview technique can place unreasonable demands on respondents which can result in low completion rates.”

In addition to the afore-mentioned arguments, Bigne *et al.* (2001) contend that data can be collected in terms of the perception-expectation difference rather than by employing two different questionnaires on perceptions and expectations.

- A single questionnaire also assists in overcoming limitations borne by using models such as the disconfirmation paradigm (Millan & Esteban, 2004) by ensuring the following:
 - When scores of expectations are equal to the perception of the performance, the effect of satisfaction is not regarded as null.
 - The consumer is likely to value the subjective importance of the difference between expectations and results.
 - The perceived difference between expectation and perceptions indicates the importance of attributes more correctly.
 - The process of gathering information is simpler because consumers do not have to complete two questionnaires.

Although SERVQUAL has been used to measure quality, Petrick (2004) argues that its applicability to the service industries such as tourism has been widely criticised. Some of the critics are:

- Its conceptualisation of service quality and the relevance of disconfirmation of expectations as the basis for measuring service quality are inadequate. Thus it becomes a better measure when used as a performance-based instrument without a comparison of expectations.
- Cronin and Taylor (1997) argue that quality is better measured with the use of a performance only model than with SERVQUAL. Hudson, Hudson and Miller (2004) also argue that performance only is the most reliable and valid measure of satisfaction and quality.

Out of the five instruments discussed in Section 3.3, SERV-PERVAL was adopted for use in this study. Arguments for its adoption are:

- Perceived value – According to Petrick (2004), the measurement of satisfaction should be used in conjunction with the measurement of perceived value or else it would not provide the true customer voice with regard to services received. He argues that satisfaction measures may be easier to interpret and more informative if backed up with perceived value measurement.
- The instrument measures quality as an antecedent of satisfaction. It is basically a measure of the supplier's performance and is also believed to be the best predictor of perceived value. The measure of quality is critical because quality has an impact on the consumer's preference and the willingness to recommend the service to other people.

In addition to quality and perceived value, the questionnaire included statements that sought to assess specific wildlife and park attributes such as the condition of the park, rare species and convenient location of park facilities. It also included

questions on expectations with attributes on price such as affordability or reasonability of prices.

Arguments for including questions on expectations and motivations are:

- Bennett (2000), Tribe and Snaith (1998) and Bigne *et al.* (2001) argue that expectations and motivations should be identified in measuring tourist satisfaction in order to efficiently measure wildlife tourist satisfaction.
- Shackley (1996) adds that a researcher's knowledge on a degree of satisfaction can be derived from expectations and motivations.
- Qu and Ping (1999) contend that expectations can be influenced by other factors such as past experience and advertisements of the tourist organisation. Shackley (1996) also notes that expectations in nature-based tourism such as wildlife tourism can be affected by factors such as heightened experiences, which can in turn affect satisfaction levels.

4.3.2 Questionnaire components

The questionnaire (appendix 1) contained three sections: section A gathered demographic information of the tourists; section B was the SERV-PERVAL scale to assess service quality, perceived value and satisfaction. The third section (C) was a combination of a Likert scale and open-ended questions gathering information on expectations and motivations. According to Hill (1998) and Hayes (1997), Likert scales have an advantage over the checklist format because they measure a degree of agreement with statements and provide some variability of scores.

Ryan and Cessford (2003) believe questionnaires used in the natural environment should be self-completed because respondents may have little time or might not wish to complete them. Therefore questionnaires for this study were self-completed in order to give tourists the opportunity to do them in their own time. This is critical because of the fact that a survey would not be one of the tourists' priorities at a tourist destination.

Question C1 comprised statements that sought to determine the overall value and quality of experience tourists felt they received from visiting CNP. Each item statement was rated on a scale from *definitely false* (1) to *definitely true* (5). Table 4.1 presents statements of the questionnaire that were used within the SERV-PERVAL instrument.

TABLE 4.1: SERV-PERVAL AS INCORPORATED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Quality	Very reliable service
	Outstanding quality
	Consistent and dependable service
	Professional game guides
Emotional response	Enjoyable experience
	Exciting experience
	Pleasurable experience
	Makes me feel good
Reputation	Good image of CNP
	Respectable service
	Reputable service
	Service well thought of
Monetary price	Fairly priced service
	Services are worth the price
	Easy to purchase services
	Good bargain
Non-monetary price	Relatively easy to purchase
	Easy to shop for
	Convenience of the location
	Convenient business hours
	Neat facilities

The statements in Table 4.1 related to quality, emotional response, reputation, monetary price and non-monetary price. The quality component assessed quality of service at CNP as perceived by wildlife tourists. Since satisfaction is affective, the emotional response component contained statements that sought to assess feelings and experience of wildlife tourists as they consumed services. Wildlife tourists were requested to assess CNP's reputation in terms of services offered. Statements on the two components, monetary price and non-monetary price

sought to evaluate pricing of services as well as convenience of CNP as a wildlife tourism destination.

Question C2 required respondents to rate their total experience relative to their total expectations. They rated on a scale from *much worse than expected* (1) to *much better than expected* (5).

In Question C3, respondents rated their perceived value for money and perceived quality of service received on a scale from *very poor* (1) to *very good* (5).

Question C4 was on the type of accommodation tourists had opted for. Options were camping site, guesthouse within the park, guesthouse in the vicinity of the park, lodge/hotel within the park and lodge/hotel in the vicinity of the park.

To the question as to whether respondents would re-visit CNP, they were requested to choose their answer on a scale of options from *highly unlikely to re-visit* (1) to *highly likely to re-visit* (5). They were requested to provide reasons for their answers.

Question C6 provided different items on CNP facilities. Tourists were requested to use a scale from *very unsatisfactory* (1) to *very satisfactory* (5), to indicate their satisfactory levels. Items were:

- Safety measures against attacks by animals
- Condition of vegetation within the park
- Availability of species
- Diversity of species
- Condition of campsites
- Signposting within the park
- Enjoyable nature sights
- Accommodation at CNP

- Ablution facilities in the park
- Condition of roads at CNP
- Availability of information centres
- Diversity of food
- Condition of picnic spots
- Hospitality of staff
- Convenience of business hours

In Question C7, tourists were asked to rate how strongly they would recommend CNP to friends. They were requested to make their choice on a scale of options from *strongly not recommend* (1) to *strongly recommend* (5). They were requested to provide reasons for their answers.

Questions C8 and C9 asked tourists whether there was anything outstanding or disappointing about their visit to CNP. If the answer was affirmative, they were required to specify.

Question C10 concerned overall satisfaction. Tourists were requested to choose their answer on a scale of options from *very dissatisfied* (1) to *very satisfied* (5).

The last question, namely C11, asked tourists for recommendations or suggestions towards improvement of the park.

Table 4.2 presents all the components that were used for the construction of the questionnaire, question numbers and literature sources that motivated their usage.

TABLE 4.2: COMPONENTS USED FOR CONSTRUCTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Component	Question number	Source
Expectations	B:2, B:3	Go and Govers, 2000 Qu and Ping, 1999 Ragheb and Tate, 1993 Tribe and Snaith, 1998
Motivations	B:1	Bennett, 2000 Shackley, 1996 Heung <i>et al.</i> , 2001 Tribe and Snaith, 1998
Experience	C:1, C:2	Webb, 2003 Bennett, 2000 Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001
Quality/value for money	C:1, C:3, C:5	Ryan and Cessford, 2003 Witt and Muhlemann, 1994 Teye, 1998 Akama and Kieti, 2003
Perceived value	C:2, C:3, C:4, C:5	Fodness, 1994 Noe, 1999 Ryan and Cessford, 2003 Petrick, 2004
Satisfaction	C:6, C:7, C:8, C:9, C:10	Singh, Kaur & Singh, 1982 Bennett, 2000 Bowen, 2001 Petrick, 2004

Components presented in Table 4.2 were used in the questionnaire because the literature justified their inclusion in a survey on tourist satisfaction. Authors indicated within the *source* column are those who raised arguments, as previously discussed, on the importance of using a component. Components are expectations, motivations, experience, quality, value for money, perceived value and satisfaction. Questions that sought to evaluate these components are listed under the *question number* column.

4.3.3 Questionnaire distribution

Questionnaires were distributed at the lodges for tourists to complete before they left the CNP area. Visitors in lodges and hotels in the vicinity of the CNP at the time of the survey were considered to be the target population. Questionnaires were distributed and collected over a period of three weeks. Questionnaires were also distributed to tourists at the park entry points and at hotels and campsites.

4.3.4 Sampling

Convenience sampling method was applied. A total of 100 usable responses were obtained from tourists. Sampling units were drawn from the tourist attraction areas and tourist facilities within and around the Chobe National Park (CNP). The sample consisted of tourists who had already visited the CNP attractions.

4.3.5 Survey area

CNP is the largest and most popular national park in Botswana. It has abundant and varied wild species; hence it was chosen to be the research area. Kasane town, the entrance to the park, has several hotels and lodges that accommodate tourists.

4.3.6 Data analysis

Two techniques, the regression analysis and the correlation analysis were used to estimate relationships that may exist between variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. The regression measure, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, was utilised to group together variables of the same nature and with the same impact on the response variable, wildlife tourist satisfaction. The Coefficient of determination was applied to report the percentage variation in the response variable explained by the groups of independent variables. T-tests were utilised to reveal the significance of the identified independent variables on the individual independent variables. On the regression model, the F-test was utilised to reveal the significance of the identified independent variables on the individual independent variables.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODS

The following research methods were used:

4.4.1 Literature study

A qualitative literature study, which included theses, articles and sources on wildlife literature, was used. The literature search utilized the following search engines: general, the library databases, the World Wide Web, articles from different journals including journals of consumer research and the tourism management journals.

4.4.2 The survey

This study was realised by conducting a survey at the CNP. The survey was conducted during the dry season and tourist peak period, during September 2005. The completed questionnaires were collected at the park entry gates and at the reception areas of the guesthouses and lodges where they were initially left for wildlife tourists to pick.

Two main problems were encountered:

- some the tourists were not willing to participate in the survey.
- Some returned questionnaires were incomplete and therefore, could not be used.

Keywords included: *Tourism, wildlife, satisfaction, wildlife tourism, service quality and expectations*. Other tourism-related literature used included literature on service quality, tourist satisfaction, the tourism industry, tourist expectations and perceptions and the structure and content of the tourism product.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the design and the methodology used for the survey. The method of data collection chosen was a structured self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed among tourists at the park entry points, hotels and camping sites. The SERV-PERVAL scale was adopted and used in the questionnaire formation, together with questions that are more

specific to wildlife and parks. The questionnaire contained three components: demographic data, questions on service quality, value and satisfaction and the third component gathered information on expectations and motivations.

The sampling method used was convenience sampling. The research methods utilised were the literature study and the survey. The data analysis was descriptive, with figures and tables, regression and the correlation analysis methods.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents analysis and results of the survey. Data analysis was done by utilisation of the regression analysis and the correlation analysis. Regression measures applied are the Pearson Correlation Coefficient and the Coefficient of Determination. Correlation analysis determined the strength of the relationship between variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. The regression analysis was used to explain how the variables are related.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

Results on age presented in Table 5.1 reveal that most of the respondents were over the age of 40 (61%) and 39% being between ages 20 and 39. The average age is 45.82.

TABLE 5.1: AGE DISTRIBUTION

Age Category	Number (N)
20–29	20
30–39	19
40–49	15
50–59	18
60–69	25
70–79	3

The gender results indicated in Figure 5.1 show an almost equal distribution with 51% being male and 49% female.

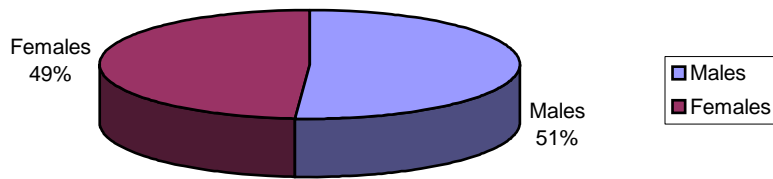


FIGURE 5.1: GENDER DISTRIBUTION

Respondents stayed for different durations, of which most were three days (35%), followed by two days and one-day duration with 33% and 14% respectively. The longest visit was nine days by two respondents. Figure 5.2 illustrates the number of days spent by different respondents at CNP. The majority (73%) of respondents were visiting CNP for the first time.

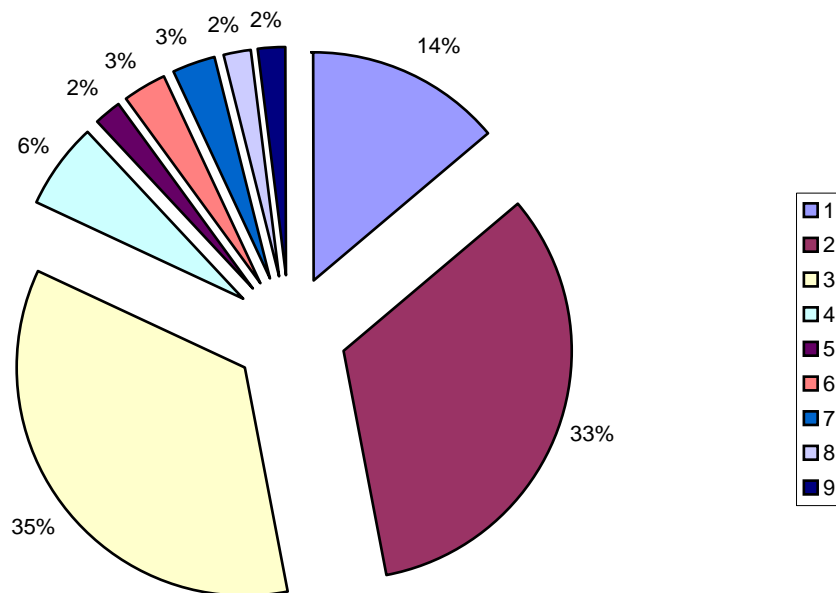


FIGURE 5.2: DURATION OF VISIT BY TOURISTS

There were five different types of accommodation from which respondents could choose to stay during their visit to CNP. These were camping site, in or in the vicinity of the park, guesthouse within the park, guesthouse outside the park, lodge/hotel within the park and lodge/hotel in the vicinity of the park. Table 5.2 displays the results on how respondents chose their accommodation type.

TABLE 5.2: TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION

Type of accommodation	Percentage
Camping sites in and in the vicinity of the park.	33
Guesthouse within the park	2
Guesthouse outside the park	6
Lodge/hotel within the park	10
Lodge/hotel in the vicinity of the park	49

Results reported in Table 5.2 indicate that the majority of respondents (49%) opted to stay in lodges/hotels in the vicinity of the park. The camping sites accommodated 33% of respondents; eight percent stayed in guesthouses and 10% were accommodated in lodges/hotels within the park.

5.3 MOTIVATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

Section B of the questionnaire comprised questions that sought to determine what motivated respondents to travel to CNP and whether they had any expectations prior to their visit. Table 5.3 shows results on motivating factors as expressed by the respondents. They indicated that the dominant motivator was game-viewing (61.3%).

TABLE 5.3: WILDLIFE TOURISTS' MOTIVATING FACTORS

Motivating factor	Percentage
Wildlife-viewing	61.3%
Recommendation from friends	10.9%
Media	10.2%
Past experience	5.8%
Bringing friends	1.5%

Results depicted in Table 5.3 indicate factors that motivated wildlife tourists' to travel to CNP. The dominant motivator is wildlife-viewing (61.3%). Recommendations from friends (10.9%), media (10.2%), past experience (5.8%) as well as bringing friends motivated tourists to a minor extent.

Table 5.4 reports the results on the expectations respondents indicated they had prior to visiting CNP. More than half of the respondents (53%) indicated they had expectations prior to their travel. Some tourists (47%) indicated they did not have any expectations. Expectations mentioned were to enjoy game-viewing, see diverse animals, see many animals, enjoy the scene of natural beauty, experience good service and socialise with other tourists. The two popular expectations among the respondents were to enjoy game-viewing, with a frequency of 40 (75.5%) and to enjoy the view of natural beauty with a frequency of 29 (54.7%).

TABLE 5.4: EXPECTATIONS TOURISTS HAD PRIOR TO VISITING CNP

Expectations	Frequency	Percentage
Enjoy game-viewing	40	75.5%
Enjoy natural beauty	29	54.7%
Experience good service	19	35.8%
Diversity of animals	10	18.9%
Abundant animals	10	18.9%
Socialise with other tourists	4	7.5%

Results shown in Table 5.4 indicate that expectations tourists had prior to visiting CNP are mostly wildlife-related. These are game-viewing, natural beauty, diversity of animals and abundance of animals. Other expectations they had are related to service (experience good service) and about socialisation (socialising with other tourists).

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which their expectations were met. They rated on a scale from not met at all (1) to very highly met (5). Results are depicted in Figure 5.3. Results in Figure 5.3 indicate that most expectations were met because there is a tendency of a high frequency towards the right side of the chart, namely moderately met (3), highly met (4) and very highly met (5).

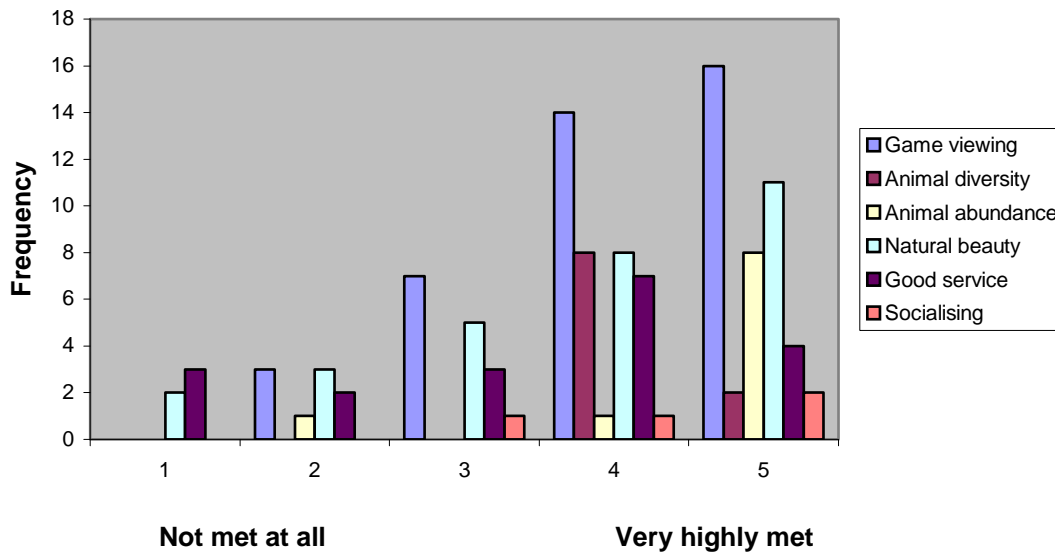


FIGURE 5.3: HOW EXPECTATIONS WERE MET

Table 5.5 presents elaborative results on how expectations were met, as explicated in Figure 5.3.

TABLE 5.5: HOW WILDLIFE TOURISTS' EXPECTATIONS WERE MET

Expectations	Not met at all (1)	Not met (2)	Moderately met (3)	Highly met (4)	Very highly met (5)
Game-viewing	0	3	7	14	16
Animal diversity	0	0	0	8	2
Animal abundance	0	1	0	1	8
Natural beauty	2	3	5	8	11
Good service	3	2	3	7	4
Socialising	0	0	1	1	2

Results in Table 5.5 indicate that, of the 53 respondents who indicated their expectations, five felt their expectations were not met at all. These are expectations on natural beauty and good service. Some wildlife tourists felt their expectations were not met (9). They are expectations on game-viewing (3), animal abundance (1), natural beauty (3) and good service (2). Wildlife tourists

who indicated their expectations were moderately met are 16. They are expectations on game-viewing (7), natural beauty (5), good service (3) and socialising with friends (1). Expectations of 39 wildlife tourists were highly met. These are expectations on game-viewing (14), animal diversity (8), animal abundance (1), natural beauty (8), good service (7) and socialising with friends (1). Wildlife tourists who indicated their expectations were very highly met are 43. They are expectations on game-viewing (16), animal diversity (2), animal abundance (8), natural beauty (11), good service (4) and socialising with friends (2).

Figure 5.4 illustrates results on how expectations were met and presents them according to percentages and frequency.

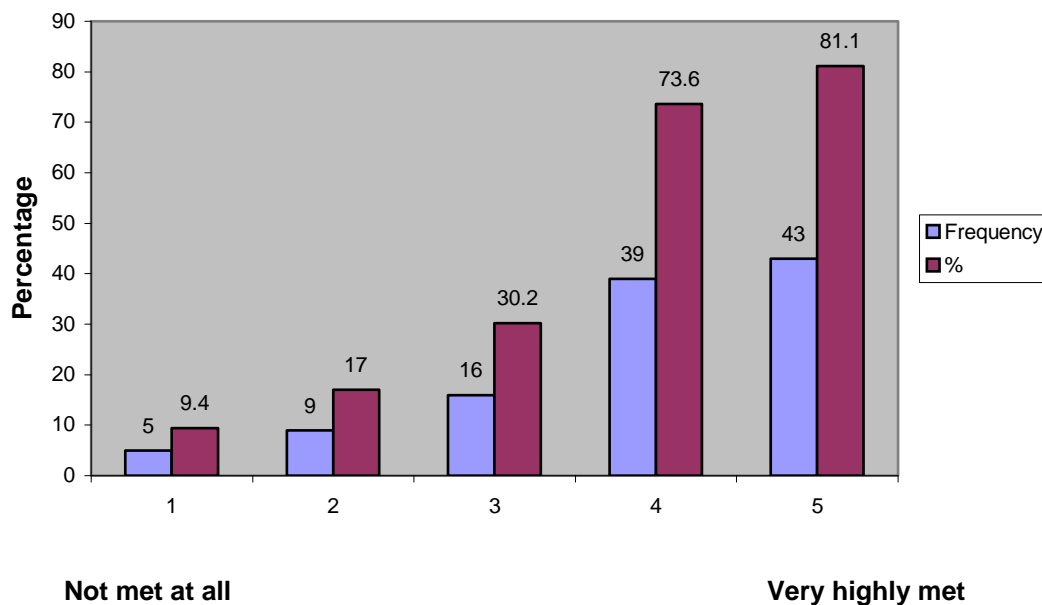


FIGURE 5.4: FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGES OF HOW EXPECTATIONS WERE MET

Results in Figure 5.4 indicate that 9.4% (5) of wildlife tourists felt their expectations were not met at all. Wildlife tourists who indicated their expectations were not met were 9 (17%), 30.2% wildlife tourists indicated their expectations were moderately met. Wildlife tourists who indicated their expectations were

highly met were 39 (73.6%) and 81.1% (43) wildlife tourists felt their expectations were very highly met.

5.4 VALUE AND QUALITY OF EXPERIENCE

Respondents were requested to assess value and the quality of the experience they received during their visit to CNP. In order for all variables to be assessed, they were grouped into categories. The grouping of variables into different categories is indicated in Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.6: VARIABLES ACCORDING TO CATEGORIES

Categories	Variables
Service	Very reliable service Outstanding service Consistent service Dependable service Reputable service Service well thought of Respectable service Easy to purchase service
Value in relation to price	Fairly priced service A good bargain Service worth the price
Destination image	CNP has a good image
Game guiding	Professional game guides
Convenience of location	CNP conveniently located
Quality of experience	Enjoyable experience Exciting experience Pleasurable experience Makes me feel good
Convenience of business hours	Convenient business hours
Neatness of facilities	CNP facilities are neat

Respondents were requested to rate different variables on the overall value and the quality of experience from definitely false (1) to definitely true (5). Results are displayed in Table 5.7. Results indicate that most wildlife tourists felt that the overall value and quality of experience was pleasant for all variables. This is illustrated by high percentage numbers within the *probably true* and *definitely true* columns of Table 5.7.

TABLE 5.7: ASSESSMENT OF OVERALL VALUE AND QUALITY OF EXPERIENCE

Variable	Assessment scale Percentages (%)				
	Definitely false	Probably false	Unsure	Probably true	Definitely true
Very reliable service	0	5	16	43	36
Very consistent service	1	4	31	34	30
Very dependable service	2	3	33	29	33
Enjoyable experience	2	1	2	38	57
Exciting experience	0	3	6	35	56
Pleasurable experience	0	2	8	34	56
Makes me feel good	0	4	6	31	59
Reputable service	2	4	32	31	31
Service well thought of	1	12	19	39	29
CNP has good image	0	5	17	39	39
Fairly priced service	4	10	32	26	28
Respectable service	0	10	23	31	36
CNP package is a good bargain	3	9	37	23	28
Easy to purchase all services	6	4	32	28	30
Convenient business hours	2	11	26	27	34
Neat facilities	8	10	21	29	32
Services are worth the price	5	11	26	27	31
Professional game guides	1	5	8	37	49
Convenient CNP location	3	2	11	23	61

Respondents were requested to rate the extent to which total expectations they had prior to visiting CNP were met. Ratings were done on a scale ranging from much worse than expected (1), worse than expected (2), as expected (3), better than expected (4) and much better than expected (5). Results are summarised in Figure 5.5.

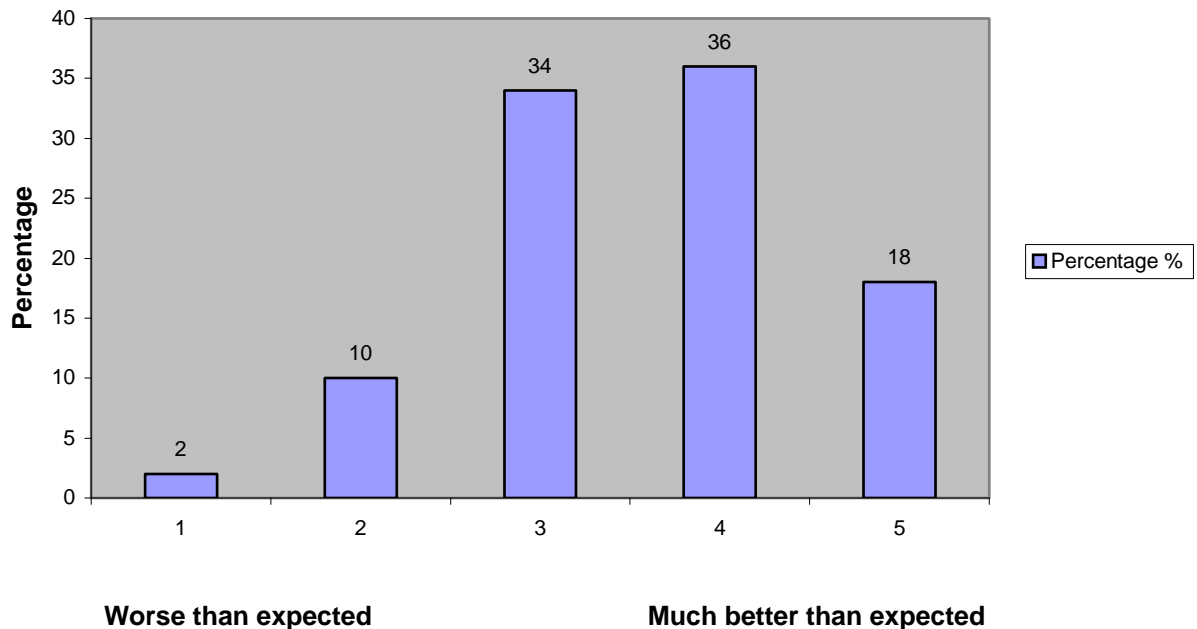


FIGURE 5.5: TOTAL EXPECTATIONS MET

Results in Figure 5.5 reveal that of the respondents who indicated they had expectations prior to their visit to CNP, 18% felt their total experience was much better than expected, 36% rated experience was better than expected. 34% indicated their experience was as expected, 10% felt their experience was worse than expected and 2% indicated their experience was much worse than expected.

Respondents were requested to rate their perceived value for money and the quality of service they experienced during their visit to CNP. They rated the two

items on a scale from very poor (1), poor (2), average (3), good (4) and very good (5). Results are presented in Figure 5.6.

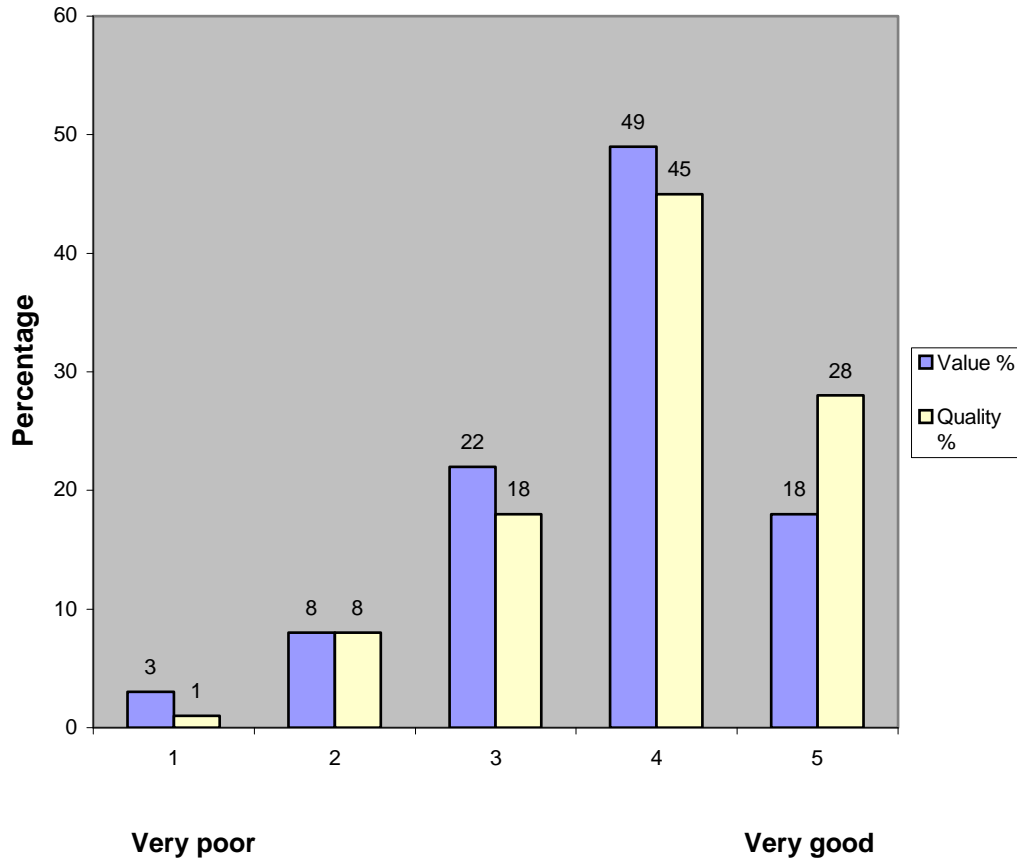


FIGURE 5.6: PERCEIVED VALUE FOR MONEY AND PERCEIVED QUALITY OF SERVICE

Results demonstrated in Figure 5.6 indicate that the highest rating was good for both perceived value for money (49%) and perceived quality of service (45%).

5.5 LIKELIHOOD OF RE-VISITING CNP

Respondents were asked whether or not they were likely to re-visit CNP and were required to circle the number that best represented their answer on a scale

from highly unlikely to return (1), unlikely to return (2), uncertain (3), likely to return (4) and highly likely to return (5). Results are presented in Figure 5.7.

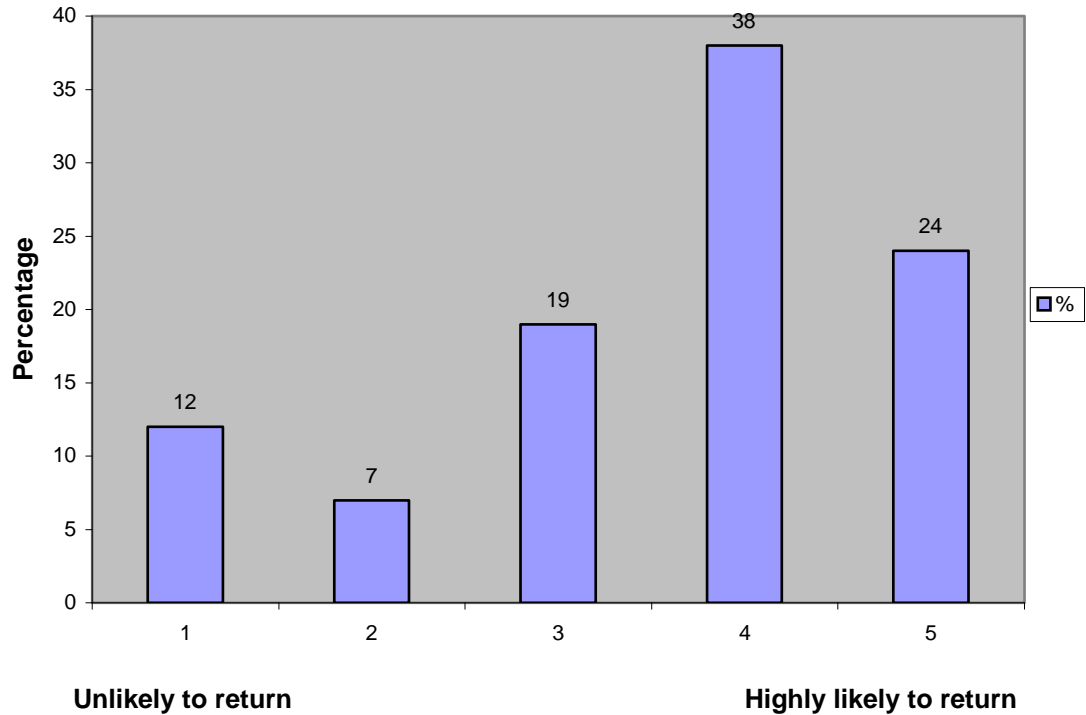


FIGURE 5.7: LIKELIHOOD OF TOURISTS TO RE-VISIT CNP

Results portrayed in Figure 5.7 indicate that 38% of respondents indicated they were likely to return to CNP, 24% were highly likely to return and 19% were uncertain. A small percentage (7%) said they were unlikely to return and 12% were highly unlikely to return to CNP.

Respondents advanced different reasons for their likelihood to re-visit or not re-visit CNP. Reasons given are reflected in Table 5.8.

TABLE 5.8: REASONS FOR LIKELIHOOD OF RE-VISITS AND NON-REVISITS TO CNP

Likely to return to CNP	Number of respondents	Unlikely to return	Number of respondents
Enjoyed nature sights	10	Long distance to Africa	4
Had good experience	39	Old age	2
Professional service	5	Unprofessional staff	2
Good facilities	4	Expensive service	5
Bring friends	4	Crowded facilities	4
		Visit other countries	21

Results presented in Table 5.8 reveal that wildlife tourists would re-visit CNP because they enjoyed nature sights (10), they had a good experience (39), they liked the professional service they received (5), CNP has good facilities (4) and some would bring friends (4). Wildlife tourists who indicated they would not re-visit CNP mentioned the following reasons: long distance to Africa (4), old age (2), unprofessional staff (2), expensive service (5), crowded facilities (4) and that they would like to visit other countries (21).

5.6 ASSESSMENT OF SATISFACTION ON CNP FACILITIES

Satisfaction regarding CNP facilities was assessed by means of a question that required respondents to rate different items on a scale from very unsatisfactory (1) to very satisfactory (5). A *don't know* option was also included for those who could not evaluate an item. Results presented in Table 5.9 indicate that the majority of the respondents were satisfied; hence they mostly rated variables as satisfactory and very satisfactory, with the exception of roads, information centres and picnic spots. Rating for the three exceptions was dominant in the average category. The mode category was satisfactory. The following categories were rated as satisfactory to very satisfactory:

- Enjoyable nature sights (83%)
- Availability of species (77%)
- Diversity of species (66%)

- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals (63%)
- Accommodation at ANP (50%)
- Hospitality of staff (61%)
- Convenience of business hours (55%)

The following categories were rated as unsatisfactory to very unsatisfactory:

- Ablution facilities (16%)
- Condition of vegetation (18%)
- Condition of camping sites (11%)
- Sign-posting within the park (15%)
- Condition of roads in the park (19%)
- Availability of information centres (10%)
- Diversity of food items (6%)
- Condition of picnic spots (11%)

TABLE 5.9: ASSESSMENT OF SATISFACTION REGARDING CNP FACILITIES

Variable	Assessment scale Percentages (%)				
	Very unsatisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Average	Satisfactory	Very satisfactory
Safety measures against attacks by wild animals	0	4	16	35	28
Condition of vegetation within the park	4	14	23	32	22
Availability of species	1	3	18	42	35
Diversity of species	3	1	23	37	29
Condition of camping sites	6	5	12	25	13
Sign-posting within the park	6	9	17	34	14
Enjoyable nature sights	0	1	6	37	46
Accommodation at CNP	1	3	13	26	24
Ablution facilities in the park	5	11	22	25	12
Condition of roads in the park	4	15	31	30	12
Availability of information centres	2	8	32	19	14
Diversity of food items	4	2	19	21	17
Condition of picnic spots	3	8	16	27	10
Hospitality of staff	1	2	16	35	26
Convenience of business hours	2	8	12	29	26

In order to further assess satisfaction levels of respondents, variables for satisfaction assessment were grouped into categories. These groupings are reflected in Table 5.10.

TABLE 5.10: CATEGORIES FOR VARIABLES ASSESSING SATISFACTION REGARDING CNP FACILITIES

Category	Assessment variable
Safety measures	Safety measures against attacks by wild animals
Vegetation	Condition of vegetation in the park
Wildlife species	Availability of species Diversity of species
Accommodation	Condition of campsites Availability of accommodation within and around CNP Condition of ablution facilities in the park
Nature sights	Enjoyable nature sights
Roads	Condition of roads in the park
Sign-posting	Sign-posting within the park
Information centres, staff and business hours	Availability of information centres Hospitality of staff Business hours
Food	Diversity of food items
Picnic spots	Condition of picnic spots

The question assessing satisfaction levels of respondents was further analysed by using correlations. Correlations were done in order to assess and determine the strength of the relationship between variables. Table 5.11 presents results of the correlation analysis.

TABLE 5.11: CORRELATION RESULTS FOR VARIABLES ASSESSING SATISFACTION REGARDING FACILITIES

	Variable	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Safety measures against attacks by wild animals	.228	.123	.047	.144	**-.015	.358	*.087	*.090	.197	.043	.041	*.055	*-.091	.107
2	Condition of vegetation within the park		.413	.431	.340	.423	.102	.055	.116	.439	.273	.122	.236	.124	-.007
3	Availability of wild species			.767	.324	.274	.025	.101	.079	.237	.151	.145	.053	.218	*-.071
4	Diversity of species				.316	.260	.027	.110	.055	.334	.157	.125	.074	.193	-.040
5	Condition of camping sites					.458	.109	.505	.558	.194	.529	.398	.438	.483	.209
6	Sign-posting within the park						**-.018	.203	.274	.374	.420	.213	.420	.268	.125
7	Enjoyable nature sights							.159	-.090	*.062	.234	.170	.141	.063	.194
8	Accommodation at CNP								.506	**-.010	.451	.535	.464	.403	.312
9	Ablution facilities in the park									*.092	.499	.331	.443	.384	.335
10	Condition of roads in the park										.208	.171	*.051	.035	.041
11	Availability of information centres											.516	.497	.520	.458
12	Diversity of food items												.457	.454	.449
13	Condition of picnic spots													.315	.344
14	Hospitality of staff														.655
15	Convenience of business hours														1

* P < 0.1 = Significant value

** P < 0.05 = Highly significant value

Results presented in Table 5.11 indicate that correlation of the following variables is significant:

- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals and accommodation at CNP
- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals and condition of ablution facilities within the park
- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals and condition of picnic spots
- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals and hospitality of staff
- Availability of species and convenient business hours
- Condition of ablution facilities within the park and condition of roads IN CNP
- Condition of roads in CNP and condition of picnic spots
- Enjoyable nature sights and condition of roads in the park

Correlation results of the following variables were highly significant:

- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals and sign-posting within the park
- Enjoyable nature sights and condition of roads in CNP
- Accommodation at CNP and condition of roads in CNP

5.7 AN OUTPUT ON ALL VARIABLES

A multiple regression model was utilised to investigate the contribution of the variables presented in Table 5.11 on Wildlife Tourist Satisfaction. The results are depicted in Table 5.12.

TABLE 5.12: OUTPUT ON ALL VARIABLES

Coefficients (a)				
Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		t	Sig. (P-Value)
	B	Std. Error		
Constant	-.488	.834	-.585	.561
Perceived value for money	.124	.145	.859	.394
Perceived quality of service	.236	.163	1.448	.154
Likelihood of returning to the park	.001	.068	-.008	.993
Recommendations of the destination	.051	.129	.399	.692
Anything outstanding about the visit	.208	.154	1.344	.185
Anything disappointing about the visit	.299	.219	1.365	.179
Overall satisfaction with the visit to CNP	.379	.133	2.851	.006**
Questions on quality of service	.055	.019	2.831	.007**
Questions on value of service according to price	.070	.033	2.100	.041**
Quality of experience	.030	.042	.708	.482
Image of destination	.006	.114	.050	.960
Professionalism of service by game guides	-.450	.130	-3.465	.001**
Convenience of location	.063	.140	.454	.652
Convenience of business hours	-.116	.104	-1.116	.270
Neatness of facilities	-.233	.081	-2.884	.006**

Safety measures in the park	.091	.089	1.021	.312
Condition of vegetation	-.136	.095	-1.435	.158
Condition of nature sights	.087	.125	.691	.493
Sign-posting within the park	.071	.084	-.854	.398
Condition of roads in CNP	-.277	.086	-3.204	.002**
Diversity of food items	.099	.076	1.313	.195
Condition of picnic spots	.179	.068	2.622	.012*
Availability and diversity of species	.165	.061	2.688	.010*
Condition of facilities	.014	.025	-.579	.565
Information centres, staff hospitality and business hours	.099	.033	-2.989	.004**

* P < 0.1 = Significant value

** P < 0.05 = Highly significant value

Results presented in Table 5.12 indicate the following variables are highly significant:

- Overall satisfaction with the visit to CNP (0.006)
- Questions on quality of service (0.007)
- Questions on value of service according to price (0.041)
- Professionalism of service by game guides (0.001)
- Neatness of facilities (0.006)
- Condition of roads in CNP (0.002)
- Availability of information centres, staff hospitality and convenience of business hours (0.004)

Table 5.13 displays the model summary derived from the results of the multiple regression model used to investigate the contribution of Table 5.11 variables to Wildlife Tourist Satisfaction.

TABLE 5.13: MODEL SUMMARY ON ALL VARIABLES

ANOVA (a)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. P- value
Regression	38.376	25	1.535	5.360	.000**
Residual	13.746	48	.286		
Total	52.122	73			
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.858	.736	.599	.535		

* P < 0.1 = Significant value

** P < 0.05 = Highly significant value

Results in Table 5.13 indicate all variables assessed make a valuable contribution to wildlife tourist satisfaction. This is indicated by a highly significant value in the *Sig. P-value* column.

Table 5.14 presents an output of the multiple regression model where only the highly significant ($p < 0.05$) variables are used in the model.

TABLE 5.14: OUTPUT ON HIGHLY SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES (* $P < 0.1$ = Significant value ** $P < 0.05$ = Highly significant value)

Coefficients (a)					
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig. P-value
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	.226	.444		.509	.612
Recommendations on the park	.430	.096	.408	4.495	.000**
Questions on quality of service	.061	.013	.485	4.603	.000**
Questions on value of service according to price	.075	.026	.274	2.866	.005**
Professionalism of game guides	-.241	.103	-.208	-2.331	.022**
Neatness of facilities	-.124	.068	-.168	-1.814	.074*
Condition of roads in CNP	-.199	.062	-.259	-3.209	.002**
Condition of picnic spots	.126	.051	.205	2.484	.015**
Availability and diversity of species	.163	.039	.329	4.190	.000**
Information centres, staff hospitality and business hours	-.059	.023	-.218	-2.529	.014**

Results in Table 5.14 indicate the following variables are highly significant:

- Questions on quality of service
- Recommendations on the park
- Questions on value of service according to price
- Professionalism of game guides
- Condition of roads in CNP
- Condition of picnic spots
- Availability and diversity of species
- Information centres, staff hospitality and convenient business hours

Results indicate that neatness of facilities is significant.

Table 5.15 presents the model summary derived from the results of the multiple regression model where only the highly significant variables are used.

TABLE 5.15: MODEL SUMMARY ON THE HIGHLY SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

ANOVA (a)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.P-value
A. Regression	42.419	9	4.713	15.677	.000**
Residual	22.248	74	.301		
Total	64.667	83			
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.810	.656	.614	.548		

Since only the highly significant variables were used for Table 5.15, the model summary indicates highly significant results, as displayed shown in the *Sig.* Column.

5.8 RECOMMENDING CNP AS A WILDLIFE TOURISM DESTINATION

To the question whether they would recommend CNP as a tourist destination to other people, respondents had varying answers. They were asked to choose an option that best represents their answer on a five-point scale. The scale included strongly not recommend destination (1), would not recommend destination (2), uncertain (3), would recommend (4), and would strongly recommend (5) destination to others. Results are displayed in Figure 5.8.

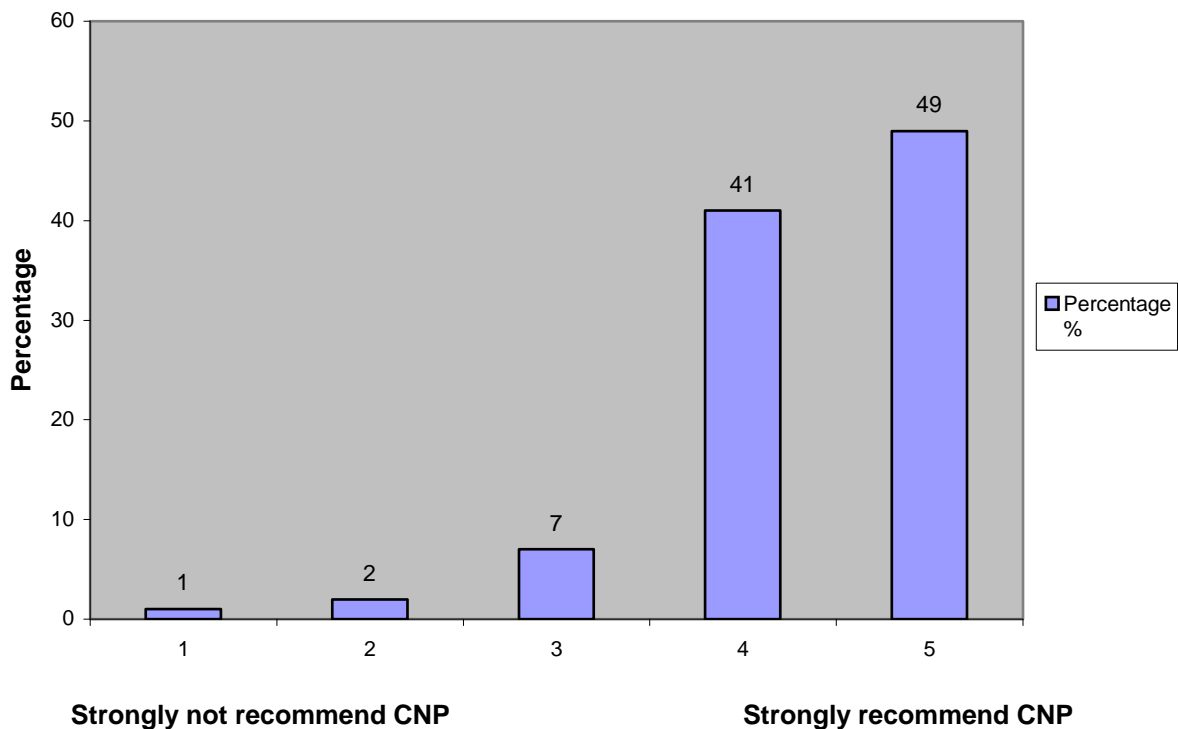


FIGURE 5.8: RECOMMENDATIONS ON CNP AS A WILDLIFE TOURIST DESTINATION

Results in Figure 5.8 indicate 49% of wildlife tourists indicated they would recommend CNP for a wildlife tourist destination. Those who indicated they would recommend represent 41%, followed by 7% of those who were uncertain and 3% of those who would not recommend CNP for a wildlife tourist destination.

Reasons respondents gave for recommending and for not recommending CNP as a tourist destination are presented in Table 5.16.

TABLE 5.16: REASONS FOR RECOMMENDING / NOT RECOMMENDING CNP AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

Reasons for recommending	%	Reasons for not recommending	%
Diversity of wildlife species	30	Unfriendly personnel	4
Enjoyable nature sights	25	Crowded campsites	6
Memorable experience	23		
Value for money	12		

Results presented in Table 5.16 indicate the dominant reason for recommending CNP for a wildlife tourism destination to others is diversity of wild species (30%), followed by enjoyable nature sights (25%), memorable experience (23%) and value for money (12%). Wildlife tourists who would not recommend CNP for a wildlife tourism destination have experienced unfriendly personnel (4%) and crowded campsites (6%).

5.9 WILDLIFE TOURISTS' EXPERIENCE AT CNP

Respondents were asked whether they experienced anything outstanding or disappointing during their visit to CNP. Results are presented in Figure 5.9.

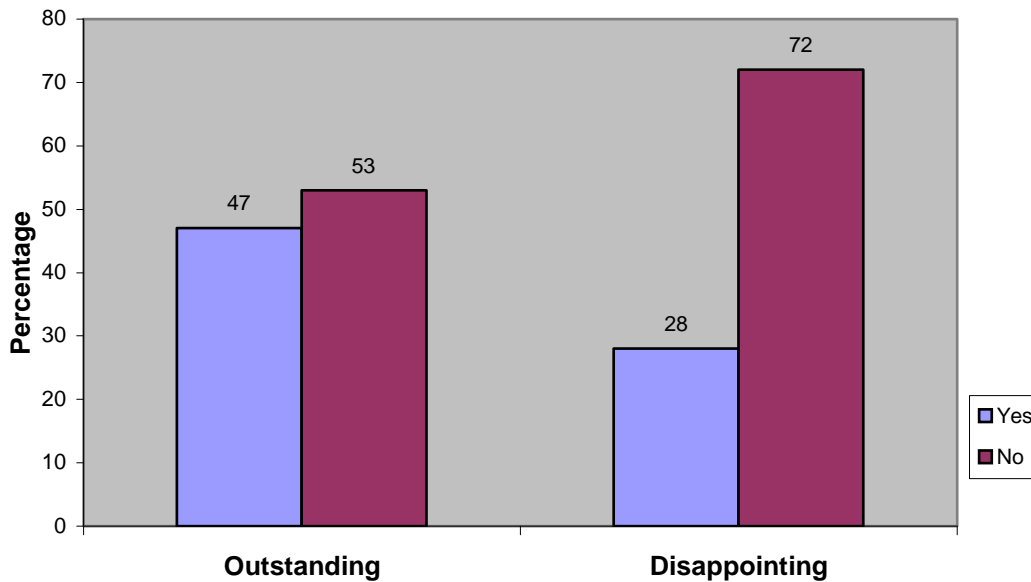


FIGURE 5.9: TOURISTS' OUTSTANDING / DISAPPOINTING ENCOUNTERS AT CNP

Results in Figure 5.9 indicate that 47% respondents experienced outstanding encounters and 53% did not. To the question as to whether respondents had disappointing encounters, 28% answered that they had and 72% that they had not.

Wildlife tourists were requested to list their outstanding and disappointing encounters. Table 5.17 presents results.

TABLE 5.17: OUTSTANDING AND DISAPPOINTING ENCOUNTERS AT CNP

Outstanding encounters	N	Disappointing encounters	N
Diversity of species	12	Overcrowded campsites	9
Abundant species	14	Too many vehicles in the park	6
Nature sights e.g. river, sunset	14	Limited payment options	2
Boat cruise	3	Destroyed vegetation by elephants	5
Professional service	4	Limited cat species	6

Table 5.17 indicates that outstanding encounters by wildlife tourists are:

- Diversity of species
- Abundance of species
- Nature sights
- Boat cruise
- Professional service

Disappointing encounters are:

- Overcrowded campsites
- Too many vehicles in the park
- Limited payment options
- Destroyed vegetation by elephants
- Limited cat species

5.10 ASSESSMENT OF WILDLIFE TOURISTS' OVERALL SATISFACTION

Overall satisfaction was assessed by using a 5-point Likert scale from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Results are reported in Figure 5.10.

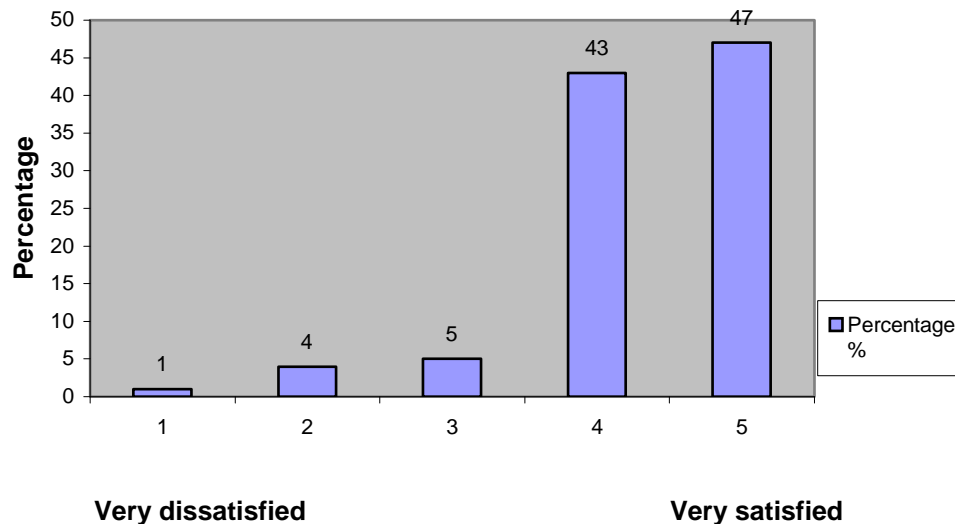


FIGURE 5.10: OVERALL SATISFACTION

Results in Figure 5.10 reveal that 90% of the respondents were satisfied and very satisfied with their visit to CNP. Only 5% of the respondents were not satisfied with their visit and 5% were neutral.

5.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and analysed results of the survey. Results were presented in the form of tables and figures and each presentation was followed by an analysis. The main findings of the survey indicated by the results presented in this chapter are as follows:

- Motivations and expectations – the dominant wildlife tourist motivation factor was *wildlife-viewing* (61.3%). Similarly, the majority of wildlife tourists (53%) indicated they had expectations prior to their visit to CNP. The popular expectation factor was *to enjoy game-viewing* (75.5%). The results indicated that most expectations wildlife tourists had were met. They also indicated that their total experience regarding their expectations was much better than expected (34%). Only 2% felt their experience was worse than expected.
- Value and quality of experience – most wildlife tourists felt the overall value and quality of experience were pleasant for all the variables used for assessment. The variable with the highest value was *quality of experience* (64%) and the variable with the lowest value was *neat facilities and a well-thought service* (39%).
- Perceived value for money and perceived quality of service – wildlife tourists indicated their perceived value for money matched their perceived quality of service. A pleasant value of 49% of wildlife tourists felt their experience was a good value for money and 45% felt quality of service was good.
- Likelihood of re-visiting CNP – most respondents (38%) indicated they were likely to re-visit CNP. Only 7% indicated they were unlikely to re-visit CNP.

- Satisfaction with CNP facilities – most wildlife tourists indicated they were satisfied with CNP facilities. The variable with the highest value regarding satisfaction was *enjoyable nature sights* (83%). The results indicated that the most unsatisfactory facility was the *condition of roads in the park* (19%).
- Recommending CNP as a wildlife tourist destination – the majority of wildlife tourists (90%) indicated they would recommend CNP as a tourist destination. Only 3% said they would not recommend CNP and 7% were uncertain.
- Wildlife tourists' experience at CNP - the results showed that 47% of wildlife tourists had some outstanding experience at CNP and 53% did not. The majority (72%) indicated they did not experience disappointing encounters while only 28% did.
- Overall satisfaction - almost all wildlife tourists (90%) indicated they were satisfied with their experience at CNP.

The results presented in this chapter are discussed in Chapter six.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, all the findings presented in the analysis and results chapter are discussed. All variables that have been found to play a critical role in contributing to wildlife tourist satisfaction are presented and discussed. This includes both variables found in the reviewed literature and those highlighted by the survey. Discussion is conducted by evaluating and explaining the results presented in tables and figures in chapter five. Finally, the discussion seeks to argue for and presents crucial variables likely to lead to high levels of wildlife tourist satisfaction.

6.2 WILDLIFE TOURISTS' DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

The demographic details for wildlife tourists utilised in this survey are age, gender and duration of the visit. Information on age and gender is useful for showing the age trend of wildlife tourists and whether a particular gender patronises wildlife tourism more than the other.

Wildlife tourists were also asked whether or not they had been to CNP before. It was vital to establish whether there were wildlife tourists who had been to CNP before because it helps to ascertain whether CNP experiences re-visits. They were also asked about the type of accommodation they had chosen. The type of accommodation is useful for showing the availability of different types, for wildlife tourists to choose from. Duration of the visit suggests time wildlife tourists have allocated for their tourist activities.

6.2.1 Age Distribution

Results on age distribution presented in Table 5.1 (Pg. 121) show a concentration on the 60-69 age range (25%), followed by 20-29 age range (20).

Only 3% of wildlife tourists were within the age range 70-79. The average age of 45.82 implies that wildlife tourists are usually elderly people who, in most cases, have retired from work and have more time to travel. Unlike people in the reproductive ages, they do not have young children to look after and hence have abundant recreational time. People in the 20-29 and 30-39 seem not to travel much because they are often faced with the responsibility of child-rearing. However, young people who still pursue their education often go on educational tours (Bennett, 2000). Galley and Clifton (2004) describe young educational wildlife tourists as hard-core nature tourists because their aim is to learn about and experience nature. They specifically tour protected areas such as national parks in order to understand the local, natural and cultural history. Therefore this group of tourists belongs to the scientific school of ecotourists that focuses on environmental education and research. Older wildlife tourists are usually independent, flexible and mobile (Galley & Clifton, 2004).

6.2.2 Gender Distribution

Results on gender distribution in Figure 5.1 (Pg. 122) show an almost equal distribution with 51% male and 49% female. These results imply that gender is not a big factor in terms of who is a wildlife tourist, because people travel for different reasons. The results comply with the argument by Saarinen (2006) that anybody with a particular purpose of travel may travel because purposes for travel are different. They may travel for pleasure, leisure, business, health, education and/or religion (Bennett, 2000).

6.2.3 Accommodation type and length of stay

Table 5.2 (Pg. 123) reports on types of accommodation wildlife tourists opted for during their stay within the CNP area. The majority (49%) stayed in lodges outside the park. Most camping sites are located outside the park and are usually used by group educational wildlife tourists because they visit in large numbers (Saarinen, 2006).

Variety of accommodation in and around CNP is necessary as it caters for wildlife tourists with differing financial status. Camping sites and guesthouses tend to be more affordable than lodges and hotels.

Most (35%) wildlife tourists stayed three days within the CNP area. The fact that contributes to a shorter stay is that tourism involves expenditure. Wildlife tourists travel to and from a destination where they participate in activities and consume other services (Bennett, 2000). It is a package within which there are standardised offers comprising two or more elements of transport, accommodation, food and other services (Bowen, 2001). This result complements the argument by Bennett (2000) that price is an important component of the tourism product because the tourism product has to be purchased.

The majority (73%) of wildlife tourists were visiting CNP for the first time. According to Web (2003), these are more likely to have a more enjoyable experience than more experienced wildlife tourists. He argues that, while different wildlife tourists enjoy different experiences at a similar destination regardless of whether or not they are more experienced, less experienced wildlife tourists are likely to enjoy more.

6.3 MOTIVATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

According to Martin-Cejas (2006), motivations play an important role in tourism, especially in choice of a destination. Motivations are a set of needs that cause a person to participate in a tourism activity. They represent individual internal forces that lead to action.

According to Akama and Kieti (2003), wildlife tourists would usually have initial expectations prior to consuming a service. Troung and Foster (2006) argue that expectations play a role in the motivation to travel. This is because wildlife tourists tend to anticipate a particular encounter for their experience.

6.3.1 Wildlife tourists' motivators

Results presented in Table 5.3 (Pg. 124) show that wildlife tourists were motivated by different factors, including wildlife-viewing (61.3%), recommendation from friends (10.9%), media (10.2%), past experience (5.8%) and bringing friends (1.5%). Swanson and Horridge (2006) argue that wildlife tourists' motivations are determined by the several psychological and social factors, as is illustrated by the results. In addition to socio-psychological factors, Saarinen (2006) asserts that wildlife tourists are also motivated by potential rewards of tourism consumption.

The dominant motivation was wildlife-viewing (61.3%). This result complements the argument by Curtin (2005) that pleasure in wildlife tourism is derived from viewing wild animals, interacting with wild animals at close proximity, experiencing sense of habitat and seeing a wide range of species.

Media and recommendation from friends result from advertising and publicity respectively. Advertisements are often part of the strategic planning of tourism organisations. They motivate wildlife tourists, depending on how well they are articulated.

Word of mouth (recommendation from friends) results when satisfied wildlife tourists share their experience with their significant others. Heung *et al.* (2001) point out that word of mouth publicity is vital to tourism organisations because it is usually more effective than other forms such as information from travel agents. In order for past experience to motivate another visit, all four the components of experience (attractions, entertainment, safety, facilities) must have previously satisfied the tourist. This implies that wildlife tourists, who were motivated by past experience in this study (5.8%), had had a satisfying past experience at CNP.

Brown and Lehto (2005) grouped travel motivations into four categories: physical motivations, cultural motivations, interpersonal motivations and status and prestige motivations. These categories are represented in the results as follows:

- Physical motivations – wildlife-viewing (61.3%)
- Cultural motivations – media (10.2%) and recommendations from friends (10.9%)
- Interpersonal motivations – meeting friends (1.5%)
- Status and prestige motivations – past experience (5.8%)

This implies that physical motivation dominated, followed by cultural motivations, status/prestige motivations and interpersonal motivations.

6.3.2 Wildlife tourists' expectations

Some wildlife tourists indicated they had one or several expectations prior to travel to CNP. Rodriguez del Bosque *et al.* (2006) highlight that tourist expectations can be influenced by past experience, perceived image of services and wildlife tourists' level of previous satisfaction of the service. Qu and Ping (1999) add that expectations can be influenced by the organisation's advertising strategy and that some wildlife tourists simply expect more service and thus set high expectation standards for themselves. Results on Table 5.4 (Pg. 125) show that respondents indicated their expectations as being:

- To enjoy game-viewing (75.5%)
- To see diverse animals (18.9%)
- To see many animals (18.9%)
- To enjoy nature (54.7%)
- To experience pleasant service (35.8%)
- To socialise with other wildlife tourists (7.5%)

As shown in Table 5.4 (Pg. 125), most wildlife tourists had wildlife-related expectations because wildlife tourism concerns itself with the floral and faunal components of nature as well as the social motive of travel (Shackley, 1996).

Figure 5.3 (Pg. 126) depicts results on the rating by wildlife tourists on how their expectations were met at CNP. Results show that wildlife tourists felt their expectations were met, with most (81.1%) of them indicating they were very highly met.

Similar results are presented in Table 5.5 (Pg. 126) where expectations of only 14 (26.4%) wildlife tourists were not met. The high numbers indicated in the *highly met* and *very highly met* columns indicate that the majority of wildlife tourists' expectations were met. Expectations met are those directly related to wildlife tourism, namely game-viewing, animal diversity, animal abundance and natural beauty. This result is supported by the argument that when tourists travel to a nature reserve area such as a national park, they expect to see many and different wild animals in their natural habitat (Shackley, 1996).

Figure 5.4 (Pg. 127) illustrates frequency and percentage of wildlife tourists as they rated how their expectations were met. Five wildlife tourists indicated their expectations were not met at all, nine felt theirs were not met, expectations of 16 (30.2%) wildlife tourists were moderately met, 39 (73.6%) felt their expectations were highly met and 43 (81.1%) wildlife tourists felt theirs were very highly met. Results on how and whether wildlife tourists' expectations were met imply that in some instances, expectations play a vital role in determining wildlife tourists' destination as well as their level of satisfaction with their experience (Akama & Kieti, 2003; Bennett, 2003).

Rodriguez del Bosque *et al.* (2006) assert that tourist expectations are predictive, since they are likely to hold certain predictions about the outcome of a service transaction. Expectations are likely to change during service consumption because they are also influenced by several factors. These factors include how the tourism organisation promotes itself, how the sales personnel conduct themselves during service delivery and tourists' past experience.

6.4 QUALITY OF EXPERIENCE

The experience of wildlife tourists is said to be authentic because it occurs when wildlife tourists believe they are in touch with nature (Curtin, 2005). The wildlife tourist experience is one of the key concepts that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. The experience is different from other experiences because it is novel and strange, wildlife tourists do not usually share similar experiences, it is subjective and can be viewed as superficial (Uriely, 2005). Experience of wildlife tourists is vital because it is often used for evaluating services consumed at a destination area.

6.4.1 Experiences by wildlife tourists

Value and quality categories used in the questionnaire and their variables are indicated in Table 5.6 (Pg. 128). Wildlife tourists were required to rate them according to their experience. The categories are service, value in relation to price, destination image, game guiding, convenience of location, quality of experience, convenience of business hours and neatness of facilities. Results presented in Table 5.7 (Pg. 129) indicate that wildlife tourists felt the service they received was of good value and that the majority had a high-quality experience. This is shown by high percentages under the probably and definitely true columns.

Results presented in Figure 5.5 (Pg. 130) show how expectations by wildlife tourists were met. Of the wildlife tourists who had expectations, 54% felt their experience was better than expected, 34% rated their experience as expected and 12% felt their experience was worse than expected. These results verify that service experience is a subjective personal reaction and feelings wildlife tourists experience as they consume a service (Uriely, 2005). Different ratings mean that wildlife tourists had different degrees of experience at CNP and the high percentage (54%) on total experience implies the majority enjoyed nature-based experiences.

Bennett (2000) believes that experience has five phases which all form part of the pleasurable experience. These phases are (1) planning (decision-making on a destination, mode of transport and type of accommodation), (2) journey (physical movement to a destination), (3) destination, (4) return journey and (5) revival. Destination is regarded as a peak of the holiday where the tourism product is used to the maximum. It is where wildlife tourists spend most of their money and time. The revival phase is that during which wildlife tourists re-live their holiday experience once they have returned to their base. It is vital that wildlife tourists rate their experience because, according to Otto and Ritchie (1996), service experience is an important part of consumer evaluation of services. Hence it was necessary to use different variables to assess wildlife tourists' experience because a satisfactory experience consists of several elements such as attractions, entertainment, safety and food.

Although the majority of wildlife tourists indicated they were happy with their experience, they may have had different types of experiences. Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) suggest different types of experiences, for instance; ecotourist experience, recreational experience, community experience, picturesque landscape experience and family holiday experience. According to Uriely (2005), different experiences at the same destination may be due to the fact that the tourist experience has different characteristics.

Experiences wildlife tourists will enjoy are likely to be determined by expectations because each tourist has an agenda prior to a visit; therefore arrive with a set of expectations. This argument implies that wildlife tourists with prior expectations will believe they had a pleasant experience when their expectations have been met. Figure 5.5 (Pg. 130) indicates that 88% of the respondents felt that their expectations were met (or exceeded).

6.5 PERCEIVED VALUE FOR MONEY AND QUALITY OF SERVICE

According to Rogers (1995), the value for money concept has to be used within the process of determining prices because it helps to ensure maximum tourist satisfaction regarding a purchased service. When price is commensurate with service, it normally accounts for a successful service business. Lee, Yoon and Lee (2007:206) state:

“Perceived value is the consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given.”

Petrick (2004) adds that perceived value may have different meanings to different wildlife tourists, namely low price, whatever one wants in a product and the quality the consumers get for what they give. This means that value is basically the relationship between quality and price.

Perceived quality of a service has to be assessed because quality is a consumer’s judgement on a service’s overall excellence (Petrick, 2004). Go and Govers (2000) contend that quality is vital in a service industry because it ensures the customer’s needs and expectations are met. Quality of service is often determined by an assessment of how the actual performance matches customer’s expectations (Qu & Ping, 1999).

6.5.1 Perceived value for money

Perceived value for money is a valuable construct in the wildlife tourism industry because it affects satisfaction. Results presented in Figure 5.6 (Pg. 131) reveal how wildlife tourists rated perceived value for money at CNP. The majority (67%) of wildlife tourists felt services they received were of good value for money. Wildlife tourists often use their perception on the value for money to evaluate the services they consume. Therefore, in order for wildlife tourism places such as the CNP to be sustained, the service price must be perceived as being commensurate to the perceived value of the service.

6.5.2 Perceived quality of service

Service quality in the tourism industry depends on the wildlife tourists' perceptions of the organisation, image, physical environment, the service encounter and tourist satisfaction. It is a significant construct because it is concerned with social trends, consumer behaviour and demand (Williams & Buswell, 2003). Like perceived value for money, quality of service a variable that affects satisfaction. For this reason, they are often used concurrently to indicate the value of a service to the tourists.

Results presented in Figure 5.6 (Pg. 131) reveal how wildlife tourists rated perceived quality of services at CNP. The majority (73%) of wildlife tourists felt services they received were of good quality. It is imperative for CNP to focus on good quality provision when deciding on or reviewing their services. One important step in determining quality of a service is establishing exactly what wildlife tourists need because quality of service depends on the expected (for those with expectations) and perceived service. The results from CNP suggest that these were taken into account; hence a high rating of perceived quality of service. Superior quality is likely to bring advantages of profit to a tourist organisation while failure to satisfy quality will result in a loss.

6.6 LIKELIHOOD OF RE-VISITING CNP

Bramwell (1998) argues that tourist destinations should offer unique and satisfying services in order to attract and retain wildlife tourists. Similarly, Akama and Kieti (2003) argue that only satisfied wildlife tourists are likely to recommend a destination. Re-visit to a wildlife tourist destination is often determined by the extent to which the previous experience wildlife tourists had been satisfactory (Master & Prideaux, 2000).

Figure 5.7 (Pg. 132) illustrates how wildlife tourists rated their likelihood of re-visiting CNP. A majority of 62% mentioned they were likely to re-visit. The tourists attached different reasons for their likelihood or not to re-visit. Table 5.8

(Pg. 133) shows that reasons advanced are a result of wildlife tourists having had a memorable nature-related experience. These results confirm the argument by Master and Prideaux (2000) that a satisfactory experience is likely to breed wildlife tourist loyalty. Wildlife tourists also suggest that the manner in which services were delivered to wildlife tourists was satisfactory. Tourists' perception of the quality of service contributed to their experience. It is evident from the results that the respondents' perceived the experience they received at CNP to be outstanding and memorable. Other wildlife tourists indicated they would return with friends. This is word of mouth advertising, which is said to be the cheapest and more effective (Petrick & Backman, 2002).

In the case of CNP, the majority (21%) of those who indicated they were unlikely to re-visit mentioned that they wanted to tour other countries. This suggests that their unlikeliness to re-visit may not necessarily be due to unsatisfactory experience but other commitments. Others mentioned expensive service (5%) and long distance to Africa (4%) as reasons for being unlikely to re-visit. Wildlife tourists who mentioned long distance as a reason for not re-visiting confirm the argument by Martin-Cejas (2006) that distance can be a restriction because tourism is about temporary movement with physical and monetary costs. This also affirms the statement by Bennett (2000) that wildlife tourism is a package within which money is used to purchase services at a destination. High service price can also diminish service consumption and lower utility of a destination (Martin-Cejas, 2006); hence wildlife tourists who experienced expensive service at CNP are unlikely to re-visit.

Other wildlife tourists were unlikely to re-visit due to old age (2%), unprofessional staff (2%) and crowded facilities (4%). Although these were a small percentage of such wildlife tourists, CNP has to give quality service in all aspects of service delivery in order to retain as many wildlife tourists as possible. This is particularly important because perceived value for money and service quality are related to behavioural intentions such as revisiting (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Petrick,

2004). Therefore, if the value for money and the service quality are not satisfactory, they negatively impact on behavioural intentions of wildlife tourists. This presents a challenge to CNP service providers to understand the relationship between the two variables and use them to retain wildlife tourists.

6.7 SATISFACTION LEVELS ON CNP FACILITIES AND ATTRACTIONS

Tourist satisfaction is a final step of a psychological process after purchase and consumption of all activities at a destination area (Millan & Esteban, 2004). Petrick (2004) argues that wildlife tourist satisfaction is vital for consumer loyalty because it is an excellent predictor of re-purchase intentions. It reflects the extent to which wildlife tourists believe they had a pleasant experience (Simpson, 2000). According to Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003), several attributes exist that contribute to satisfaction. Motivations and expectations are some of the attributes that have to be met in order for wildlife tourists to feel satisfied with their visit to a wildlife tourist destination. Fulfilling attributes is particularly vital because wildlife tourists assess them by comparing them with desired outcomes (Tribe & Snaith, 1998).

Bennett (2000) influences a need to assess facilities when he argues that as an important component of the tourism product, facilities have to be in a pleasant state for use by tourists. Table 5.9 (Pg. 135) presents results on the wildlife tourists' assessment of satisfaction level regarding CNP facilities. Facilities were assessed by using different variables at CNP. In order to ensure assessment of all facilities, variables were grouped into relevant categories shown on Table 5.10 (Pg. 136). Most wildlife tourists indicated they were satisfied with most variables registering high frequencies in the satisfactory category. Results imply that services at CNP are of satisfactory quality and value for money.

It was deemed necessary to assess the category *safety measures* because, in order for wildlife tourists to enjoy nature tour, they must be assured of safety from attack by wild animals. *Vegetation, species and nature sights* are the floral and

faunal part of wildlife tourism. They are some of the wildlife tourism resources vital for tourist attraction (Shackley, 1996). Consequently CNP service providers should keep the flora and fauna as assets because, as Ormsby and Mannle (2006) point out, an overuse of a wildlife tourist area may result in a loss of wildlife and natural habitat. An overpopulated destination loses quality of natural beauty, seclusion and charm that initially made it appealing (Ormsby & Mannle, 2006).

The categories *accommodation, roads, sign-posting, information centres, food and picnic spots* are also useful because wildlife tourism is a package and every component of the package contributes to overall satisfaction and total experience (Tribe, 1995; Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Bennett, 2000).

The condition of roads and vegetation in the park were also assessed in order to determine any degradation caused by wild animals. Some wildlife tourists (4%) were dissatisfied by the condition of vegetation and 4% by the condition of roads in the park. This confirms the argument by Smith and Eadington (1992) that wildlife tourism is capable of bringing environmental degradation: large herds of elephants at CNP affect the floral component of wildlife by destroying vegetation. Too many game-viewing vehicles also damage roads in the park. Other impacts of wildlife tourism on the environment are erosion and depletion of natural resources. CNP must develop strategies to control negative effects of wildlife tourism on the environment. In addition to strategies, Shackley (1996) suggests public education as a correction tool for adverse impacts of the animal/human interaction. The following are the negative impacts caused by the interaction between animals and wildlife tourists:

- Disturbance of animals that leads to adjusted quality of animal life
- Modification of the natural habitat, such as giving animals food, affect their behaviour

- Habituation; wild animals modifying their natural behaviour because they are conditioned to accept the presence of wildlife tourists (Shackley, 1996; Novelli, Barnes and Humavindu., 2006; Mbaiwa, 2005).

The condition of facilities should be of high quality and maintained as such at all times so as to attract more wildlife tourists. Therefore wildlife tourism service providers must ensure good condition of all facilities in order to have satisfied wildlife tourists.

Correlation results in Table 5.11 (Pg. 137) presents association of variables used to assess satisfaction levels of wildlife tourists on CNP facilities. Results indicate a significant ($p < 0.1$) relationship of the variables indicated in Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1: SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

Variable	Correlation variable	P-value
Safety measures against attacks by wild animals	Accommodation	0.087
	Park ablution facilities	0.090
	Condition of picnic spots	0.055
	Hospitality of staff	0.091
Availability of species	Convenience of business hours	0.071
Nature sights	Condition of roads in the park	0.062
Park ablution facilities	Condition of roads in the park	0.092
Condition of roads in the park	Condition of picnic spots	0.051

These results indicate positive relationships between presented variables. A possible explanation for the significant correlations may be as follows:

- Safety standards need to be high in accommodation places, park ablution facilities and picnic spots so that wildlife tourists are protected from attack by wild animals and/or get lost within the park.

- Staff is responsible for taking wildlife tourists on game tour trips; thus they have to be hospitable and knowledgeable in order for wildlife tourists to feel protected from attacks by wild animals.
- Wild animals may not be available for view throughout the day. During other seasons such as summer, game tours may have to be conducted in the morning and late afternoon hours when the heat from the sun is not at peak and wild animals are moving around grazing. They are likely to hide away in shades under trees when temperatures are very high, making it almost impossible for wildlife tourists to see them.
- Poor condition of roads in the park is likely to inhibit trips to the nature sights. Bennett (2000) confirms this when he argues that the infrastructure at wildlife destination areas has to be well kept so that all attractions are accessible.

Table 6.2 presents variables that indicated a highly significant ($p < 0.05$) result:

TABLE 6.2: HIGHLY SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES

Variable	Correlation variable	P-value
Safety measures against attacks by wild animals	Sign-posting within the park	-0.015
Sign-posting within the park	Nature sights	0.018
Accommodation at CNP	Condition of roads in the park	0.010

These results show that presented variables are highly significant because they all form part of the infrastructure, which is said to be vital development at wildlife tourism destinations (Shackley, 1996; Ormsby & Mannle, 2006). These variables are positively related in the following way:

- Sign-posting is one of the developments that should come with infrastructure at a wildlife tourism destination. Its purpose within the park is to guide wildlife tourists away from spots at which wild animals usually gather, spots such as streams or dams. In this way, sign-posting becomes

- a safety measure for wildlife tourists as they tour the area. Sign-posting will also help tourists not to get lost within the park.
- Similarly, wildlife tourists will be able to locate other nature sights within the park with the help of signposts.
 - Both accommodation and roads are infrastructure that enables wildlife tourists to be safe and to easily access attraction areas.

6.8 ASSESSMENT OF ALL VARIABLES

A multiple regression model was utilised to investigate the contribution of all variables used (Table 5.11, pg. 137) on wildlife tourist satisfaction. Results presented in Table 5.12 (Pg. 139) show both significant and highly significant variables. These variables are important because they are pillars for success in the wildlife tourism industry. Previous discussion highlighted quality of service and satisfaction, as well as value for money as some of the factors likely to attract more wildlife tourists. Satisfactory service delivery is possible with the use of professional and hospitable staff. Consequently proper training of staff (including game guides) is essential to both CNP and wildlife tourists.

Results on the wildlife satisfaction variables indicate that the condition of picnic spots and availability and diversity of species are critical for enhancing the experience of wildlife tourists. This result confirms the argument by Shackley (1996) and Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) that when wildlife tourists travel to wildlife tourist destinations, they are almost certain they will see wild animals. As shown in this study, a view of wild animals in their natural habitat is one of the motivating factors for tourists to travel to wildlife tourist destinations; hence availability and diversity of species is a significant variable.

According to Andereck *et al.* (2005), wildlife tourism is a potential economic base that provides opportunities for both attractions and recreation. It is therefore crucial that the condition of recreation places such as picnic spots should always

be up to standard. Results indicate that the following variables are highly significant to wildlife tourist satisfaction:

- Condition of the roads in the park
- Availability of information centres
- Overall satisfaction
- Quality of service
- Value of service according to price
- Professionalism of game guides
- Neatness of facilities

Wildlife tourism brings physical environmental changes such as construction of infrastructure. This includes roads and information centres. *Availability of well-maintained roads and information centres* is crucial because it ensures accessibility to attraction areas within a destination area (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Cooper, 1990). In the case of CNP, some wildlife tourists expressed unhappiness with both roads and the condition of vegetation within the park. Roads were in a bad state due to too many game-viewing vehicles, including trucks, which were allowed in the park simultaneously.

Satisfaction is a post-purchase construct, a summary of cognitive and affective reaction to services provided (Truong & Foster, 2006; Taylor & Baker, 1994). Um, Chon and Ro (2006) argue that it is crucial that wildlife tourists are satisfied after visiting a wildlife destination area because it is an influential variable in determining intentions or not to re-visit. *Overall satisfaction* is a critical factor for maintaining a competitive market and achieving a business success.

Similar to the concept *satisfaction*, a high-quality service is likely to motivate wildlife tourists to re-visit and recommend the destination. Assessment of *quality of service* involves the evaluation of the overall superiority of the services received (Bolton & Drew, 1991). Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) highlight that

quality is one of the factors that determine wildlife tourist satisfaction because, according to Petrick (2004), wildlife tourist destinations must provide a pleasant quality of service. In addition to its ability to influence re-visit intentions, quality service provides a favourable disposition towards the service provider because it measures the performance of the service provider.

Value for money is also a critical variable believed to influence satisfaction and intentions to recommend a destination because it is about the quality the wildlife tourist received for the price paid (Petrick, 2004). It is the evaluation of the utility of services based on perceptions of what is received and what is given (Lee *et al.*, 2007). Terblanch and Boshoff (2001) maintain that price is an important tool in consumer decision-making. It has the ability to influence the way consumers perceive quality of the service they received. Therefore, for a wildlife tourist destination to be sustained, the service price must be perceived as being commensurate to the perceived value of the service (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003). Rogers (1995) points out that price is often used as a management tool because it can account for a successful business when it is well used.

Professionalism of game guides is important because they interact with wildlife tourists during game-viewing tours. According to Bennett (2000), good interpersonal relations contribute to a balanced service provision. Game guides must have the ability to relate to wildlife tourists, establish rapport with them and meet their specific needs. Similarly, Khan and Su (2003) argue that interaction between guests and service providers determine guests' satisfaction of that particular encounter. In the case of wildlife tourists, game guides are service providers; hence they must offer satisfactory services.

Neat facilities are part of the wildlife tourism package. They must be well kept and accessible to wildlife tourists. Bennett (2000) argues that although facilities do not generate tourism, their absence could discourage tourists from visiting a destination. Stein *et al.* (2003) and Higham and Carr (2003) assert that facilities

at wildlife tourist destinations have to be available because, while they are utilised by wildlife tourists, they also provide the local communities with opportunities for employment.

Table 5.13 (Pg. 141) displays results of a model summary conducted on all variables used in the study. The highly significant value of 0.000 indicates that all variables used in this study are important and may need to be incorporated in the running of any wildlife tourism organisation.

Table 5.14 (Pg. 142) presents an output of the multiple regression where only the highly significant ($p < 0.05$) variables are used. Its model summary is presented in Table 5.15 (Pg. 143). These results indicate that all the highly significant variables are crucial for application at wildlife tourism destinations. They form a base for a successful and satisfactory service. Hence these variables are likely to positively contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction if they are considered in daily service provision.

6.9 RECOMMENDATION OF CNP AS A WILDLIFE TOURISM DESTINATION

Petrick (2004) argues that satisfactory experience at a wildlife tourism destination will cause wildlife tourists to recommend the destination. When satisfied wildlife tourists recommend a wildlife tourism destination, it will be a business success with a capability of self-sustenance (Curtin, 2005). It is therefore important that wildlife tourists should be willing to recommend a destination after their visit. Andereck *et al.* (2005) argue that sustained tourism services are a potential economic base that will improve quality of life with employment opportunities and tax revenues.

6.9.1 Tourists' reasons for recommending/not recommending CNP

Results illustrated by Figure 5.8 (Pg. 144) indicate that a majority (90%) of wildlife tourists indicated that they would recommend CNP as a wildlife tourist

destination. This is a positive result for CNP because it implies a likelihood of more arrivals of wildlife tourists, more business success and sustainability.

Table 5.16 (Pg. 145) reports results on reasons advanced by wildlife tourists on whether or not they would recommend CNP as a wildlife tourism destination. Reasons they mentioned for recommending CNP are diverse species, nature sights and a value for money service. Those who indicated they would not recommend CNP for a tourist destination had met unfriendly personnel and had lodged in overcrowded camping sites. CNP has a duty to rectify all negative factors mentioned by unhappy wildlife tourists. By doing so, CNP would become a popular destination with the most enjoyable experience.

6.9.2 Outstanding and disappointing encounters by wildlife tourists

Figure 5.9 (Pg. 146) illustrates results on the number of wildlife tourists who experienced either outstanding or disappointing encounters. Most (72%) of the wildlife tourists did not experience disappointing encounters. Table 5.17 (Pg. 146) indicates encounters that led to wildlife tourists having either outstanding or disappointing experiences. Those content with their experience mentioned diversity of species, abundance of species, nature sights, boat cruise and professional service as their outstanding encounters. As mentioned earlier in the discussion, these are a number of attributes that form the wildlife tourism package. Their availability at any wildlife tourism destination will ensure pleasant experiences for wildlife tourists (Bennett, 2000).

Wildlife tourists with disappointing encounters mentioned overcrowded camping sites, too many vehicles within the park, limited payment options, destroyed vegetation and limited cat species. These wildlife tourists are more unlikely to recommend CNP as a tourist destination because they were not completely happy with their experience.

6.10 OVERALL SATISFACTION

Petrick and Backman (2002) maintain that satisfaction is subjective; therefore overall satisfaction is based on individual attributes of the experience. Overall satisfaction has two components: one is attribute satisfaction and the other is information satisfaction. Attribute satisfaction is wildlife tourists' judgement that result from observations during service consumption. Information satisfaction refers to satisfaction with information provided prior to the purchase of service. This argument is a challenge to tourism service providers to set themselves attainable objectives when they advertise their product. Overall satisfaction is crucial to both wildlife tourists and service providers because it remains an influential variable in explaining intentions to re-visit and word of mouth advertising (Um *et al.*, 2006).

Figure 5.10 (Pg. 147) reflects results on the overall satisfaction of wildlife tourists who had visited CNP. A majority of 90% claimed they were satisfied with the entire experience. While this is a positive result for CNP, they must keep on improving their service delivery such that even the remaining unsatisfied wildlife tourists (10%) are taken care of. This can be better achieved through a management process of continuously reviewing strategies for service delivery and taking action to correct all anomalies that previously caused dissatisfaction among wildlife tourists. According to Qu and Ping (1999), satisfaction levels are largely related to wildlife tourists' needs and purposes for travel. When those needs are not met, satisfaction levels are likely to be low.

6.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has highlighted several crucial factors regarding wildlife tourism. The average age of 45.82 implies that, although age is not a crucial factor in tourism, wildlife tourists are relatively old. Like age, an almost equal distribution illustrates that gender is not a factor in terms of who is a wildlife tourist.

Wildlife tourists are usually motivated by wildlife-related factors such as wildlife-viewing. Although the literature indicated that expectations have an important role to play in determining satisfaction, the results of this survey indicate the opposite. Most tourists indicated that they did not have expectations prior to their visit to CNP but had a satisfactory experience.

There is a confirmation of a positive relationship between service quality and satisfaction. Wildlife tourists who were pleased with the quality of service they received indicated that they were satisfied. Additionally, they believed the quality of service they received was value for money.

Several authors (Akama & Kieti, 2003; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Petrick, 2004) believe satisfied tourists will recommend and re-visit the destination. However, results of this survey revealed that when tourists do not re-visit a destination or do not have re-visits intentions, it is not necessarily because they were not satisfied with their experience. It may be due to other reasons such as the ones indicated in this survey: desire to visit other destinations, long distance and old age.

This survey identified variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction as perceived value, experience, perceived quality and motivations. However, in the wildlife tourism industry, (specifically to CNP), there are other specific variables that together with the above mentioned lead to high levels of overall satisfaction. These variables are more relevant to wildlife tourism, national parks and other wildlife conservation areas. They are:

- Condition of vegetation
- Availability of species
- Diversity of species
- Accessibility within the park
- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to identify, evaluate and recommend variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. The objectives of the research were:

- to identify variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to discuss wildlife tourism as an essential industry and provide a platform to argue for a need for its sustainability;
- to identify and explain the relationship between the identified variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to investigate the relationship between identified variables and wildlife tourist satisfaction;
- to use the literature to explore tourism-related concepts such as ecotourism, tourism development and entrepreneurship so as to create a broad understanding of the wildlife tourism industry;
- to provide arguments for the importance of the concepts of service quality and satisfaction in the wildlife tourism industry;
- to draw conclusions on the basis of the discussion of the reviewed literature on wildlife tourism and wildlife tourist satisfaction variables;
- to make recommendations based on the results of the research, with regard to the identified variables; and
- to discuss issues arising from the findings of the research and draw conclusions.

It is believed that this evaluation leads to an in-depth understanding of wildlife tourist satisfaction in general, its importance and how it can be realised and sustained. The purpose and objectives of the study were achieved through the review of the literature on the subject. The results and the discussion of the survey helped with the identification of the most critical variables in wildlife tourism satisfaction. The conclusions made in this study are on the basis of the

discussion of the reviewed literature on wildlife tourism as well as the discussion of the results of the survey.

This chapter provides conclusions derived from the study. It summarises findings on the evaluation of variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction as presented in the literature review and the results of the survey. The discussion proceeds by highlighting conclusions concerning the variables and their relationship to tourist satisfaction.

Recommendations made are more relevant to the CNP. Recommendations for further research are suggested for the amendment of the mentioned limitations in this study.

7.1.1 Tourism

Tourism is a resource-based industry involving travel for one or more days to a destination other than the tourist's normal abode. It consists of interdependent sections of transport, attractions, accommodation and entertainment. Haywood *et al.* (1995) points out that tourism involves the cost of travelling, a temporary stay at a particular destination and activities undertaken at the destination.

Services in the tourism industry are inseparable, perishable and heterogeneous. Content and structure of the tourism product are crucial because they contribute to the experience of the tourist. Content is made up of several components of experience, and structure refers to how components combine to create the experience (Webb, 2003). Components of the tourism product are attractions, facilities, accessibility, image and price.

Obenour, Patterson, Pedersen and Pearson (2006) summarises the concept *tourism* as an industry that offers a complex service environment characterised by a holistic process, interconnection of organisations, performance, experience and the social encounter.

Tourism continues to grow in developing countries where it largely contributes to the general development of their economies. As an attractive option for development and a form of export, wildlife tourism brings in hard currency and creates employment opportunities for the local populations.

7.1.2 Wildlife tourism

Wildlife tourism involves broad spectra of experiences included within all aspects of tourism, with an additional and distinguishing feature of wild animals as the primary attraction. It consists of crucial components of uniqueness, ease of viewing species at close proximity, vulnerability and charisma of certain species (Hughes *et al.*, 2005). Table 7.1 presents a summary of categories of the wildlife product and their activities

TABLE 7.1: THE WILDLIFE TOURISM CATEGORIES

Categories	Activities
Nature-based tours with wildlife component	Wildlife as a key but incidental part of the product
Visit to locations with good wildlife presence	Accommodation located in proximity to wildlife-rich habitat
Visit to artificial attractions based on wildlife	Man-made attractions where the species are kept in captivity (i.e. zoos)
Animal watching	Observation of certain species based on special interest (e.g. bird-watching)
Habitat specific tours	Based on habitat rich in wildlife
Thrill-offering tours	Exhibition of a dangerous or large species enticed by the operator to behave in a particular behaviour
Hunting/fishing tours	Consumptive use of wildlife in natural habitat
Ecotourism	Education and interpretation of the natural environment together with cultural aspects often linked to conservation practices

Source: Modified from Novelli *et al.* (2006:65)

Several researchers (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Shackley, 1996; Cooper, 1990) believe wildlife tourism must be consumed in a way that it does not clash with the environment. It is known for its ability to cause negative impacts to the

environment; therefore tourists are expected to be cautious so as not to disturb the flora and the fauna. This capability presents a challenge to wildlife tourism service organisations to develop measures to protect the environment. An introduction of the ecotourism concept is one measure that could be applied to ensure a conflict-free interaction between animals and wildlife tourists.

Some of the negative impacts of wildlife tourism are disturbance of animals, modification of the natural habitat, habituation and exceeding the carrying capacity of the destination area.

Wildlife tourism has positive impacts as well. They are conservation of nature sights, enhancing the environment and improvement of the infrastructure at the tourist area (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997).

The way in which wildlife tourism is practised is closely related to the concept *ecotourism*. They both involve travel to natural areas for purposes of enjoying natural scenery and its cultural features. They also emphasise sustainability, promote environmental awareness and are conservation-oriented. An outstanding characteristic of ecotourism is that it tends to be more concerned about the welfare of local people. Local people are encouraged to participate in ecotourism activities by managing projects from which they benefit economically. Other characteristics of ecotourism are that it emphasises on the educational component and that it is more of a concept than an industry.

The concept *ecotourism* is used particularly by developing countries as a means of achieving sustainable development. Its use continues to grow because it seeks to express concern over negative impacts caused by mass tourism. The three pillars to be considered when developing ecotourism projects, are the natural environment, development and experience. Ecotourism encourages tourists to be well informed about destination areas and their culture and to behave responsibly by avoiding damage to the environment.

Similar to ecotourism, sustainable tourism emphasises the needs of the industry and the sustainable use of its natural resources in a way that will safe-guard future human needs. Since it does not destroy resources on which future tourism will depend, sustainable tourism is economically viable. In the light of this, sustainable development for tourism should aim at improving community members' quality of life and at providing high-quality experience for tourists. It's a crucial concept that presents a challenge to integrate economic, social and environmental issues in tourism planning. As a result, sustainable tourism has led to the development of environment friendly policies that require the involvement of all stakeholders in all processes of generating growth and development for wildlife tourism (Saarinen, 2006).

Entrepreneurship is the primary engine for economic development. It is crucial to the wildlife tourism sector because it promotes innovation and assists in the development of rural communities. The roles of an entrepreneur include opening a new market, introducing new goods and new methods of production. Therefore an entrepreneur needs an enabling climate consisting of motivations and other conditions for success such as skills and expertise.

The relationship between entrepreneurship and sustainable tourism development is the link between business and the environment. Sustainable entrepreneurship can maximise efficiency of resource use, minimise waste and safeguard environment and cultural qualities. Some categories of wildlife-based entrepreneurship are game-viewing, bird-watching and photography of nature.

7.1.3 Wildlife tourist satisfaction

Satisfaction is a crucial factor for ensuring the sustainability of the wildlife tourism industry. It is an emotional concept that involves feelings of pleasure, which results when needs and wants have been met. Different authors (Taylor & Baker, 1994; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003) agree that satisfaction implies that the consumers have reached their objective and it is an intervention

of at least two stimuli: result and reference. Satisfaction is said to be an independent psychological state that involves a subjective assessment of the difference between expectations and perceived service (Troung & Foster, 2006). It is assessed after consumption of services because it is derived from accumulated experience, fulfilment of tourists' expectations, quality and value of the service.

Tourist satisfaction is the degree to which wildlife tourists are pleased with their experience. Martin-Cejas (2006) argues that satisfaction consists of three constructs:

- The cognitive – which describes the service experience
- The affective – is about the consumer's psychological reaction towards service performance
- The systemic – concerns itself with the difference between the expected and the received services

Arising from these constructs, Yu and Goulden (2006) conclude that satisfaction can be further refined with four elements: pre-purchase expectations, perceived performance, disconfirmation and satisfaction. It can be described as:

- A post-purchase construct
- A function of pre-travel expectations
- A comparison between experience at a destination and initial expectations
- A result of an impressive service quality

Literature has revealed that tourist satisfaction is a critical factor for maintaining a competitive market and achieving business success in the tourism industry because it affects intentions to re-visit wildlife tourist loyalty.

The following were identified as variables that contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction:

7.1.3.1 Service quality

The concept *service quality* has proven to be one of the pillars for providing satisfactory services. It is the tourist's overall impression of the relative inferiority/superiority of services (Gabbott & Hogg, 1998). As a crucial tool for wildlife tourism, service quality has a role in the buying decisions of wildlife tourists. Tourist service organisations have realised the importance of service quality; therefore attempt to measure it in order to evaluate their progress in providing quality service. However, the measurement of service quality has proved to be difficult due to its subjectivity.

This has resulted in the following three schools of thought:

- Those who believe service quality is determined by physical considerations such as facilities and the environment.
- Those who equate service quality with the quality of the service encounter.
- Those who view service quality as the resulting satisfaction derived from the service encounter.

The first two schools of thought are applicable to this survey because wildlife tourists were requested to assess both the quality of service they received and CNP facilities. However, literature and the survey have emphasised the importance of satisfaction with overall experience realised at wildlife tourist destination areas.

The relationship between service quality and profitability is positive in that organisations that offer superior quality tend to achieve improved profits. Another advantage of improved quality is lower costs experienced by the service organisation. According to LeBlanc and Nguyen (1988), service quality depends

on the consumer's perceptions of the corporate image, internal organisation, physical environment, the service encounter and satisfaction. Quality is a tourist's judgement determined by service excellence.

This survey has illustrated that wildlife tourists are likely to be satisfied if they believe they experienced high-quality service. They illustrated this when they rated the quality of service as excellent and of good value. Wildlife tourists also felt facilities were of good quality and satisfactory. As an important component of the tourism product, facilities at a tourist destination need to be well kept. This is especially important because, although wildlife tourists are not necessarily motivated by facilities to travel to a destination, they form a critical part of their tour in that they ensure a pleasurable visit and indirectly affect satisfaction levels.

7.1.3.2 Expectations and motivations

According to Teye and Leclerc (1998), expectations affect tourist satisfaction because they may determine experiences wildlife tourists will enjoy. Consequently it is critical that wildlife tourism organisations reduce the gap between tourists' expectations and their perception of services in order to improve satisfaction. Wildlife tourists' expectations are influenced by past experience, their previous level of satisfaction with the service, communication with the service provider and their perceived image of the service.

Motivation to travel is also believed to influence wildlife tourist satisfaction. Yoon and Uysal (2005) argue that people travel because they are pushed by psychological factors to make travel decisions and then pulled by external forces of the destination attributes to travel. According to Nicolau and Mas (2006), travel motivations are the individual's characteristics that influence choice of destination and they represent the individual external forces that lead to action. These forces are escape from the mundane; exploration; relaxation; prestige; regression; enhancement of relationships; facilitation of social interaction; education and novelty (Swanson & Horridge, 2006). Similarly, Nicolau and Mas (2006) classified

types of motivations into four groups, namely physical (relaxation), cultural (discovering new areas), interpersonal (socialising and meeting new people) and prestige (self-esteem and self-actualisation). In this survey, some wildlife tourists mentioned meeting new friends (socialising) and learning about new areas (cultural) as some of the motivating factors.

Literature insists that motivations and expectations play a major role, especially in the choice of a tourist destination. In wildlife tourism, wildlife tourists are more motivated by game-viewing than other possible motivators such as facilities and interaction with other wildlife tourists. This means that wildlife tourists anticipate psychological rewards they are likely to receive from viewing wildlife.

Some wildlife tourists indicated they had expectations prior to their travel to CNP. A contribution of expectations to satisfaction in this case was demonstrated when wildlife tourists felt satisfied because their expectations were met.

7.1.3.3 Experience

Wildlife tourism service providers need to understand the tourist experience in order to decide on the management style of the industry. As a subjective mental state of a participant, experience is bound to differ for each tourist. The three conceptualisations of the tourist experience are that

- the experience is different from everyday life;
- wildlife tourists may travel in a similar form and yet may not share similar experiences; and
- it is a subjective experience.

Experience is central in contributing to wildlife tourist satisfaction. When associated to expectations, results indicated that wildlife tourists' experiences were in accordance with their initial expectations. Experience is a variable that plays a role at the time of evaluation of services. Wildlife tourists will rate their

satisfaction based on their experience. Experience thus has to be fulfilling and memorable in order for tourist to feel satisfied.

Experience is affected by expectations and motivations. Expectations evolve as wildlife tourists become more experienced because they are affected by lifestyle factors, values and attitudes. Motivation to participate in a tourist activity particularly affects experience because motivation is about reasons to participate. It is determined by factors such as desire to escape and potential rewards of tourism consumption. Like expectations, tourism consumption is affected by both social and personal values. The following metaphors of tourism consumption illustrate that different wildlife tourists may choose to consume tourism differently:

- Consumption as experience – participation in activities is framed by the social surroundings and provides meaning to the object of consumption.
- Consumption as play – interaction with other tourists.
- Consumption as interaction – integration with the tourism environment.
- Consumption as classification – creation of self-identity through consumption (Saarinen, 2006).

7.1.3.4 Value for money

Akama and Kieti (2003) point out that satisfaction levels can be affected by price and value; therefore it is important for tourism service providers to ensure that prices match the quality of the service being purchased. The determining factor at the time of purchase is price, and the tourist value is the result obtained from the purchase during consumption. According to Petrick (2004), value consists of the economic and social benefits received as well as the sacrifice in terms of price, time and convenience made by the tourist. It can be defined as price, the quality the consumer receives from the price paid and what consumers get for what they give. Value can therefore be described as the overall post-purchase evaluation. Consumers often use it to assess a service because it is linked to

satisfaction. If wildlife tourists feel the service they purchased was a value for money, they feel satisfied.

Results of this survey are positive for CNP because most wildlife tourists felt services were worth the price. However, CNP and other wildlife tourism service organisations should guard against high prices for their services. The negative effect of high service price is that it is likely to lower service consumption; therefore lower utility of the destination area. Hence for a destination to be sustained, the service price should be perceived as being commensurate to the perceived value of the service.

7.1.3.5 Wildlife tourism-specific variables

In addition to the afore-mentioned variables, there are those that are more specific to wildlife tourism. They are availability of species, diversity of species, condition of vegetation, accessibility, nature sights and safety from wild animals. These are critical in the wildlife tourism industry because wild animals and natural environment are the core attraction.

Discussion has shown that most variables evaluated in this study make a crucial contribution to wildlife tourist satisfaction. In addition to the five components of the tourism product (facilities, attractions, accessibility, image, price), wildlife tourism goes further to include wildlife-specific variables for evaluation. They are safety from attacks by wild animals, condition of wild vegetation within the park, availability of species, diversity of species, accessibility within the park and other nature sights (e.g. the Chobe River at CNP). These must be individually evaluated so as to assess their contribution to wildlife tourist satisfaction.

7.2 CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH

This research makes a contribution to sustainable management of wildlife tourism by firstly identifying the key variables that impact on wildlife tourist satisfaction. This impact is critical because according to Um *et al.* (2006), wildlife

tourism maintains the balance between the environmental quality and economic development. It is also the first time that this research was done at a National Park in Botswana or in the Southern African region. Tosun (2001) contends that sustainable wildlife tourism conserves the natural resources for future use by not degrading the environment in which it exists. The key variables identified by the results of the survey are more wildlife-specific and include the *condition of the vegetation* in the wildlife area, *availability and diversity of wild species*, *safety from attack by wild animals* and *accessibility within the area*. These variables concern the floral and the fauna condition of a wildlife area and as such, are central in the evaluation of wildlife tourist satisfaction. Together with aforementioned variables that may not be wildlife-specific, they form a package of an evaluation tool for wildlife tourist satisfaction which can be seen as the second contribution of this research.

Curtin (2005) argues that tourist satisfaction is a major research priority for the ultimate sustainable management of wildlife-based tourism attractions. Similarly, Yoon and Uysal (2005) maintain that tourist satisfaction has the ability to influence choice of a destination and the consumption of services. To emphasise the importance of satisfaction in wildlife tourism, the literature in this study argues that satisfied tourists would be loyal to a destination, advertise it by word of mouth and re-visit it. However, this research has indicated that if wildlife tourists do not intend to re-visit a destination, it does not necessarily mean they were not satisfied with their experience neither does it mean they would not advertise a destination. The third contribution therefore, contradicts previous research by indicating that wildlife tourists may not re-visit destinations due to other reasons such as family commitments, plans to visit other destinations, old age and a dislike of a long-distance travel.

In the wildlife tourism industry, satisfaction is crucial for assessing quality of the existing management practices and identifying direction for service improvement (Su, 2004). Literature in this research identified *expectations* as a critical variable

used for evaluating service quality and satisfaction. However, while *expectations* cannot totally be excluded, results of this research do not identify them as one of the **critical** variables for use in evaluating wildlife tourist satisfaction. For instance, wildlife tourists who indicated they did not have initial expectations prior to their visit to CNP claimed they were very satisfied with their experience. The fourth contribution is where this result challenges the popular argument that satisfaction equals perception minus expectations. It also breeds a conviction that the use of prior *expectations* to evaluate satisfaction may not be very relevant in the wildlife tourism industry. Although it is crucial that where indicated, tourist expectations are met, this survey results conclude that lack of initial expectations by tourists does not contribute to their dissatisfaction.

Figure 7.1 gives a summary of variables and how they combine to contribute to wildlife tourist satisfaction. The summary presented in this figure has been derived from the literature reviewed and the results of this survey.

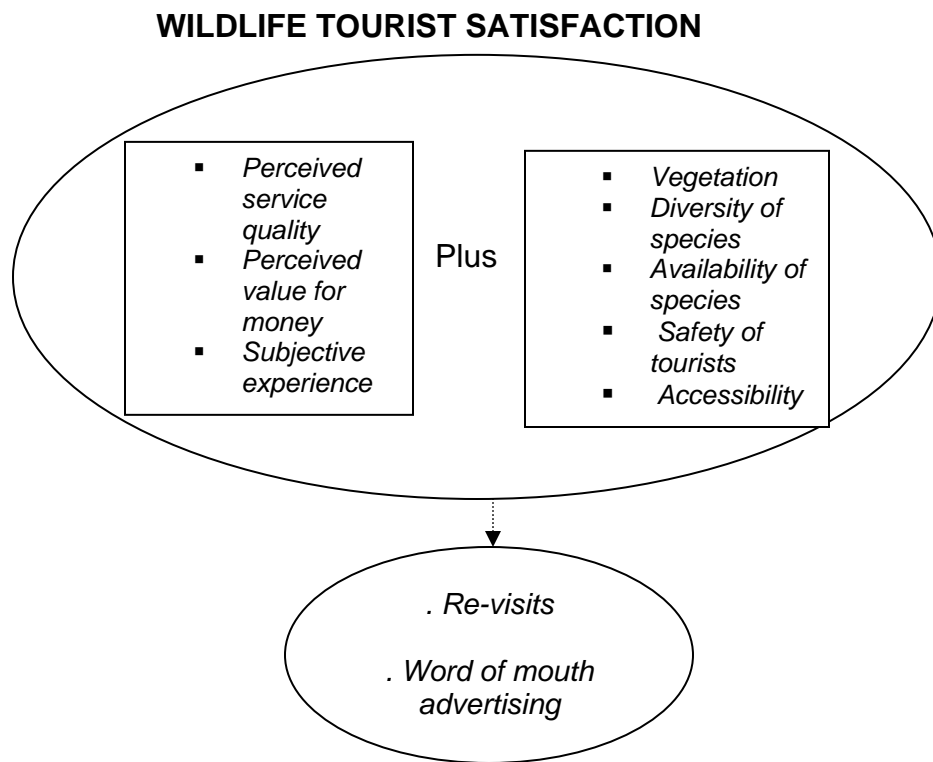


FIGURE 7.1: VARIABLES FOR WILDLIFE TOURIST SATISFACTION

Own source, 2007

Figure 7.1 emphasises variables that are critical for use in evaluating wildlife tourist satisfaction. Variables combine to form a model wildlife tourists may use to evaluate their satisfaction levels. A dotted line indicates that wildlife tourist satisfaction may possibly lead to re-visits and/or word of mouth advertising by tourists. However, satisfied wildlife tourists may decide not to re-visit and/or advertise.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS WITH REGARD TO LITERATURE REVIEW

Satisfaction is a core concept in the wildlife tourism industry. It involves feelings of wildlife tourists after experiencing wildlife tourism services. Satisfaction cannot exist before a service is consumed because it is the tourists who decide what is important in achieving personal satisfaction. The literature has positively associated several concepts with wildlife tourist satisfaction. They are:

- Service quality – as a service industry, wildlife tourism must aim at delivering satisfactory service at all times. A satisfactory quality of service has a positive effect on the buying decisions of wildlife tourists. In addition, wildlife tourism is a business industry and its profitability is likely to improve if high-quality service is being offered. Service quality is closely linked to satisfaction. It is argued that the level of service quality is presumed sufficient when wildlife tourists are satisfied. The literature has also indicated that a tourist destination at which wildlife tourists experience high levels of satisfaction is more likely to experience the following benefits:
 - Re-visits – a pleasant and memorable experience will cause wildlife tourists to re-visit the area.
 - Word of mouth advertising – satisfied wildlife tourists will share their experience with other people. If it happens, this advantage ensures more arrivals and sustainability of the industry.

Good interpersonal relations are part of service quality. They need to be maintained because they contribute to a balanced service provision.

- Price and value for money – wildlife tourism service providers should ensure prices match the quality of services being purchased. If tourists feel price does not match the quality of services, they are more likely to indicate lower satisfaction levels with their experience. The quality of each service and its price as well as the way it is being delivered contributes to the overall experience.
- Expectations – tourists normally have expectations prior to visiting a tourist destination. As such, expectations have the ability to determine experiences tourists will enjoy. Wildlife tourists therefore judge their overall satisfaction on the basis of whether or not their initial expectations were met. If the gap between tourists' expectations and their perceptions on the services consumed at a destination is reduced, tourists will be satisfied. Tourists will not be satisfied if their initial expectations are not met.
- The tourist experience – experience is associated with satisfaction because wildlife tourists assess their experience with services they consumed in order to determine their satisfaction levels. Therefore wildlife tourism service providers have a duty to understand tourists' experiences in order to offer satisfactory services.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS WITH REGARD TO THE SURVEY

This survey has confirmed argument from the literature that satisfaction is critical to the wildlife tourism industry. Wildlife tourism is a package within which service provision has to be of high quality in order to ensure tourist satisfaction. The survey results confirmed the following variables as crucial in the wildlife tourism industry: service quality, price and value for money and experience. In addition to these, the survey indicated other more wildlife tourism-specific variables. These are:

- Safety measures against attacks by wild animals – wildlife tourists are aware of the danger posed by wild animals, therefore, they expect management to be cautious of their safety and take measures to ensure absence of attack by wild animals. This is done by engaging professional game guides at wildlife tourist destinations.
- Availability and diversity of wild animals – when wildlife tourists visit a destination, they hope to see many animals of different kinds. If they do not see many animals and/or there is only one kind of animal, they will not feel satisfied with their experience.
- Conditions of vegetation within the park (wildlife area) – wild animals such as elephants are known for destroying vegetation within wildlife areas. However, wildlife tourists hope to experience flora of the natural environment at its best condition. This survey indicated that tourists' experience would be satisfactory if flora at wildlife areas is well kept.
- Accessibility within the park (wildlife area) – as one of the components of the tourism product, accessibility has to be ensured at all times. The condition of roads in the wildlife area has to be at its best. Tourists use roads to wander about within wildlife areas in order to view wildlife as much as possible. Bad roads will tamper with the tourists' desire to reach some wildlife-rich areas. In addition to roads in wildlife areas, sign-posting makes wildlife areas accessible or inaccessible. Sign-posts guide tourists to important areas such as wildlife-rich spots and ablution facilities. Their absence will also lower wildlife tourists' ability to fully enjoy their experience. Consequently both condition of roads and sign-posting within wildlife areas can have either a negative or positive effect on wildlife tourist satisfaction.

- Expectations - Several authors (Teye & Leclerc, 1998; Fairweather & Swaffield, 2001; Noe, 1999; Simpson, 2000; Bennett, 2000; Ragheb & Tate, 1993; Akama & Kieti, 2003; Shackley, 1996) argue that expectations are an important variable for evaluating wildlife tourist satisfaction. Simpson (2000) argued that expectations might determine experiences wildlife tourists will enjoy.

Truong and Foster (2006) believe that satisfaction is a comparison between the wildlife tourist experience at a wildlife tourist destination and their prior expectations. However, in contrast with the literature, this survey revealed that expectation is not a crucial variable in the evaluation of wildlife tourist satisfaction. This survey revealed that wildlife tourists do not necessarily have to have expectations prior to their visit to a wildlife tourist destination in order to evaluate services they received. A good number of wildlife tourists (47%) indicated that they did not have any expectations prior to their visit to CNP; yet they indicated they had a satisfactory experience. Only 5% of wildlife tourists out of 100 indicated that they were not satisfied with their experience at CNP. However, it remains critical that wildlife tourists' expectations (where indicated) are met. This would ensure their satisfaction with their experience.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations were made on the basis of the literature review as well as the results of the research:

- Wildlife tourist destinations must ensure an excellent service quality at all times in order to enhance tourist satisfaction.
- Wildlife tourist service providers should always match the quality of services with their price because wildlife tourists often use price to assess the quality of services they received. If the two do not match, satisfaction would be compromised.

- Service providers must ensure that wildlife tourism-specific variables are available and in an acceptable condition. This is important because wildlife tourists use these variables to evaluate their satisfaction with services.
- CNP should introduce a weekly entry permit into the park. A weekly entry permit will be more convenient in terms of time as opposed to the current arrangement where wildlife tourists have to seek a permit for each day.
- CNP must make sure their facilities are well kept. Some wildlife tourists expressed dissatisfaction with the condition of park ablution facilities and camping sites. Other services that need to be introduced are sign-posting within the park.
- There must be an intensive program for personnel training so that they offer professional service at all times.
- Wildlife tourism has negative impacts on the environment. Therefore, CNP must develop strategies to control such negative effects on the environment.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following are the recommendations for further research:

- A comparative study involving two or more wildlife tourism destinations would probably yield more interesting results than the study at a single destination.
- Since it is rather difficult to get tourists to complete questionnaires, a similar research conducted over several years is more likely to yield better results and allow for an in-depth statistical analysis.

7.7 CONCLUSION

Wildlife tourism continues to grow, especially in developing nations, because it is popular for its positive impacts on local communities and at national level. Amongst others, wildlife tourism development creates job opportunities for community members, enhances infrastructure at the tourist destination areas and boosts the country's foreign exchange.

Wildlife tourism also has possible negative impacts. They are:

- Air, water and noise pollution
- Modification of the natural habitat
- Habituation
- Exceeding the carrying capacity of the wildlife area

Ecotourism is a concept applied in the wildlife tourism service delivery. With the use of its four key dimensions, ecotourism has the ability to reduce the negative impacts borne by wildlife tourism. These dimensions are conservation of natural resources, community development, community participation and preservation of cultural tradition.

Sustainability of wildlife tourism is concerned with the needs of the industry and sustainable use of natural resources. If wildlife tourism services are delivered in a manner not to conflict with the environment, it becomes a self-sustaining industry.

Wildlife tourists use wildlife variables to evaluate services they purchased and assess their levels of satisfaction. According to Bigne *et al* (2005), satisfaction is a vital factor for achieving a business success and maintaining customer retention. Mbaiwa (2005) argues that satisfaction also strengthens and sustains tourism. Therefore, if wildlife tourism service providers incorporate all the critical variables in their service provision, they would keep wildlife tourists satisfied.

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APPENDIX 1

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

We wish to ensure that you have the most enjoyable visit to the Chobe National Park (CNP). This survey will help the Department of Wildlife and Tourism as well as managers to improve the facilities and services provided. Kindly spare some of your valuable time to fill out this questionnaire. Thank you for your time.

SECTION A:

Please tell us about yourself. Write your answers in the spaces provided.

1. How old are you?

		Year
--	--	------

2. Gender

Male	
Femal	

3. Have you been to CNP before?

Yes	
No	

4. How long is your visit to the CNP

		Days
--	--	------

1			3
-			
4			5

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SECTION B

Please answer the following questions on motivations and expectations.

1. What motivated you to visit the CNP?

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2. Did you have any specific expectations about the park prior to your visit?

Yes	
No	

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3. If yes, please list your expectations and indicate the extent to which they have been met. Using the spaces provided, please rate each item of your expectations on a scale from 1 (not met at all) to 5 (very highly met).

Expectations	Not met At all (1)	Not met (2)	Moderately Met (3)	Highly met (4)	Very highly met (5)
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5					

17	-	19
20	-	22
23	-	25
26	-	28
29	-	31

SECTION C:

1. The following statements are related to the overall value and quality of experience that you feel you received from visiting Chobe National Park. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 (definitely false) to 5 (definitely true).

	Definitely false	Probably false	Uncertain	Probably true	Definitely D
Very reliable service	1	2	3	4	5
Outstanding quality service	1	2	3	4	5
Very consistent service	1	2	3	4	5
Very dependable service	1	2	3	4	5
Enjoyable experience	1	2	3	4	5
Exciting experience	1	2	3	4	5
Pleasurable experience	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me feel good	1	2	3	4	5
Reputable service	1	2	3	4	5
Service well thought of	1	2	3	4	5
CNP has a good image	1	2	3	4	5
Fairly priced service	1	2	3	4	5

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Respectable service	1	2	3	4	5
CNP package is a good bargain	1	2	3	4	5
Easy to purchase all services	1	2	3	4	5
Convenient business hours	1	2	3	4	5
Neatness of CNP facilities	1	2	3	4	5
Services are worth the price	1	2	3	4	5
Professionalism of game guides	1	2	3	4	5
Convenience of the location of CNP	1	2	3	4	5

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2. How do you rate your **total experience** relative to your **total expectations**? Please circle the number that matches your answer.

- Much worse than I expected 1
- Worse than I expected 2
- As I expected 3
- Better than I expected 4
- Much better than I expected 5

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3. Overall, how would you rate your perceived value for money and perceived quality of the service you received at the CNP? Please rate each item on a scale from 1 (very poor) to 5 (very good) by indicating with a mark in the boxes provided.

	Very poor (1)	Poor (2)	Average (3)	Good (4)	Very good (5)
Value for money					
Quality of service					

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4. What kind of accommodation did you have at CNP? Kindly place a mark in the box that matches your answer.

Camping site	
Guest house within the park	
Guest house outside the park	
Lodge/hotel within the park	
Lodge/hotel outside the park	

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5. How likely is it that you would return to CNP? Please circle the number that matches your answer.

- Highly unlikely to return 1
- Unlikely to return 2
- Uncertain 3
- Likely to return 4
- Highly likely to return 5

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Please provide reasons for your answer

61 62

63 64

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6. Below are some items regarding the CNP facilities. Using the scale below, kindly indicate whether these items were satisfactory to you on a scale from 1(very unsatisfactory) to 5 (very satisfactory).

- 5 = Very satisfactory
- 4 = Satisfactory
- 3 = Average satisfaction
- 2 = Unsatisfactory
- 1 = Very unsatisfactory

Please circle the number that indicates your assessment of your level of satisfaction with each item. Kindly make a cross in the *don't know* column if you **cannot** evaluate an item.

	Very unsatisfactory			Very satisfactory		Don't know
	1	2	3	4	5	
Safety measures against attacks by wild animals	1	2	3	4	5	
Condition of vegetation within the park	1	2	3	4	5	
Availability of species	1	2	3	4	5	
Diversity of species	1	2	3	4	5	
Condition of camp sites	1	2	3	4	5	
Sign-posting within the park	1	2	3	4	5	
Enjoyable nature sights	1	2	3	4	5	
Accommodation as CNP	1	2	3	4	5	
Ablution facilities in the park	1	2	3	4	5	
Condition of roads at CNP	1	2	3	4	5	

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Availability of information centres	1	2	3	4	5		
Diversity of food items	1	2	3	4	5		
Condition of picnic spots	1	2	3	4	5		
Hospitality of staff	1	2	3	4	5		
Convenient Business hours	1	2	3	4	5		
Any other (specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5		
_____	1	2	3	4	5		

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7. How strongly would you recommend this destination to friends? Please circle the number that matches your answer.

- Strongly not recommend destination 1
- Would not recommend destination 2
- Uncertain 3
- Would recommend 4
- Strongly recommend 5

Please provide reasons for your answer.

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8. Was there anything outstanding about your visit to this park?

Yes	
No	

If yes, please specify.

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9. Was there anything disappointing about your visit to this park?

Yes	
No	

If yes, please specify.

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10. Overall, how SATISFIED are you with your visit here? Please circle the number that matches your answer.

- Very Dissatisfied 1
- Dissatisfied 2
- Neutral 3
- Satisfied 4
- Very Satisfied 5

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10. Do you have any suggestions or recommendations towards improvement of the park?

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**Please hand in the completed questionnaire at the checkout counter.
Thank you for your cooperation.**

APPENDIX 2

CORRELATION TABLES

Correlations Output

		Correlations									
		C2	C10	C1a	C1b	C1.19	C1.17	C6.10	C6.13	C6a	C6c
C2	Pearson Correlation	1	.625	.596	.532	.337	.416	.190	.309	.400	.241
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.064	.003	.000	.019
	N	96	96	96	96	90	94	95	92	95	95
C10	Pearson Correlation	.625	1	.471	.449	.384	.453	.332	.301	.352	.375
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.003	.000	.000
	N	96	100	100	100	94	98	99	96	99	99
C1a	Pearson Correlation	.596	.471	1	.665	.420	.559	.372	.175	.258	.266
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.089	.010	.008
	N	96	100	100	100	94	98	99	96	99	99
C1b	Pearson Correlation	.532	.449	.665	1	.380	.472	.388	.227	.262	.316
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.026	.009	.001
	N	96	100	100	100	94	98	99	96	99	99
C1.19	Pearson Correlation	.337	.384	.420	.380	1	.367	.040	.393	.284	.283
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000	.704	.000	.006	.006
	N	90	94	94	94	94	92	93	90	93	93
C1.17	Pearson Correlation	.416	.453	.559	.472	.367	1	.285	.238	.284	.298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.005	.021	.005	.003
	N	94	98	98	98	92	98	97	94	97	97
C6.10	Pearson Correlation	.190	.332	.372	.388	.040	.285	1	.051	.332	.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.001	.000	.000	.704	.005		.620	.001	.423
	N	95	99	99	99	93	97	99	96	99	99
C6.13	Pearson Correlation	.309	.301	.175	.227	.393	.238	.051	1	.112	.486
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.003	.089	.026	.000	.021	.620		.276	.000
	N	92	96	96	96	90	94	96	96	96	96
C6a	Pearson Correlation	.400	.352	.258	.262	.284	.284	.332	.112	1	.188
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.010	.009	.006	.005	.001	.276		.062
	N	95	99	99	99	93	97	99	96	99	99
C6c	Pearson Correlation	.241	.375	.266	.316	.283	.298	.081	.486	.188	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.000	.008	.001	.006	.003	.423	.000	.062	
	N	95	99	99	99	93	97	99	96	99	99

Correlations

		Correlations																									
		C2	C3.1	C3.2	C5	C7	C8	C9	C10	C1a	C1b	C1c	C1.11	C1.19	C1.20	C1.16	C1.17	C6.1	C6.2	C6.7	C6.6	C6.10	C6.12	C6.13	C6a	C6b	C6c
C2	Pearson Correlation	1	.546	.611	.322	.394	.022	.455	.625	.596	.532	.411	.406	.337	.307	.362	.416	-.018	.355	.008	.350	.190	.249	.309	.400	.255	.241
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.000	.831	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.003	.000	.000	.864	.000	.940	.001	.064	.017	.003	.000	.013	.019
	N	96	96	95	96	96	95	96	96	96	96	96	95	90	91	95	94	92	94	93	92	95	92	92	95	95	95
C3.1	Pearson Correlation	.546	1	.626	.197	.495	-.098	.445	.605	.573	.610	.507	.445	.331	.363	.324	.461	-.172	.399	.033	.478	.497	.411	.282	.207	.341	.350
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.050	.000	.333	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.001	.000	.093	.000	.750	.000	.000	.000	.005	.040	.001	.000
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C3.2	Pearson Correlation	.611	.626	1	.204	.499	-.150	.429	.510	.652	.511	.381	.369	.537	.350	.501	.542	-.127	.262	-.030	.320	.223	.202	.381	.262	.267	.403
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.043	.000	.139	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.219	.010	.774	.002	.027	.049	.000	.009	.008	.000
	N	95	99	99	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	95	97	96	95	98	95	95	98	98
C5	Pearson Correlation	.322	.197	.204	1	.271	.110	.114	.020	.329	.193	.249	.289	.151	.277	.138	.173	.215	.147	.131	-.024	.257	.077	-.057	.186	-.135	-.082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.050	.043		.007	.276	.259	.844	.001	.054	.013	.004	.146	.007	.177	.089	.035	.149	.200	.820	.010	.457	.583	.066	.182	.417
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	99	99	99
C7	Pearson Correlation	.394	.495	.499	.271	1	-.172	.199	.451	.396	.409	.451	.383	.234	.468	.347	.378	.043	.281	.075	.270	.450	.361	.241	.333	.299	.333
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.007		.091	.048	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.024	.000	.000	.000	.679	.005	.469	.008	.000	.000	.019	.001	.003	.001
	N	96	99	98	99	99	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	95	97	96	95	98	95	95	98	98
C8	Pearson Correlation	.022	-.098	-.150	.110	-.172	1	.086	-.068	-.093	-.051	-.128	-.135	-.008	-.006	-.080	-.125	-.172	-.032	-.114	-.169	-.106	-.195	-.119	-.006	-.076	-.148
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.831	.333	.139	.276	.091		.398	.502	.360	.617	.207	.184	.939	.958	.437	.222	.095	.755	.267	.101	.297	.058	.250	.953	.457	.145
	N	95	99	98	99	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	95	97	96	95	98	95	95	98	98
C9	Pearson Correlation	.455	.445	.429	.114	.199	.086	1	.438	.270	.345	.089	.084	.212	.172	.071	.258	-.182	.323	-.110	.504	.364	.114	.306	.298	.200	.150

		Correlations																									
		C2	C3.1	C3.2	C5	C7	C8	C9	C10	C1a	C1b	C1c	C1.11	C1.19	C1.20	C1.16	C1.17	C6.1	C6.2	C6.7	C6.6	C6.10	C6.12	C6.13	C6a	C6b	C6c
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.259	.048	.398		.000	.007	.000	.377	.407	.040	.097	.487	.010	.076	.001	.285	.000	.000	.270	.002	.003	.047	.139
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C10	Pearson Correlation	.625	.605	.510	.020	.451	-.068	.438	1	.471	.449	.343	.299	.384	.220	.411	.453	-.125	.307	.022	.535	.332	.360	.301	.352	.322	.375
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.844	.000	.502	.000		.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.033	.000	.000	.226	.002	.831	.000	.001	.000	.003	.000	.001	.000
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C1a	Pearson Correlation	.596	.573	.652	.329	.396	-.093	.270	.471	1	.665	.635	.487	.420	.313	.535	.559	.007	.251	-.037	.311	.372	.071	.175	.258	.210	.266
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.360	.007	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.949	.013	.721	.002	.000	.491	.089	.010	.037	.008
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C1b	Pearson Correlation	.532	.610	.511	.193	.409	-.051	.345	.449	.665	1	.582	.471	.380	.276	.416	.472	-.030	.367	.069	.374	.388	.237	.227	.262	.284	.316
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.054	.000	.617	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.007	.000	.000	.769	.000	.503	.000	.000	.020	.026	.009	.004	.001
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C1c	Pearson Correlation	.411	.507	.381	.249	.451	-.128	.089	.343	.635	.582	1	.475	.368	.344	.397	.419	.034	.206	.102	.145	.275	.216	.132	.403	.241	.296
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.013	.000	.207	.377	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.743	.041	.320	.160	.006	.034	.200	.000	.016	.003
	N	96	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	94	94	98	98	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C1.11	Pearson Correlation	.406	.445	.369	.289	.383	-.135	.084	.299	.487	.471	.475	1	.176	.334	.388	.413	.068	.262	.120	.308	.284	.081	.082	.133	.096	.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	.184	.407	.003	.000	.000	.000		.092	.001	.000	.000	.512	.009	.243	.002	.005	.435	.432	.191	.347	.166
	N	95	99	98	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	93	93	97	97	95	97	96	95	98	95	95	98	98	98
C1.19	Pearson Correlation	.337	.331	.537	.151	.234	-.008	.212	.384	.420	.380	.368	.176	1	.351	.387	.367	-.131	.048	-.008	.261	.040	.217	.393	.284	.141	.283
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.000	.146	.024	.939	.040	.000	.000	.000	.000	.092		.001	.000	.000	.217	.646	.942	.013	.704	.039	.000	.006	.177	.006
	N	90	94	93	94	93	93	94	94	94	94	94	93	94	90	92	92	91	92	91	90	93	91	90	93	93	93

		Correlations																									
		C2	C3.1	C3.2	C5	C7	C8	C9	C10	C1a	C1b	C1c	C1.11	C1.19	C1.20	C1.16	C1.17	C6.1	C6.2	C6.7	C6.6	C6.10	C6.12	C6.13	C6a	C6b	C6c
C1.20	Pearson Correlation	.307	.363	.350	.277	.468	-.006	.172	.220	.313	.276	.344	.334	.351	1	.358	.378	.236	.173	.282	.328	.272	.367	.335	.343	.324	.342
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.001	.007	.000	.958	.097	.033	.002	.007	.001	.001	.001		.000	.000	.024	.100	.007	.002	.008	.000	.001	.001	.002	.001
	N	91	94	93	94	93	93	94	94	94	94	94	94	93	90	94	94	93	91	92	91	90	93	91	90	93	93
C1.16	Pearson Correlation	.362	.324	.501	.138	.347	-.080	.071	.411	.535	.416	.397	.388	.387	.358	1	.492	.087	.255	.031	.291	.295	.206	.278	.223	.306	.363
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.177	.000	.437	.487	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.406	.012	.763	.004	.003	.047	.007	.028	.002	.000
	N	95	98	97	98	97	97	98	98	98	98	98	98	97	92	94	98	97	94	96	95	94	97	94	94	97	97
C1.17	Pearson Correlation	.416	.461	.542	.173	.378	-.125	.258	.453	.559	.472	.419	.413	.367	.378	.492	1	-.008	.357	.013	.360	.285	.203	.238	.284	.334	.298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.089	.000	.222	.010	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.943	.000	.898	.000	.005	.050	.021	.005	.001	.003
	N	94	98	97	98	97	97	98	98	98	98	98	98	97	92	93	97	98	94	97	95	95	97	94	94	97	97
C6.1	Pearson Correlation	-.018	-.172	-.127	.215	.043	-.172	-.182	-.125	.007	-.030	.034	.068	-.131	.236	.087	-.008	1	.228	.358	-.015	.197	.041	.055	.090	.027	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.864	.093	.219	.035	.679	.095	.076	.226	.949	.769	.743	.512	.217	.024	.406	.943		.026	.000	.884	.054	.697	.602	.384	.797	.873
	N	92	96	95	96	95	95	96	96	96	96	96	96	95	91	91	94	94	96	95	94	93	96	94	93	96	96
C6.2	Pearson Correlation	.355	.399	.262	.147	.281	-.032	.323	.307	.251	.367	.206	.262	.048	.173	.255	.357	.228	1	.102	.423	.439	.122	.236	.418	.228	.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.010	.149	.005	.755	.001	.002	.013	.000	.041	.009	.646	.100	.012	.000	.026		.323	.000	.000	.239	.021	.000	.024	.182
	N	94	98	97	98	97	97	98	98	98	98	98	97	92	92	96	97	95	98	96	96	98	95	95	98	98	98
C6.7	Pearson Correlation	.008	.033	-.030	.131	.075	-.114	-.110	.022	-.037	.069	.102	.120	-.008	.282	.031	.013	.358	.102	1	.018	.062	.170	.141	.049	.009	.223
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.940	.750	.774	.200	.469	.267	.285	.831	.721	.503	.320	.243	.942	.007	.763	.898	.000	.323		.860	.549	.100	.173	.635	.932	.028
	N	93	97	96	97	96	96	97	97	97	97	97	96	91	91	95	95	94	96	97	94	97	95	95	97	97	97
C6.6	Pearson Correlation	.350	.478	.320	-.024	.270	-.169	.504	.535	.311	.374	.145	.308	.261	.328	.291	.360	-.015	.423	.018	1	.374	.213	.420	.288	.379	.319

		Correlations																									
		C2	C3.1	C3.2	C5	C7	C8	C9	C10	C1a	C1b	C1c	C1.11	C1.19	C1.20	C1.16	C1.17	C6.1	C6.2	C6.7	C6.6	C6.10	C6.12	C6.13	C6a	C6b	C6c
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.002	.820	.008	.101	.000	.000	.002	.000	.160	.002	.013	.002	.004	.000	.884	.000	.860		.000	.041	.000	.004	.000	.002
	N	92	96	95	96	95	95	96	96	96	96	96	95	90	90	94	95	93	96	94	96	96	96	93	93	96	96
C6.10	Pearson Correlation	.190	.497	.223	.257	.450	-.106	.364	.332	.372	.388	.275	.284	.040	.272	.295	.285	.197	.439	.062	.374	1	.171	.051	.332	.210	.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.000	.027	.010	.000	.297	.000	.001	.000	.000	.006	.005	.704	.008	.003	.005	.054	.000	.549	.000		.095	.620	.001	.037	.423
	N	95	99	98	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C6.12	Pearson Correlation	.249	.411	.202	.077	.361	-.195	.114	.360	.071	.237	.216	.081	.217	.367	.206	.203	.041	.122	.170	.213	.171	1	.457	.171	.468	.552
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.000	.049	.457	.000	.058	.270	.000	.491	.020	.034	.435	.039	.000	.047	.050	.697	.239	.100	.041	.095		.000	.096	.000	.000
	N	92	96	95	96	95	95	96	96	96	96	96	95	91	91	94	94	94	95	95	93	96	96	95	96	96	96
C6.13	Pearson Correlation	.309	.282	.381	-.057	.241	-.119	.306	.301	.175	.227	.132	.082	.393	.335	.278	.238	.055	.236	.141	.420	.051	.457	1	.112	.417	.486
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.005	.000	.583	.019	.250	.002	.003	.089	.026	.200	.432	.000	.001	.007	.021	.602	.021	.173	.000	.620	.000		.276	.000	.000
	N	92	96	95	96	95	95	96	96	96	96	96	95	90	90	94	94	93	95	95	93	96	95	96	96	96	96
C6a	Pearson Correlation	.400	.207	.262	.186	.333	-.006	.298	.352	.258	.262	.403	.133	.284	.343	.223	.284	.090	.418	.049	.288	.332	.171	.112	1	.313	.188
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.040	.009	.066	.001	.953	.003	.000	.010	.009	.000	.191	.006	.001	.028	.005	.384	.000	.635	.004	.001	.096	.276		.002	.062
	N	95	99	98	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C6b	Pearson Correlation	.255	.341	.267	-.135	.299	-.076	.200	.322	.210	.284	.241	.096	.141	.324	.306	.334	.027	.228	.009	.379	.210	.468	.417	.313	1	.590
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.001	.008	.182	.003	.457	.047	.001	.037	.004	.016	.347	.177	.002	.002	.001	.797	.024	.932	.000	.037	.000	.000	.002		.000
	N	95	99	98	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99
C6c	Pearson Correlation	.241	.350	.403	-.082	.333	-.148	.150	.375	.266	.316	.296	.141	.283	.342	.363	.298	.017	.136	.223	.319	.081	.552	.486	.188	.590	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.000	.000	.417	.001	.145	.139	.000	.008	.001	.003	.166	.006	.001	.000	.003	.873	.182	.028	.002	.423	.000	.000	.062	.000	
	N	95	99	98	99	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	98	93	93	97	97	96	98	97	96	99	96	96	99	99	99

C-6 Correlations

		Correlations																
		C6.1	C6.2	C6.3	C6.4	C6.5	C6.6	C6.7	C6.8	C6.9	C6.10	C6.11	C6.12	C6.13	C6.14	C6.15	C6.16	C6.17
C6.1	Pearson Correlation	1	.228	.123	.047	.144	-.015	.358	.087	.090	.197	.043	.041	.055	-.091	.107	.174	.304
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.026	.231	.659	.180	.884	.000	.414	.390	.054	.676	.697	.602	.382	.306	.610	.393
	N	96	95	96	92	88	93	94	90	94	96	95	94	93	94	94	11	10
C6.2	Pearson Correlation	.228	1	.413	.431	.340	.423	.102	.055	.116	.439	.273	.122	.236	.124	-.007	.956	.895
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026		.000	.000	.001	.000	.323	.601	.261	.000	.007	.239	.021	.227	.949	.000	.000
	N	95	98	98	94	90	96	96	91	96	98	97	95	95	96	96	11	10
C6.3	Pearson Correlation	.123	.413	1	.767	.324	.274	.025	.101	.079	.237	.151	.145	.053	.218	-.071	.174	.304
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.231	.000		.000	.002	.007	.807	.337	.441	.018	.139	.160	.610	.032	.491	.610	.393
	N	96	98	99	95	91	96	97	92	97	99	98	96	96	97	97	11	10
C6.4	Pearson Correlation	.047	.431	.767	1	.316	.260	.027	.110	.055	.334	.157	.125	.074	.193	-.040	.174	.304
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.659	.000	.000		.002	.012	.796	.300	.600	.001	.129	.232	.478	.063	.706	.610	.393
	N	92	94	95	95	90	92	94	91	93	95	95	94	94	94	93	11	10
C6.5	Pearson Correlation	.144	.340	.324	.316	1	.458	.109	.505	.558	.194	.529	.398	.438	.483	.209	.631	.598
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.180	.001	.002	.002		.000	.304	.000	.000	.066	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050	.037	.068
	N	88	90	91	90	91	88	90	87	90	91	91	89	89	90	89	11	10
C6.6	Pearson Correlation	-.015	.423	.274	.260	.458	1	.018	.203	.274	.374	.420	.213	.420	.268	.125	.892	.899
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.884	.000	.007	.012	.000		.860	.057	.008	.000	.000	.041	.000	.009	.230	.000	.000
	N	93	96	96	92	88	96	94	89	94	96	95	93	93	94	94	11	10
C6.7	Pearson Correlation	.358	.102	.025	.027	.109	.018	1	.159	-.090	.062	.234	.170	.141	.063	.194	.346	.349
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.323	.807	.796	.304	.860		.132	.385	.549	.022	.100	.173	.539	.059	.297	.323
	N	94	96	97	94	90	94	97	91	95	97	96	95	95	96	95	11	10
C6.8	Pearson Correlation	.087	.055	.101	.110	.505	.203	.159	1	.506	.010	.451	.535	.464	.403	.312	.823	.815
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.414	.601	.337	.300	.000	.057	.132		.000	.923	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.002	.004
	N	90	91	92	91	87	89	91	92	91	92	92	91	91	91	90	11	10
C6.9	Pearson Correlation	.090	.116	.079	.055	.558	.274	-.090	.506	1	.092	.499	.331	.443	.384	.335	.892	.899
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.390	.261	.441	.600	.000	.008	.385	.000		.369	.000	.001	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	94	96	97	93	90	94	95	91	97	97	96	94	95	95	95	11	10

Correlations																		
		C6.1	C6.2	C6.3	C6.4	C6.5	C6.6	C6.7	C6.8	C6.9	C6.10	C6.11	C6.12	C6.13	C6.14	C6.15	C6.16	C6.17
C6.10	Pearson Correlation	.197	.439	.237	.334	.194	.374	.062	.010	.092	1	.208	.171	.051	.035	.041	.947	.911
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.000	.018	.001	.066	.000	.549	.923	.369		.039	.095	.620	.736	.688	.000	.000
	N	96	98	99	95	91	96	97	92	97	99	98	96	96	97	97	11	10
C6.11	Pearson Correlation	.043	.273	.151	.157	.529	.420	.234	.451	.499	.208	1	.516	.497	.520	.458	.892	.899
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.676	.007	.139	.129	.000	.000	.022	.000	.000	.039		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	95	97	98	95	91	95	96	92	96	98	98	95	95	96	96	11	10
C6.12	Pearson Correlation	.041	.122	.145	.125	.398	.213	.170	.535	.331	.171	.516	1	.457	.454	.449	.631	.598
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.697	.239	.160	.232	.000	.041	.100	.000	.001	.095	.000		.000	.000	.000	.037	.068
	N	94	95	96	94	89	93	95	91	94	96	95	96	95	95	94	11	10
C6.13	Pearson Correlation	.055	.236	.053	.074	.438	.420	.141	.464	.443	.051	.497	.457	1	.315	.344	.686	.668
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.602	.021	.610	.478	.000	.000	.173	.000	.000	.620	.000	.000		.002	.001	.020	.035
	N	93	95	96	94	89	93	95	91	95	96	95	95	96	95	94	11	10
C6.14	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.124	.218	.193	.483	.268	.063	.403	.384	.035	.520	.454	.315	1	.655	.892	.899
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.382	.227	.032	.063	.000	.009	.539	.000	.000	.736	.000	.000	.002		.000	.000	.000
	N	94	96	97	94	90	94	96	91	95	97	96	95	95	97	95	11	10
C6.15	Pearson Correlation	.107	-.007	-.071	-.040	.209	.125	.194	.312	.335	.041	.458	.449	.344	.655	1	.904	.855
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.306	.949	.491	.706	.050	.230	.059	.003	.001	.688	.000	.000	.001	.000		.000	.002
	N	94	96	97	93	89	94	95	90	95	97	96	94	94	95	97	11	10
C6.16	Pearson Correlation	.174	.956	.174	.174	.631	.892	.346	.823	.892	.947	.892	.631	.686	.892	.904	1	.976
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.610	.000	.610	.610	.037	.000	.297	.002	.000	.000	.000	.037	.020	.000	.000		.000
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	10
C6.17	Pearson Correlation	.304	.895	.304	.304	.598	.899	.349	.815	.899	.911	.899	.598	.668	.899	.855	.976	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.393	.000	.393	.393	.068	.000	.323	.004	.000	.000	.000	.068	.035	.000	.002	.000	
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

C-1 Correlations

		Correlations																			
		C1.1	C1.2	C1.3	C1.4	C1.5	C1.6	C1.7	C1.8	C1.9	C1.10	C1.11	C1.12	C1.13	C1.14	C1.15	C1.16	C1.17	C1.18	C1.19	C1.20
C1.1	Pearson Correlation	1	.680	.746	.710	.490	.542	.449	.448	.718	.598	.409	.499	.727	.500	.579	.562	.494	.539	.381	.363
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	99	99	96	94	98	97	97	98	96	95	98	98	97	94	97	97	97	93	93	93
C1.2	Pearson Correlation	.680	1	.666	.731	.410	.474	.344	.385	.654	.686	.451	.503	.787	.393	.549	.437	.489	.536	.477	.356
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	99	100	97	94	99	98	98	99	96	96	99	99	98	95	98	98	98	94	94	94
C1.3	Pearson Correlation	.746	.666	1	.821	.464	.493	.370	.420	.721	.755	.438	.469	.614	.544	.682	.489	.500	.582	.387	.340
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	96	97	97	94	96	95	96	97	94	94	97	96	96	93	96	96	96	92	91	92
C1.4	Pearson Correlation	.710	.731	.821	1	.448	.528	.335	.378	.730	.758	.432	.525	.684	.530	.655	.429	.463	.601	.473	.340
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	94	94	94	94	94	92	94	94	92	92	94	93	94	90	93	93	93	90	88	89
C1.5	Pearson Correlation	.490	.410	.464	.448	1	.702	.643	.623	.487	.456	.476	.427	.411	.361	.385	.326	.376	.552	.406	.437
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	98	99	96	94	99	97	98	98	95	96	98	98	98	94	97	97	97	94	93	93
C1.6	Pearson Correlation	.542	.474	.493	.528	.702	1	.532	.699	.531	.556	.515	.473	.450	.464	.514	.387	.451	.561	.461	.429
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	97	98	95	92	97	98	96	97	95	95	97	97	96	94	96	96	96	93	92	92
C1.7	Pearson Correlation	.449	.344	.370	.335	.643	.532	1	.674	.511	.434	.406	.380	.375	.248	.313	.469	.359	.386	.381	.234
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.001	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.016	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.024
	N	97	98	96	94	98	96	98	98	95	96	97	97	98	94	97	97	97	94	92	93
C1.8	Pearson Correlation	.448	.385	.420	.378	.623	.699	.674	1	.415	.493	.570	.445	.460	.532	.364	.415	.467	.502	.359	.334
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	98	99	97	94	98	97	98	99	96	96	98	98	98	95	98	98	98	94	93	94
C1.9	Pearson Correlation	.718	.654	.721	.730	.487	.531	.511	.415	1	.752	.530	.531	.687	.488	.677	.524	.447	.624	.421	.262
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012
	N	96	96	94	92	95	95	95	96	96	96	95	95	95	95	92	95	95	95	91	90

Correlations																					
		C1.1	C1.2	C1.3	C1.4	C1.5	C1.6	C1.7	C1.8	C1.9	C1.10	C1.11	C1.12	C1.13	C1.14	C1.15	C1.16	C1.17	C1.18	C1.19	C1.20
C1.10	Pearson Correlation	.598	.686	.755	.758	.456	.556	.434	.493	.752	1	.577	.609	.679	.542	.670	.417	.511	.632	.472	.292
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.005
	N	95	96	94	92	96	95	96	96	95	96	95	95	95	96	92	95	95	95	92	90
C1.11	Pearson Correlation	.409	.451	.438	.432	.476	.515	.406	.570	.530	.577	1	.484	.600	.516	.338	.388	.413	.391	.176	.334
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.092	.001
	N	98	99	97	94	98	97	97	98	95	95	99	98	97	94	97	97	97	97	93	93
C1.12	Pearson Correlation	.499	.503	.469	.525	.427	.473	.380	.445	.531	.609	.484	1	.553	.664	.521	.441	.451	.708	.432	.314
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002
	N	98	99	96	93	98	97	97	98	95	95	98	99	97	95	97	97	97	97	93	93
C1.13	Pearson Correlation	.727	.787	.614	.684	.411	.450	.375	.460	.687	.679	.600	.553	1	.542	.508	.417	.543	.531	.422	.302
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003
	N	97	98	96	94	98	96	98	98	95	96	97	97	98	94	97	97	97	97	94	92
C1.14	Pearson Correlation	.500	.393	.544	.530	.361	.464	.248	.532	.488	.542	.516	.664	.542	1	.536	.376	.490	.718	.312	.239
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.016	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.023
	N	94	95	93	90	94	94	94	95	92	92	94	95	94	95	94	94	95	91	89	90
C1.15	Pearson Correlation	.579	.549	.682	.655	.385	.514	.313	.364	.677	.670	.338	.521	.508	.536	1	.534	.491	.671	.453	.255
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.014
	N	97	98	96	93	97	96	97	98	95	95	97	97	97	94	98	97	97	94	92	93
C1.16	Pearson Correlation	.562	.437	.489	.429	.326	.387	.469	.415	.524	.417	.388	.441	.417	.376	.534	1	.492	.493	.387	.358
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	97	98	96	93	97	96	97	98	95	95	97	97	97	94	97	98	97	93	92	94
C1.17	Pearson Correlation	.494	.489	.500	.463	.376	.451	.359	.467	.447	.511	.413	.451	.543	.490	.491	.492	1	.585	.367	.378
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	97	98	96	93	97	96	97	98	95	95	97	97	97	95	97	97	97	98	93	92
C1.18	Pearson Correlation	.539	.536	.582	.601	.552	.561	.386	.502	.624	.632	.391	.708	.531	.718	.671	.493	.585	1	.472	.319
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.002
	N	93	94	92	90	94	93	94	94	91	92	93	93	94	91	94	93	93	94	88	89
C1.19	Pearson Correlation	.381	.477	.387	.473	.406	.461	.381	.359	.421	.472	.176	.432	.422	.312	.453	.387	.367	.472	1	.351
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.092	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000		.001

Correlations																					
		C1.1	C1.2	C1.3	C1.4	C1.5	C1.6	C1.7	C1.8	C1.9	C1.10	C1.11	C1.12	C1.13	C1.14	C1.15	C1.16	C1.17	C1.18	C1.19	C1.20
	N	93	94	91	88	93	92	92	93	90	90	93	93	92	89	92	92	92	88	94	90
C1.20	Pearson Correlation	.363	.356	.340	.340	.437	.429	.234	.334	.262	.292	.334	.314	.302	.239	.255	.358	.378	.319	.351	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.001	.000	.000	.024	.001	.012	.005	.001	.002	.003	.023	.014	.000	.000	.002	.001	
	N	93	94	92	89	93	92	93	94	91	91	93	93	93	90	93	94	93	89	90	94

APPENDIX 3

REGRESSION TABLES

Regression output on all variables

Variables Entered/Removed(a)						
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method			
1	C6c, C6.1, C9, C8, C5, C1.19, C6.7, C1.11, C6a, C6.10, C1.17, C6.6, C6.2, C1.16, C6b, C7, C6.12, C6.13, C1c, C10, C1.20, C1b, C3.2, C1a, C3.1(b)		Enter			
a. Dependent Variable: C2						
b. All requested variables entered.						
Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	.858(a)	.736	.599	.535		
a. Predictors: (Constant), C6c, C6.1, C9, C8, C5, C1.19, C6.7, C1.11, C6a, C6.10, C1.17, C6.6, C6.2, C1.16, C6b, C7, C6.12, C6.13, C1c, C10, C1.20, C1b, C3.2, C1a, C3.1						
ANOVA(a)						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38.376	25	1.535	5.360	.000(b)
	Residual	13.746	48	.286		
	Total	52.122	73			
a. Dependent Variable: C2						
b. Predictors: (Constant), C6c, C6.1, C9, C8, C5, C1.19, C6.7, C1.11, C6a, C6.10, C1.17, C6.6, C6.2, C1.16, C6b, C7, C6.12, C6.13, C1c, C10, C1.20, C1b, C3.2, C1a, C3.1						

Coefficients(a)						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.488	.834		-.585	.561
	C3.1	.124	.145	.139	.859	.394
	C3.2	.236	.163	.244	1.448	.154
	C5	-5.718E-04	.068	-.001	-.008	.993
	C7	5.148E-02	.129	.051	.399	.692
	C8	.208	.154	.124	1.344	.185
	C9	.299	.219	.150	1.365	.179
	C10	.379	.133	.346	2.851	.006
	C1a	5.460E-02	.019	.436	2.831	.007
	C1b	6.944E-02	.033	.269	2.100	.041
	C1c	2.973E-02	.042	.086	.708	.482
	C1.11	5.674E-03	.114	.006	.050	.960
	C1.19	-.450	.130	-.395	-3.465	.001
	C1.20	6.348E-02	.140	.057	.454	.652
	C1.16	-.116	.104	-.130	-1.116	.270
	C1.17	-.233	.081	-.298	-2.884	.006
C6.1	9.084E-02	.089	.109	1.021	.312	

Coefficients(a)						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	C6.2	-.136	.095	-.177	-1.435	.158
	C6.7	8.665E-02	.125	.068	.691	.493
	C6.6	-7.131E-02	.084	-.102	-.854	.398
	C6.10	-.277	.086	-.372	-3.204	.002
	C6.12	9.928E-02	.076	.162	1.313	.195
	C6.13	.179	.068	.298	2.622	.012
	C6a	.165	.061	.316	2.688	.010
	C6b	-1.421E-02	.025	-.067	-.579	.565
	C6c	-9.946E-02	.033	-.390	-2.989	.004

a. Dependent Variable: C2

Regression output on highly significant variables

Variables Entered/Removed(a)			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C6c, C6.10, C1.19, C6a, C6.13, C1.17, C1b, C10, C1a(b)		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: C2
b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.810(a)	.656	.614	.548

a. Predictors: (Constant), C6c, C6.10, C1.19, C6a, C6.13, C1.17, C1b, C10, C1a

ANOVA(a)						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	42.419	9	4.713	15.677	.000(b)
	Residual	22.248	74	.301		
	Total	64.667	83			

a. Dependent Variable: C2
b. Predictors: (Constant), C6c, C6.10, C1.19, C6a, C6.13, C1.17, C1b, C10, C1a

Coefficients(a)						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.226	.444		.509	.612
	C10	.430	.096	.408	4.495	.000
	C1a	6.077E-02	.013	.485	4.603	.000

Coefficients(a)						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	C1b	7.452E-02	.026	.274	2.866	.005
	C1.19	-.241	.103	-.208	-2.331	.022
	C1.17	-.124	.068	-.168	-1.814	.074
	C6.10	-.199	.062	-.259	-3.209	.002
	C6.13	.126	.051	.205	2.484	.015
	C6a	.163	.039	.329	4.190	.000
	C6c	-5.937E-02	.023	-.218	-2.529	.014

a. Dependent Variable: C2