Fun, animal welfare or community development? Understanding young tourists’ preferences for a wildlife tourism package

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This paper explores the impact of young travellers’ value orientations on their choice for a wildlife tourism package. On the basis of existing literature, four different packages were designed: one mirroring the traditional offer of wildlife tourism as a hedonic experience; one enhancing the animal welfare aspect and intended to appeal to biospheric values; one enhancing the cultural and community development aspect and intended to appeal to altruistic values; and one combining both cultural and animal welfare aspects. Data were gathered on location in South Africa – one of the world’s main wildlife tourism destinations.

Results suggest that the altruistic and biospheric value orientations have a strong influence on the choice for a wildlife package tour. Respondents with an above average altruistic value orientation opt for the tour that focuses on community development (third package) or that combines this aspect with animal welfare (fourth package); while respondents with an above average biospheric value orientation are attracted to the fourth package. Overall, the majority of respondents opt for one of the packages that include sustainability components. These outcomes combined with results from previous research bring us to the conclusion that young tourists are open to a sustainable tourism offer in general and wildlife tourism in particular.

Keywords: Youth tourism experience; values; wildlife tourism; sustainable tourism.

Introduction

In a world with limited resources and a growing demand for tourism, it is essential that tourism takes “full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005, 12). This is especially true for those forms of tourism, such as wildlife tourism, that enter into areas where endangered species find a last refuge. Confronted with a growing and global market demand for wildlife (Rodger & Moore, 2004), several organisations have taken steps to promote forms of wildlife tourism that are more respectful of the natural environment and wildlife, even though studies addressing tourists’ choices for a more sustainable form of wildlife tourism are scarce. This is even truer for studies that focus on wildlife tourism and youth travellers.

Youth tourism is a very significant phenomenon: it is not only a booming market of increasing importance for many countries (Richards, 2008; UNWTO & WYSE Travel Confederation, 2008, 2011; Demeter & Brătucu, 2014), but it also constitutes an innovative force pioneering new approaches to tourism that may lead to new choices by the wider society (Fermati, Crocetti, & Carradori, 2011; Martinengo & Savoja, 1993, 1998)—this despite research on the youth tourism experience in general and in relation to sustainable (wildlife) tourism in particular being very limited (Richards, 2008; Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2014).

Following a line of study developed by two of the authors of the present paper, the research reported upon here explores the impact of young travellers’ value orientations on their choice for a wildlife tourism package. In this research young tourists were asked on location to choose one out of four pre-designed packages: one mirroring the traditional offer of wildlife tourism as a hedonic experience; one enhancing the cultural and community development aspect and intended to appeal to altruistic values; one enhancing the animal welfare aspect and intended to appeal to biospheric values; and one combining both cultural and animal welfare aspects and thus offering a more fully sustainable tourism experience.

Their answers were interpreted using the value profiles of the respondents to evaluate whether people with a different value orientation also opt for a different package. The paper is structured as follows. A brief literature review highlights the main theories on which the research is based and how this work will contribute to their development. The research method section illustrates first how the four packages were designed and tested. It then presents the chosen method, a survey, and the location for the data collection. Next, results are presented and briefly discussed. Finally, a conclusion ties the whole paper together and provides some reflection on the importance of the results for the industry and for further research.

Literature review

This section highlights the main theories on which the study is based and how this work will contribute to their development. It is divided into three subsections: youth tourism; wildlife tourism; sustainability values.
Youth tourism experience
The UNWTO and WYSE Travel Confederation define youth tourism as independent trips for periods of less than one year taken by people aged 16–29 who are motivated, in part or in full, by a desire to experience other cultures, build life experience and/or benefit from formal and informal learning opportunities outside one’s usual environment (UNWTO & WYSE Travel Confederation, 2008).

Experience is thus a central feature of youth tourism: as several authors noted, youngsters are hungry for experience and are willing to skimp on costs of services (accommodation, transport) in order to invest more in lifetime experiences (Richards & Wilson, 2003). Another distinguishing feature of young tourists is that they reject standard or homogenised products. They seek solutions, new ideas and experiences that generate emotions (Moisá, 2010). Thanks to the abundance of time and (often) the support of their financially rich but time-poor parents, youngsters undertake long trips, aimed mainly at increasing their knowledge of the world and learning about other cultures (UNWTO & WYSE, 2008, 2011; UNWTO, 2013). Still, little is known about the motivational, behavioural and experiential dimensions of young travellers. The experiential dimension has recently gained some attention: the emotional implications of travelling have led to a conceptualisation of youth tourism in terms of experience (Pearce & Lee, 2005). It has therefore been argued that the major difference between younger and older tourists lies in the type of experience each group is seeking and in the travel motivation of each group.

Literature on youth tourism experiences deals mostly with the educational aspect of experiences (McLellan, 2011; Stone & Petrick, 2013) and therefore explores a specific segment of young travellers: students (Morgan & Xu, 2009; Stinson & Richardson, 2006; Wright & Larsen, 2012). More attention has recently been given to benefits that all young travellers (including non-students) derive from their experiences and to their motivation to travel (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013; Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015). Also recently, it has been shown that segments can be individuated comprising young (Dutch) tourists open to sustainable tourism offers (Staffieri & Cavagnaro, 2015). Staffieri and Cavagnaro (2015) examined the influences of value orientations on young travellers’ motivations and concluded that there are at least four target groups open to sustainable tourism offers. This conclusion, though, is only theoretical and therefore more research is needed to explore whether it also holds true when young travellers need to choose between different options. The present study takes a first step in this direction by focusing on wildlife packages.

Wildlife tourism
Wildlife tourism is defined as “tourism based on encounters with non-domesticated (non-human) animals” (Higginbottom, 2004, 2). Wildlife tourism has grown significantly over the last years (Higginbottom, 2004; Rodger et al. 2007; Tapper, 2006; Hughes, 2013). In 2014 the global market size of wildlife tourism was estimated at 12 million trips per year and its annual growth rate at around 10% (UNWTO, 2014). Rodger et al. (2007, 160) explain this increase by stating that “tourists have developed an increasing desire for interaction with the natural environment including wildlife populations”.

The literature distinguishes among wildlife tourism in the natural habitat of the animals and in captivity (Higginbottom, 2004). Overall seven categories of wildlife tourism products (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001) have been distinguished. When focusing on tourism in the natural habitat, these can be reduced to three main forms, as summarised in Table 1.

Hughes (2013) confirms that both wildlife and wildlife watching tourism are often promoted not only as a means of protecting and preserving environmental resources but also as activities designed to raise awareness of and concern with environmental issues. Wildlife (watching) tourism therefore overlaps with other forms of sustainable tourism such as nature tourism (Higginbottom, 2004; Tapper, 2006) and ecotourism (Banerjee, 2012; Lemelin et al., 2008; Tapper, 2006). Ecotourism is an elusive concept. Some researchers define ecotourism as travelling to natural areas with the aim to enhance understanding and appreciation of the natural environment, while others also include a wish to be in contact with local people and enhance their wellbeing (Björk, 2000). This last aspect is central to community-based tourism, a form of tourism based on the participation of the local community (López-Guzmán et al., 2011) and geared towards generating sustainable income and employment for the local community (Salazar, 2012). Arguably, the difference among these options (and the interpretation of eco-tourism on which they are based) can be explained as a difference in the salience attributed to altruistic and biospheric values. Community-based tourism stresses altruistic values, such as striving for equality and social justice. Forms of eco-tourism focused on animal welfare stress biospheric values, such as protecting the environment and living in harmony with nature. Interestingly, sustainable tourism, as defined, for example, by UNEP and UNWTO (2005), requires an integration of both altruistic and biospheric values: it should namely create value both for the local community and the natural environment.

Considering the unresolved discussion around ecotourism, this study considers three different options for a “sustainable” wildlife tourism package: one more focused on animal welfare

Table 1: Forms of wildlife related tourism (Curtin, 2010; Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; UNWTO, 2014)

| Wildlife tourism                          | Wildlife watching tourism                      | Safari                                                                 |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Nature-based tourism with a wildlife component | Specialist mammal watching                   | Most common form of wildlife watching tourism, referring to tourism that usually takes place in protected areas |
| Locations with good wildlife opportunities | Habitat specific tours                         |                                                                         |
| Artificial attractions based on wildlife | Floral and butterfly tours                    |                                                                         |
| Specialist animal watching               | Thrill and adventure seeking activities        |                                                                         |
| Habitat specific tours                   | Safaris and cruises                           |                                                                         |
| Thrill-offering tours                    | Conservation or research oriented trips        |                                                                         |
| Hunting / fishing tours                  | Opportunities for direct embodied experiences |                                                                         |
and nature; one more focused on community involvement and culture; and one combining these two. In terms of values, the first option stresses biospheric values and should therefore appeal to people scoring comparatively high on the biospheric value orientation; the second option stresses altruistic values and should therefore appeal to people scoring comparatively high on the altruistic value orientation; and the third one offers a combination of both value orientations and may equally appeal to people high on the biospheric and on the altruistic value orientation.

Although wildlife watching tourism and wildlife tourism are both associated with ecotourism, there is an important difference between them: wildlife watching tourism is non-consumptive (Cong et al., 2014; Tremblay, 2001; Duffus & Dearden, 1990; Hay & McConnell, 1981), whereas wildlife tourism may include consumptive activities such as hunting and fishing (Tapper, 2006). Considering that sustainable tourism has been defined as a form of tourism that has no negative and possibly a positive impact on the community and the natural environment of the destination (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005), it may be argued that wildlife watching tourism is closer to sustainable tourism than wildlife tourism.

Literature also distinguishes two types of wildlife tourists; those who have high knowledge levels, commitment or dedication, also called hard or deep eco-tourists, and those who have less knowledge, commitment or dedication, also called soft or shallow eco-tourists (Lemelin et al., 2008). Curtin (2010) adds that the small group size and environmental focus of serious wildlife tourists lowers their negative impact on the destination.

The focus of this study is on wildlife watching tourism because as a non-consumptive form of tourism it comes closer to sustainable tourism than wildlife tourism. The study does not focus on a special type of wildlife tourist, because its aim is to evaluate the choice for a sustainable package made by younger tourists in general and not a specific sub-group such as deep eco-tourists. It does, however, appreciate that tourists choosing for wildlife tours may share a higher interest and love of nature and animals than other type of tourists (Curtin, 2009). Finally, this study does take into account the respondents’ value orientations and is therefore able to distinguish between tourists who are more sensitive to sustainability issues and tourists who are less sensitive.

**Wildlife tourism and value orientations**

Schwartz (1992, 21) defines values as “desirable transsituational goals varying in importance, which serve as a guiding principle in the life of a person or other social entity”. Values are formed early in life and are considered to be rather stable antecedents of behaviour, including pro-environmental and pro-social behaviour (Stern, Dietz & Guagnano, 1995). Even though values are culturally shared, different individuals are likely to prioritise these values differently (Steg et al., 2014). So people differ in the importance that they assign to values, but they might also prioritise their own values differently in response to a certain offer or the way it is framed (Steg et al., 2014).

In his seminal studies dating from 1992 and 1994, Schwartz designed a theoretical model in which different value orientations are identified and plotted along two axes, one representing openness to change vs. conservatism, and the other representing self-enhancement values vs. self-transcendence values. Later studies have proven that inside the self-transcended values a distinction can be made between pro-social (altruistic) values and pro-environmental (biospheric) values (Stern & Dietz, 1994; De Groot & Steg, 2008). Finally, it has been argued that alongside self-enhancement (egoistic) values, hedonic values are also relevant to explain why people do or do not demonstrate a specific sustainable behaviour (Steg et al., 2012).

There are specific studies about wildlife value orientations (see e.g. Fulton et al., 1996; Jacobs et al., 2014). However, these studies do not take into consideration the four value orientations of environmental concern as described above. As it may be contended that these value orientations in general and the hedonic one in particular are strongly linked to a leisurely experience such as travelling (Kim et al., 2012), this study chooses to explore whether the four value orientations individuated by Steg et al. (2014) influence youth tourists’ choice for a sustainable wildlife tourism package. The choice of this study is in line with research on the influence of value orientations on tourists’ activities (Hedlund, 2012; Perkins & Brown, 2012). For example, Perkins and Brown (2012) found that while biospheric values strongly relate with a particular interest in ecotourism and tourism related pro-environmental attitudes, egoistic values are related with a greater interest in hedonistic tourism activities. These studies, though, do not specifically target youngsters.

**Research method**

The aim of this study is to explore whether the value orientations of young travellers influence the choice for a wildlife package tour. On the basis of existing research it is hypothesised that respondents with a hedonic or egoistic value orientation focus on pleasure when choosing a wildlife package, while respondents with an altruistic value orientation focus on community development. It is also hypothesised that respondents with a biospheric value orientation choose either the package with a focus on animal welfare or the package that combines animal welfare with community development (Perkins & Brown, 2012; Steg et al., 2012; Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015). Looking at demographics, the hypothesis is that females demonstrate higher pro-environmental and pro-social values (altruistic and biospheric value orientation) than men (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003), while older respondents show higher hedonic and egoistic value than younger respondents (Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2014). Occupation and education are expected to have limited or no influence on the value orientation of young travellers.

In order to test these hypotheses wildlife tourism packages focusing on pleasure, community development, animal welfare, or a combination of the latter two sustainable features had to be designed. The researchers developed four wildlife packages based on literature on eco-tourism, community-based tourism, and sustainable tourism (Honey, 1999; Björk, 2000; López-Guzmán et al., 2011; Banjeree, 2012; Salazar, 2012; Cheia, 2013; Gascón, 2013). The main differences between the four packages are listed in Table 2.

The packages were piloted by asking five young travellers to describe the differences between them. The pilot was successful: the respondents were clearly able to identify the
differences between the packages. Respondents individuated the first package as the less sustainable offer; described the difference between packages two and three in terms of planet focus and people focus respectively; and judged package four to be a synthesis of packages two and three. No major changes to the packages were therefore required.

The second step in the research was to develop and pilot a short survey. This survey contained the value orientation scale designed by De Groot and Steg (2008) and revised by Cavagnaro and Staffieri (2014); questions on the socio-demographic background of the respondents, including a question on prior wildlife tourism experiences; and a question asking respondents to choose between the four packages and motivate their choice (open question).

Data were collected in April and May 2015 in South Africa. South Africa has been a wildlife-watching destination since 1927, when Paul Kruger established the first game park (Lubbe, 2003). The Kruger Park very quickly acquired worldwide renown (Lubbe, 2003) and within one year a Tourist Department was set up to arrange itineraries and all-inclusive tours for tourists (Lubbe, 2003). In 1927 the Kruger National Park welcomed 650 guests in total (Ferreira and Harmse, 2014). In the following years the number of visitors to South Africa and the Kruger Park increased constantly, reaching 10 364 international tourists by 1934 (Lubbe, 2003). After the dramatic experiences of World War II and of the apartheid regime, tourism in South Africa increased sharply, reaching 4.5 million travellers in 1995; 6.7 million in 2004 and, also as a result of hosting the FIFA World Cup, 9.2 million in 2012 (World Bank, n.d.; Du Piessis & Maennig, 2011). As regards source markets, the United Kingdom is the greatest source of overseas arrivals, with 438 023 travellers in 2012, followed by the United States with 326 644, and Germany with 266 333 travellers (Forster, 2012; South African Government, 2013). However, the largest markets for inbound travel are neighbouring African countries (BMI, 2015). Besides the Western and African countries, Asia shows a remarkable growth as a source market (BMI, 2015; South African Government, n.d.). BMI (2015) states that South Africa remains famous as a safari holiday destination, as most of the safari areas are well developed. Snyder and Sulle (2011) argue that most tourists come to Africa for wildlife watching. Finally, it is interesting to note that South Africa’s national tourism strategy involves promoting sustainable tourism.

Table 2: The four wildlife tour packages

| Package | Focus |
|---------|-------|
| I       | Fun; no regard for the wellbeing of people or animals |
| II      | Wildlife watching; animal welfare; guides are certified and animals are not harassed |
| III     | Less focus on wildlife watching, more focus on helping and learning about the local community |
| IV      | A combination of tour II and III: it focuses on nature and culture by combining animal welfare and the wellbeing of the local community |

The distribution of the questionnaire varied slightly in the three locations. All questionnaires were distributed at places where people could sit to fill them out. In Johannesburg, questionnaires were handed out in a hostel and at the airport. For the sake of safety, questionnaires were not distributed elsewhere. In Johannesburg the researcher herself distributed all the questionnaires. They represent about 15% of the total. In Cape Town, the questionnaires were handed out in hostels and at tourist sites. Six hostels were asked to hand out the questionnaire to their guests who were either checking in or out. Five hostels were willing to help; one hostel refused. The questionnaires were also distributed at well-known sites, such as the top of the Table Mountain and the Robben Island Gateway, where people rested or queued. The last site for collecting the data was the Kruger National Park. Against expectations, this proved the most difficult site for reaching out to young travellers. Tourists could only be asked to fill out the questionnaires during a pause in their tour and due to the enormous size of the Park it was impossible to get a large number of young tourists in one place. Roughly 20% of all respondents were from this location. Most young tourists who were asked to fill out the forms were willing to do so. Most people who refused blamed their low command of the English language or a lack of time as they were on a guided tour. At this location, not all questionnaires were distributed by the researcher herself; therefore, only an estimate can be made of the non-respondents: 10%.

Comfrey and Lee (1992) consider 300 cases a good sample size. Due to the difficulties stated above, only 270 valid questionnaires were collected. Even though this study is of an explorative nature, the small sample size constitutes one of the limitations of this research.

The analysis of the data started by testing the internal consistency of the four value orientations, using Cronbach’s alpha (Matkar, 2012). Results are presented in Table 3. All Cronbach’s alpha values, except for the hedonic value orientation, are above 0.7 or above 0.8, pointing to a good internal consistency (Field, 2009). The fragility of the hedonic scale had already been noticed by Cavagnaro and Staffieri (2014) who proposed to strengthen the scale by adding the values “an exciting life” and “a varied life”. In the present study, adding these two values slightly increases the Cronbach’s alpha for the hedonic value orientation from 0.539 to 0.656. Therefore, for the logistic models below the hedonic scale consisting of five values (gratification for oneself, a varied life, enjoying life, an exciting life, pleasure) was used.

The next step in analysing the data was to examine the motives for why respondents choose a specific wildlife tour package. Results of this analysis are presented in the next section. In the third and last step of the analysis, logistic regression was used to answer the hypotheses and determine whether:
Table 3: Value orientations and Cronbach's alpha

| Value orientation | Values                                                                 | Cronbach’s alpha |
|-------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|
| Egoistic          | Ambitious, influential, authority, wealth, social power                | 0.783            |
| Hedonic           | Gratification for oneself, enjoying life, pleasure                      | 0.539            |
| Altruistic        | Helpful, social justice, a world at peace, equality                    | 0.752            |
| Biospheric        | Preventing pollution, protecting the environment, unity with nature, respecting the earth | 0.889            |

- The independent variables age, gender and education, under control of all covariates considered, have a significant influence on the dependent variables (value orientations).
- The independent variables value orientations, under control of all covariates considered (age, gender, education, residence), have a significant influence on the dependent variables (choice for wildlife package I, II, III or IV).

The goodness of fit of the logistic models was tested using the Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) test, especially suitable in the case of small sample sizes. If the HL test statistic is not significant, the model fit is acceptable (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). The HL test statistic confirms the goodness of fit for all of the logistic regression models carried out. The next section presents and discusses the main findings.

Main findings and discussion

This section describes the sample, the motives for a package choice and the results of the testing of the hypotheses. Only significant results are reported and commented upon.

Description of sample

A total of 270 valid questionnaires were received. Gender distribution was quite balanced, with 59.3% of the respondents being female. Respondents’ ages varied from 18 to 29 years. The majority of respondents were 27–29 years old (37.4%), followed by the 18–23 age group (33.0%) and those 24–26 years old (29.6%).

The Western countries with the highest representation in the sample were Germany (19.6%), followed by the Netherlands (12.2%), the UK (12.2%), and the USA (10.7%). It was expected that Germany, the UK and the USA would top the list, as these countries are the greatest source of overseas arrivals (Forster, 2012). As the Netherlands is the third European country in terms of international arrivals in South Africa (South African Government, 2015), it is no wonder that many respondents came from this country. For further analysis, four geographic areas were distinguished: Europe (61.1% of the sample), Africa (16.3%), North America (15.2%), and Other (7.4%).

The majority of respondents (74.0%) were employed, while slightly more than a quarter said they were students (25.6%). A very small minority said they were unemployed (0.4%). Among employed people, the majority said they had a job in the commercial sector (16.5%) and that they worked or volunteered (15%). Considering that the vast majority of respondents were employed, occupation has not been considered in the following analysis as a discriminating variable.

As regards education, there was an evident split between respondents with a master’s, bachelor’s or PhD (60.0%) and respondents with a high school or college degree (40.0%). This dichotomy between higher (or academic) and lower (non-academic) education has been used in the logistic models.

Considering value orientations, the majority of respondents’ scored highest on the hedonic value orientation (48.1%), followed by the altruistic and biospheric value orientations (22.6 and 17.4%). This high hedonism score is justifiable considering that all respondents were engaged in a high hedonic activity. A small group of respondents demonstrated a combination of the hedonic and altruistic value orientations (3.7%), while very few respondents scored highest on the egoistic value orientation (3.0%).

Finally, Table 4 shows how many respondents opted for a specific package tour.

The least popular package tour was Tour I, the tour with a focus on pleasure. This seems unexpected, due to the high number of respondents with a hedonic value orientation. An attempt to explain this result is provided below.

Choice motives

Respondents were asked to specify the motives for their package, due to the high number of respondents with a hedonic value, 237 answered this question. This explains the difference between the number of overall respondents (see Table 4) and the numbers presented below. Table 5 shows the results of a content analysis of the respondents.

Forty-four respondents chose Package I and answered the motivation question. Of these young tourists a vast majority (90.9%) said they had chosen it for its hedonic component. (As one of the respondents said, “It looks like fun”). Of the respondents who chose Package II and answered the motivation question (77), the majority stated that their choice was motivated by its focus on nature and culture (44.2%), its eco-friendliness (22.1%) and attention to animal welfare (19.5%). Of the 57 respondents who motivated their choice for Package III, a majority pointed to its focus on the local community (49.1%) and on culture (33.3%). A minority (14.0%) motivated its choice for Package III by referring to its

Table 4: Frequencies of choice for a wildlife package tour

| Package | Package’s focus                                                                 | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| II      | Wildlife watching; animal welfare; guides are certified and animals will not be harassed | 88        | 32.6       |
| IV      | A combination of tour II and III: it focuses on nature and culture by combining animal welfare and the wellbeing of the local community | 68        | 25.2       |
| III     | Less focus on wildlife watching, more focus on helping and learning about the local community | 62        | 23.0       |
| I       | Fun; no regard for the wellbeing of people or animals                            | 52        | 19.3       |
| Total   |                                                                                  | 270       | 100        |
fun component. Finally, 59 respondents motivated their choice for Package IV by pointing to its benefit for the community and for animal welfare (55.9%), to its focus on responsible tourism (20.3%) and to personal values of the respondents (8.5%). Summing up: these results suggest that the reason for the respondents’ choice for one of the packages matched the focus of each package. It can therefore be argued that not only were the four packages perceived as being different but also that the perceived differences are in line with the way the researchers designed the packages.

Influence of demographic variables on value orientations

In line with existing literature (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003), female respondents scored higher on the altruistic and biospheric value orientation than male respondents (respectively $\beta = 1.060, p < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.463, p < 0.1$). No other significant influences of gender on value orientations were found.

Age only partially influenced the value orientation: progressing from the youngest age group (18–23 years of age) to the middle age group (24–26 years old) the probability of respondents opting for the egoistic value orientation decreased ($\beta = -0.561, p < 0.1$); while progressing from the youngest to the oldest age group (27–29 years) the probability of respondents demonstrating a hedonic value orientation increased ($\beta = 0.513, p < 0.1$). No other significant influences of age on value orientations were found.

Education demonstrated no influence on the four value orientations.

Tables 6 to 9 present the logistic models for these four value orientations.

Influence of value orientations on the package choice

The focus of Wildlife Tour Package I is on enjoyment. As has been shown above, this focus is also recognised by the respondents in the open question where they reported motives for choosing one of the four packages. This notwithstanding, hedonic values do not significantly influence the choice for this package. This may be explained by pointing out that a tourism experience is virtually by definition a hedonic experience; therefore, in a tourism context, hedonic values do not by definition motivate individuals to choose the most hedonic among a collection of experiences that are all in some way pleasurable. Altruistic and biospheric value orientations, on the other hand and as expected, negatively influenced the choice for this package ($\beta = -0.925, p < 0.05$ and $\beta = -0.868, p < 0.05$). It may therefore be argued that people who value social justice, equality and environmental protection are clearly appalled by the lack of consideration for people and planet demonstrated in Package Tour I. This tentative interpretation

Table 5: Choice motives

| Package | Choice motives (% of respondents) | Frequency |
|---------|-----------------------------------|-----------|
| II      | Wildlife focus (44.2%); eco-friendly (22.1%); animal-welfare (19.5%) | 77        |
| IV      | Benefit for community and animal welfare (55.9%); responsible tourism (20.3%); fits my personal values (8.5%) | 59        |
| III     | Local community (49.1%); culture (33.3%); fun (14%) | 57        |
| I       | Fun (90.9%) | 44        |

Table 6: Logistic model, Egoistic value orientation

| Gender (ref. male) | B     | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Female             | 0.401 | 0.121| 1.493  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23) | 0.232 | 0.710| 1.28   |
| 24–26              | -0.561| 0.088| 0.57   |
| 27–29              | -0.261| 0.398| 0.77   |
| Country (ref. Europe) | 0.312 | 0.937| 0.92   |
| North America      | -0.028| 0.937| 0.972  |
| Africa             | 0.693 | 0.071| 1.999  |
| Other              | -0.047| 0.922| 0.954  |
| Education (ref. Non-academic) | -0.119 | 0.662| 0.888  |
| Academic           | -0.034| 0.920| 0.967  |

Table 7: Logistic model, Hedonic value orientation

| Gender (ref. male) | B     | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Female             | 0.291 | 0.253| 1.337  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23) | 0.207 | 0.710| 1.128  |
| 24–26              | 0.121 | 0.096| 1.167  |
| 27–29              | -0.513| 0.361| 0.593  |
| Country (ref. Europe) | 0.856 | 0.877| 2.369  |
| North America      | 0.314 | 0.398| 1.369  |
| Africa             | 0.167 | 0.728| 1.182  |
| Other              | 0.060 | 0.823| 1.062  |

Table 8: Logistic model, Altruistic value orientation

| Gender (ref. male) | B     | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Female             | 1.060 | 0.000| 2.886  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23) | 0.638 | 0.000| 2.071  |
| 24–26              | 0.304 | 0.036| 1.356  |
| 27–29              | 0.088 | 0.780| 1.092  |
| Country (ref. Europe) | 0.900 | 0.652| 2.460  |
| North America      | 0.165 | 0.553| 1.254  |
| Africa             | 0.230 | 0.643| 1.259  |
| Other              | 0.027 | 0.921| 1.027  |

Table 9: Logistic model, Biospheric value orientation

| Gender (ref. male) | B     | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Female             | 0.463 | 0.069| 1.589  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23) | 0.297 | 0.069| 1.607  |
| 24–26              | -0.307| 0.346| 0.736  |
| 27–29              | 0.168 | 0.585| 1.183  |
| Country (ref. Europe) | 0.981 | 0.882| 0.915  |
| North America      | -0.053| 0.872| 0.948  |
| Africa             | 0.060 | 0.736| 1.177  |
| Other              | 0.163 | 0.921| 1.027  |

Constant -0.277 | 0.409 | 0.758 |
is strengthened by the fact that respondents from the middle age group (who, as demonstrated above, are less egoistic than their younger fellow travellers) are also less tempted to choose this package tour ($\beta = -0.824, p < 0.1$). Interestingly, more respondents from Africa opted for this package than their European counterparts ($\beta = 1.238, p < 0.01$). It may tentatively be argued that African tourists are less interested in the local culture (focus of Tour III and integrated in IV) because they come from a similar background. Literature also points to the sensitive relationship between people of African origin and animal protection – the focus of Tour II (Cavagnaro, Staffieri & Ngesa, 2015). Table 10 presents the logistic model for Package Tour I.

Wildlife Package II focuses on animal welfare. It is therefore not surprising and in line with expectations that biospheric values have a positive influence on the choice for this package ($\beta = 0.717, p < 0.01$). Altruistic values have a negative influence ($\beta = -0.903, p < 0.05$), a result we will return to later on. Interestingly, fewer respondents from Africa tended to choose this package as compared to Europeans ($\beta = -1.334, p < 0.01$). This result strengthens the suggestion above regarding the sensitivity, bordering on hostility, of African people towards what in their view may seem an exaggerated effort to protect animal welfare in countries where people suffer from severe poverty (Cavagnaro, Staffieri & Ngesa, 2015). Older respondents seemed less inclined than younger respondents to choose this package ($\beta = -0.689, p < 0.05$). Table 11 presents the logistic model for Package Tour II.

Wildlife Package Tour III focuses on community development. Considering the influence of the two transcendent value orientations, we observe a situation that is exactly the reverse of that observed for Package II: altruistic values have a positive influence ($\beta = 0.910, p < 0.01$) and biospheric values a negative influence ($\beta = -0.823, p < 0.05$). A clear split between these two value orientations when confronted with a people-oriented or a planet-oriented choice has already been observed in the literature (de Groot & Steg, 2008), though not yet in relation to a tourism offer. Interestingly, hedonic values also have a positive influence on the choice of this package ($\beta = 1.235, p < 0.001$). This may be explained by the fact that some respondents motivated their choice for this package by pointing to its fun component.

No influence of demographic variables was found on the choice for this package. Table 12 presents the logistic model for Package Tour III.

Finally, Package Tour IV – the package combining animal-friendly and community-tourism. In line with expectations, more respondents with a higher altruistic or biospheric value orientation chose this package than other respondents (respectively $\beta = 0.787, p < 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.674, p < 0.05$). Hedonic oriented respondents tend not to choose Package IV ($\beta = -0.828, p < 0.01$): possibly the insistence on both animal welfare and community benefits is considered less pleasurable than a focus on the community only, such as in Package III.

### Table 10: Logistic model, Package I

|                          | B    | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------------|------|------|--------|
| Gender (ref. male)       |      |      |        |
| Female                   | 0.369| 0.300| 1.446  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23)   |      |      |        |
| 24–26                    | -0.824| 0.096| 0.439  |
| 27–29                    | 0.287 | 0.475| 1.332  |
| Country (ref. Europe)    |      |      |        |
| North America            | -0.215| 0.695| 0.807  |
| Africa                   | 1.238 | 0.006| 3.450  |
| Other                    | 0.961 | 0.100| 2.613  |
| Education (ref. Non-academic) |      |      |        |
| Academic                 | -0.345| 0.342| 0.708  |
| Egoistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.259| 0.453| 0.771  |
| Hedonic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | 0.215 | 0.533| 1.240  |
| Altruistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.925| 0.014| 0.396  |
| Biospheric value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.868| 0.018| 0.420  |
| Constant                 | -0.923| 0.075| 0.397  |

### Table 11: Logistic model, Package II

|                          | B    | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------------|------|------|--------|
| Gender (ref. male)       |      |      |        |
| Female                   | -0.221| 0.461| 0.802  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23)   |      |      |        |
| 24–26                    | 0.031 | 0.930| 1.032  |
| 27–29                    | -0.689| 0.052| 0.502  |
| Country (ref. Europe)    |      |      |        |
| North America            | -0.338| 0.393| 0.713  |
| Africa                   | -1.334| 0.009| 0.263  |
| Other                    | -0.502| 0.380| 0.605  |
| Education (ref. Non-academic) |      |      |        |
| Academic                 | 0.740 | 0.019| 2.096  |
| Egoistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | 0.193 | 0.502| 1.212  |
| Hedonic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.405| 0.155| 0.667  |
| Altruistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.903| 0.004| 0.405  |
| Biospheric value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | 0.717 | 0.018| 2.048  |
| Constant                 | -0.430| 0.341| 0.651  |

### Table 12: Logistic model, Package III

|                          | B    | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------------|------|------|--------|
| Gender (ref. male)       |      |      |        |
| Female                   | 0.187 | 0.582| 1.206  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23)   |      |      |        |
| 24–26                    | 0.026 | 0.951| 1.026  |
| 27–29                    | 0.015 | 0.970| 1.015  |
| Country (ref. Europe)    |      |      |        |
| North America            | 0.211 | 0.630| 1.235  |
| Africa                   | 0.101 | 0.829| 1.106  |
| Other                    | -0.701| 0.312| 0.496  |
| Education (ref. Non-academic) |      |      |        |
| Academic                 | -0.012| 0.973| 0.988  |
| Egoistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.069| 0.830| 0.933  |
| Hedonic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | 1.235 | 0.000| 3.437  |
| Altruistic value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | 0.910 | 0.007| 2.485  |
| Biospheric value (ref. Low level) |      |      |        |
| High level               | -0.823| 0.014| 0.439  |
| Constant                 | -2.148| 0.000| 0.117  |
Here, too, no influence of demographic variables was found. Table 13 presents the logistic model for Package Tour IV.

Finally, it can be stated that results on the influence of demographic variables on the choice for a specific wildlife package tour are inconclusive. On the contrary, results suggest a strong influence of value orientations: an altruistic or biospheric value orientation clearly pushes young travellers towards a more responsible choice.

Conclusions and recommendations

The aim of this paper was to explore the impact of young travellers’ value orientations on their choice for a wildlife tourism package. Results suggest that while the impact of demographic variables is weak, values do have a significant impact. Moreover results show that, as expected, pro-environmental and pro-social values push young travellers towards a more responsible choice. Hedonic values may also partly be applied: they seem conducive to a pro-social choice. This confirms and strengthens research by Staffieri and Cavagnaro (2015) in which target groups of young (Dutch) students had been found to be open to a sustainable tourism offer. From a professional perspective, this result encourages tour operators to consider values as a better basis than demographics to segment their customers.

Results also show that both young travellers with a higher altruistic or biospheric value orientation are inclined to choose a package that links animal-friendly and community tourism. But when confronted with the choice between an eco-orientated and a community-orientated package, their ways part: biospheric-orientated travellers choose the first package and altruistic-orientated choose the second package. It may be suggested that responsible tour operators, when designing wildlife packages, take this result into account and give preference to an integrated approach to eco-tourism and community tourism.

The present study is confined to wildlife tourism. More research is needed to explore whether values also influence the choice of young travellers when other tourism experiences, such as city trips, are considered.

Notes

1. A shorter, preliminary version of this paper was presented at the CHME 2016 Conference in Belfast. We wish to thank the CHME reviewers for their useful comments. They helped us to strengthen the paper.

2. For the full description of the packages please write to the corresponding author.

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Table 13: Logistic model, Package IV

|                          | B     | Sig. | Exp(B) |
|--------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Gender (ref. male)       |       |      |        |
| Female                   | −0.155| 0.630| 0.856  |
| Age class (ref. 18–23)   |       |      |        |
|                          | 0.422 | 0.295| 1.525  |
|                          | 0.542 | 0.151| 1.720  |
| Country (ref. Europe)    |       |      |        |
| North America            | 0.315 | 0.446| 1.370  |
| Africa                   | 0.053 | 0.907| 1.054  |
| Other                    | 0.213 | 0.703| 1.237  |
| Education (ref. Non-academic) |       |      |        |
| Academic                 | −0.499| 0.116| 0.607  |
| Egoistic value (ref. Low level) |       |      |        |
| High level               | 0.051 | 0.868| 1.052  |
| Hedonic value (ref. Low level) |       |      |        |
| High level               | −0.828| 0.008| 0.437  |
| Altruistic value (ref. Low level) |       |      |        |
| High level               | 0.787 | 0.017| 2.198  |
| Biospheric value (ref. Low level) |       |      |        |
| High level               | 0.674 | 0.035| 1.962  |
| Constant                 | −1.574| 0.001| 0.207  |
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