A needs analysis of adventure activities in South African National Parks

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ABSTRACT

Adventure tourism is currently regarded as one of the fastest growing forms of nature-based tourism within the alternative tourism industry. Historically, adventure was only considered a by-product on journeys of discovery and exploration as travellers sought new land, wealth and knowledge. As the uncertainty surrounding travel diminished and more people began to travel further in search of new and exciting pursuits, the term adventure tourism began to take shape. Those who travelled further to remote and exotic nature-based settings to participate in unique and adventurous activities become known as adventure tourists. These travellers may be thought of as being the first adventure tourists, although modern-day adventure tourism has its origins in numerous historic themes in travel and ways of thinking, including those of explorers and adventurers, pilgrims, travel writer adventurers, merchants and traders, trekking, Outward Bound and World War periods.

Although being a much debated topic amongst scholars, adventure tourism is described as travel to a remote, exotic or nature-based destination with the purpose of participating in adventure activities. Adventure activities are usually associated with risk, challenge and danger and are pursued for their ability to provide the participant with unknown outcomes, constricting emotions, educational opportunities, and novel, thrilling, stimulating, exciting and adrenaline rush experiences. Adventure activities also differ in respect of their requirements to competently overcome different levels of challenge. Challenges posed by adventure activities can range from the routine to the extreme and are therefore divided into two categories, namely soft and hard adventure activities. Soft adventure activities require little to no previous experience or skills as they only contain perceived levels of risk, whereas hard adventure activities are regarded as highly challenging activities that require great mental and physical effort to perform.

The bulk of the adventure tourism market consists of soft adventure tourists. This is also true of the visitors who participate in adventure activities in national parks, as most adventure offerings in the parks consist of soft adventure activities, such as safaris, game drives, camping, and trail walking, to name but a few. A great number of these adventure activities are centred on family groups and more mature audiences, as they make up the majority of the market of visitors visiting South African National Parks. In other words, from the over 80% of funding that is self-generated by South African National Parks, these markets are considered primary contributors to park income. Unfortunately, it was estimated that by 2022 operational cost would have exceeded tourism profits due to the constant increase in conservation costs and land management costs. A feasible solution to this problem was identified; connecting a broader South African society with national parks to help support and protect the natural heritage of the parks. This included the development of new adventure activities for current and potentially

new markets that will respond to both the adventure and wilderness lore of national parks. Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks.

A literature analysis of adventure tourism and adventure tourism product development, which provided the background for the empirical study, was conducted. A quantitative research approach was followed by means of an electronic questionnaire that was posted on the SANParks web site under the sub-link *'Media & News'*, allowing for convenience sampling. Respondents had access to the questionnaire during the months of April and May 2014, from which 387 usable questionnaires were obtained. Data was analysed using descriptive and exploratory statistics for arriving at the empirical results.

The socio-demographic profile of the majority of respondents who completed the questionnaire was found to be as follows: almost an equal number of females (51%) and males (49%) spoke English as a home language, married, obtained some kind of diploma or degree, averaged an age of 49 years, and resided in Gauteng or the Western Cape. Thirty-four percent (34%) of respondents included children in their travel party of which the majority were between the ages of nineteen to twenty-five years. It was also identified that respondents visited national parks an average of 8.54 times over a five-year period and stayed an average of two to seven nights, while most respondents were owners of a Wild Card. Most respondents indicated that they participated in adventure activities but felt that current adventure activities in national parks were sufficient. Respondents were also willing to pay for adventure activities in national parks, ranging from R101-R300 for an activity per person.

Respondents were offered the opportunity to identify the level of importance between a list of soft and hard adventure activities for national parks, as well as motives for participating in adventure activities. Three factor analyses were conducted on these lists from which eight factors were identified for the soft adventure activities (water-based, interpretive, wildlife interaction, heritage, consumptive, trail/trekking, self-executing and team-based), three factors for the hard adventure activities (adrenaline rush, wilderness training and survival courses, and adventure sports) and two factors for adventure participation motives (internal and external motives). The most important soft adventure factor with the highest mean value was interpretive (safari/game viewing, night drives, bird watching, stargazing, guided walks and hot air ballooning), with self-executing (guided and unguided 4x4 trails and campsite camping) in second place, heritage (archaeological tours, historical tours, geographical tours and botanical tours) in third place and trail/trekking (backpacking, cycling routes, hiking and horseback safaris) in fourth place. Self-executing was also considered the only factor that had a positive small effect correlation with visits over the past five years, meaning that if visitor visits increase

so does the importance of self-executing activities. Wilderness training and survival courses (field-guide training, wilderness camping, survival and wilderness training, and survival games) were considered as the most important hard adventure factor. Regarding adventure participation motives, respondents considered external motives, such as getting in touch with nature, spending time with family and friends, educational reasons, escaping routine and exploring a new destination, to be the most important reasons for participating in adventure activities. The profile of visitors who were most likely to participate in adventure activities was below the age of forty years and not a Wild Card member. It was also identified that males generally had a higher preference rate for adventure activities, including respondents that were either single or living together.

In conclusion, this study found that there is a need for a variety of adventure activities in national parks and visitors are motivated by the social and environmental aspects of adventure activities, rather than by the performance thereof. The results in this study can assist South African National Parks in the development of appropriate adventure activities as a strategy to combat future increases in operational costs.

Keywords: *adventure, adventure tourism, adventure travel, adventure motives, soft adventure activities, hard adventure activities, South African National Parks*

UITTREKSEL

Binne die alternatiewe toerismebedryf word avontuurtoerisme tans beskou as een van die vorms van toerisme binne 'n natuurlike omgewing wat die vinnigste groei. Histories was avontuur slegs 'n neweprodukt van ontdekkingsreise en ekspedisies toe reisigers nuwe plekke, rykdom en kennis gesoek het. Namate die onsekerheid rondom reis begin afneem het en meer mense al hoe verder begin reis het op soek na nuwe en opwindende aktiwiteite, het avontuurtoerisme begin vorm aanneem. Diegene wat al hoe verder na afgeleë en eksotiese bestemmings gereis het om aan unieke en avontuuraktiwiteite deel te neem het bekend geword as avontuurtoeriste. Hierdie reisigers kan beskou word as die eerste avontuurtoeriste, alhoewel hedendaagse avontuurtoerisme sy oorsprong in verskeie historiese reistemas en denkwyses het, insluitende in dié van ontdekkingsreisigers en avonturiers, pelgrims, skrywers van reisverhale, handelaars, trektogte, *Outward Bound* en Wêreldoorloë.

Alhoewel dit 'n onderwerp is waaroor daar baie deur geleerdes gedebatteer word, word avontuurtoerisme omskryf as om te reis na 'n afgeleë, eksotiese of natuurlike omgewing met die doel om aan avontuuraktiwiteite deel te neem. Avontuuraktiwiteite word gewoonlik geassosieer met risiko, uitdaging en gevaar en hierdie aktiwiteite word nagejaag omdat hulle aan die deelnemer onbekende uitkomste, 'n gevoel van benoudheid, opvoedkundige geleenthede en nuwe, spannende, stimulerende, opwindende ondervindings wat die adrenalien laat pomp, bied. Avontuuraktiwiteite verskil ook ten opsigte van hulle vereistes om verskillende uitdagingsvlakke op geskikte wyse die hoof te bied. Uitdagings wat deur avontuuraktiwiteite gebied word, kan wissel van roetine uitdagings tot ekstreme uitdagings en daarom word hierdie aktiwiteite in twee kategorieë ingedeel, naamlik sagte- en harde-avontuuraktiwiteite. Sagte-avontuuraktiwiteite vereis min tot geen vorige ondervinding of vaardighede nie, aangesien hulle risikovlakke waarneembaar is. Harde-avontuuraktiwiteite word beskou as hoogs uitdagende aktiwiteite wat aansienlike geestelike en fisiese vermoëns vereis om uitgevoer te word.

Die grootste gedeelte van die toerismemark bestaan uit sagte-avontuurtoeriste. Dit geld ook vir die besoekers wat deelneem aan avontuuraktiwiteite in nasionale parke, aangesien die meeste avontuuraanbiedings in die parke bestaan uit sagte-avontuuraktiwiteite, soos safari's, wildbesigtigingsritte, kampeer en stap. 'n Groot aantal van hierdie avontuuraktiwiteite is gemik op gesinsgroepe en ouer mense want hulle maak die meerderheid van die besoekersmark na Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke uit. Met ander woorde, van die meer as 80% van fondse wat self deur Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke gegenereer word, word hierdie mark beskou as die hoofbydraer tot parkinkomste. Ongelukkig word daar geraam dat bedryfskoste teen 2022 die wins uit toerisme sal oorskry omdat bewarings- en grondbestuurkoste aanhoudend toeneem. 'n Haalbare oplossing vir hierdie probleem is geïdentifiseer, naamlik om 'n breër Suid-Afrikaanse samelewing in aanraking te bring met nasionale parke om te help om die natuurlike erfenis van

die parke te steun en te beskerm. Dit het die ontwikkeling van nuwe avontuuraktiwiteite vir die huidige en potensieel nuwe markte wat op die avontuur en wildernisleer van nasionale parke sal reageer, ingesluit. Derhalwe was die hoofdoel van hierdie studie om toeriste se behoeftes aan avontuuraktiwiteite in Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke te bepaal.

'n Literatuuranalise oor avontuurtoerisme en avontuurtoerismeprodukontwikkeling is gedoen wat die agtergrond vir die empiriese studie voorsien het. 'n Kwantitatiewe navorsingsbenadering is gevolg deur middel van 'n vraelys wat op SANParks se webtuiste geplaas is om toe te laat vir 'n gerieflikheidsteekproefneming. Respondente het gedurende April en Mei 2014 toegang tot die vraelys gehad. 387 bruikbare vraelyste is verkry. Data is geanaliseer deur gebruik te maak van beskrywende en ondersoekende statistiek om by die empiriese resultate uit te kom.

Die sosio-demografiese profiel van die meerderheid respondente wat die vraelys voltooi het, was soos volg: byna 'n gelyke aantal vroue (51%) en mans (49%), praat Engels as huistaal, is getroud, beskik oor 'n diploma of graad, was gemiddeld 49 jaar oud en in Gauteng of die Wes-Kaap woonagtig. Vier en dertig persent van respondente het afhanklike kinders in hulle reisgeselskap ingesluit van wie die meerderheid tussen negentien en vyf en twintig jaar oud was. Daar is ook vasgestel dat respondente nasionale parke gemiddeld 8.54 keer oor 'n tydperk van vyf jaar besoek het en gemiddeld twee tot sewe nagte oorgebly het. Die meeste respondente het 'n *Wild Card*. Die meeste respondente het ook aangedui dat hulle aan avontuuraktiwiteite deelneem, maar het gedink dat die huidige avontuuraktiwiteite in nasionale parke voldoende is. Respondente was ook bereid om te betaal vir avontuuraktiwiteite in nasionale parke. Hulle was bereid om tussen R101-R300 per aktiwiteit per persoon te betaal.

Respondente het die geleentheid gekry om die belangrikheidsvlakke tussen 'n lys sagte-avontuur- en harde-avontuuraktiwiteite, asook avontuuraktiwiteitmotiverings om deel te neem te identifiseer. Drie faktoranalises is op hierdie lyste gedoen en daaruit is agt faktore geïdentifiseer vir die sagte-avontuuraktiwiteite (water, vertolking, interaksie met wild, erfenis, verbruik, stap/trek, selfdoen, span), drie faktore vir die harde-avontuuraktiwiteite (wat die adrenalien laat pomp, wildernisopleiding en oorlewingskursusse en avontuursport) en twee faktore vir avontuuraktiwiteitmotiverings (interne en eksterne motiewe). Die belangrikste sagte-avontuuraktiwiteit met die hoogste gemiddelde waarde was vertolking (safari/wildbesigtiging, nagwildbesigtigingsritte, voëlkyk, sterrekyk, begeleide staproetes, warmlugballonvlugte) met selfdoen (begeleide en onbegeleide 4x4 roetes en kampeer) in tweede plek, erfenis (argeologiese toere, historiese toere, geografiese toere en botaniese toere) in derde plek en stap/trek (rugsakstap, fietsroetes, voetslaan en safari's te perd) in vierde plek. Selfdoen was ook die enigste faktor wat 'n positiewe klein korrelasie gehad het met besoeke oor die afgelope vyf jaar wat beteken dat as besoekers se besoek toeneem, neem die belangrikheid van

selfdoenaktiwiteite ook toe. Wildernisopleiding en oorlewingskursusse (veldgidsopleiding, wilderniskampering, oorlewings- en wildernisopleiding, en oorlewingspeletjies) is beskou as die belangrikste harde-avontuurfaktor. Wat betref motivering vir avontuurdeelname het respondente eksterne motiewe, soos om een te raak met die natuur, om tyd saam met familie en vriende deur te bring, opvoedkundige redes, om van roetine te ontsnap en nuwe bestemmings te ondersoek as die belangrikste redes aangevoer vir deelname aan avontuuraktiwiteite. Die profiel van besoekers wat die waarskynlikste aan avontuuraktiwiteite sou deelneem, was onder die ouderdom van 40 sonder 'n *Wild Card*. Dit het ook duidelik geword dat mans 'n voorkeur het om aan avontuuraktiwiteite deel te neem, insluitende respondente wat enkel is of saambly.

Ten slotte het hierdie studie bevind dat daar 'n behoefte is aan 'n verskeidenheid van avontuuraktiwiteite in nasionale parke en dat besoekers gemotiveer word deur die sosiale en omgewingsaspekte van avontuuraktiwiteite eerder as die uitvoering van sodanige aktiwiteite. Die resultate van hierdie studie kan Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke help met die ontwikkeling van geskikte avontuuraktiwiteite as 'n strategie om toekomstige stygings in bedryfskoste die hoof te bied.

Sleutelwoorde: *avontuur, avontuurtoerisme, avontuur reis, avontuur motiewe, sagte-avontuurativiteite, harde-avontuuraktiwiteite, Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke*

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1. Introduction

Modern day pursuits for adventure travel are largely the result of human urbanization (Buckley, 2000:439). For many people, urbanization has led to changes in how the environment is perceived (Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz & Tahara, 2010:953). These perceptions include seeing nature as a tool for gaining power through environmental resource manipulation and industrialization, with the purpose of achieving a higher standard of living (Orland, 2004:3). According to Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010:953), perceiving the environment as a tool to gain power detaches humans from the very essence of nature. This absence of a natural environment can gradually lead to an unbalanced lifestyle, because humans are a genetic part of nature (Swart & Van Andel, 2007:88-89). It is for this reason that more and more people seek to revalue and balance their lifestyles by pursuing activities that bring them closer to nature (Honoré, 2004:111).

Nature is an essential, although not exclusive, part of adventure activities, because "*challenging indoor adventure pursuits also exist*" (Page, Steele & Connell, 2006:52). Pursuing adventure can introduce transcending experiences, new emotions and sensations, and a sense of freedom away from daily unbalanced lifestyles (Williams & Harvey, 2001:249). However, the need to interact with nature through adventure was mainly induced by the tourism industry (Buckley, 2000:439). Tourism is a commercial industry where tour providers package and sell destination attributes as commercial products (Buckley, 2007:1428). Today, one of the largest contributors to nature-based tourism in South African is South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013a).

South African National Parks are leaders in fauna and flora conservation in South Africa, whereas SANParks refers to the managing body of South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013a). There are currently nineteen parks under the management of SANParks (SANParks, 2013a). The parks occupy different terrains of typographical landscapes, ranging from mountains, wetlands, forests, bush and coastal areas, with each park boasting unique abiotic (climatic and topographic qualities) and biotic (living organisms or species) characteristics (Saayman, 2006:49-56). South African National Parks utilises these natural settings in providing visitors with tourism products. These tourism products come in the form of overnight facilities, conference facilities, catering and adventure tourism activities (SANParks, 2013a). Current adventure activities provided at the parks include game viewing, bush walks, canoeing and exposure to different cultural and historical experiences (SANParks, 2013a). Unfortunately, the availability and diversity of these activities are limited and only utilise a small portion of the natural, cultural and historical characteristics of each park, restricting the adventure needs of

different markets. Therefore, the development of additional adventure products to address different market needs can play a key role in respect of the future sustainability of South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013b).

The purpose of this chapter is to indicate how the study's research process will be followed through a background discussion to the study, problem statement, objective statement, research methodology, discussion of key concepts and chapter classification.

1.2. Background to the study

Tourism is currently divided into two categories, mass tourism and alternative tourism (Fluke & Turner, 2000:380). Mass tourism is defined as tourist masses seeking institutionalised settings comparative to their own culture, with little to no contact with other cultures or the natural environment (Geldenhuys, 2009:12). Alternative tourism refers to a more environmentally friendly form of tourism, which places emphasis on culture, education, science, agri-tourism and adventure (Mieczkowski, 1995:459; Wearing & Niel, 1999:38). Adventure tourism is one of the newest and fastest growing alternative forms of tourism in the industry (Ewert & Jamieson, 2003:81; ATTA, 2011:3). This contemporary growth established adventure tourism as an academic line of enquiry (Ewert & Jamieson, 2003:81). Unfortunately, the definition of adventure tourism is a much debated topic, thus placing emphasis on the concept of adventure as the root to defining adventure tourism (Swarbrooke, Bread, Leckie & Pomfret, 2003:56; Schott, 2007:257).

Adventure is defined as "*a chance of danger or loss; risk, jeopardy; a hazardous enterprise or performance*" in the Oxford English Dictionary (Brown, 1993:31). Without risk, the term adventure would be in direct contrast to its historical meaning (Weber, 2001:363). Risk is therefore an immoveable tenet within adventure tourism (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:56). Although risk is central within the definition of adventure, it is not necessarily the preliminary reason for pursuing adventure tourism (Cater, 2006:318). Alternatively, Walle (1997:280) suggests that adventure is pursued by those seeking to gain insight into and enlightenment from nature. According to Weber (2001:363), both '*risk*' and '*insight seeking*' should be present in order for adventure to take place. Swarbrooke *et al.* (2003:12) expand on Weber's notion and include exploration as a distinctive quality of adventure. Exploration has always been regarded as a temperament to uncover the unknown (Dufrene, 1973:398). The desire to seek and experience the unknown is undoubtedly a motive that initiates the need for adventure (Quinn, 1990:145). Therefore, it is plausible to link adventure with exploration (Weber, 2001:363).

Historically, exploration was viewed as venturing into the unknown with the uncertainty of returning, due to the challenges that might have been encountered on the journey (Kane &

Tucker, 2004:218). These kinds of travel were mostly pursued in order to gain wealth, land and scientific insight (Weber, 2001:363). The most famous of these travels include the voyage of Pytheus (330 B.C.) to Ultima Thula, Pizarro's journey to Peru (1526 A.D.) and Cook's voyage to Tahiti (1768-1771 A.D.) (Weber, 2001:363). At the time, adventure was only considered as a by-product of these journeys (Ewert, 1989:26). As years went by, the growth of travel was stimulated by the reduction of uncertainty, paving the way for pleasure travel (Kane & Tucker, 2004:218). According to Hibbert, as cited by Kane and Tucker (2004:218), participants who embarked on such pleasure travels became associated with a new genus of traveller called the '*tourist*'. Those that travelled even further and to more exotic places with the purpose to discover went on to become known as adventure tourists (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219).

The modern-day adventure tourist is "*someone who is seeking out an original and exciting holiday, with an opportunity to engage in self-discovery and cultural exchange, in a faraway place*" (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56). These tourists are often regarded as demanding and discerning consumers who seek high emotional "game", risk, challenge, excitement and novelty from activities in remote settings (Williams & Soutar, 2009:415). Adventure tourists are also affiliated with a young, educated and affluent market (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:60). Although being associated with a young and wealthy market, adventure-seeking tourists are mostly defined by their characteristic traits (Van der Merwe, 2009:236). Identifying and distinguishing these characteristic traits can enable tourism operators to develop adventure activities best befitting their tourist markets (Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2008:154). To identify these traits, operators should focus on adventure participation motives (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). The traits that best describe motives to participate in adventure include danger and risk, uncertainty of outcomes (unplanned for outcomes), challenge (competence/situational risk), novelty (unique and different situations), exploration and discovery, contrasting emotions (anxiety, stress, fear, pleasure and excitement), absorption (taking in the experience) and focus (mental, emotional and physical), stimulation (mind and senses) and separation (separate from daily routine), and anticipated rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic benefits) (Van der Merwe, 2009:233-234). The presence of all these traits may guarantee an adventure experience because they are strongly interlinked with one another (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:7).

Due to the complex and dynamic nature of adventure traits and skills, adventure tourists can be categorised as either participating in soft or hard adventure activities (Patterson & Pan, 2007:28; Kane, 2012:269). These conducts are positioned at opposite ends of the adventure spectrum, where personal competence is measured against situational risk (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994:127; Patterson & Pan, 2007:28). Soft adventure lies in the low-competence end of the spectrum, where the adventure tourist requires little or no experience to perform a low-risk activity (CTO, 2013:69). Popular soft adventure activities include camping, hiking,

biking and wildlife viewing (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:704). At the opposite end of the spectrum, hard adventure demands a great deal of competence from the adventure tourist to overcome high-risk situations (CTO, 2013:69). These situations are produced by hard adventure activities, such as rock climbing, scuba diving, mountain biking and white-water rafting (Mill, 2010).

Considering South African National Parks, current available adventure activities consist mostly of soft adventure activities (e.g. game viewing, bush walks, 4X4 drives etc.), while the variety of adventure activities are also very little (SANParks, 2013a). To attract a new and younger market to South African National Parks, a wide variety of new adventure activities must be implemented, especially hard adventure activities for young adventure tourists (19-34 years), since they are more likely to be attracted to more demanding activities, such as skydiving and mountain climbing (Grant, 2011:3-4). South African National Parks also have the ability to develop new adventure activities for various soft and hard adventure markets due to the geographical ability to do so, for example, marine resources can support sailing and surfing, while mountainous landscapes can support zip lining and abseiling. Although research studies has been done regarding the market profile of visitors to national parks (Kruger & Saayman, 2010; Du Plessis, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012; Kruger, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012; Du Plessis, Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2013), limited research has to date, and to the researchers knowledge, been done regarding the soft and hard adventure needs of visitors visiting the parks. By identifying these needs South African National Parks can determine what new soft and hard adventure activities to implement as a strategy to gain additional income in the fight against increasing conservation costs (SANParks, 2013b). Thus, the development of new adventure activities should reflect the needs of the visitors and those that have minimal environmental impact and comply with SANPark's conservation framework.

1.3. Problem statement

One of the major challenges faced by South African National Parks is funding (SANParks, 2013b). This is largely due to constant growth in conservation estates under the management of SANParks, expanding by over 558 000 hectares since the year 2000 (SANParks, 2013b). The expansion of these estates necessitates the increase of conservation functions, such as additional security measures against poaching and mugging incidents (SANParks, 2013b). Mr Joep Stevens, SANParks General Manager: Strategic Tourism Services indicates that these conservation practices "*will see conservation fees rise by 15% to 25%*" (SANParks, 2012a). An increase in conservation fees could also cause accommodation rates to increase by an average of 10.1% annually, adjusted in alignment with industry standards (SANParks, 2012a). Even with high occupancy rates and annual rate increases, these strategies will prove to be insufficient for the future sustainability of South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013b). This

is predicted using a ten-year revenue prediction formula (extrapolated on a preceded five-year revenue and operational cost trend) by Mr. Glenn Phillips, SANParks Managing Executive: Tourism and Marketing (SANParks, 2013b). Mr. Phillips also estimated that income from tourism operations will amount to around R800 million, whilst operational costs are expected to reach R1.4 billion, indicating severe shortfalls for South Africa National Parks (SANParks, 2013b).

Mr. Phillips stated that: *"Our only option is to develop additional products and services that lend themselves to the natural attributes in each specific park, but to do so in a responsible and sustainable manner, thereby still being able to deliver on the core mandate of biodiversity conservation"* (SANParks, 2013b). Implementing alternative operations for generating additional revenue is part of South African National Parks 2022 Responsible Tourism Strategy, aimed at developing better ways in which surrounding communities can benefit from protecting national parks while also responding to the needs of a '*new crop*' of tourists (SANParks, 2013b). This '*new crop*' of tourists refers to visitors that not only wish to respond to the current wilderness lure of national parks, but also to a more diverse range of adventure and recreation activities (SANParks, 2013b). Developing new adventure activities in national parks is thus considered an important initiative for the future sustainable development of South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013c), since it can be used as a strategy to gain additional income in the fight against increasing conservation costs. Therefore, it is important that visitor needs are reflected in the development of new adventure activities, for the activities to be financially viable in making adequate profits, and that they comply with SANPark's conservation framework. The problem this study wishes to address is to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks.

1.4. Objectives of the study

The following primary and secondary objectives were identified for this study:

1.4.1. Primary objective

The primary objective of the dissertation is to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks.

1.4.2. Secondary objectives

The following secondary objectives were formulated to achieve the study's goal:

- **Objective 1**

To conduct a literature analysis of adventure tourism.

- **Objective 2**

To conduct a literature analysis of adventure tourism product development.

- **Objective 3**

To conduct an empirical analysis of tourist needs and motives for adventure activities in South African National Parks. The following research aspects will be examined:

  - The socio-demographic profile of visitors;
  - The need for soft and hard adventure activities in national parks;
  - Adventure needs according to socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics; and
  - Tourist motivation for participating in adventure activities.

- **Objective 4**

To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding tourist needs and motives concerning adventure activities in South African National Parks.

1.5. Research methodology

The following identifies how the literature study and empirical survey were conducted.

1.5.1. Literature study

The literature study consists of an analysis of adventure tourism and adventure tourism product development. The following sources were consulted to gather the information needed to conduct the above literature analyses:

- Scientific Databases: North-West University's One Search database library, on-line library catalogues and indexes, Ebsco host, Google Scholar and Science Direct.
- Theses and dissertations on adventure tourism and on South African National Parks.
- Articles and scientific journals on adventure tourism and tourism product development.
- Books published in the field of adventure tourism, adventure recreation, adventure programming, outdoor recreation, and ecotourism and wildlife tourism.
- Internet search engines: Google and Conduit.

1.5.2. Empirical survey

The following section identifies the methods that were followed to conduct the empirical analysis.

1.5.2.1. Research design and method of collecting data

A quantitative research method was used by means of a survey utilising questionnaire. Quantitative research enables the researcher to gather large sample sizes for more accurate

data analysis, while also being an inexpensive method of research that is easy to tabulate and analyse using statistical programmes (Slabbert & Saayman, 2004:63; Maree & Pieterson, 2007a:155). In addition, surveys can provide data on identifiable issues, such as demographic and behavioural profiles, enabling the use of both descriptive and exploratory research approaches (Prideaux & Crosswell, 2006:368). For the purpose of this study, both descriptive and exploratory research approaches were used. The descriptive research approach allows information to be gathered in an accurate, factual and systematic manner (Douris, 2002:2; Van Vuuren, 2010:11). Descriptive information that was gathered included the socio-demographic and behavioural profile of tourists visiting national parks, and their motives for participating in adventure. On the other hand, the exploratory research approach enables the use of statistical techniques to explore the relationships between variables (Douris, 2002:25). This enabled the use of t-tests and ANOVA tests to compare socio-demographic and behavioural profiles to soft and hard adventure factors, as well as motives for adventure participation.

1.5.2.2. Development of a random test plan

Defining the target population is imperative for selecting sampling units that will yield relevant results pertaining to the research question (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2007:380). Therefore, a web-based survey was posted on the SANParks web site, allowing for respondents to be a more accurate representation of the intended population (Maree & Pietersen, 2007b:177). A web-based survey is a self-administered electronic set of questions found on a website from which data is collected (Archer, 2003). There are several advantages to using web-based surveys, namely (Dillman, 2000:352):

- paper costs are almost completely eliminated;
- it reduces implementation time;
- additional surveying costs are much lower;
- it allows for simultaneous completion of surveys; and
- web-based survey data can easily be imported into the data analysis programme.

1.5.2.3. Sampling method

A non-probability sampling method, more specifically a convenience sampling method, was used for distributing the questionnaires. The questionnaire was administered through a link posted on the SANParks web site. This allowed data to be gathered based on the availability of population elements (Maree & Pietersen, 2007b:177). Convenience sampling is also ideal for selecting population representatives by allowing convenient accessibility to a questionnaire through a medium of interest (Crossman, 2001; Maree & Pietersen, 2007b:177). Respondents had accessibility to complete the questionnaire between the months of April and May 2014. During this time period, a total of 387 (n) usable questionnaires were obtained.

In co-operation with SANParks, respondents who were willing to participate in the web-based survey stood a chance of winning a reward provided by South African National Parks. The purpose of this arrangement was to increase survey response rates.

1.5.2.4. Sampling size

Using the sample size calculator, it was determined that a sample size of 384 (n) from a population of 1 000 000 (N) and above would result in a 5% margin error, while having a confidence level of 95%. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607), if assumed that standard error = .05, a population size (N) of 1 000 000 and above (even if it is a billion) would require a sample size of 384. The sampling formula used for calculating this sample size is as follows (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970:607):

$$s = X^2NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)$$

s = represents the required sample size
X^2 = represents the desired confidence level (3.841)
N = represents the population size
P = represents the population proportion
d = represents the degree of accuracy, which is expressed as a proportion (.05)

According to the 2013 annual report by SANParks (2013c:27), over 4.9 million visitors had visited the parks between the years 2012 and 2013. Therefore, the sample size of 387 was an acceptable representative of the population, yielding a confidence interval of 4.98%.

1.5.2.5. Development of the questionnaire

Due to the absence of a suitable questionnaire, a new questionnaire was developed to be coherent with the aim of this study (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was developed by adapting the questioning format of surveys done by TREES (Tourism Research in Economic Environs & Society) and by formulating new questions based on literature regarding adventure participation needs and motives (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003; Saayman, 2006; Van der Merwe, 2009; Buckley, 2012). The questionnaire was divided into the following three sections:

- Section A: Socio-demographic detail. This section of the questionnaire adapted the socio-demographic questioning format of surveys done by TREES (Du Plessis, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012; Kruger, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012; Saayman & Scholtz, 2012; Slabbert & Van Loggerenberg, 2012) on national parks. Questions for this section included gender relations, date of birth, home language, province and country of residence, level of education and the age of children included in the travel party.

- Section B: Tourist adventure activity needs. Section B focused on the adventure activity needs of tourists visiting South African National Parks. Adventure tourism literature on soft and hard adventure activities (Van der Merwe, 2009: 235; Allen, 2010; Mill, 2010; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:704) was analysed for developing the questions found in this section. A five-point Likert scale question was used to determine the level of importance between a list of soft and hard activities to be implemented in national parks. Other questions found within this section included: Wild Card membership, visiting patterns and duration of stay, sufficiency of current adventure activities in national parks, willingness to pay for adventure activities, amount willing to pay, adventure activity preferences of children, etc.
- Section C: Adventure participation motives. This section of the questionnaire was developed to determine tourists' motives for participating in adventure activities. Questions in this section were formulated based on literature and research done on adventure participation motives by Swarbrooke *et al*. (2003), Van der Merwe (2009:), Williams & Souter (2009), Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010) and Buckley (2012). The level of importance between a list of adventure participation motives was determined using a five-point Likert scale question.

1.5.2.6. Data analysis

The data collected from the questionnaires was captured using Microsoft Excel™ and processed using IBM® SPSS® Statistics V22.0 (Statistical Package of Social Sciences) software. This allowed research findings to be presented in a logical manner (Dissel, 2009:7). Descriptive statistics were done using Microsoft Excel™ to determine the socio-demographic profiles of respondents. North-West University's statistical services were used in processing the data collected. Three analyses were done by the statistical services, the first being a factor analysis, the second being a t-test and the third being ANOVA and Post Hoc tests. Spearman's correlation coefficient was also used a nonparametric measurement to test if a monotonic relationship existed between two variables.

- **Factor analysis**

A factor analysis is a statistical method used for investigating whether or not a linear relationship exists between a large number of variables and a smaller number of unobservable factors, by either testing or confirming a generalisation (Tryfos, 2001; Child, 2006:1). In other words, factors are a summation of a large number of variables with similar qualities (Pallent, 2010:181). The pattern matrix technique was used in conducting three factor analyses. The first analysis was conducted for soft adventure activities, the second for hard adventure activities and the third for adventure participation motives.

Internal consistency of factors was determined using the Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is a tool for assessing the reliability scale, otherwise known as consistency in measurement (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53). The value provided by the Cronbach's alpha represents the average value of the reliability coefficient (Wigley, 2011:282). A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 and above is considered an acceptable internal consistency score (Iacobucci & Duhachek, 2003:479). This value is only reliable if all possible combinations of items can be obtained and used for establishing reliability amongst multi-item questions (Wigley, 2011:282; Anil, 2012:90). The Cronbach's alpha values for the three factor analyses ranged between 0.67 and 0.90 for soft adventure factors, 0.83 and 0.95 for hard adventure factors and between 0.85 and 0.91 for adventure participation motives. All identified items (soft adventure activities, hard adventure activities and adventure participation motives) were represented in the factors and all factors had an acceptable internal consistency.

- **T-Test**

The t-test is a statistical method used for measuring the difference between two data groups (Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:225). T-test results are indicated by comparing the mean differences in the spread or by the variability of scores (William, 2006). Significant differences between two groups are found when the Sig. (2-tailed) value is equal to or less than .05 (Pallent, 2010:242). Before a significant difference or relationship can be determined, variables must have a normal distribution and must have more than 30 respondents representing each group (Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:229). T-tests were done to compare socio-demographic profiles and adventure behaviour responses with soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives.

- **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a statistical method used for comparing more than two independent groups (Choudhury, 2009). This allows the researcher to determine whether two or more groups have different average/mean scores (Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:229). ANOVA tests are only appropriate for measuring the relationship between two or more groups if (Maree & Pietersen, 2007c:229)

  - there is a normal distribution of quantitative variables in each market segment; and
  - if the variable variance is similar in all the market segments.

ANOVA tests were done to compare socio-demographic profiles with soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and motives for adventure participation. Similar to t-tests, significant statistical differences between two or more data groups were determined using the sig. value. A sig. value equal to or less than 0.05 indicates a significant difference, whereas a value above 0.05 indicates no significant difference (Pallant, 2010:242).

1.6. Defining the concepts

The following defined concepts are used in the course of this study, providing clarity and relevance to the research theme.

1.6.1. Adventure

Adventure is a hazardous and risky endeavour where danger and loss are relevantly present (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:56). Adventure is usually found in unfamiliar situations and/or in remote settings and involves taking voluntary and non-passive actions towards the unknown (Carnicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:954). These actions are taken with the purpose of having new and exciting experiences or to gain insight by overcoming the situational challenges and risks involved (Carnicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:954). To have an optimal adventure experience will require one to match personal competence with situational risks (Priest & Gass, 2005:50). If the challenges within the adventure activity are too high or too low the experience may no longer be considered an adventure (Priest & Gass, 2005:49).

1.6.2. Adventure tourism

Adventure tourism lacks consensus with regard to a clear definition amongst academic communities, even if a great deal of discussion surrounding the meaning exists (Hall, 1992:143; Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56; Kane & Tuker, 2004:220; Sung, 2004:344; Schott, 2007:258; Van der Merwe, 2009:225; Buckley, 2012:964). For the purpose of this research study, adventure tourism is defined as travel to a destination (remote, exotic or nature-based) to participate in adventure activities that provide unique and rewarding experiences (Page *et al.,* 2006:52). Adventure tourism is highly focused on place-specific experiences (Varley, 2006:52). These experiences come from participating in risky and non-passive activities with unknown outcomes that stem from interaction with the natural and cultural environment (Fennell, 1999:53; Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:56; Van der Merwe, 2009:225).

1.6.3. Adventure Travel

Sung, Morrison, Hong and Leary (1997:66) define adventure travel as "*a trip or travel with a specific purpose of activity participation to explore a new experience, often involving perceived risk or controlled danger associated with personal challenges, in a natural environment or exotic outdoor setting*". The difference between adventure travel and adventure tourism lies in the concept (Page *et al*., 2006:52). Adventure travel conceptualises travel as the adventure, whereas adventure tourism is highly place specific and involves travel to a destination to participate in adventure activities (Page *et al*., 2006:52).

1.6.4. Adventure tourist

The adventure tourist is recognised as someone who pursues a unique and exciting holiday experience in a remote setting (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56). These tourists purposefully travel to remote settings to voluntarily participate in adventure activities (Hall & Weiler, 1992:144). Adventure tourists are often perceived as demanding and disconcerting consumers who seek high emotional fulfilment, risky scenarios, physical challenges, excitement, and novelty (Williams & Souter, 2009:415). Adventure tourists are also divided into two categories, namely soft and hard adventure tourists (Kane & Tucker, 2004:226). Soft adventure tourists seek low-risk low-commitment adventure activities (Schott, 2007:259), while hard adventure tourists seek high-risk high-commitment adventure activities (Hill, 1995:63).

1.6.5. Adventure needs

The need for adventure is usually created when a person seeks a new form of stimulation (Gregg, 2009). In adventure, stimulation can be achieved when both the mind and senses are positively affected by feelings of excitement, arousal, rush or thrill (Buckley, 2012:963). Buckley (2012:963) suggests that skilled adventure tourists seek maximum thrill with minimum risk. There are also basic physiological (e.g. water and food) and safety (e.g. safety gear and equipment) needs that ought to be met or else the need for adventure may no longer exist. Adventure needs are also closely linked to psychological and social needs (Gregg, 2009). In adventure, these needs can be referred to as the need for novelty, achievement, to overcome fear and danger, to be competitive, to explore the unknown, to seek new knowledge, to learn new skills and to participate alongside friends and family (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:67; Buckley, 2012:962; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:705-707). Tangible adventure needs, however, can include interaction with the cultural or natural environment (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). Adventure needs form a strong and inseparable connection with adventure motives (c.f. 1.6.6).

1.6.6. Adventure motives

A motivation is a psychological desire or need that directs a person's behaviour to perform a certain action (Yoon & Uysel, 2005:46). Adventure participation motives can be divided into two categories, namely internal and external motives (Buckley, 2012:962). Internal motives are a reflection of a person's internal need to seek satisfaction (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:66). Internal adventure motives are strongly related to the performance of an activity and can include the need for rush, novelty, challenge, to overcome fear, to perform personal skills, to increase fitness levels or to match personal competence with situational risk (Buckley, 2012:962). On the other hand, external adventure motives are linked to the physical aspects of a destination, such as the natural (i.e. forests, mountains, wildlife and the weather) and cultural environment (e.g. cultural dances, heritage sites and museums) (Buckley, 2012:962). External motives can also be directed towards addressing a person's social position, such as spending time with

family and friends or to obtain prestige and compete against friends (Deci & Ryan, 2000:234; Buckley, 2012:962; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706).

1.6.7. Tourism product development

Product development is defined as the development of new products or the renewal of an existing product (STCRC, 2010). The purpose of product development is to stimulate the demand for a product and thereby the profitability, growth and the survival of a business (Badrinarayanan & Arnett, 2008:242). With regard to tourism businesses, product development has four stages or quadrants (CTC, 2003:11). These four quadrants of product development are strategies that help guide the decision-making process to either sustain or increase tourism product demands (CTC, 2003:11). The quadrants of product development are as follows (Tourism Victoria, 2010):

- Quadrant 1 - Market penetration: Providing existing products to existing customers
- Quadrant 2 - Market development: Providing existing products to new customers
- Quadrant 3 - Diversification: Providing new products to new customers
- Quadrant 4 - Product development: Providing new products to existing customers. The purpose of this study has a strong connection with this quadrant. By identifying the adventure activity needs of tourists, South African National Parks can develop new adventure activities appropriate for each park.

1.6.8. South African National Parks

South African National Parks are a system of parks that represents the indigenous fauna and flora, preserves the natural landscapes and conserves associated cultural heritages of South Africa (SANParks, 2013a). Most of the nineteen national parks provide overnight facilities and tourism operations. South Africa National Parks are also funded and supported by government through the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (SANParks, 2013a). SANParks, on the other hand, is the management body and leading authority on national parks in South Africa (SANParks, 2013a).

1.7. Chapter classification

The following chapters form part of this research:

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

This chapter serves as the proposal to the research study and provides an outline of the rest of the study. Included in this chapter are an introduction, background to the study, the problem statement, goal and objectives of the study, research methodology, as well as the definitions of important terms.

Chapter 2: Analysing adventure tourism

Chapter two serves as a theoretical analysis of adventure tourism. Firstly, the term adventure will be discussed according to related terms and concepts, characteristics and experience theories. Secondly, the concept of adventure tourism is examined according to its meaning, history, growth and by the key stakeholders involved in its development. Lastly, the adventure tourist is identified and explained according to profiles, needs, motives, behaviours and how he/she is categorised in adventure tourism.

Chapter 3: Adventure tourism product development analysis

Chapter three serves as a theoretical analysis of adventure tourism product development. This chapter starts by looking at the adventure tourism product. This includes a description of the advantages and disadvantages of adventure activities and the components involved for producing adventure products. The second part of this chapter covers the new product development process followed by the product life cycle. Lastly, tourism product development is examined by looking at the stages of product development and the marketing mix.

Chapter 4: Empirical results

Data obtained from the questionnaires is revealed and statistically analysed in this chapter. The results are divided into two sections. Section A provides a descriptive analysis of the socio-demographic profile, the adventure activity needs and the adventure participation motives of tourists visiting South African National Parks. Section B provides an exploratory analysis of soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives. The results are presented in tables, graphs and charts and are discussed accordingly.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendations

This chapter serves as a conclusion to the study. Conclusions are drawn from the literature analyses and empirical results from which recommendations are made. Recommendations given can contribute to the future development of appropriate adventure activities in South African National Parks. Recommendations will also be made regarding future research that can come from this study. The chapter will end with the limitations to the study.

CHAPTER 2
ANALYSING ADVENTURE TOURISM

2.1. Introduction

Over the years, various forms of travel and travellers came into existence, which ultimately shaped tourism into a complex and diverse industry (Geldenhuys, 2009:5). It is an industry that has long been a subject of discussion amongst tourism scholars (Zurick, 1995:6). The cause of this debate revolves around the fact that travelling motives are often so diverse in nature that tourism had to be categorised into different travel categories (Figure 2.1), thus making tourism a difficult term to define (Geldenhuys, 2009:5). Although difficult to define, tourism is most commonly described as the total experience that originates from interactions between the tourist, the government system and the community through attractions, entertainment, transportation and accommodation (Saayman, 2005:127). Tourists, however, are identified as a movement of people, moving away from their place of residence for a time period of more than 24 hours, but less than a year, for the purpose of leisure, or business, family, mission or meetings (Holloway, 1998:2, Steyn & Spencer, 2011:178). In addition, money must be spent on these travels or at the destination before any traveller can be classified as a tourist (Saayman, 2005:127).

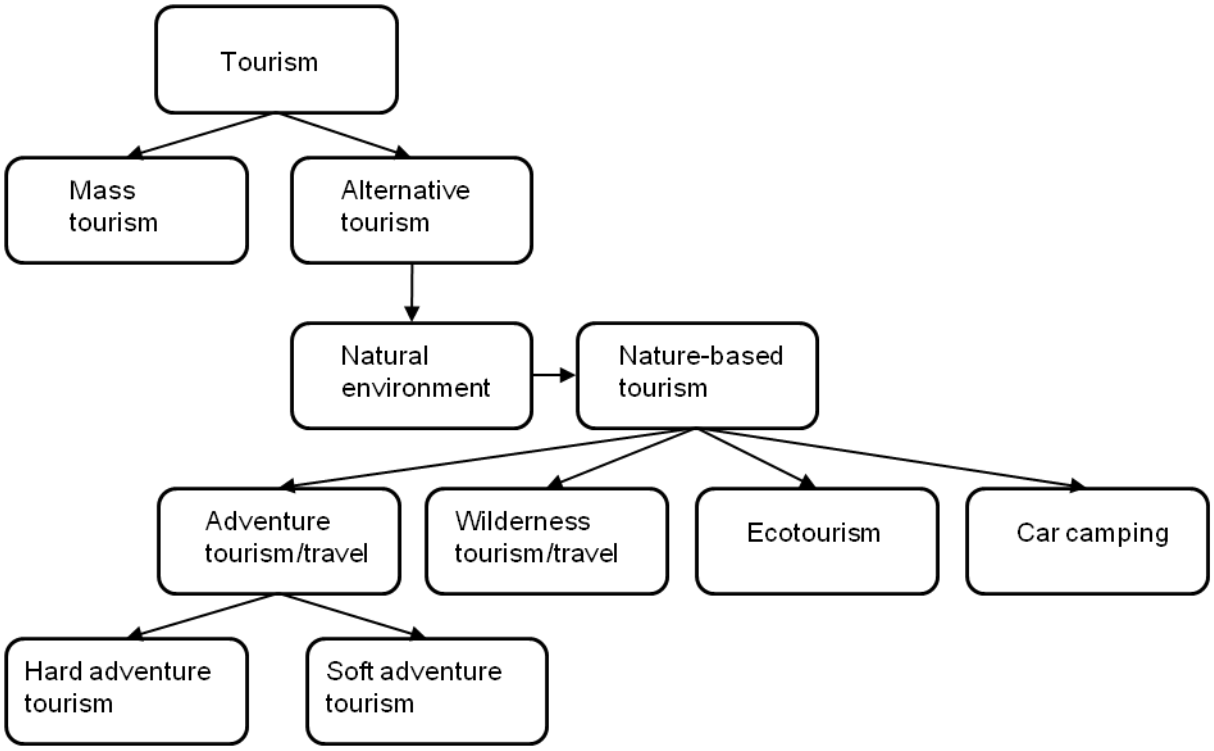

Figure 2.1: Alternative tourism

(Source: Adapted from Page & Dowling, 2002:23)

As mentioned in Chapter 1, tourism is categorised and sub-categorized into mass tourism and alternative tourism based on travel behaviours (Fennell, 1999:7; Fluker & Turner, 2000:380). The focus of this study is on alternative tourism. Alternative tourism is an alternative approach to mass tourism, indicating a type of tourism that attempts to minimise negative impacts (for example, overpopulation, vandalism and crime.), which the latter often produces (Geldenhuys, 2009:12). Figure 2.1 is a visual illustration of the general construct of alternative tourism. Alternative tourism aims to be consistent with environmental, social and community values, where positive interactions (greater emphasis on interaction) are shared amongst the local hosts, visiting guests and the environment (Geldenhuys, 2009:12). The type of tourist who is generally attracted to alternative tourism is most likely to be that individual who shares a common interest in caring and learning about the environment (Beaumont, 2011:390). These interests, when acted upon, usually provide a tourist with authentic experiences not found in mass tourism (Poon, 1994:91; Conway & Timms, 2010:331) and promotes nature conservation and social equity at tourism destinations (Beaumont, 2011:390). In addition, tourists who participate in alternative forms of tourism are usually found in small numbers, due to divers but small niche markets (Beaumont, 2011:390).

Even if alternative tourism is comprised of small niche markets, it can nonetheless provide place-specific impacts (Zurick, 1995:3). Positive impacts include economic and environmental benefits, as well as quality of life and well-being benefits to both the tourist and the community (Zurick, 1995:3). Because of tremendous growth over the past several years in global economies (Sung, Morrison, Hong & Leary, 1997:46; Fennell, 1999:9; Cater, 2006:317), alternative tourism has become more than just a generic term to describe a whole range of alternative tourism practices (sustainability, responsible, appropriate, people-orientated, eco- and "green" tourism).

The largest form of alternative tourism is nature-based tourism (Geldenhuys, 2009:13). In 2004, it was estimated that the global rate of nature-based tourism was growing three times faster than that of the tourism industry as a whole (TIES, 2006:2). Nature-based tourism is considered to be any form of tourism, which primarily relies on the natural environment as its attraction or setting (TIES, 2006:3). Nature-based tourism consists of wildlife tourism, ecotourism, adventure tourism, and car camping (Page & Dowling, 2002:23; Hill & Gale, 2009:5). Adventure tourism can incorporate all these types of tourism and is especially relatable to ecotourism through the following tourism product characteristics (Page & Dowling, 2002:64; Van der Merwe, 2009:220):

- It is conducted in natural areas.
- It minimises negative impacts on the environment.
- It helps increase awareness and understanding of cultural systems and the natural environment.

- It contributes to the conservation and management of natural protected areas.
- It directs economic and other benefits to local communities and to the protection of natural areas.

As identified in Chapter 1, the meaning of adventure tourism is a much debated topic amongst scholars and the main reason behind this is because of its overlapping role with other forms of tourism (Schott, 2007:257; Van der Merwe, 2009:220). The meaning adventure tourism is further complicated by the tourist's perception of adventure, because individuals perceive, experience and associate adventure in different ways (Mortlock, 1984:22). It is therefore essential to examine the broad scope of adventure and how adventure tourism differs from other forms of tourism when searching for a meaning (Van der Merwe, 2009:221).

The aim of this chapter is to do an analysis of adventure tourism. Firstly, this chapter will examine adventure in accordance with related definitions, characteristics and theories regarding adventure experiences. After the concept of adventure has been clarified, adventure tourism will be examined. This will include the meaning of adventure tourism, history, growth and important role players. Lastly, the adventure tourist will be discussed according to characteristics and behaviours.

2.2. Adventure

Adventure is perceived as an action or performance into the unknown with the purpose of seeking insight and overcoming risks and dangers (c.f. 1.2). The conceptual basis for modern-day adventure pursuits was developed from research in the field of outdoor recreation and adventure recreation, thus identifying adventures strong connection with recreation pursuits (Buckley, 2012:961). Therefore, adventure is associated with various recreational themes including different areas of tourism.

2.2.1. Terms and concepts closely linked to adventure

The following is a brief description of related themes and forms of tourism linked to the definition of adventure:

2.2.1.1. Recreation

Adventure tourism is subcategorized under a broader segment known as special interest tourism (Sung, 2004:343). Special interest tourism is recognised by the provision of customised leisure and recreation experiences to satisfy the specific interests of individuals or groups (Derrett, 2001:3). Traditionally, recreation is viewed as voluntary activities performed in a person's free time/leisure time (More & Averill, 2003:3). These activities contain pleasurable and socially redeeming qualities (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). Recreation activities are usually goal

driven and pursued for positive experiences (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). Positive recreation experiences can develop emotional, social, cognitive and creative skills that contribute to a person's self-actualisation and well-being (Kraus, 1997:4).

2.2.1.2. Outdoor recreation

Most theoretical definitions pertaining to adventure tourism originate from the term outdoor recreation (Kane & Tucker, 2004:220). Outdoor recreation, much like adventure has the potential for risky encounters and unknown outcomes (Kane & Tucker, 2004:220). It is the risk analysis found within adventure tourism that preoccupies most of its research in outdoor recreation (Page, Steele & Connell, 2006:52). It is therefore not unfamiliar to associate adventure tourism with the need for outdoor recreation pursuits (Page *et al*., 2006:52). Alternatively, adventure can be experienced in indoor settings as well, such as with indoor wall climbing. The discrepancy between adventure and outdoor recreation thus lies in the fact that outdoor recreation is only pursued in the outdoors (Page *et al*., 2006:52). Outdoor recreation activities are largely unscheduled activities, but are also delivered in programme format as a medium for outdoor education and personal development (Prouty, Panicucci & Collinson, 2007:13). On the other hand, tourists treat outdoor recreation "*as a purchasable short time holiday experience rather than as a gradually acquired life-time skill with its own set of social rewards and responsibilities*" (Buckley, 2003:129). This is a new commodified form to how outdoor recreation is perceived, sought after by the casual visitor and labelled under adventure tourism (Cater & Cloke, 2007:13).

2.2.1.3. Adventure recreation

Adventure recreation is defined as the pursuit of "*outdoor activities in which the uncontrollable hazards of a natural environment or feature are deliberately challenged through the application of specially-developed skills and judgment*" (Brown, 1989:37). Adventure recreation covers a wide range of different activities, similar if not identical to those found in adventure tourism, namely rock climbing, abseiling, skiing, surfing, scuba diving, off-road driving, bungee jumping and caving (Hardiman & Burgin, 2011:1324). Consistent with adventure tourism activities, many adventure recreation activities take place in remote areas (Hardiman & Burgin, 2011:1324). These remote areas usually contain unknown, risky and challenging situations that initiate the need for exploration, and provide opportunities to experience thrill (Hardiman & Burgin, 2011:1324; Buckley, 2012:963). In contrast, adventure recreation can differ from adventure tourism due to commodification and commercial expediency (Mackenzie & Kerr, 2012:126). In other words, adventure tourism is a more commercialised form of adventure as opposed to adventure recreation. Adventure tourism commodifies adventure as a product with quality standards and performance regulations, whereas adventure recreation is largely private endeavour (Mackenzie & Kerr, 2012:126). Both adventure tourism and adventure recreation

involve people who perform adventure activities with competent skills to overcome situational risks and challenges (Ewert, 1989:127; Weber, 2001:362).

2.2.1.4. Exploration and discovery

Exploration is described as the desire to discover new knowledge or simply to explore the unknown (Briney, 2008:1). Exploration is linked to adventure based on the human desire to experience the unknown (Weber, 2001:363). The unknown produces a degree of uncertainty of outcome, which initiates the need for adventure (Quinn, 1990:145). Therefore, exploration is recognised as a core characteristic of adventure experiences that goes hand in hand with discovery (Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie & Pomfret, 2003:9). Discovery means gaining insight or new knowledge from a previously unknown or complex situation or is simply referred to as uncovering the truth (Collins English Dictionary, 2013). Gaining insight is regarded as a primary reason for pursuing adventure (Walle, 1997:280).

2.2.1.5. Wilderness

Adventure is usually associated with naturally remote settings (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). Wilderness refers to a natural track of land that is uninhabited and uncultivated by humans and is often conceived as a place where one can escape industrial modernity (Cronon, 1996:7; Rutko & Gillespie, 2013:220). The natural environment preliminarily serves as the conduit in which adventure experiences are produced (Buckley, 2000:438). Therefore, it is not uncommon to find adventure taking place in wilderness settings.

2.2.1.6. Ecotourism

The term ecotourism emerged in the late 1980s as an alternative acknowledgement to sustainable practices in the global ecological system (Diamantis, 1999:93). In the beginning of the 1990s, ecotourism had an annual growth rate of 20% - 34%, although its annual growth rate has increased substantially since then (TIES, 2006:2). As identified in the introduction of Chapter 2, ecotourism is an alternative form of tourism, which primarily relies on nature as its source of attraction and product development (Diamantis, 1999:93). Ecotourism is defined as responsible travel to natural areas, where positive interactions between the tourists, natural environment and local citizens exist (TIES, 2006:3). The natural environment in which ecotourism activities take place can range from polar to tropical and terrestrial to aquatic (Hill & Gale, 2009:3). Therefore, in close proximity to adventure activities, ecotourism activities can be performed in remote, exotic and/or climatically extreme areas where it can also be considered a part of adventure tourism (Zurick, 1995:3; Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz & Tahara, 2010:953). More dedicated forms of ecotourism also possess high levels of risk and danger, thereby further enhancing the overlapping qualities of ecotourism with adventure tourism (Geldenhuys, 2009:15).

2.2.1.7. Wildlife tourism

Wildlife tourism is travel to nature-based areas to participate in wildlife-related activities that support educational and ecotourism principles of sustainability (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005:16). The conceptual framework of wildlife tourism focused on three dimensions of human interaction with wildlife (Duffus & Dearden, 1990:218). The three dimensions are consumptive use (fishing and hunting), low consumptive use (aquariums and zoos) and non-consumptive use (wildlife viewing, safaris and photography) (Duffus & Dearden, 1990:218). All three dimensions embraced the recreational use of wildlife through different human-nature interactions (Newsome *et al*., 2005:18). Wildlife products that sprang from these interactions are placed into one of seven categories, namely habitat-specific tours, nature-based tours, wildlife captivity attractions, hunting/fishing tours, thrill-seeking tours, ecotourism (wildlife locations and accommodation), and specialist animal watching (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001:33-34). Adventure experiences can be found in all seven wildlife product categories, because each category provides opportunities for adventure activities to take place (Newsome *et al*., 2005:18). As shown in Figure 2.2, wildlife tourism overlaps with adventure tourism. Therefore, wildlife tourism plays an important role in providing tourists with adventure experiences through wildlife interaction in the natural environment (Newsome *et al*., 2005:18).

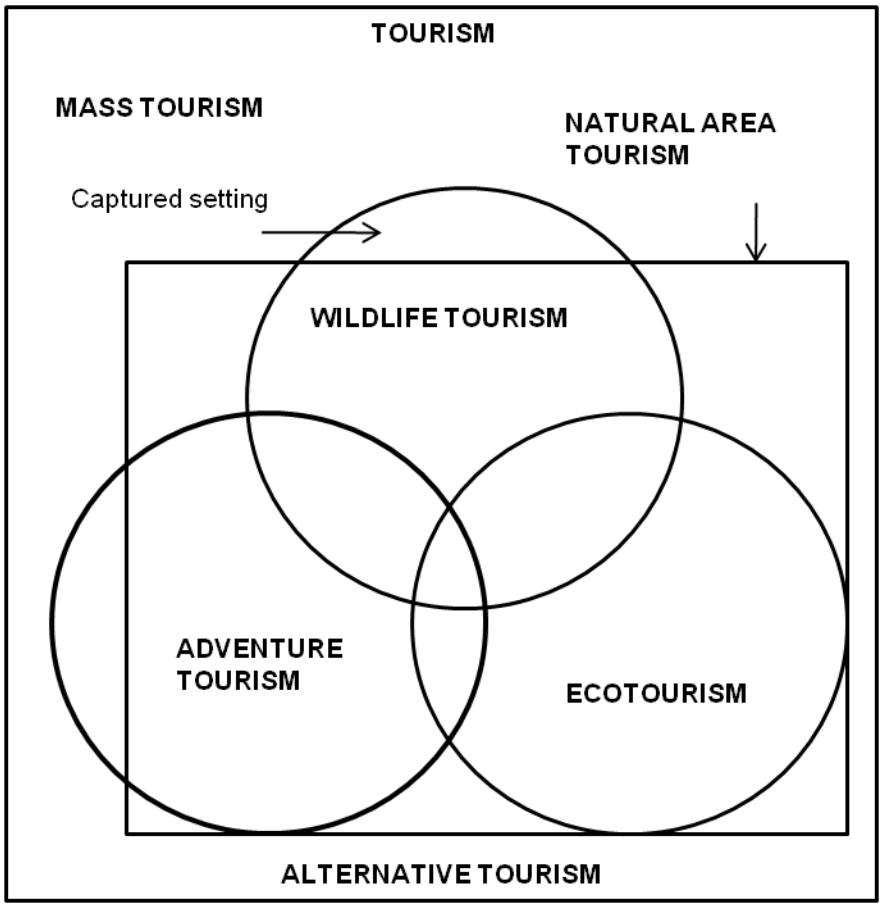

Figure 2.2: Wildlife tourism's position within tourism
(Source: Newsome *et al*., 2005:16)

2.3. Characteristics of adventure

The nature of adventure cannot be summed up by a single characteristic alone. There are several key qualities to adventure, all of which contribute to an adventure experience. These qualities form the basis to adventure and include uncertainty of outcomes, danger and risk, challenge, anticipated rewards, novelty, stimulation and excitement, escapism and separation, exploration and discovery, absorption and focus, contrasting emotions, and education (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). Many of these qualities are interrelated or interdependent (Van der Merwe, 2009:232). When all these qualities are present, adventure can be guaranteed.

2.3.1. Uncertain outcomes

Uncertainty of outcome is a key quality of adventure (Barton, 2007:3). Uncertainty can arise when information critical to completing a task or solving a problem is either missing, vaguely received, or even non-existent (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). This can cause outcomes to be unpredictable due to a lack of information regarding upcoming risks and dangers (Van der Merwe, 2009:233). With no guaranteed conclusion to the experiences, the participant can be stimulated by a sense of commitment and excitement (Van der Merwe, 2009:233). The commitment to make leaps of faith into the unknown is a key motive for pursuing adventure (Varley, 2006:182). Commitment to overcome unknown situations can also be the driving force behind embarking on new and unfamiliar actions. Carrying out new and unfamiliar actions provides a sense of novelty, since the participant is doing things he or she is not usually accustomed to (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9).

2.3.2. Danger and risk

As mentioned in Chapter 1, danger and risk are inherent qualities of adventure, meaning that adventure will not take place if these qualities are absent (Barton, 2007:3). Risk refers to the potential of losing something of importance or value (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). This can either be physical (e.g. bruises, broken bones or amputation), mental (e.g. psychological damage), social (e.g. embarrassment or damaged image), or financial (e.g. law suits for negligence) (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). Walle (1997:269) suggests that if risk is pursued within adventure, it is as an end in itself for seeking emotional rewards. However, danger gives rise to risk and is classified as a peril or hazard caused by people, the environment or by natural disasters (Priest & Gass, 2005:18). Participants can endanger the group or themselves if they act negligently and do not comply with the rules and regulations. Uncertainty or unpredictable situations can also provide a sense of danger because of unknown or unplanned hazards, while risk is created by deliberate exposure to the hazards (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:11). The ability to face danger and overcome risk in unpredictable situations has long been viewed as an internal motivation for performing adventure activities (Buckley, 2012:962).

2.3.3. Challenge

Uncertainty of outcome, danger, risk and the ability to cope with difficult circumstances are all the elements that are combined for creating a challenge (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:10). A challenge is the act of applying one's personal competence to a risky situation (Priest & Gass, 2005:19). Personal competence is a combination of skills (technical or physical skills), attitudes (being positive and motivated), attributes (self-reliance), knowledge (expertise and awareness of surroundings), and past experiences (Mortlock, 1984:23; Priest & Gass, 2005:19). Overcoming situational challenges will require physical, mental and emotional competence and focus (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994:127).

There are also different conditions of challenge in adventure based on how situational risk is compared to personal competence (Van der Merwe, 2009:227). A low condition of challenge may be created if the level of danger is low and personal competence is high (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:11). A high condition of challenge may exceed the participant's ability to control the situation, resulting in a misadventure, whereas an optimal condition of challenge may exist if personal competence matches situational risk (Mortlock, 1984:23; Cater, 2006:319). Therefore, the level of challenge experienced in adventure can be directly linked to the participant's ability to overcome situational risk (Priest & Gass, 2005:19).

2.3.4. Anticipated rewards

One of the more grandiose elements to adventure is anticipated achievement or reward (Barton, 2007:6). Balancing adventure benefits with risks has always been a part of the outdoor learning tradition (Barton, 2007:3). Adventure outcomes can come in the shape of intrinsic or extrinsic benefits (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:10; Korstanje, 2013:439). Intrinsic benefits are closely related to internal adventure participation motives, which are strongly connected with the performance aspects of the activity (Buckley, 2012:962). Intrinsic rewards can include overcoming a fear, experiencing joy and pleasure or enhanced self-esteem (Korstanje, 2013:439). In many cases, a sense of satisfaction can be felt from *'giving your best'* even if the goal was not achieved or the outcome was not reached (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). As a contrast to this, extrinsic rewards have more to do with the physical outcome and less with the activity itself (Korstanje, 2013:439). In other words, extrinsic rewards can be tangible objects, such as a trophy, certificate, or simply a way to compete for social stance or prestige (status boasting) (Buckley, 2012:962). The need to obtain extrinsic rewards can set the stage for competition, while the intrinsic reward from competing can be achieved by the desire to win or succeed (Deci & Ryan, 2000:234). In both instances, skilled adventure tourists are usually associated with having high achievement needs (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). In addition, the importance of a perceived reward can only be determined by what the experience would have been like without it (Van der

Merwe, 2009:233). Without some form of benefit or reward, the adventure experience could turn out to be no more than a trial or obligation (Van der Merwe, 2009:233).

2.3.5. Novelty

One of the major contributors for novelty is uncertainty of outcomes (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). If activity outcomes are unknown and causes uncertainty within a participant, it could place him/her in a unique circumstance (Mortlock, 1984:23; Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:9). In such circumstances neither the participant nor the group is expertly familiar with the situation, creating novel opportunities (Priest & Gass, 2005:22). Novelty is thus perceived as doing something new or different (Van der Merwe, 2009:233). Participating in novel activities can introduce new emotions, sensations and transcending experiences that provide a sense of perceived separation or freedom from everyday routines (Williams & Harvey, 2001:249). Novelty is also considered a situational trait, indicating that a novel adventure experience is highly location based (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). This could come from exploring and discovering new destinations (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). Usually these locations or destinations are remote and unfamiliar to the participant, providing participants with a new set of challenges and degrees of difficulty (Buckley, 2007:1432).

2.3.6. Stimulation and excitement

The need for arousal is a desire for stimulation and excitement (Mowen, 2000:29). Most adventure travellers seek experiences involving the mind and the senses (Gilchrist, 1994:35). In adventure activities, senses are usually stimulated by the natural environment, which is considered an elemental trait (Scott & Mowen, 2007:147). Elemental traits form the basic components of our personality-motivational structure (Scott & Mowen, 2007:147). The motivation to pursue adventure experiences in natural environments can be the result of an early learning history or genetics (Williams & Harvey, 2001:249; Scott & Mowen, 2007:147; Schnieder & Vogt, 2012:705). High levels of stimulation can create excitement, but reaching the required state of excitement varies between individuals (Van der Merwe, 2009:234). What excites one person can agitate another (Van der Merwe, 2009:234). Buckley (2012:962) suggests that this feeling of excitement is connected to a sense of thrill and increased levels of adrenalin.

2.3.7. Escapism and separation

Escapism is one of the most common travel motives amongst tourists (Slabbert, Saayman & Van der Merwe, 2012:149). The same applies to adventure tourism because adventure usually involves movement (physical or mental) from one place to another that deliberately takes you out of your comfort zone (Prouty *et al*., 2007). Adventure activities usually provide the participant with novel and stimulating experiences that are obtained from performing new or

unfamiliar tasks in remote settings (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:13). Performing new tasks induces a sense of escapism because the tasks differ from regular lifestyle routines (Weber, 2001:364). The actual separation or transfer experience is caused by the unfamiliarity or remoteness of the destination (Weber, 2001:364). Aspects that cause the transfer experience include the exotic environment, different cultures and unconventional social norms, all of which offer participants the opportunity to enter a parallel world where priorities can differ (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:13). Alternatively, escapism and separation can also simply imply leaving behind the ordinary and familiar (Van der Merwe, 2009:234).

2.3.8. Exploration and discovery

Exploration is defined as investigating the unknown or simply the desire to discover new knowledge (Briney, 2008:1). The desire to explore the unknown has always been a part of our human nature and is the driving force behind human curiosity to discover and uncover the truth (Dufrene, 1973:398). Exploring the unknown in search of the truth automatically initiates a sense of adventure (Quinn, 1990:145). Adventure is thus synonymous with the term exploration (Barton, 2007:6). It is therefore suggested that explorers (Vasco da Gama, Christopher Columbus, Magellan and Raleigh, etc.) and philosophers (Charles Darwin and William Wordsworth) who undertook journeys of discovery in search of transcendence, wealth, knowledge and new territories helped shape the meaning of adventure as it is known today (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219; Amodeo, 2004:84; Weber, 2001:363). Exploration has since been considered a physical condition of challenge found in the adventure experience paradigm (c.f. 2.4.3).

Alternatively, an inner journey of exploration and discovery can refer to a person's search for mental, emotional or spiritual experiences (Addison, 1999:418; Carneicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:954). These are intangible and intrinsic experiences of enlightenment and self-discovery and are usually accompanied by physical journeys of discovery (Mark, 2012). Exploration and discovery can thus be translated as an emotional, mental, spiritual or physical response to uncover the hidden or unknown.

2.3.9. Absorption and focus

Participants can experience different mental and emotional states when actively participating in adventure activities. This is because adventure activities require different levels of concentration and people absorb adventure experiences in different ways (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:14). Controlling mental and emotional focus will help to stimulate contrasting emotions produced by adventure experiences (Van der Merwe, 2009:234). A flow experience in adventure is usually achieved when both mental and emotional states are high (Heo, Lee, Pedersen & McCormick, 2010:412). Flow is described as being in an intensive psychological

and adsorbing state where mental focus and personal skills are synchronised with the performance of the activity (Heo *et al*., 2010:412). In other words, to achieve a state of flow requires "*one of complete involvement of the actor with his activity*" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975:36). For example, in rock climbing flow is achieved when a rock climber applies skills with focus and concentration when climbing a challenging boulder, while also planning the next move to safely overcome the obstacles ahead.

2.3.10. Contrasting emotions

An adventure experience is an emotional experience that evokes different emotional responses and mental investment (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:14). These emotions vary from person to person and can be experienced before, during and even after the adventure activity took place (Carnicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:954). The variety of emotions each person can experience from participation in adventure activities can also be contrasting (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:707). These contrasting emotions are regarded as surface traits (Morwen, 2000:2). Surface traits are the set of behaviours a person performs in order to complete a task or to reach a desired outcome (Morwen, 2000:2). Contrasting emotions during adventure experiences can vary between states of anxiety, stress, pleasure, fear and despair (Van der Merwe, 2009:234). It is therefore not uncommon for adventure tourists to seek an emotional 'game' from adventure activities and to be motivated by how adventure plays with their feelings (Carnicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:954). In other words, adventure can be regarded as being somewhat like a roller-coaster ride, where the participant is seated in a cart with no control over the direction or the speed (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:14).

2.3.11. Education

Many adventure pursuits require adequate competence (Priest, 1992:127; Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994:127). This is considered as the ability to deal with environmental requirements through the application of activity-related skills, personal skills and knowledge, and past experiences (Priest & Gass, 2005:19). Learning and practising the skills taught by instructors can increase the competence levels of novices (Morgan, 2001:108). Besides learning new skills to improve personal competence, adventure activities are also be pursued for educational purposes, such as learning about nature, conservation, wildlife, history or different cultures (Awaritefe, 2004:306; Kerstetter, Hou & Lin, 2004:494; Toa, Eagles & Smith, 2004:159; Kruger & Saayman, 2010:98). Usually this knowledge is transferred by guides presenting the adventure activity (Priest & Gass, 2005:xi). For example, guided bird watching and wildlife safaris can provide tourists with the opportunity to learn about animals in their natural habitats, whereas participating in different cultural traditions can provide tourists with cultural knowledge, awareness and appreciation.

2.4. Adventure experience theories

Different adventure experience theories exist that divide adventure behaviours into different stages or categories. These theories attempts to differentiate how adventure is experienced by comparing different determinants for participation (challenge, competence, risk, etc.). Several of these theories are examined in the section below, namely

- Adventure activity scale;
- Stages of adventure;
- Adventure experience paradigm; and
- Adventure continuum.

2.4.1. Adventure activity scale

Buckley (2007:1432) developed the activity adventure scale to identify how the difficulty level of an adventure activity can influence the participation volume. The adventure activity scale identifies several adventure products that are audited into two categories, namely volume and difficulty. Difficulty is measured by determining the level of technicality, inherent risks, remoteness of setting, financial cost for participation, activity duration and prior experienced needed for participation (Buckley, 2007:1432). Volume refers to the number of clients per year, as well as their average group size (Buckley, 2007:1432).

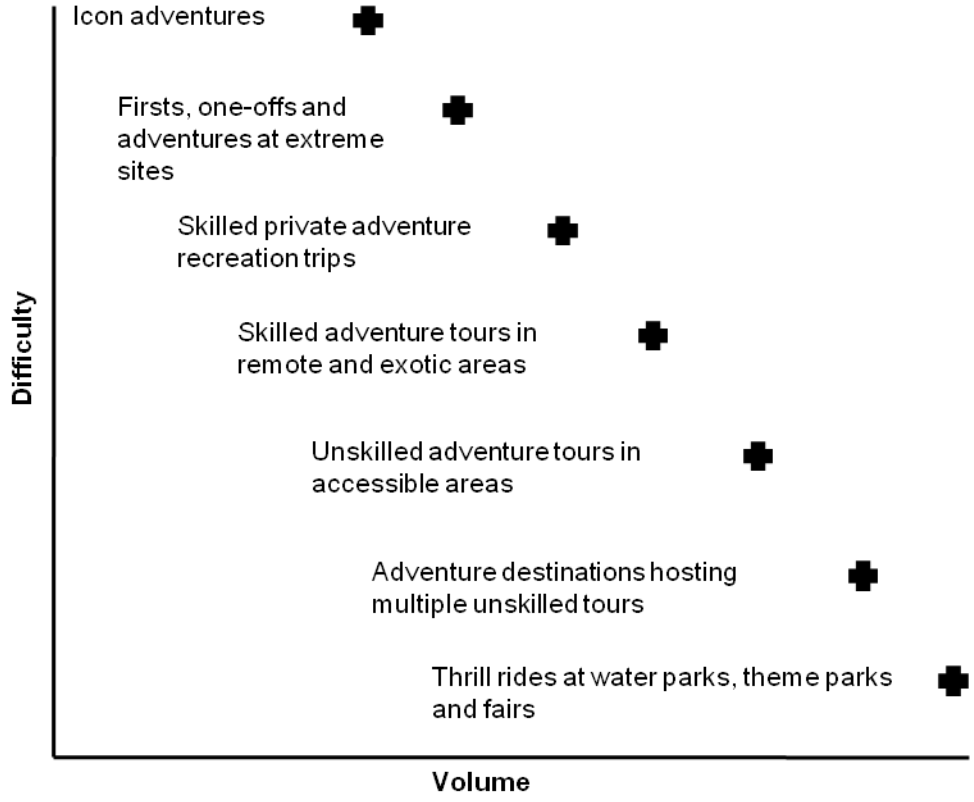

Figure 2.3: The adventure activity scale: volume vs. difficulty
(Source: Buckley, 2007:1432)

As illustrated in Figure 2.3, the volume of the adventure market increases as the difficulty of adventure activities decreases. According to Beedie (2008:10), the majority of adventure tourists could arguably be part of the low-difficulty/high-volume stage, since little to no skills are required and the financial cost of participation is low. This is also true for visitors visiting South African National Parks, since the majority of current adventure activities are mostly considered to be low-difficulty adventure products (e.g. game viewing and bush walks).

Alternatively, Buckley (2007:1432) states that low client volumes are directly linked to high-difficulty adventure products. High-difficulty adventure activities usually involve high levels of risk and danger, requiring specialized equipment, a qualified guide (in most cases) and a participant who is adequately competent to safely perform the activity (Buckley, 2010:11). Obtaining, maintaining and replacing specialized adventure equipment (e.g. deep-sea scuba gear or mountain climbing gear) usually come at great financial costs (Reeves, 2009). The same can be said if a qualified guide is employed who specializes in the particular adventure activity (Buckley, 2007:1430). In the scenario where a person is not adequately competent to perform the activity, additional training will be required that could also further increase participation expenses (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). Therefore, high-difficulty adventure activities are usually associated with high cost implications (Williams & Soutar, 2005:250).

The benefit of implementing high-risk activities in national parks lies with its low-volume market, suggesting that if parks implement these activities it could have a limited impact on the environment. Another benefit would be the profit potential that could be derived from implementing high-risk activities, since mostly affluent visitors can afford to participate in these activities. Survival and wilderness training are but a few of the high-difficulty adventure activities that can be implemented in national parks, utilizing different wilderness resources (e.g. mountains, rivers, valleys, forests, etc.) found in the parks.

2.4.2. Stages of adventure

Mortlock (1984:22) believes that adventure consists of many different components, while taking into account the different characteristics of adventure (c.f. 2.3). He developed a descriptive model of adventure experiences in order to define and analyse how different stages of adventure are pursued by individuals in the outdoors. The model of adventure experiences consists of four non-sequential stages (Figure 2.4). The four stages are as follows (Mortlock, 1984:22-23):

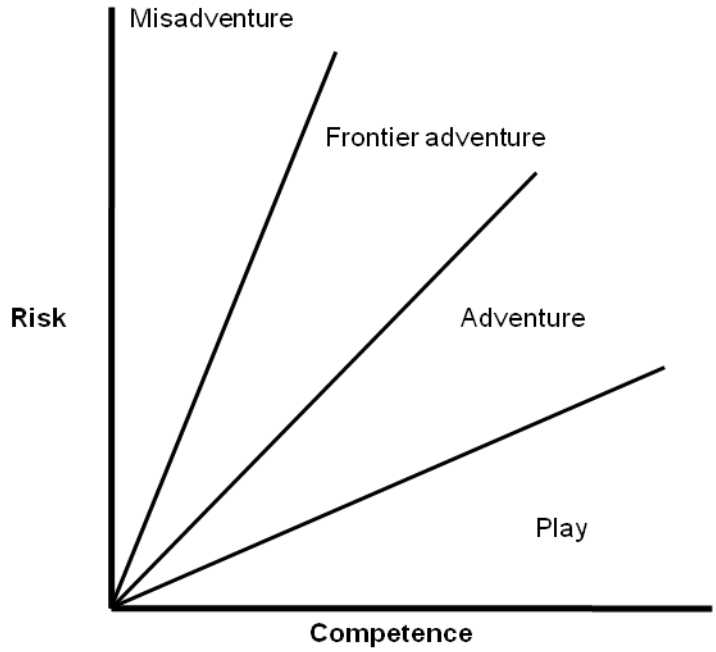

Figure 2.4: Mortlock's four stages of adventure
(Source: Mortlock, 1984:22-23; Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:11)

- Stage 1 - 'Play'. In this stage the participant operates below his/her capabilities with minimal involvement regarding skills, emotions, concentration and mental control. The individual will also experience no fear of physical harm and can respond to the experience as being 'pleasant' or 'boring'. Playful adventure is usually associated with young children because it provides a person with creative and imaginative opportunities (Mason, 2010:31). Developing adventure activities for children in national parks should thus be aimed at providing playful experiences.
- Stage 2 - 'Adventure'. In this stage the participant feels in control of the situation by using past experience and skills to overcome the situated challenges. The person may also experience fear and unease due to the remoteness of the setting or because of its strange and dangerous environment.
- Stage 3 - 'Frontier adventure'. In this stage, the participant has little to moderate control over the situation, potentially causing feelings of uncertainty and fear. To overcome the odds will require mental (concentration) and physical (non-passive actions) efforts on the part of the participant. The level of intensity required can determine the level of satisfaction a person can experience (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999:157). The more intense the situation, the more satisfaction a person can derive from overcoming the odds (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999:157).
- Stage 4 - 'Misadventure'. In this stage, some of the challenges are beyond the control of the participant. The participant's skills are insufficiently matched against the situational challenge and can result in failure, causing some degree of emotional, mental, social or

physical damage (Priest & Gass, 2005:50). Alternatively, failure can be beneficial in that it has the potential to provide valuable learning experiences.

2.4.3. Adventure experience paradigm

The adventure experience paradigm was developed by Martin and Priest (1986:18-21) based on their work on participant behaviours in adventure experiences. The adventure experience paradigm attempts to explain participant behaviours by comparing risk and competence variables (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). Risk is defined as the potential to lose something of value (c.f. 2.3.2), whereas competence refers to a person's capability of dealing with environmental demands (c.f. 2.3.3). Table 2.1 identifies the two components (risk and competence) that determine psychological experiences in adventure. Underlining the two components is other equivalent terminology that aids in understanding the adventure experience paradigm in the context of adventure-related psychological theories (Neill, 2007).

Table 2.1: Components of adventure experience

Competence	Risk
Individual (specific skills and abilities)	Environment (natural or cultural)
Personal (abilities unique to a person)	Situation (set of circumstances)
Skill (learned ability to perform a task)	Challenge (c.f. 2.3.3)
Ability (talent, skill or proficiency)	Difficulty (dangerous or hard to deal with)
Capacity (quantity or ability to perform a task)	Arousal (c.f. 2.3.6)

(Source: Neill, 2007)

Similar to Mortlock's four stages of adventure (play, adventure, frontier adventure and misadventure), the adventure experience paradigm identifies several conditions of challenge to how adventure is experienced. The five conditions or stages of challenge are exploration and experimentation, adventure, peak adventure, misadventure, devastation and disaster (Priest & Baillie, 1987:16). Each condition of challenge is determined based on how situational risk and personal competence are balanced against one another (Van der Merwe, 2009:227). Figure 2.5 illustrates the relationship between risk and competence and is a graphical presentation of the adventure experience paradigm.

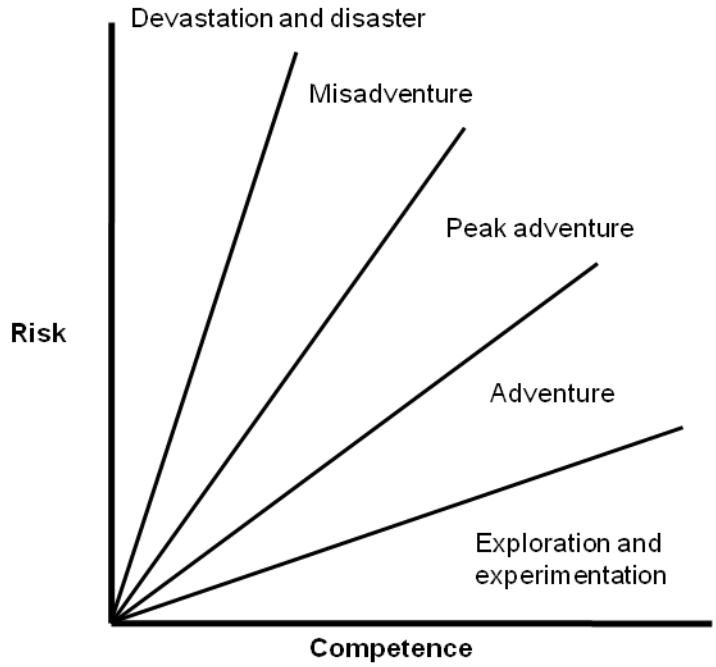

Figure 2.5: The adventure experience paradigm
(Source: Priest & Gass, 2005:49)

If situational risk is very low and the participant has a high level of competence, the condition of challenge is referred to as exploration and experimentation (Van der Merwe, 2009:233). This condition is similar to Mortlock's (1984:22) play stage where a person operates below his/her capabilities, during which new skills can be learned or tested. Those with high competence levels can describe this condition of challenge as being a 'pleasant' or 'boring' experience (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). If the level of risk increases the participant moves into a condition of adventure (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). When the two components are balanced the person may experience peak adventure, which is similar to a state of flow (c.f. 2.3.9). If risk exceeds a person's level of competence, the adventure experience starts to move into a condition of misadventure. This condition has the potential to cause minor mishaps, but not severe or permanent damage (Priest & Gass, 2005:50). Devastation and disaster appears when risk is very high and competence is very low. In this scenario the potential for permanent or fatal damage is at an all-time high (Priest & Gass, 2005:50). According to Van der Merwe (2009:228), disaster should have no role in an educational experience, while misadventure can set the stage for learning from mistakes (Priest & Gass, 2005:50).

Although learning experiences are key principles within adventure, the ultimate goal of an outdoor adventure experience lies with the condition of peak adventure (Martin & Priest, 1986:19). Peak adventure is only determined by a person's perception thereof, indicating that a peak adventure experience may vary from person to person (Martin & Priest, 1986:19).

2.4.4. Adventure continuum

The adventure continuum is divided into two categories, namely soft and hard adventure (Van der Merwe, 2009:237). This continuum explains adventure behaviours by differentiating between the degrees of "*challenge, uncertainty, setting familiarity, personal abilities, intensity, duration and perceptions of control*" (Lipscombe, 1995:41-42; Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:33). At the unskilled end of the continuum lies soft adventure, whereas hard adventure lies at the skilled end of the continuum (Buckley, 2012:961). The adventure continuum is of critical importance to this study because it is used to differentiate between hard and soft adventure activities to be implemented in national parks. The two categories of adventure are as follows:

2.4.4.1. Soft adventure

Soft adventure is defined as experiences that reward the spirit and mind, have low physical demands and are relatively safe to perform in remote locations (Ewert & Jamieson, 2003:69; Jenkins, 2008:1). Usually soft adventure tourism involves travelling to distant locations to participate in unique and novel activities with low to moderate risk levels (Scott & Mowen, 2007:146). Williams and Soutar (2005:250) suggest that the enjoyment received from soft adventure activities comes from overcoming the perceived risk and dangers staged by tour operators and the natural environment. Tour operators are largely responsible for the growth of soft adventure tourism through packaged soft adventure offerings in mass tourism markets (Williams & Soutar, 2005:250; Page *et al*., 2006:52). Because of commercialisation and the minimum requirements to participate in soft adventure activities, soft adventure tourism has become one of the fastest growing segments within the tourism industry (Allen, 2010). Growth within this segment has also led to the development of a more diverse array of adventure activities to meet niche market demands (Allen, 2010; Mill, 2010). Adventure demands are usually linked to a region's geographical capability of supporting various activities (water-, air- and land-based) (Mill, 2010). It is therefore important to identify the nature-based resources within each national park to develop appropriate adventure activities for each park. For example, marine resources can support sailing and surfing, while mountainous landscapes can support abseiling, hiking and mountain climbing. Today the most popular soft adventure activities include camping, hiking, biking and wildlife viewing (Mill, 2010; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:704). Table 2.2 identifies the four areas in which soft adventure activities takes place.

Table 2.2: Soft adventure activities

Land-based	Water-based	Air-based	Mixed (land/water/air)
Camping	Water-skiing	Flights	Charity challenges
Casual biking/bicycle tours	Sailing	Micro-lighting	Cultural experiences
Horse riding	Snorkelling	Helicopter flights	Gap-year travel
Wilderness tours	Canoeing	Ballooning	Wildlife watching
Animal watching	Paddling	Zip lining	Volunteer opportunities
Bird watching	Jet boating	Low-rope courses	Culture tours
Photo safari	Calm-water rafting		Orienteering
Gentle hiking	Calm-water kayaking		
Snow skiing	Fly fishing		
Wildlife viewing	Snorkelling		
Snowshoeing	Fishing		
Team building	Kayaking		
Safaris	Motorboat rides		
Hunting	River rafting		
Quad biking	Scuba diving		
Guided walks	Surfing		
Backpacking	Paddle boats		
Obstacle course			
Archery			
Sandboarding			
Historical sites			

(Sources: Pomfret, 2006:114; Schneider, Vogt & Smith, 2006:11-12; Van der Merwe, 2009:235; Allen, 2010; Mill, 2010; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:704)

2.4.4.2. Hard adventure

On the skilled end of the adventure continuum, hard adventure refers to those high risk activities that require intense commitment and advanced skills (Van der Merwe, 2009:230). These activities are usually performed in small volumes at socially and environmentally remote locations (Williams & Soutar, 2005:250). The activity itself is usually of primary concern; comfort, lodgings, dietary requirements and weather conditions are a secondary concern (Allen, 2010). This is because the primary motives for pursing hard adventure activities usually involve obtaining extreme experiences (Scott & Mowen, 2007:146). Buckley (2012:961-963) suggests that these extreme experiences provide the participant with a rush sensation, arguing that skilled adventure tourists seek maximum thrill with minimum risk. Rush is seen as a particular type of excitement that includes a combination of thrill and flow (Buckley, 2012:963). Flow is described as an intense psychological and adsorbing state where skills and mental focus are directed towards performing an action (c.f. 2.3.9). Thrill on the other hand refers to a pure adrenalin experience, which is based on a psychological response that is unrelated to expertise

(Buckley, 2012:963). Therefore, thrill can take place without the requirement of skills, whereas flow is achieved through an application of skills and mental focus. The simultaneous occurrence of flow and thrill produces a rush experience (Buckley, 2012:963). An adrenalin rush is experienced when a person participates in dangerous activities that purposefully induce increased levels of adrenaline (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:64). An adrenaline rush is thus quite evidently linked to hard adventure pursuits and is experienced in several popular activities, such as snowboarding, white-water kayaking, surfing, sailboarding and kiteboarding (Buckley, 2012:965-966). Several other hard adventure activities that were found to be amongst the most popular choices for taking modern-day adventure trips include scuba diving, mountain biking and white-water rafting (Mill, 2010). Table 2.3 identifies several hard adventure activities that are categorized into four areas of performance, namely land, water, air and mixed.

Table 2.3: Hard adventure activities

Land-based	**Water-based**	**Air-based**	**Mixed (land/water/air)**
Spelunking	Deep-sea scuba diving	Parachuting	Backpacking across rugged terrain
Cave exploring	White-water rafting	Skydiving	Survival games
Rock climbing	White-water kayaking	Hang gliding	Orienteering
Mountain climbing	Scuba diving	Windsurfing	Survival games
Mountain biking	Power boating	Cliff jumping	Wilderness training
Off-road biking	Kitesurfing	Bungee jumping	
Extreme snowboarding			
Climbing expedition			
Cross-country trekking			
Wilderness experiences			
Ice kiting			
Trail running			
Bouldering			

(Sources: Pomfret, 2006:114; Schneider *et al*., 2006:11-12; Van der Merwe, 2009: 235; Allen, 2010; Mill, 2010; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:704)

2.5. Adventure tourism

The section that follows will focus on a theoretical analysis of adventure tourism and adventure tourists.

2.5.1. What is adventure tourism?

In the context of this study, adventure tourism is viewed as travel to a destination in pursuit of participating in adventurous activities (c.f. 1.6.3). These destinations are usually spaces that have been overlooked as prime locations for developing mass tourism (Conway & Timms,

2010:5). Adventure tourism also includes adventure travel as being part of the adventure tourism experience, whether to, from or within the destination (c.f. 1.6.4). This is only relevant if the method of travel constitutes an outdoor adventure activity that takes a person from one place to another (Luthi, 2007:38). For example, adventure activities used as travelling methods can include white-water rafting, kayaking, canoeing, hot air ballooning or hiking across rugged terrain on foot or crossing it on horseback.

2.5.2. History of adventure tourism

Throughout history, humans have travelled and expanded to all corners of the globe. Many of these travels have been key to our survival and success as a species (Amodeo, 2004:84). Most historical travels involved venturing into the unknown and were not without their fair share of death-defying challenges or uncertainty of return (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). Besides travelling for survival, our ancestors were also involuntarily faced with challenges on a regular basis (Cater, 2013:8). Because challenge is an intrinsic part of adventure, it can be suggested that adventure was an intrinsic part of most historical travels (Amodeo, 2004:84). Contrary to this, contemporary adventure is considered a voluntary action for gaining thrills in challenging situations (Cater, 2013:8-9). Although the meaning has altered over time, adventure, science and exploration still occupy and continue to occupy a common sense in travel (Gregory, as cited by Cater, 2013:8). The reason is because it has always been part of our human nature/curiosity to explore the unknown and search for scientific reason (Weber, 2001:363).

A large part of travel was based on scientific curiosity during the 18th century (Amodeo, 2004:84). The 18th century also gave way to commercialized travel packages for intellectuals and manual workers, which was mostly only available to an elite society (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). The 19th century saw travel as an urge for seeking transcending familiarities or commonplaceness (Amodeo, 2004:84). Amongst the British, published route guides and serialized publications of grand tours lead the way for pleasure travel (Kane & Tucker, 2004:218-219). Those who deviated from this norm of pleasure travel became known as adventure travellers (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). These travellers travelled further and for longer to more exotic places to experience and participate in unique activities (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). Adventure tourism today is the result of a number of themes or ways of thinking throughout history (Amodeo, 2004:84). Amongst these themes are explorers and adventurers, pilgrims, travel writer adventurers, merchants and traders, trekking, Outward Bound and World War periods.

2.5.2.1. Explorers and adventurers

Historically, explorers were perceived as bold and fearless discoverers searching for new land and charting previously unknown territories (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:41). These explorers

included Christopher Columbus and his voyage across the Atlantic Ocean (1492), Cook's voyage to Tahiti (1768-1771), Pytheus's voyage to "Ultima Thula" (330 BC) and Vasco da Gama and his voyages to India (1497) (Anon, 2013a). Besides the search for new land, historical explorations also involved the search for insight, knowledge and new life, such as those expeditions undertaken by Charles Darwin (Weber, 2001:363). In our more contemporary history, Edmond Hillary was considered to be an adventurer who voluntarily exposed himself to danger and near-death encounters to be the first man to reach the summit of Mount Everest (Davies, 2011). Edmond Hillary did it to fulfil a lifelong dream and inspired many people follow adventurous pursuits, which helped shape the meaning of the modern-day adventurer (Davies, 2011).

Modern-day adventurers voluntarily go on journeys that demand great mental and physical endurance to chase after adventure and ultimately their dreams (Schatz, 2011). Some of the modern adventurers include Ed Stafford (Amazon explorer), Edward Michal "Bear" Grylls (adventurer, writer and television presenter), Jessica Watson (circumnavigator), Eric Larson (Polar explorer), David de Rothschild (voyager) and Andrew Skurka (Alaska-Yukon explorer) (Schatz, 2011). These men and woman are a limited example of people who accomplish amazing feats and inspire many people through the pursuit of adventure (Schatz, 2011).

2.5.2.2. Pilgrims

Pilgrimages to religious sites are considered one of the oldest forms of tourism. A pilgrim is a person undertaking a journey to a sacred or religious place as an act of devotion in the name of his/her religion (Collins English Dictionary, 2003). Hundreds of years ago, going on a single journey abroad could have taken a whole lifetime for a traveller undertaking a religious pilgrimage (Amodeo, 2004:84). Undertaking such pilgrimages often included a fair amount of on-route risks, dangers and challenges. Risk and danger are both concepts inherent in adventure (Van der Merwe, 2009:221). Besides being a risky and dangerous undertaking, a pilgrimage often involved travelling to unknown spiritual destinations (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:42). Venturing into these unknown territories initiated a sense of adventure (Quinn, 1990:145). As time passed and travel routes became more familiar, pilgrimage growth was stimulated by the reduction of travel uncertainty (Kane & Tucker, 2004:218). To date, two types of pilgrim exist (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:42):

- Western travellers, who do not adhere to any particular religion, but wish to gain spiritual enlightenment by travelling east.
- People with stressful lifestyles travelling to monasteries or religious retreats, seeking relaxing experiences away from daily lifestyles in the hope of reducing stress levels.

2.5.2.3. Travel writer adventurers

One of the most recognizable travel writer adventurers was Marco Polo. He was an explorer and journalist who travelled with his family from Europe to Asia from 1271 to 1295 (Anon, 2013b). His book '*Il Milione',* translated into English as the *'Travels of Marco Polo*', contains extensive descriptions pertaining to his travels and experiences, which later influenced adventure and merchant travels (Anon, 2013b). Another ancestor who contributed to modern-day adventure travel is the poet William Wordsworth. In his book "*The Prelude*", written between 1799 and 1805, he posited that visionary experiences require physical exertion (Amodeo, 2004:84). William Wordsworth wrote "*The Prelude*" based on the journeys he took on foot through various natural landscapes (Amodeo, 2004:84). Torre DeRoche, Matthew Power, Michael Luongo, Andrew Evans, Andrew McCarthey and Rachel Friedman are further examples of modern-day travel writers who committed their adventure memoirs to paper (novels, articles, diaries, guidelines and books) (Potts, 2013). One of these writings includes the book titled '*True Spirit',* written by Jessica Watson (Schatz, 2011). At age sixteen, Jessica Watson was the youngest person to circumnavigate the world solo and non-stop on a sailboat (Schatz, 2011).

2.5.2.4. Merchants and traders

Although having different travel purposes, merchants and traders have been around for just as long as pilgrims (Lubbe, 2005:14). Trade and commerce were two of the first travel-initiated impulses amongst humans in ancient times (Lubbe, 2005:14). Traders were regarded as adventure tourists in their own right, because of the bridging characteristic their journeys had with adventure, namely (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:42):

- Traders travelled to places that were often new to them in pursuit of trading goods.
- Journeys to different trading destinations often posed dangerous and tedious elements (weather, criminal attacks, animal attacks and natural disasters).
- Traders who could not sell goods at their destinations faced the possibility of losing their entire wealth.

On the other hand, merchants were a new class of trader that emerged during the Middle Ages (Medieval England) (Ross, 1996). Merchants were traders to statesmen and businessmen who depended on foreign trade for prosperity (Price, 1989:267). They were mainly middle-class traders, trading and transporting most of their goods via Britain's waterways (Price, 1989:267). Merchants also participated in overseas trade (Price, 1989:267; Ross, 1996). One of several similarities merchants share with traders is that trading routes sometimes involved dangerous and poorly maintained roads (Ross, 1996).

2.5.2.5. Trekking

Trekking as a form of tourism was first introduced by Colonel Jimmy Roberts in 1965, "*a former Ghurkha Officer and Military Attaché at the British Embassy in Kathmandu*" (Hike Nepal, 2011). He provided tents together with Sherpas who acted as guides and cooks for fellow travellers wishing to hike up the mountains of Nepal (Hike Nepal, 2011). As a contrast to this, traditional trekking was a way of life for most Amazonians who moved to new territories in search of life-sustaining recourses (Rival, 2002:xiv). Another form of historical trekking includes the Great Trek (1835-1846) from South Africa's history, where Afrikaners migrated away from the Cape Colony in search of their independence away from British oppression and policies (Boddy-Evans, 2013).

Trekking today is used in adventure tourism as an adventure activity that promotes both cultural and ecotourism experiences (as indicated in Figure 2.6), since a trek usual entails adventure experiences stemming from a combination of distance hiking, visits to local villages and scenic appreciation (Dearden & Harron, 1994:82). Most trekking activities today are associated with hiking in mountainous venues, such as in the Himalayas and Northern Thailand (Cohen, as cited by Geldenhuys, 2009:16).

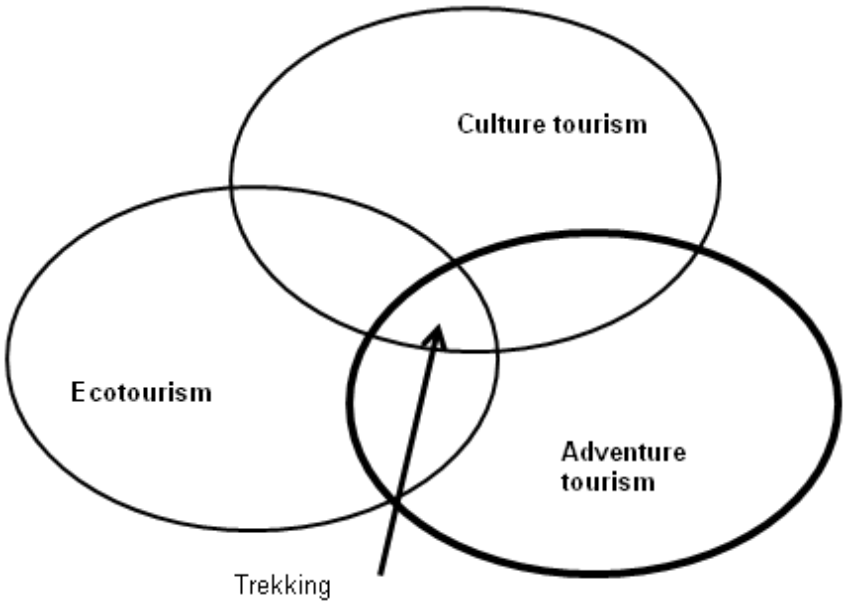

Figure 2.6: Trekking
(Source: Fennell, 1999:53)

2.5.2.6. Outward Bound

Outward Bound began in 1941 in Aberdovey in Wales as a programme centre for the youth, most of who were destined for the armed services (Priest & Gass, 2005:28). The innovative and educational idea that is Outward Bound was initiated by Kurt Hahn, who believed that physical education was important for the well-being of the youth and a tool to decrease social

decline (decline in craftsmanship skills, compassion, fitness, memory and imagination) (Richards, 1990:69). Typical courses at the time included orienteering, obstacle-course training, mountain and ocean expeditions, search-and-rescue, and sailing (Miner, 1990:59; Richards, 1990:70-71). Today, Outward Bound has schools in over 30 countries, catering to a variety of clients, namely inner-city youth, convicted youth, substance abusers, families, business executives, and so on (Outward Bound International, 2013). Outward Bound is also one of the most accomplished organizations in developing benefit-based outdoor adventure programmes and wilderness programmes (Priest & Gass, 2005:28).

2.5.2.7. World War periods

A sense of adventure was also present amongst soldiers during periods of war. Soldiers were shipped out to different territories or countries where the danger of battle was a real possibility. The act of adventure was not a voluntary action, but the idea of duty played a powerful role even if it was as an external influence (Cater, 2013:9). During the Second World War significant numbers of civilians and soldiers where temporarily or permanently displaced (Cater, 2013:9). Despite the fact that permanent displacement is not considered tourism, it provided people with a never before witnessed opening of opportunities and desires to travel (Cater, 2013:9). After the Second World War, inexpensive surplus army supplies and equipment was sold (Buckley, 2000:439). According to the Adventure Travel Society (as cited by Cater, 2013:9), the equipment included jeeps, rafts, backpacks, aquatic gear, camping equipment and firearms. Because most of the equipment was used for overcoming environmental obstacles in inhospitable places, booming sales increased the pursuit for adventure and outdoor recreation endeavours (Buckley, 2000:439). Drastic increases in technological advances after the Second World War also made way for the manufacturing of better and cheaper recreation equipment (Buckley, 2000:439). It is thus evident that the Second World War played an influential role in adventure and adventure tourism as we know it today (Cater, 2013:9).

2.5.3. Growth of adventure tourism

Adventure travel and tourism showed signs of tremendous growth over the last few years, charting a 17% increase in growth between 2009 and 2010 (ATTA, 2011:3). In 2009 the global spending in adventure and volunteer markets was estimated at $89 billion (Chesak & Heyniger, 2011:11). Several key factors over the years have contributed to this growth in adventure tourism (Table 2.4), namely the involvement of commercial tour operators and increased marketing efforts (Buckley, 2000:438), increased environmental awareness (Carnicelli-Filho *et al*., 2010:953), integration of sustainable practices (Kent, Sinclair & Diduck, 2012:89), commercialisation of outdoor recreation activities (Johnson & Edwards, 1994:459), reduction in travel uncertainty (Kane & Tucker, 2004:18), increased awareness of health benefits (Szczechowicz, 2012:225-256) and booming sales in surplus military equipment (Cater,

2013:9). A by-product of sustainable adventure tourism growth pointed to a balance of economic, social and environmental development (Newsome *et al*., 2005:133). This awareness has also encouraged local communities and governments to incorporate adventure tourism in natural areas as a means to promote nature conservation, and to derive economic (employment), social (cultural awareness) and financial benefits (Newsome *et al*., 2005:133). In addition, the adventure travel market penetrated the tourism industry by 26% in 2010, indicating that one in four trips made in 2010 included a component of adventure tourism (ATTA, 2011:3). It is also expected that adventure travel as the reason for all travel will rise to 50% by the year 2050 (ATTA, 2011:3).

Table 2.4: Adventure tourism growth factors

Authors	Growth factors
Johnson and Edwards (1994:459)	• Increases in commercialised outdoor recreation activities.
Buckley (2000:438)	• The involvement of commercial tour operators in providing packaged adventure opportunities. • The recognition of adventure tourism as economically important to local communities. • Increases in technological advances (manufacturing of better and cheaper recreation equipment, improvement in communication technology, more comfortable and accessible transportation systems, etc.).
Buckley (2003:129)	• Increases in adventure marketing and promotion efforts (television, travel magazines, radio, documentaries, brochures, social media blogs etc.)
Kane and Tucker (2004:18)	• Reduction in travel uncertainty (less life-threatening travelling methods compared to historical travel).
Pomfret (2006:114)	• The development and commercial availability of a wider array of land-, air- and water-based adventure activities.
Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010:953)	• Increased environmental awareness (tourists are concerning themselves more with sustainable conservation practices).
Xola Consulting (2010:1)	• The implementation of policies and risk management systems (standards for conducting adventure products).
Kent *et al.*(2012:89)	• The integration of sustainable nature-based tourism practices, policies and planning.
Szczechowicz (2012:225-256)	• Increased awareness of health benefits from participating in adventure activities (social, physical, emotional, spiritual and mental).

Table 2.4: Adventure tourism growth factors (continued)

Authors	Growth factors
Cater (2013:9)	• Booming sales in surplus military equipment (recreation equipment) after World War 2.
Korstanje (2013:438)	• More and more people use adventure tourism as a way to break away from their urbanized lifestyles.

2.5.4. Stakeholders in adventure tourism

A stakeholder is any person, unit or company that can affect the success of an organization's goal (Freeman, 1984:46; Vijayanand, 2013:2). Stakeholders are also referred to as any external factor that can influence internal management activities (Key, 1999:319). Because adventure tourism relies heavily on natural and cultural resources for producing adventure products, it is important to co-operate and communicate with influential stakeholders to achieve sustainable tourism development (Meadows, 2013:6). Sustainable tourism development refers to appropriate and sustainable management of economic, environmental and social resources (Byrd, 2007:6). This includes practices that enhance the long-term prosperity of the local communities and local business profitability, while ensuring that a stable balance exists between sociocultural, economic and environmental costs (Buhalis, 2000:100). Therefore, sustainable adventure tourism efforts should be aimed at meeting the needs of present and future tourists without compromising the future needs of resources (WTO, 1998:21). Figure 2.7 identifies several key stakeholders involved in adventure tourism. To each of these stakeholders "*involvement is particularly germane to sustainable tourism planning*" and differs in functionality, responsibility and interests (Kent *et al*., 2012:89).

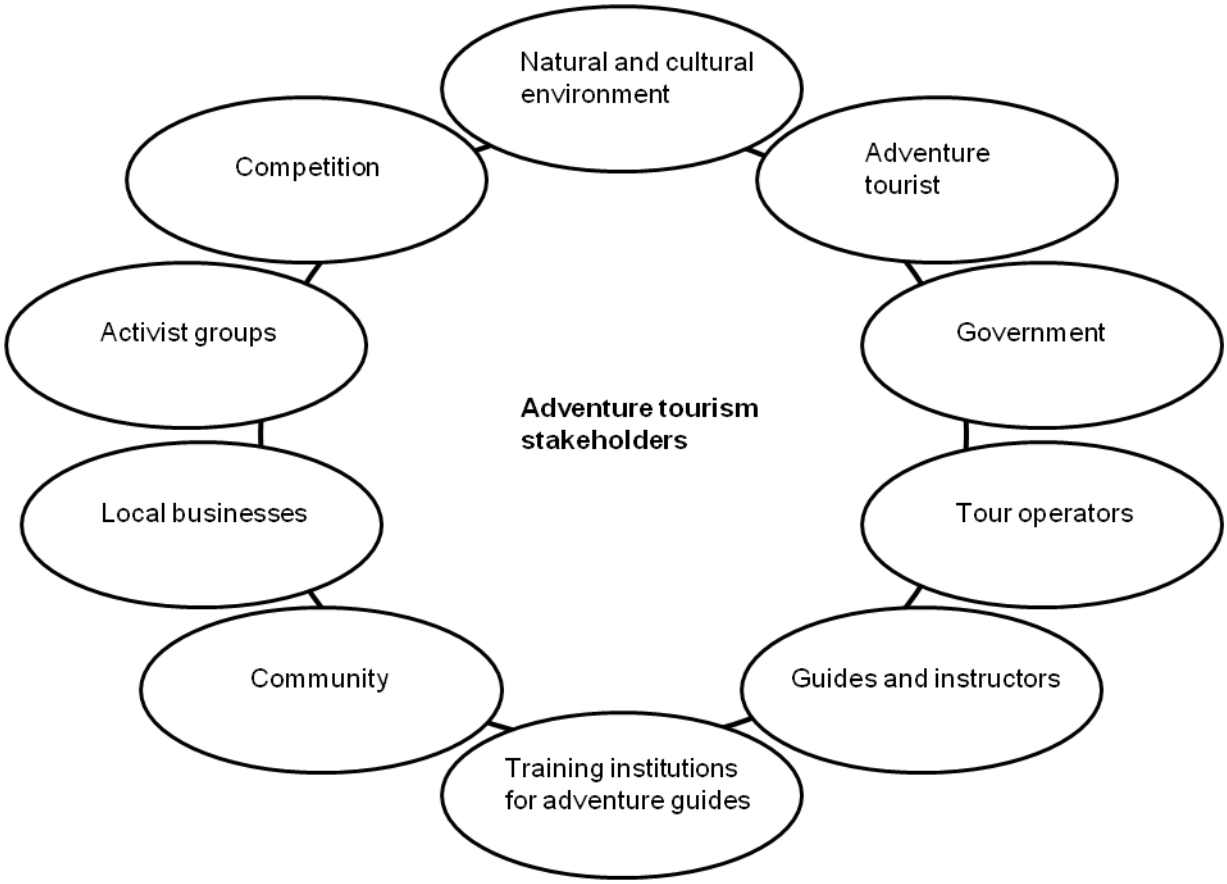

Figure 2.7: Adventure tourism stakeholder map
(Source: adapted from Sautter & Leisen, 1999:315)

2.5.4.1. Natural and cultural environment

The environment is referred to as the setting that stimulates people to travel and comprises both the natural and cultural environment (Lubbe, 2005:73). When considering the Kruger National Park, people are attracted by the Park's fauna and flora (Big Five and low-lying savannahs) and its cultural richness (Lubbe, 2005:73). Cultural experiences are provided by interaction opportunities between tourists and the local Ndebele, Pedi, San, Tsonga and Vena tribes (Siyabona Africa, 2014a). South African National Parks also cover a wide variety of different landscapes, ranging from forests, wetlands, mountains, rivers, grasslands, rock shores and coastlines (Saayman, 2009:45). This variety in landscapes provides the ideal opportunities for water-, air- and land-based activities, for example surfing (water-based) on the coastlines of Agulhas National Park or hiking (land-based) through the Tsitsikamma forests in the Garden Route National Park or hot air ballooning (air-based) over the Golden Gate Highlands National Park. Because adventure activities are nature- and culture-resource dependent, the preliminary concern of all adventure tourism stakeholders should be focused on nature and culture conservation (Meadows, 2013:2-3). For national parks this means that current and new adventure activities should be delivered in a sustainable manner that maintains natural resource usage and the aestheticism of wilderness areas, cultural traditions and historic sites. Natural

resources refer to anything that is not man-made and form part of a natural phenomenon, such as water, soil, plants and animals (Saayman, 2009:59).

2.5.4.2. Adventure tourist

Tourists are the consumers of tourism experiences and activities. A tourist is viewed as a visitor staying at least 24 hours, but not exceeding a full year, outside their normal place of residence for the purpose of leisure, business, family visits or to complete a personal mission (Holloway, 1998:2; Saayman, 2005:127; Steyn & Spencer, 2011:178). During these travels tourists interact with local entertainment, attractions, accommodation, catering and infrastructure, while also spending money at the destination (Saayman, 2005:127; Steyn & Spencer, 2011:178). Adventure tourists differ from traditional tourists because of their purposeful travel to a destination to participate in adventure activities (c.f. 1.1).

2.5.4.3. Government

Governments are considered one of the most important driving forces behind any tourism industry, "*in the sense that they are the mayor stakeholders in the planning, development and management of tourism businesses"* (Lubbe, 2005:172). Government sets the framework within which tourism has to be planned, developed and implemented (Lubbe, 2005:172). There are three tiers of government, namely national, provincial and local, each playing different roles in tourism distribution (Saayman, 2006:126). The following are examples of how each tier of government contributes to the tourism framework (Saayman, 2006:126-128):

- **National government**
  - Provides politically and economically safe and stable environments to all tourists.
  - Sets appropriate legal and fiscal frameworks for the tourism industry.
  - Co-ordinates and liaises with related bodies (nongovernmental organizations, training institutions, universities, ministries and provincial governments), contributing to the development of the tourism industry.
  - Establishes and maintains standards of conduct regarding facilities and services.
  - Promotes sustainable and responsible tourism development.
- **Provincial government**
  - Liaises with nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), training institutes, universities and other bodies related to the training, development and standardization of the tourism industry.
  - Formulates frameworks of conduct for tourism development in a province.
  - Provides appropriate staff and management training and development to ensure that quality service is delivered.

- **Local government**
  - Provides and maintains tourist services, attractions and sites, for example parks, camping sites, heritage sites (rock paintings), recreation facilities and historical sites (farm houses).
  - The establishment of licences that are in accordance with the national framework.
  - Promotes the establishment of local tourism organizations.
  - Facilitates the development of local tourism infrastructure.

From the information above, it is clear that government plays an important part in establishing adventure tourism development frameworks.

2.5.4.4. Tour operators

Tour operators and wholesalers are the intermediaries that bridge the gap between the destination (local entertainment, attractions, accommodation, catering and infrastructure) and the tourism market (Sautter & Leisen, 1999:316). They package and sell commercial products to clients (Buckley, 2007:1428). Regarding adventure activities, tour operators aim to minimize risks by only selling a semblance of the risk to adventure tourists by implementing policies and standards of conduct (Buckley, 2012:961). Tour operator involvement and responsibilities may also vary in the delivery of adventure products (Buckley, 2012:961). A tour operator selling a white-water rafting trip may, for example provide anything from pre-trip arrangements, river access, food and accommodation, transportation, equipment, a raft and the expertise of a guide as a packaged offer (Buckley, 2007:1428).

2.5.4.5. Guides and instructors

A tourist guide is described as *"any person who, for monetary or other reward, accompanies people who are travelling through or visiting any place within a country, and who furnishes those people with information or comments concerning a place or objects visited"* (Gauteng Guides Association, 2013). Although this is a broad description of what the duties of a tourist guide entail, the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEAT) includes adventure guides as being part of this description (AQN, 2013).

There are also different types of tourist guide, including (AQN, 2013)

- Adventure guide - a person conducting a guided adventure experience (i.e. mountain climbing, river rafting, diving, etc.). They are often regarded as the gatekeepers for the negotiation of adventure experiences (Cater & Cloke, 2007:15). From a participant's perspective, adventure guides are mostly considered to be the physically active, example-setting, knowledgeable and *'out-doorsy'* person who guides adventure activities (Cater & Cloke, 2007:15). Adventure guides can be employed or remunerated by

commercial operators or directly by adventure tourists to take responsibility for all the duties subject to the activity (Greffrath & Roux, 2011:408). This can include equipment, accommodation, transport and meal arrangements.

- Nature guide - a person conducting a guided natural experience, limited to a geographical area (i.e. national parks and game reserves)
- Cultural guide - a person conducting a guided cultural experience, limited to a geographical area (i.e. museums, historical sites, communities, etc.)
- Site guide - a person conducting a tour in a specific area or around a specific building or attraction.
- Specialist guide - a guide with extensive knowledge in his/her chosen field (Jamie Tom Conservation Safaris, 2014). This can be anything from fishing, hunting, birding and photography to history.

Even though the mentioned guides differ with regard to profession, they all have a common connection within the context of adventure tourism (Chesak & Heyniger, 2011:5). On the other hand, an adventure instructor refers to a person who combines company resources, environmental resources (gear and equipment) and competence (past experiences and qualifications) to teach, present and mentor adventure activities to tourists (AYM, 2013).

2.5.4.6. Training institutions for adventure guides

Adventure training institutions provide programmes that give first-hand outdoor adventure instruction to trainees wishing to become guides, instructors or adventure sports coaches (COTR, 2014). These programmes can cover all kinds of adventure activities from climbing, navigation, canoeing and orientation to team building and leadership (The Adventure Centre, 2014). Some institutions, like The Adventure Centre in the United Kingdom, provide courses that can be tailor-made to fit the aims and objectives of the trainee (The Adventure Centre, 2014). Completing adventure training programmes at accredited centres or institutions can provide guides with professional and industry certifications to legally present adventure activities (AQN, 2014; COTR, 2014). In South Africa, all tourist guide trainers and assessors have to be accredited by CATHSETA to be able to train according to nationalized standards (AQN, 2014). Outward Bound is but one of many institutions that provides learning opportunities through outdoor adventure experiences in South Africa (Outward Bound South Africa, 2014). The Adventure Qualification Network is another example of a training institution in South Africa that provides specialized guide courses in paddling, rock climbing, abseiling, canyoneering and mountain climbing (AQN, 2014).

2.5.4.7. Community

The local community is one of the most influential stakeholders that can directly affect the internal management of the activities of any tourism organization (Vijayanand, 2013:4). Their involvement is based on the objective of benefitting from local tourism operations (Newsome *et al*., 2005:23). Benefits received from tourism operations can include local infrastructure development, employment, education, economic and financial growth, and community involvement in the tourism planning and decision-making process (Newsome *et al*., 2005:23). Community stakeholders can range from local residents and community leaders to operators and service providers (Byrd, 2007:6). Local residents can be involved in adventure tourism through their employment as guides, instructors or cultural advisors (Geldenhuys & Saayman, 2009:30). Besides the financial benefit of employment, most rural communities depend on natural resources for their day-to-day survival. Educating these rural communities on the appropriate consumption of natural resources is imperative to the future sustainability of the area's natural resources (Geldenhuys & Saayman, 2009:30). It is the responsibility of tourism planners to educate and inform local communities and visitors regarding sustainable practices and local tourism development strategies (Erkus-Ozturk & Eraydin, 2010:2).

If local community members are excluded from tourism development strategies, their alienated responses can drive away tourism potential (Geldenhuys & Saayman, 2009:30). This was the case for a national park in Akamas, where the exclusion of community input resulted in villager uprising against the development process in the Park (Ioannides, 1995:590). Community leaders should thus be part of the tourism development decision-making team to execute public power from the collective decisions of citizens (Nanz & Steffek, 2004:316). Other forms of community participation include public hearings, focus groups, surveys, citizen review panels and public deliberation (Byrd, 2007:8).

2.5.4.8. Local businesses

Shopping is one of the most important parts of a tourism experience and often involves a much larger trade area than that from local residents during holidays (Ryan, Bloms, Hovland & Scheler, 1999:1). Local businesses can provide tourism-related services, such as transport, hospitality and the supply of adventure equipment and utilities (Meadows, 2013:4). The ownership and management of local tourism businesses also help to keep profits from leaving the community (Kreag, 2001:16). Alternatively, public service providers can also play a part in tourism development; this includes services, such as local law enforcement and emergency services. Fluctuations in tourist visitations can also directly impact local economies, thus it is vital that all aspects of tourism planning and development should be communicated to tourism-related service providers (Meadows, 2013:4).

2.5.4.9. Competition

Classical business literature indicates that the main purpose of a business is to make profit (Kasimoğlu, 2012:1). This is also applicable to South African National Parks (SANParks, 2013a). The ability to make profit can depend on the ability to provide a competitive advantage over rivals (Kasimoğlu, 2012:1). In adventure tourism there are ten pillar principles that determine adventure tourism competitiveness (ATTA, 2010a:10). These principles can be categorised into three factors: safe and welcoming, adventure resources and readiness (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5: Pillars of adventure tourism competitiveness

Safe and welcoming	Adventure	Readiness
Sustainable development policy	Entrepreneurship	Humanitarian
Safety and security	Adventure activity resources	Infrastructure
Natural resources		Cultural resources
Health (healthcare)		Image

(Source: ATTA, 2010a:10)

Each of the ten pillars plays a crucial role in adventure tourism development and adventure market competitiveness. The ten pillars are as follows (ATTA, 2010a:11-15):

- **Sustainable development policy**. Government policies that support sustainable rural tourism development can aid in safeguarding a destination's natural, heritage and cultural resources. By coordinating the public and private sectors through these policies, new investment and development can be attracted to the region.
- **Safety and security**. Safety and security are concerned with the degree to which adventure operators provide for the safety of the adventure tourist, and whether or not they have facilities and expertise to cope with possible injuries. The more transparent the tour operator is towards standards of conduct and the ability to react on real risk situations, the safer it would be for the adventure tourists to carry out the adventure activity.
- **Natural resources**. Adventure tourists react positively to unspoilt and well-managed natural resources and will give praise to an operator who does not exploit unusual or rare natural resources.
- **Health**. Health refers to the level of healthcare available in the region or in the country. A higher number of physicians and hospital facilities (hospital beds) found in a region could indicate a higher level of healthcare.
- **Entrepreneurship**. Entrepreneurship can be considered as the ability to try new activities, provide new experiences and to implement new technologies and can be

measured by determining the region's economic freedom (i.e. investment freedom, financial freedom, trade freedom, business freedom, etc.)

- **Adventure activity resources**. Adventure activity resources refer to the destination's ability to support different adventure activities, for example rivers are excellent for canoeing or mountains for mountaineering.
- **Humanitarian**. This pillar is concerned with human development through authentic and unscripted experiences. The opportunity to voluntarily participate in relevant causes, such as anti-poaching initiatives, can provide adventure tourists with these experiences.
- **Infrastructure**. There are two types of adventure tourism infrastructure, namely hard and soft infrastructure. Hard infrastructure has to do with substantial capital investment, such as roads, facilities, trails and lodging, while soft infrastructure has to do with a low capital outlay, such as trail maps, accessibility to information, outfitters and ground operators, and training programmes (to become a guide or interpreter).
- **Cultural resources**. The availability of authentic cultural interactions is a vital investment for a destination/tour operator if it encourages local people to preserve their culture and heritage and does not unethically exploit their traditions.
- **Image**. This has to do with the adventure tourist's perception of a destination. Sustainable development strategies and the availability of adventure opportunities are but some of the aspects that influence the image of an adventure destination.

There are also challenging opportunities that stem from rivalry to gain the competitive advantage. These opportunities can result in either positive or negative competition. Positive competition is achieved if the competitive decision benefits most if not all of adventure tourism stakeholders, while negative competition is the result of the exploitation of natural (causes pollution) and cultural resources (causes imperialism) to gain profitable advantages (Kreag, 2001:8). Negative competition goes against sustainable tourism development and should be avoided (Tshipala & Coetzee, 2012:1). In conclusion, national parks must consider all ten pillars of adventure tourism competitiveness when developing new adventure activities to gain a respectable competitive advantage, while avoiding any decisions detrimental to the integrity of the parks' natural and cultural resources.

2.5.4.10. Activist groups

Activist groups can be environmental groups that are concerned about the protection of natural environments or residential groups that are concerned about local quality-of-life values (Sautter & Leisen, 1999:316). Amongst quality-of-life values lie the preservation and conservation of local cultural traditions (Sautter & Leisen, 1999:316). Local tourism stakeholders should therefore aim to develop the industry in a way that can yield both optimum economic growth and social benefits, without distressing local cultures and communities (Sautter & Leisen, 1999:320).

This is of the utmost importance within the adventure tourism industry, especially where adventure activities (cultural tours and dances) use cultural interaction as their main attraction (Fennell, 1999:53). In the interest of positive cultural interaction, local communities should be able to determine their own preferred level of interaction with visitors (Newsome *et al*., 2005:23).

2.6. The adventure tourist

Historically, affluent and elite members (economically, culturally and socially influential) of society who went on excursions to remote locations might be thought of as the first adventure tourists (Beedie, 2008:177). The journey and the destination were often rife with demanding and difficult conditions (Millington, 2001:69). Travellers who went on these excursions deviated from the norm of pleasure travel or travel for survival to have novel and exciting experiences (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). On these travels the need for novel experiences was stimulated by cultural exchange and interaction with nature (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56). Even today, adventure tourists seek novel and stimulating experiences through natural and cultural interaction to fulfil their high emotional needs (Williams & Souter, 2009:415). They are generally acknowledged as demanding and discerning consumers (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56). The following profile depicts the adventure tourist according to profile and behaviours:

2.6.1. Adventure tourist profile

Adventure tourists are fairly evenly distributed between the female and male gender (ATTA, 2010b:4). However, there is a discrepancy between the genders soft and hard adventure tourism is concerned. Slightly more males tend to opt for hard adventure activities (Sung, 2004:349), whereas slightly more females tend to opt for the soft adventure activities (ATTA, 2010b:4). The majority of adventure tourists are young adults of about 35 years old, which is also considered young when compared to mainstream tourists whose average age is 42 years (Sung, 2004:349; ATTA, 2010b:4).

The characteristic quality portrait of adventure tourists is not based on age per se, but rather on the attitude for adventure - *"a spirit of adventure and enthusiasm"* (Ogilvie & Dickinson, 1992:45). However, more mature tourists (45 years and older) are more likely to participate in temperate adventure activities, such as bird watching and game viewing (Loverseed, 1997:91-92). Young adventure tourists (19-34 years old) are more likely to be attracted to strenuous and risky activities, such as rock climbing and white-water rafting (Grant, 2011:3). It is therefore not uncommon to segment adventure tourists according to age groups (Grant, 2011:3). Table 2.6 is a short summary of how adventure tourists from different generations are segmented according to their characteristics.

Table 2.6: Adventure tourists profile by age

Age segment	Characteristic
Generation Z (born between 1995-2012)	They are technologically savvy, budget travellers that use the internet and familiarity of childhood exposure to travel and family vacations to plan trips (Petrak, 2011). They tend to engage in independent travel (although still parent dependent) outside the scope of tour operators (Petrak, 2011).
Generation Y (born between 1977-1994)	Small budget for travels, have time to travel, value seekers, seek authentic experiences, trekking long distances and seek social experiences (Grant, 2011:4).
Generation X (born between 1966-1976	Confident navigators seeking new destinations and good deals, limited time for travel (mostly during holidays) and also seek once in a lifetime experiences (Grant, 2011:4).
Baby Boomers (born between 1946-1964)	Seek new experiences or recreate old experiences from when they were young, have extra time and money, limited internet experience, book through tour operators and may take several trips a year (Grant, 2011:4).

In respect of socioeconomics, adventure tourists are more likely to be single or married and tend to travel with spouses, friends and family (Sung, 2004:350; Tourism and Events Queensland, 2008:6; ATTA, 2010b:4). They have obtained high levels of education compared to your typical leisure tourist, "*with 70% of hard adventurers having post-secondary education and 63% of soft adventurers having post-secondary education*" (ATTA, 2010b:4). A large number of adventure tourists also occupies managerial positions or pursues a professional occupation (Sung, 2004:350). Because of high responsibility careers the average adventure tourist tends to be more affluent than the typical leisure tourist (Sung, 2004:350). Adventure tourists usually make better-calculated decisions based on their theoretical and experiential knowledge of a destination and its activities (Sung, 2004:350).

Adventure tourists can also make decisions based on commercial or private responsibility (Jonas, as sited by Greffrath & Roux, 2011:407). Private adventure tourists refer to those who organize and carry out their own adventure experiences. In this scenario all the duties (food, equipment, transport, accommodation, access, etc.) and expenses are shared between the adventure tourists no matter what the duty involves (Greffrath & Roux, 2011:408). Private groups can also contract outfitters to provide them with the necessary adventure equipment and supplies (Buckley, 2006:3). In some cases an outfitter can be contracted to provide a competent guide to assist the private trip (Buckley, 2006:3).

Alternatively, commercial adventure tourists refer to those who pay licensed guides to take responsibility for all the duties subject to the activity (Greffrath & Roux, 2011:408). In the case of a white-water rafting trip, these duties can include pre-trip arrangements, river access, food and accommodation, transportation, and boat operations. Guides are also generally arranged by tour operators - packaging and selling commercial tourism products to retail clients (Buckley, 2007:1428). Commercial tourism operators usually provide adventure tourists with a passenger experience, rather than teaching them the necessary skills to perform the risky activity independently (Buckley, 2012:964). In fact, commercial adventure tourists do not necessarily identify risk as a major motivation for participating in adventure activities (Schrader & Wann, 1999:437-438). In addition, the bulk of adventure activities exist within the commercial sector and possess significantly higher participation volumes when compared to those of the private sector (Buckley, 2007:1432).

2.6.2. Adventure tourist behaviour

Adventure tourists are separate from other tourism markets because their different needs and motives for participating in adventure activities greatly influence their travel behaviours (Van der Merwe, 2009:232). Needs and motives are tools that help leisure service providers to better understand the individual and the collective behaviours of the customers they serve (Edginton, Hudson, Dieser & Edginton, 2004:128). Although motivation is a reflection of inner needs, the following will discuss the needs and motives of adventure tourists separately in order to provide clarity on differences and similarities.

2.6.2.1. Adventure tourist needs

"*A need can be thought of as an individual, physical, psychological, or social imbalance*" (Edginton *et al*., 2004:128). Physiological needs are considered to be the basic needs for human existence and form part of the biological drive for survival (Edginton, Hudson & Ford, 1999:75). Physiological needs can include the need for water, food, safety, housing, sex and sleep (Edginton *et al*., 1999:75). On the other hand, our psychological and social needs are more difficult to assess but are linked to the need for companionship, love, safety, self-esteem, self-actualization, achievement, recognition and power (Edginton *et al*., 1999:75). Adventure tourists, like with any other tourist, have basic physiological and psychological needs that ought to be fulfilled before travelling to a destination, during travels and at the destination.

- **Physiological needs of adventure tourists**

All adventure tourists have basic physiological needs and if any one of these needs is neglected, the adventure activity can result in a misadventure or disastrous experience. Walle (1997:21) suggests that individuals will only voluntarily participate in adventure if the need for safety and security is met. This means having a certain degree of control over the risks and

dangers involved by following guidelines, using safety gear and applying necessary skills (Buckley, 2012:962; Terblanche, 2012:67). The same can be said for basic biological and physiological needs, such as the need for food, water, sleep and air (Walle, 1997:21). Another basic physiological need is the need for sex, which has also been noted as a force behind tourism activities (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:48). Because sex tourism can sometimes involve dangerous and unfamiliar outcomes (illegal sexual services, blackmail, robbery and the contraction of sexual diseases) it can be recognized as a form of adventure (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:48).

- **Psychological and social needs of adventure tourists**

The need for adventure can be described as a driving force for seeking various forms of stimulation that are linked with our psychological and social needs (Gregg, 2009). This can include the need for arousal, agreeableness, competitiveness, achievement, learning, uniqueness, cultural experiences, contrasting emotions, thrill and companionship (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:705-707). Firstly, adventure tourists can experience arousal if they achieve stimulation through activities that excite them (c.f. 2.3.6). They achieve stimulation when both mind and the senses are positively affected by the feeling of excitement from participating or before participation (Gilchrist, 1994:35; Williams & Harvey, 2001:249; Schnieder & Vogt, 2012:705). Secondly, the need for agreeableness in adventure is perceived as co-operative, compliant, trustworthy behaviours that are also associated with playfulness (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:705). Within the context of adventure, play refers to performing an activity below personal capabilities without the fear of physical harm (c.f. 2.4.2). Thirdly, the need for competitiveness refers to a person's desire to win and receive some form of reward (internal or external) for accomplishment or achievement (c.f. 2.3.4). Fourthly, the need for learning and seeking new information forms goes hand in hand with the discovery and exploration of new and unfamiliar situations (c.f. 2.3.8). Fifthly, the need for uniqueness or novelty is a core characteristic of adventure and is referred to as the pursuit of gaining new sensational experiences or differentness (c.f. 2.3.5). Sixthly, the need for cultural experiences can involve interaction with cultural settlements, traditions, people, art history and other cultural diversities (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). Seventhly, the need for thrill is described as seeking an adrenaline-producing experience filled with excitement (c.f. 2.4.4.2). Lastly, the need for companionship can be met when adventure tourists travel, compete or participate alongside spouses, friends and family (Tourism and Events Queensland, 2008:6).

2.6.2.2. Adventure tourist motives

The motivation that drives tourists to travel or to explore new destinations can be described as being a "*combination of needs and desires that affect the propensity to travel in a general sense*" (O'Leary & Deegan, 2005:247). It is a crucial indicator to why tourists behave in certain

ways (Meng, Tepanon & Uysal, 2008:43). Motivation is also synonymous with concepts, such as reason, propelling force, and the cause to take purposeful action (Mlozi & Pesämaa, 2013:66).

The link between risk and adventure has always been seen as the most powerful motivator for adventurers to participate in adventure tourism (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:70). Other than the pursuit to overcome risk, adventure tourists can also display a variety of other adventure travel and participation motives (Mortlock, 1984; Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994; Kane & Tucker, 2004; Cater, 2006; Varley, 2006; Scott & Mowen, 2007; Beedie, 2008; William & Soutar, 2009; Carnicelli-Filho *et al.*, 2010; Buckley, 2012). The following motivational aspects are identified and discussed as motives that propel a person towards taking adventure trips or holidays:

- **Internal and external motives**

Tourists are intrinsically motivated to enjoy holidays because it is taken as a reflection of their internal needs, pushing them to experience inner satisfaction (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:66). Intrinsic motivations are closely linked to Maslow's (1943) original five-fold hierarchical need model (Pearce, 1996:13). According to Maslow's model, biological and physiological needs are the most basic needs for human life to exist (c.f. 2.6.2.1). Following physiological needs, based on their level of necessity, are the need for safety and security (stimulating response in adventure), belongingness (membership, companionship or rivalry), self-development (acquiring new skills and knowledge) and self-esteem (achievement or mastery of skills), and fulfilment (inner harmony or reaching required outcomes) (Pearce, 1996:13; Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:67). Belongingness, self-development, and fulfilment are all needs that can be fulfilled through the performance of adventure activities (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:67; Buckley, 2012:962). A feeling of belongingness can be achieved if a person brings his/her own level of expertise and skills to a collaborative adventure activity (Terblanche, 2012:66). Self-development and self-esteem can be enhanced if a person overcomes a fear, learns a skill or learns self-control, while the need for fulfilment can be achieved if a person overcomes a challenge or completes the adventure activity (Buckley, 2012:962). Besides being motivated by the fulfilment of these needs, adventure tourists may also be internally motivated by the experiences obtained from performing adventure activities, such as a sense of thrill, rush or flow (Table 2.7). Internal motives to participate in adventure activities are mainly determined by the person's ability to competently overcome situational challenges and risks (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994:127).

External motives, however, are created as a result of external influences, such as the characteristics of destination or the attributes of an attraction (Buckley, 2012:962). In adventure tourism, this can range from the natural and cultural environments to different social encounters (Buckley, 2012:962). External motives are also dynamic in nature, meaning that the adventure

activity in itself might not always be the primary reason for participation (Fluker & Turner, 2010:381). Considering the social environment, people might seek adventure tourism as a way to spend time with family and friends, to compete (adventure sports), obtain prestige (status boasting) or simply to meet new people (Deci & Ryan, 2000:234; Schneider & Vogt, 2012:706). Besides separating external motives from internal motives, they can also have overlapping roles based on their place in nature. For example, the natural environment can be seen as an external attraction, while appreciating nature's surrounding beauty is considered an internal experience (Buckley, 2012:962).

By identifying the reasons why visitors participate in adventure activities in national parks, South African National Parks can adjust the focus of adventure activity outcomes towards better fulfilling these needs. This could potentially attract more visitors who participate in adventure activities and result in increased lengths of stay, increased participation return rates and higher levels of enjoyment (Crompton & McKay, 1997:426; Yolal, Çetinel & Uysal, 2009). Therefore, internal and external adventure participation motives were employed in this study and used in the development of the questionnaire.

Table 2.7: Motivations for adventure activities

Internal (performance of activity)	
Thrill	Adrenalin and feeling of excitement
Fear	The ability to overcome fear
Control	Emotional, physical and mental control over one's body
Skills	Personal skills and expertise to perform a task
Fitness	Performing an activity for fitness purposes
Achieve	Overcome challenges and emotional reward
Risk	The danger involved can be a direct motivation
Flow	Intense psychological and adsorbing state of mental focus (Hoe *et al.,* 2010:412)
Rush	Combination of both thrill and flow
Internal/External (place in nature)	
Nature	The physical environment - appreciating the surrounding beauty
Art	An artistic perception of an activity
Spirit	Spiritual experiences revived from participation
External (social position)	
Friends	Sharing activity experiences, co-operation
Image	Enhance one's perception amongst others and status
Escape	Routine away from work or home
Compete	Possibly to compete against others

(Source: Buckley, 2012:962)

- **Push and Pull factors**

Tourists' motives to travel are generally divided into two categories, namely push and pull factors. Push and pull factors are recognized for the influence they exercise on tourist travel behaviours (Saayman, 2006:35). They are also used as the framework for identifying and examining tourist motivations to travel (Dann, 2002:79). The influential outcome of these factors can initiate the need to travel, which is caused by several forces (Pike, 2008:210). Needs, motives and destination attributes are the key forces at work in the tourist decision-making process for choosing a travel destination and its activities (Cooper & Hall, 2008:69; Dann, 2002:79; Decrop, 2006:9). The following identifies the differences between push and pull factors and the forces/attributes that initiate the need for travel (Figure 2.8):

- **Push factors**

Push factors are defined by the need to travel caused by disequilibrium occurrences in a person's motivational system (Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003:170). Disequilibrium occurrences are intangible forces that can influence a person's desire to travel and also create the need to satisfy such desires (Van Vuuren, 2010:20). Therefore, push factors can be a direct reflection of tourist needs and motives (Naghiloo, Asgarian, Moharramzadeh, Nobakht & Hosseini, 2011:338). Saayman (2006:35) identifies nine push motives for travel, including: escaping routine, rest and relaxation, self-esteem, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, social interaction, obtaining benefits, and fulfilling interests. These motives might be the primary themes under the category push factors but other forms of push motives can also be considered for initiating travel. Adventure travel push motives can include seeking novelty, increasing knowledge, exploring different cultures, trying luck, finding thrills and experiencing excitement (Bashar & Abdelnaser, 2011:20). In summary, push factors are any social-psychological construct that involves the tourist and his/her environment (Saayman, 2006:35).

- **Pull factors**

Pull factors are conceptualized as those factors that attract tourists to a particular holiday destination (Saayman, 2006:33). They are known as the physical characteristics of the destination and are based on tangible forces (Van Vuuren, 2010:21). Pull factors are thus directly linked to the external aspects of a location and can play an influential role in the final travel decision (Devesa, Laguna & Palacios, 2010:547). Alternatively, it is not always a destination's actual attributes that can pull visitors but also the perceptions and expectations that visitors have about the destination (Page, Brunt, Busby & Connell, 2001:62; Lam & Hsu, 2005:589; Decrop, 2006:79). Whether it is actual and perceived, the following are regarded as pull attributes of a destination: climate, historical sites, scenic beauty, cultural events, recreational opportunities, information services, and the transportation infrastructure (Saayman,

2006:35). Pull attributes for adventure can include wildlife, the natural setting and interaction with other cultures (c.f. 2.5.4.1).

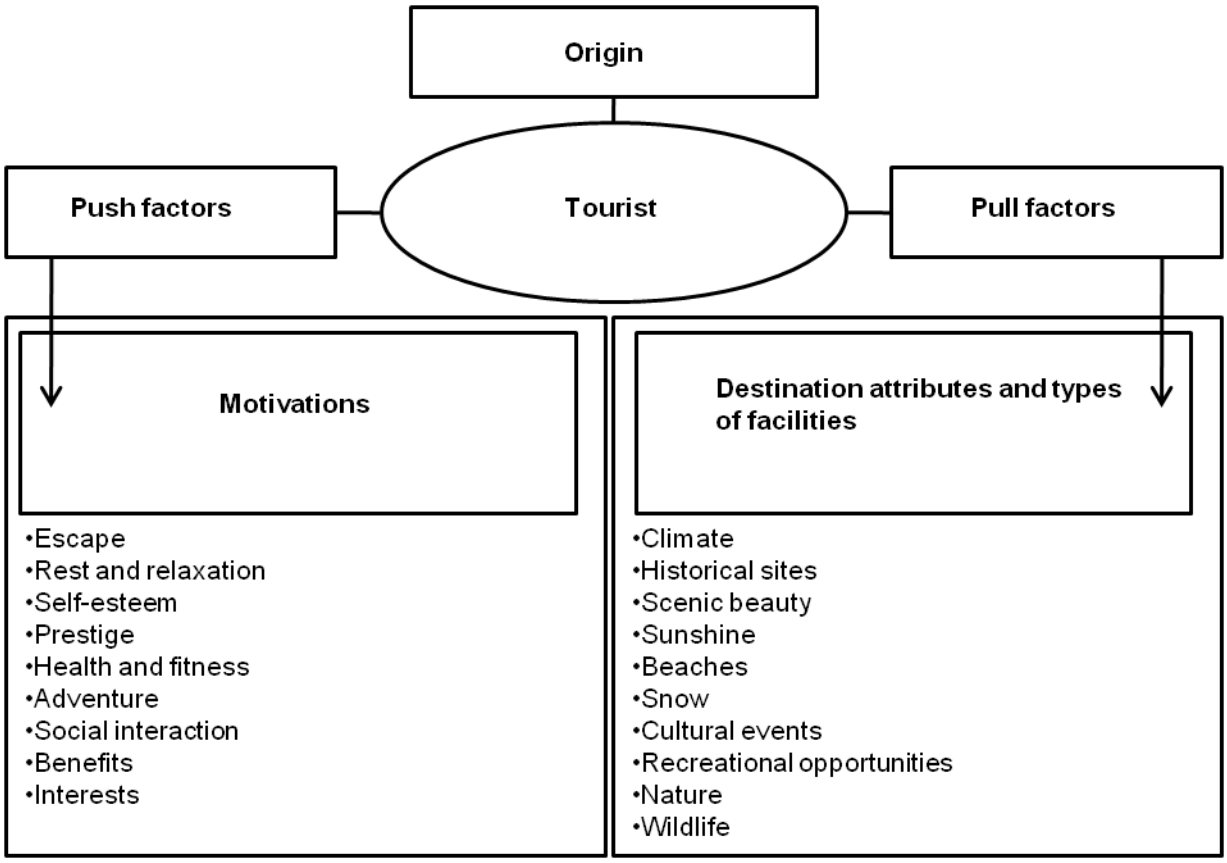

Figure 2.8: Push and pull attributes of tourist motivations

(Source: Saayman, 2006:35)

2.6.3. Categorizing adventure tourists

The distinguishing attributes found for adventure participation amongst adventure tourist sets adventure tourism apart from any other tourism market. Unlike generic leisure motives, adventure tourists can have distinctly diverse motives for participating in adventure tourism (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003:56-57). This means that the meaning of adventure may vary from person to person (Van Walen, 2011). Fortunately, there are several ways to categorize different adventure tourists. One way to categorize adventure tourists is according to a continuum of responsibility in risk management (Brown, 2000:37). Another way in which one could categorize adventure tourists is according to the generally accepted soft and hard adventure continuum (Van der Merwe, 2009:237). The following will discuss how tourists are categorized according to the continuum of responsibility in risk management and the adventure continuum.

2.6.3.1. Continuum of responsibility in risk management

Brown (2000:37) provides a model that can help scale adventure tourists according to their degree of responsibility in adventure activities. Brown's model consists of four stages,

"Passenger to Participant to Partner to Practitioner" (Brown, 2000:37). The model communicates the type of role the tourist exhibits when there are changes to his/her level of responsibility (Beedie, 2000:180). At the low responsibility end, the '*passenger',* the providers are expected to carry all the responsibility (Brown, 2000:37). *'Passengers'* are expected to experience the activity without viewing it as an opportunity to develop their own skills (Brown, 2000:38). This is a typical example of commercial adventure tourism, where tourists experience outdoor adventure activities as '*passengers'*, without the necessity of learning skills to carry out the activity in person (mainly just abiding by the rules) (Buckley, 2012:964). At this end of the continuum the adventure tourists must understand some of the risks involved, accept the need to act responsibly, be attentive, and put into practice what is expected from them (Brown, 2000:38). Beedie (2008:180) suggests that the majority of adventure tourists may arguably be part of this stage. However, once a participant brings his/her own skills (mental, emotional or physical) to the table, together with the desire to develop these skills, the *'passenger'* role changes to a *'participant'* role (Brown, 2000:38). The majority of adventure activities currently provided in national parks places the participant in the role of either a '*passenger'* (night drives and game viewing) or '*participant*' (bush walks and canoeing) (SANParks, 2013a). In the *'partner'* stage the adventure tourist must recognize the need to take responsibility for assessing situations, understand the problems involved, and solve these problems by implementing different strategies (Brown, 2000:38). Furthermore, the instructor only acts as the support line to the participant, providing him/her with the necessary information (Brown, 2000:38). An example of the *'partner'* stage would be white-river kayaking, where both the guide and participants are involved in a two-way exchange of information regarding river threats and routes (Kane & Zink, 2004:336). At the advanced and final stage of the continuum lies the '*practitioner'.* In this stage the adventure tourist has the complete independent ability to perform the adventure activity on his/her own and accepts all responsibility (Brown, 2000:38). Participating in adventure activities at this stage requires the participant to be committed for extended periods of time (Buckley, 2012:94).

2.6.3.2. Soft and hard adventure tourists

Because adventure experiences can range from the routine to the extreme, adventure tourists can be divided according to the soft and hard adventure continuum (c.f. 2.4.4). The following identifies the differences between soft and hard adventure tourists:

- **Soft adventure tourists**

Soft adventure tourism is known as the *bread-and-butter* of the adventure sector because most adventure trips are undertaken by soft adventure tourists (Buckley, 2006:6; ATTA, 2010b:5). According to Schott (2007:259), soft adventure tourists are tourists who seek "*activities with perceived risk but low levels of real risk, requiring minimal commitment and beginning skills;*

most of these activities are led by experienced guides" (c.f. 2.4.4.1). Soft adventure tourists can also be referred to as casual participants who are more vicarious about trivial adventure experiences and the presentation of packaged adventure offerings (Beedie, 2011:181). Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980) is considered the dominant market in soft adventure tourism and is more likely to include children, spouses, friends and parents as part of the travel party (Mill, 2010). Unlike hard adventure tourists, soft adventure tourists are usually not motivated by risk but rather by escapism, novelty, excitement, socialization and self-discovery (Lipscombe, as cited by Pomfret, 2006:116).

- **Hard adventurer tourists**

Hard adventure tourists voluntarily participate in highly challenging and risky adventure activities that require physical and mental skills to perform (c.f. 2.4.4.2). These activities push adventure tourists to go beyond their comfort zones (Jenkins, 2009:11) in search of learning experiences, arousal, adrenaline rush and self-efficacy (Scott & Mowen, 2007:154; Buckley, 2012:961). Hard adventure tourists are also seen as affluent tourists (c.f. 2.6.1), spending on average an additional 87% of total travel costs on adventure gear and supplies (Chesak & Heyniger, 2011:13). Comfort, accommodation, weather conditions and dietary requirements are usually considered secondary concerns for hard adventure tourists on adventure trips (Allen, 2010). Compared to soft adventure tourists, hard adventure tourists are more likely to participate in only one activity than to seek several activities (Mill, 2010).

2.7. Conclusion

This chapter was aimed at providing an analysis of adventure tourism. It was found that the term adventure is related to many qualities, including uncertainty of outcome, danger and risk, challenge, anticipated rewards, novelty, stimulation and excitement, escapism and separation, exploration and discovery, absorption and focus, contrasting emotions, and education (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). The combining effects of all these qualities could guarantee an adventure experience (Van der Merwe, 2009:9). The most significant of these qualities are risk and challenge, because they are used in many adventure experience theories to categorize adventure experiences. According to most, if not all adventure experience theories, the optimal/peak/frontier adventure experience is only achieved if a person's personal competence matches the situational risks found in adventure activities (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). If a person is motivated by the performance aspects of adventure activities, such as overcoming a challenge, risk or fear, it is part of an internal motive to participate, while external adventure motives are caused by external influences, such as destination attributes (natural environment) or social attributes (cultural environment) (Buckley, 2012:962).

Historically, people were motivated to travel for survival or in pursuit of wealth, new land, religion or scientific insight (Ewert, 1989:26). Adventure was only considered a by-product on most of these travels, even though most involved taking challenging and dangerous routes with uncertainty of outcome (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). Amongst these travels and its travellers emerged themes that did, however, contribute to adventure tourism as we know it today, such as explorers and adventurers, pilgrims, travel writers, merchants and traders, trekking, etc. It was only in the 18th century that adventure tourism became recognized as travel to exotic and distant places to participate in unique activities (Kane & Tucker, 2004:219). Since then adventure tourism has shown signs of tremendous growth (ATTA, 2011:3).

Today adventure tourism is an alternative form of tourism that overlaps with several nature-based types of tourism (car camping, wilderness tourism, wildlife tourism and eco-tourism), but is distinguished from these types of tourism by the needs, motives and attributes of its adventure market (Swarbrooke *et al*., 2003:9). Adventure tourists tend to be young, affluent, educated and thrill seekers (Williams & Soutar, 2009:415). They are also categorized as being either soft or hard adventure tourists (Schott, 2007:259). Soft adventure tourists seek low-competence/low-risk adventure activities, while hard adventure tourists seek high-competence/high-risk adventure activities (Van der Merwe, 2009:9). By identifying the differences between adventure tourists and their participation behaviours and motives, national parks can develop an appropriate array of adventure activities that will fulfil various visitor needs.

CHAPTER 3
ADVENTURE TOURISM PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Introduction

A product is defined as "*anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that may satisfy a want or a need*" (Kotler, 1984:463). This is either a tangible (goods) or non-tangible (services) result of the production service, where the offering provides specific benefits to the customer (Godlewski, 2009:201). Besides being goods or services, products can also be a person, place, organization or even an idea (Kotler, 1984:463; Smith, S.L.J., 1994:584).

A tourism product, however, is a combination of all the components a tourist consumes during his/her travels (Koutoulas, 2004:1). The tourism product includes the total tourist experience that meets its expectations, including experiences with natural, historical and cultural attractions, entertainment, accommodation, transportation, catering and the hosts (Republic of Serbia, 2013). Tourism products can also come in the form of tangible or intangible components (Koutoulas, 2004:1). Tangible tourism components include all destination structures, such as hotels, buildings, restaurants, resorts and transportation (Saayman, 2006:111). Intangible tourism components include festivals, events, tour packages, tourism routes and all the services rendered in providing the total tourism experience (Saayman, 2006:111). These same components are also found within the adventure tourism product (Williams & Buswell, 2003:11).

The following chapter aims to do an analysis of adventure tourism product development. Firstly, the adventure tourism product will be discussed together with the components of an adventure activity. Secondly, the tourism product life cycle will be examined. Thirdly, product development and new product development stages will be discussed. Lastly, product strategies will be identified followed by a conclusion to this chapter.

3.2. The adventure tourism product

Adventure tourism is generally accepted as travel to a destination to participate in place specific adventure activities (c.f. 1.6.3). For many destinations, these activities play a major part in creating niche tourism products that expand visitor activity (Page, Steele & Connell, 2006:52). An increased variance of adventure activities can be a direct reflection of increased visitor growth (Page *et al*., 2006:52). The increased variance refers to the emergence of a more diverse array of land-, air- and water-based adventure activities (Pomfret, 2006:114). Over the last several years these increased variances in adventure activities were considered key

indicators of growth in the adventure tourism industry (Pomfret, 2006:114). For the purpose of this study, the adventure tourism product will refer to the adventure activity and *vice versa.*

Participating in adventure activities is considered to be any voluntary action that is non-passive in nature, contains a degree of challenge and risk, and involves moving into the unknown with unpredictable outcomes (Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz & Tahara, 2010:954). In addition, adventure activities can often involve some form of unconventional means of transport, such as ballooning, rock climbing and kayaking (Whiriskey & McCarthy, 2006:1). Most adventure activities are based in the outdoors, although indoor pursuits also exist. Amongst these indoor adventure activities are climbing walls, indoor bouldering and indoor ropes courses (Eden & Barratt, 2010:487-488). Whether indoors or outdoors, most adventure activities require specialized equipment (static and dynamic rope, carabiners, helmets, etc.), supplies (water, food, sunblock, etc.) and clothing (climbing shoes, gloves, etc.) in order to perform the activity (Buckley, 2010:11). Equipment serves as both an occupational requirement and a safety requirement, due to the high levels of risk and legal liability involved when performing adventure activities (Buckley, 2010:11).

In terms of outdoor adventure activities, high emphasis is usually placed on the physical attributes of the environment since adventure activities are usually performed in nature-based settings (Williams & Soutar, 2009:415). The natural environment can either contribute to the overall experience or detract from it (Williams & Soutar, 2009:415). Unfortunately, most natural environments are reserved as protected areas due to today's threatening nature of unsustainable resource usage (Pegg, 2005). The advantages of practising adventure activities in natural environments are that most adventure activities require little to no infrastructure development (ATTA, 2010b:1). It is therefore not uncommon for adventure activities to exist within an ecotourism framework (Fennell, 1999:53).

Besides interaction with the natural environment, adventure activities can also rely on cultural interaction to achieve the desired experiences (Lubbe, 2005:73). Cultural resources have the potential to provide novel, educational, daring and authentic experiences (ATTA, 2011:15). Cultural resources can include anything from heritage and memorial sites to protected areas and traditions (food, sport and recreation). Adventure activities usually involve two of the following three elements: (1) interaction with the natural environment or (2) heritage or cultural interaction or (3) a physical activity involving risk. The core function of adventure would include a combination of all of these elements (ATTA, 2011:6). Thus it can be suggested that adventure tourists can evaluate the total adventure experience according to the degree of interaction to which specific adventure activities combine these elements (Williams & Soutar, 2009:416; ATTA, 2011:6).

Unfortunately, adventure activities are services and while most tangible products can be evaluated by the actual experience, usually before a purchase, the same cannot necessarily be said of a service (Sun, Keh & Lee, 2012:831). For example, before an individual buys a car, he or she can actually experience the vehicle through test drives before making a purchase decision. In contrast, adventure activities can only be experienced after they have been paid for. Fortunately, adventure activities can be evaluated through different search and experience attributes (Sun *et al*., 2012:831). Search attributes are those activity attributes that can be verified prior to participation (Srinivasan & Till, 2002:418-419). For example, this includes the search for air-, water-, land- or mixed-based activities (Pomfret, 2006:114). Tourists can evaluate experience attributes and draw inferences during and after they have performed the activity (Srinivasan & Till, 2002:419). Experience attributes can be evaluated by using different adventure experience theories (c.f. 2.4). The presence of several components (tangible, intangible and augmented) when performing adventure activities can also be evaluated based on their individual input to the overall experience (c.f. 3.2.2). Besides evaluating activities according to attributes or experiences, one could evaluate adventure activities according to advantages and disadvantages (Prouty, Panicucci & Collinson, 2007:66).

3.2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of adventure activities

If appropriately implemented, adventure activities can contribute a unique set of benefits to the participant, natural environment, local community and the organization (Prouty *et al*., 2007:66). Table 3.1 identifies several ways in which the abovementioned stakeholders can benefit from adventure activities, but this can only be achieved if the activities are managed in a sustainable and mutually beneficial manner (Saayman, 2009:35). This means implementing a framework for tolerable limits to environmental interaction/usage that considers most if not all stakeholders involvement (natural, cultural, social, political and economic environment) (Saayman, 2009:35). It is the responsibility of the tourism operator or adventure organization to develop a conservation plan/sustainability framework in which adventure activities are to be delivered (Mazzotti & Morgenstern, 1996:2).

Table 3.1: Advantages of adventure activities

Role player	Category	Advantages
Participant	Psychological	Overcoming fear and completing challenge activities can improve one's self-concept, self-efficacy, self-actualization, and self-expression. In addition, adventure can produce feelings of psychological health, such as stress relief and feelings of success, accomplishment and escape.
	Sociological	Performing with family, friends or co-workers can improve respect for one another, create better relationships, improve cooperation skills, provide compassion, trust and improved communication skills.
	Educational	Challenging adventures can improve problem-solving skills, outdoor skills, activity skills and knowledge (education). Interaction with nature or other cultures can raise awareness.
	Physical	Physical benefits include improved strength, endurance (stamina), balance, flexibility and coordination. Regarding the anatomy of the human body, adventure has cardiovascular, endocrine and respiratory benefits.
	Spiritual	Personal well-being and *being one with nature* - appreciating nature and oneself.
	Recreational	Provides the opportunity for enjoyment, relaxation, entertainment, novelty and catharsis (relief from repressed emotions).
Organization	Financial	Some adventure activities require minimal financial investment (hiking routes). Adventure activities can be used as an alternative for generating revenue with minimal environmental impact. For example, South African National Parks can develop additional adventure activities that can generate revenue to counter expected increases in operational costs (SANParks, 2013b).
	Attractiveness	A wider range of activities can increase the attractiveness of the organization as a tourism destination.
	Natural organization	Increased awareness and support for the organization and its use of adventure activities as a conservation method.
	Partnership	Provides opportunities to develop partnerships with local adventure product providers (outsourcing adventure activities or adventure retailers).
Local businesses	Economic	Development of new tourism supporting businesses, such as businesses supplying adventure equipment and supplies. New businesses can bring economic opportunities into rural communities and also increases local tourism income.

Table 3.1: Advantages of adventure activities (continued)

Role player	Category	Advantages
Environment	Sustainability	Responsible management of adventure activities aid conservation efforts and help protect natural habitats. In addition, conservation efforts promote the aesthetic beauty of nature amongst nature tourists (eco-tourists, adventure tourists, wilderness tourists and outdoor camping tourists).
	Land rehabilitation / Habitat restoration	Rehabilitating spoiled land (land spoiled by ruined structures or due to natural disasters) to its former state in order to accommodate adventure opportunities.
Local communities and cultures	Job opportunities	New adventure activities can provide job opportunities to local communities. Job opportunities include employment positions, such as guides, instructors, assistants, trekkers or even as a cultural representative.
	Cultural sustainability	Cultural activities (village tours and cultural dances) and heritage sites (rock paintings, war structures and farm buildings) as main attractions. Revenue from these operations can help sustain heritage structures, while cultural activities provide opportunities for cultural expression and awareness.
	Awareness and education	Adventure organizations can educate community members about how adventure activities can benefit their community (financially) and the natural environment. This awareness encourages resource users to use adventure activities as an alternative form of income. Communities are then more inclined to preserve their natural resources.
Employees	Training	Opportunities to obtain new knowledge and develop new skills. Opportunity to receive higher level of job responsibility and/or increased income.

(Sources: Darst, 1980; Ewert, 1989; Prouty *et al*., 2007; Heyniger, 2008; Saayman, 2009; Van der Merwe, 2009; Stein, 2010; Meadows, 2013)

However, in the scenarios where adventure activities are managed inappropriately it could have negative or even disastrous outcomes (Bentley, Page, Mayer, Chalmers & Laird, 2001:328). For example, if participation rates are drastically increased over a short period for a nature-based adventure activity, land management may soon be overwhelmed by sheer visiting numbers (Stein, 2010). Uncontrolled visiting numbers could have negative ecological and social impacts on the local environment (Stein, 2010). In respect of the activity, unintentional mishap or negligent behaviour while performing adventure activities can result in injury or even death (Fletcher, 2010:25). If negligent behaviour was caused on behalf of the organization, the organization may be prosecuted or exposed to the public in a negative light (Fletcher, 2010:25).

Besides risk factors caused by negligent behaviour on behalf of the organization (guide) or client (fail to comply to instruction), other interacting subsystems, such as equipment, weather and environmental hazards can also produce circumstances for mishap or injury (Bentley *et al*., 2001:334). Table 3.2 identifies the various disadvantages adventure activities can pose if managed inappropriately (not according to a sustainable and mutually beneficial framework).

Table 3.2: Disadvantages of adventure activities

Role player	Category	Disadvantages
Participant	Negligence	Negligent behaviour by staff or participants can jeopardise safety aspects within an activity, possibly resulting in injury, loss of life or damage to equipment.
	Risk	All adventure activities inherently contain a certain degree of risk and danger (c.f. 2.3.2).
Natural environment	Carrying capacity	Uncontrolled carrying capacity can damage local habitats and is an unsustainable practice.
	Ecological damage	Ineffective or unsustainable zoning plans, development frameworks, policies and practices can increase ecological damage (pollution and soil erosion). This includes the unregulated use of local and natural resources.
	Wildlife	Uncontrolled and unregulated adventure activities (hunting) can chase away, endanger or threaten the survival of local species and wildlife.
	Pollution	Motorcycles and quad bikes can cause sound pollution, while motorized vehicles can disturb non-motorized tourists seeking silence and solitude. The performance of such activities should be regulated in national parks. If garbage is not appropriately disposed of during adventure trips, it can result in environmental pollution and water contamination.
Organization	Untrained staff	Inadequate staff can result to poor service delivery and negligent behaviour, damaging the reputation of the organization and the image of an activity.
	Financial investments	Maintenance and replacement costs of specialized equipment (scuba diving gear) and structures (high ropes courses) can be expensive. If equipment is not regularly maintained and injury does occur, the organization can be prosecuted for negligent behaviour. Initial start-up costs of some adventure activities can be high. For example, quad bikes are required for quad biking activities or scuba diving requires a boat and diving equipment. Most adventure activities will require staff to be trained or the employment of expensive qualified guides and instructors.

Table 3.2: Disadvantages of adventure activities (continued)

Local cultures and community members	Social impact	Unethical exposure of cultural traditions, westernization of local cultures and alienating local cultures. If communities are not included in the adventure tourism development or social arrangement process, the lack of community support can reflect negatively on tourists and the activities. The delivery of adventure activities may be biased, benefiting only the organizational profit (lack of stakeholder consideration) and the needs of affluent and tourists who are not disabled.

(Sources: Mazzotti & Morgestern, 1996; Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie & Pomfret, 2003; Buckley, 2006; Saayman, 2009; SANParks, 2010; Stein, 2010)

3.2.2. Components of the adventure product

Even though adventure activities are services, they still comprise a mix of tangible, intangible and augmented components (Figure 3.1). Tangible components refer to the physical aspects of an adventure activity and include purpose-built facilities and structures, cultural interactions, equipment and supplies (Williams & Buswell, 2003:11). Intangible components refer to the service delivery aspect of adventure activities that has to do with staff expertise and attitudes (Williams & Buswell, 2003:11). For example, mountain-climbing equipment, gear and supplies are tangle components on a mountain-climbing expedition, whereas the guidance, expertise, teachings and instructions of a guide are intangible components. The augmented part of an adventure activity refers to an added value (Friesner, 2013a). Added value can be anything from additional attention to service, to beautiful scenic views and optimal weather conditions (Friesner, 2013a).

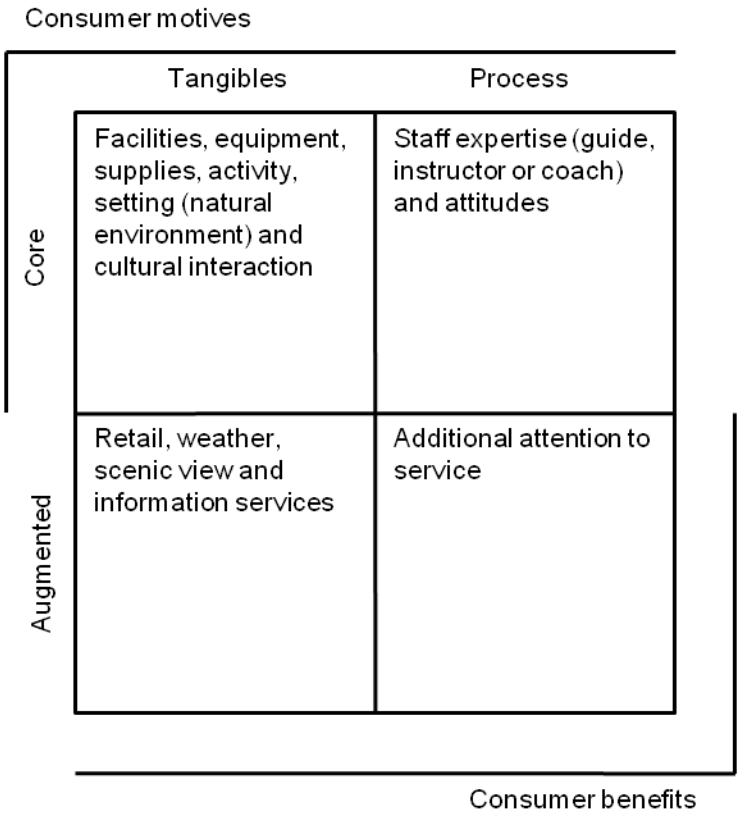

Figure 3.1: The adventure tourism product
(Source: adapted from Williams & Buswell, 2003:12)

Each of the mentioned components used in producing adventure products contributes to service quality and customer satisfaction (Sureshchandar, Rajendran & Anantharaman, 2002:364-365). It is therefore important for national parks to understand the combining effects of all product components and how they contribute to customer satisfaction when developing new adventure activities. The following product components are important for producing adventure activities (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:76):

3.2.2.1. Guides and instructors

Adventure guides and instructors are considered to be the backbone to any adventure activity (Thompson Rivers University, 2013). Adventure guides and instructors need to be qualified, competent and should provide adequate care and safety guidance and discipline (c.f. 2.5.4.5). Their competence and interpersonal skills are key to providing meaningful and unique adventure experiences (Thompson Rivers University, 2013). It is the responsibility of guides and instructors to have thorough knowledge regarding sustainable processes when providing environmentally sound outdoor experiences (Priest & Gass, 2005:115). This means having thorough knowledge of the surrounding area, such as knowing which trails have the minimum impact, what areas are appropriate for camping or what locations will be the safest to perform the activity (Priest & Gass, 2005:115).

Guides and instructors fulfil the role of leader and animator when it comes to adventure activities (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:45). As a leader their role is to guide, supervise, inform and teach participants about the activity and how to protect the natural environment (Priest & Gass, 2005:3). On the other hand, the role as animator involves structuring an adventure activity in a way that is spontaneous, natural and sustainable throughout (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:45). In other words, they are responsible for sequencing the activity and its participants in a direction that will produce the intended experiences.

3.2.2.2. Goods

Goods are described as the physical entities that are marketed for use in adventure activities and are divided into two types, equipment and supplies (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:75).

- **Equipment**

Equipment is a non-consumable product that is used to carry out an activity (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:45). There are also many adventure activities that require no equipment whatsoever, such as a brief hiking trip (Prouty *et al*., 2007:137). An adventure tourism organisation can lend, rent or sell adventure equipment to their participants or request that participants supply their own equipment. Normally some adventure activities can have up to three types of different equipment and clothing lists (Priest & Gass, 2005:122-123):

- **Individual lists:** This list should include items to bring and not to bring. Items that would normally be found on this list are basic supplies (food and water), personal medication and if required, their own equipment (own lifejacket, helmet, etc.). Items that would normally be discouraged for adventure activities are alcohol, drugs, cigarettes, electronic devices or loose items.
- **Group lists:** These lists contain all the basic equipment that will be needed to perform the activity, including satellite communication gear, medical aid supplies, in some cases survival kits, thermal blankets, safety equipment (for example, helmets and lifejackets) and additional supplies. In the commercial adventure tourism industry, this equipment is usually provided by the tour operators (Buckley, 2007:1428). In addition, group equipment should be suitable for all participants wishing to participate in the activity (Priest & Gass, 2005:123).
- **Clothing list:** These lists should include a dress code and all the necessary clothing to be brought along in order to perform the activity as safely as possibly. For example, swimwear and aquatic shoes for water-based activities or hiking shoes, comfortable summer wear and a hat for hiking in the summer.

Besides having the appropriate equipment to perform the activity, equipment should also be regularly checked for wear and tear. Therefore inspection and maintenance lists should always

be used to keep record of the equipment usage and condition (Edginton, Hudson, Dieser & Edginton, 2004:391). This helps to eliminate possible hazards caused by faulty equipment. Regular equipment checks and maintenance can also prolong equipment lifespan and save the organization regular replacement costs (Reeves, 2009). In addition, worn-out or damaged equipment is a safety hazard for all users and should be replaced before the next outing (Reeves, 2009).

- **Supplies**

Supplies are consumable products that are used when participating in adventure activities (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:76). Supplies usually have a short lifespan and are exhausted after serving their purpose (Samuels, 2013). For example, food and drink are essential supplies in most adventure activities, while additional supplies on a camping trip may include degradable hygiene supplies and firewood.

3.2.2.3. Physical structures

Ewert & Hollenhorst (1997:22) maintain that "*In fact, adventure experiences are commonly pursued in relatively developed or urban settings.*" Examples include white-water boating through urban waterways, skydiving from skyscrapers, bungee jumping from bridges or skiing on frozen man-made dams (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1997:22). Indoor adventure activities use purposely build structures to simulate outdoor experiences inside a building. People also use indoor adventure activities (rope courses and climbing walls) for training or expression of physical talent in non-natural settings (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1997:22). As far as nature-based settings are concerned, some adventure activities may require purposefully built structures to safely perform the activity (i.e. anchors for rock climbing and abseiling) (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1997:23), while other adventure activities require a permanent structure before the activity can be performed (i.e. zip-line structure or high-ropes course). Similar to equipment, adventure structures should also be checked regularly for damage from wear and tear and be maintained (Reeves, 2009). This is particularly relevant to outdoor structures that are constantly exposed to the natural elements, causing corrosion in metalwork or cracks in woodwork (Reeves, 2009).

3.2.2.4. Natural and cultural surroundings

Two of the most important resources of an adventure tourism product are the natural and cultural environment (ATTA, 2011:6). Regarding national parks, these are the most important stakeholders to consider when developing new adventure activities. In adventure tourism, any decisions made involving the natural and cultural environment should contribute to the preservation and conservation of these resources (c.f. 2.5.4.1).

3.2.2.5. Service

The service component when delivering adventure activities refers to the face to face encounter where interactions between the patron and provider occur (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:78). Feelings are expressed and the memories are created through interactions and are considered to be the lasting product of the service encounter (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:78). The adventure service encounter can be divided into three parts:

- **Service before adventure experience**: This includes customer information, rules to participation, reservation, payment and the physical environment in which it is delivered. All these factors contribute to the tourist's perception and expectations with regard to the quality of the activity (Weiermair, 2000:398; Williams & Buswell, 2003:ix).
- **Service during adventure experience:** This is the service that the tourist encounters during the adventure experience. This type of service can be divided into two qualities, technical and functional quality. Functional quality includes staff appearance, behaviour, attitude, interaction, responsiveness and their competence when delivering the activity (Edginton *et al*., 2004:391). Technical quality includes the quality, reliability and accuracy of equipment (Edginton *et al*., 2004:391). Other aspects affecting the experience during service delivery include aesthetic beauty of the natural environment and/or quality of cultural interactions.
- **Service after adventure experience:** This is the service that occurs after the completion of the adventure experience/activity. Components of this phase include facilitation, activity evaluation (includes complaint resolution) and follow-up services (future promotions, pictures, etc.) (Edginton *et al*., 2004:390).

The amount of service provided or arranged can also differ from activity to activity or from tour operator to tour operator (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:47). A person's capability of dealing with environmental demands can also reflect the amount of service required (Priest & Gass, 2005:49). For example, a low risk activity, such as hiking may require little to no support from a guide or instructor, thus the amount of service delivered by the tour operator is minimal. In general, tour operators aim to minimize risks in adventure activities through standards of conduct and safety guidelines (Buckley, 2012:961). It is therefore not uncommon to find tour operators providing most of the service, while the tourist adopts the role of a '*passenger*' (Buckley, 2007:1428). The amount of direct service provided by tour operators depends largely on their philosophies, mission statement and code of conduct (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:48). For example, a tourist may be able to hike a mountain route on his/her own but the route may only be used when a guide is present because it is dictated by the agency's policy. Figure 3.2 illustrates that as one moves from self-guided activities to guided activities, the tour operator assumes an increasing role in service responsibility, while the opposite is true for the individual. In self-guided activities the adventure tourists provide their own direction and animate activities

without the help of leaders providing instructions or assistance (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:47). At this end of the continuum the tour operator functions as a facilitator. Take for example self-guided 4x4 drives in national parks, where visitors use their own vehicles and own expertise to negotiate the 4x4 routes. If the tour operator provides most/all of the service, the tour operator serves as the direct service provider (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:48). This is applicable to guided 4x4 drives (where drives are led by knowledgeable guides) or guided game drives and night drives (where guides do the driving) in national parks.

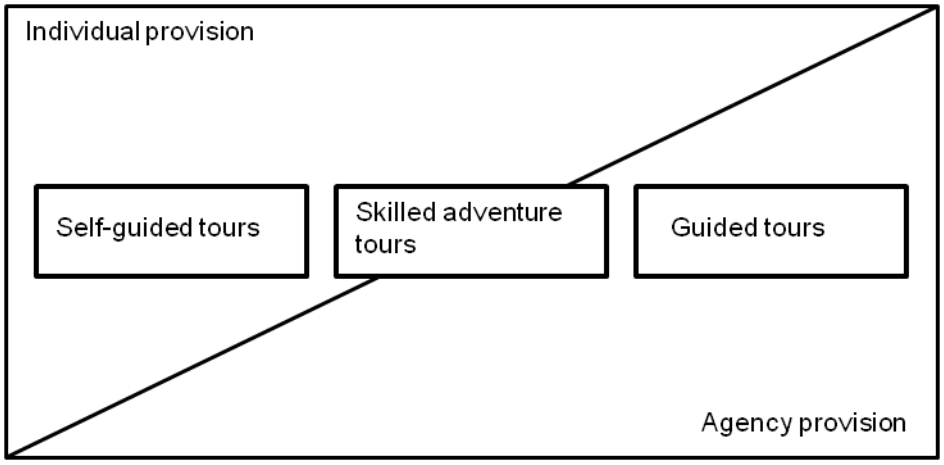

Figure 3.2: The adventure service continuum
(Source: adapted from Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:47)

3.2.2.6. Experience

"*Experiences are a series of staged events that engage a participant and result in pleasant, recallable memories.*" (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:81). Adventure tourists usually pursue adventure activities to have transcending (Williams & Harvey, 2001:249), novel (Priest & Gass, 2005:22), rush (Buckley, 2012:962), exciting (Schneider & Vogt, 2012:705-707) and flow experiences (Heo, Lee, Pedersen & McCormick, 2010:412). There are also different stages to how adventure can be experienced (c.f. 2.4).

3.3. New product development process

New product development is a process in itself and requires several stages before the product can be sold and commercialised (Sambandam, 2012:1). Unfortunately, the number of stages for developing new products has been highly debatable amongst several researchers (Sandvik, Arnett & Sandvik, 2011:642). Song and Montoya-Weiss (1998:124), for example indicated that new product development consisted of six stages: strategic planning, idea development and screening, market analysis, technical development, product testing, and commercialization. Alternatively, Song and Parry (1997:66) identified five stages to new product development: idea development and screening, market analysis, technical development, product testing, and commercialization. Similarly, Troy, Szymanski and Varadarajan (2001:97) also identified five

stages, which were later adapted into four stages by Sandvik *et al.* (2011:642), namely opportunity analysis, technical development, product testing, and commercialization.

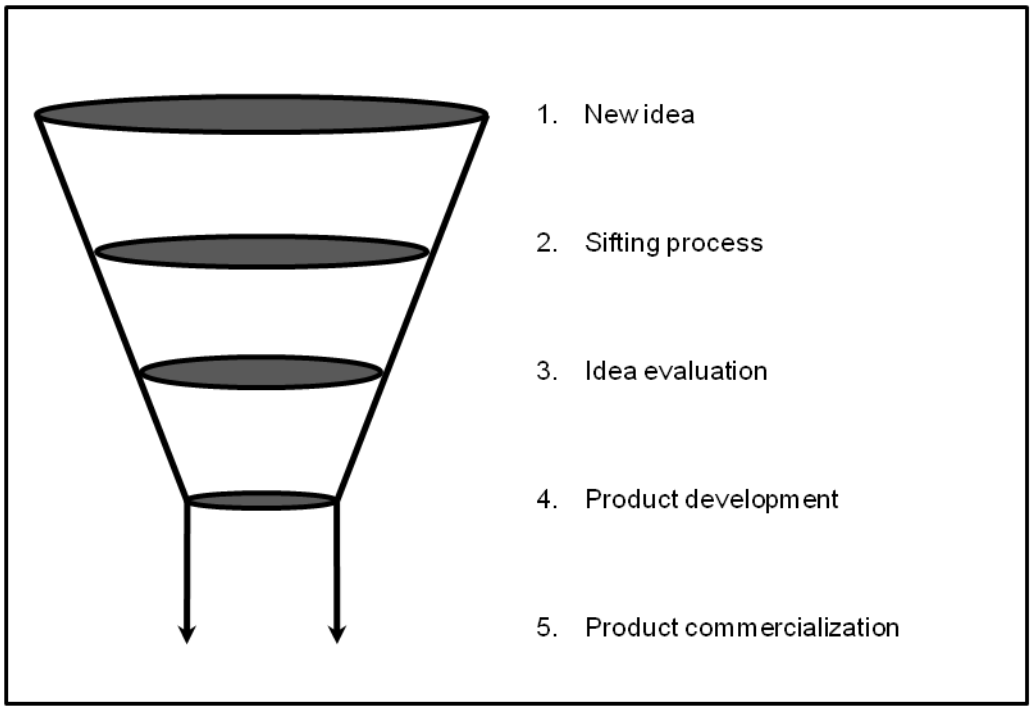

Figure 3.3: The new product development process
(Source: Saayman, 2006:119)

In line with this study, Saayman's (2006:119) five stages to new product development were analysed for their tourism-based approach to new product development (Figure 3.3). Saayman's (2006:119) approach also contains a degree of conformity with all of the mentioned stages of new product development. The five stages of new product development are as follows:

3.3.1. Idea processing

Analysing new or different viewpoints of a product can help the tourism organization to identify new tourism products and market opportunities (Saayman, 2006:119). Different points of view can be placed on a scaling analysis to identify all the necessary physical and behavioural attributes needed for the product (Antariksa, 2013:6). It is also important to consider the tourists' points of view when looking for new ideas (Antariksa, 2013:6). The questionnaire used in this study provided respondents with the opportunity to identify new adventure activities for national parks, including their motives for participating in adventure.

Another way to process new ideas for product development includes identifying new and emerging market trends (Saayman, 2006:119). Trends are only recognizable when product awareness grows to a point of it being important, but what makes a product important depends

on the individual's perception and priority (Buckley, 2000:437). Identifying these trends is important for South African National Parks because adventure tourism is a growing industry that possesses a high global spending value (Chesak & Heyniger, 2011:11). Amongst the most popular activities offered by adventure tour operators to date include rafting, mountain biking, historic sites, sea kayaking, bird watching, game viewing, trekking, cultural activities and hiking (Chesak & Heyniger, 2011:14).

3.3.2. Sifting process

Ideas can be analysed according to a SWOT analysis. A SWOT analysis identifies internal and external variables that can help on organization to determine potential business opportunities (Olivier & Saayman, 2005:25). This is a planning tool used to analyse new ideas according to the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and treats of an organization (Olivier & Saayman, 2005:25). Ideas can also be measured using feasibility criteria (Saayman, 2006:120). A feasibility criterion determines whether or not idea attributes will fit the needs of the target market and if the idea will sell and make profit (Moyes & Lawrence, 2003:2). Feasibility criteria are also used to measure ideas against markets that should be avoided (Saayman, 2006:120). The sifting process is a measurement for feasibility because ideas are screened; good ideas are selected and bad ideas are rejected in order to avoid product failure (Akrani, 2012). On way to do this is to seek worker, customer and businesses opinions to avoid costly and unfeasible ideas (Adams, 2013). By using the SWOT analysis, ideas can also be sifted according to the agency's ability to match the ideas with its available resources (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:643). By doing this, the agency is able to assess the feasibility of launching a new tourism product into the marketplace (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:643). Marketing tasks (price, place and promotion) can then be used to convert "*new product ideas into well-defined sets of attributes that fulfil customers´ needs and wants*" (Song & Montoya-Weiss, 1998:126).

3.3.3. Idea evaluation

Ideas can be evaluated according to their potential to generate revenue and according to agency time and resources (Newton, 2013:1). Ideas can also be evaluated by conducting market research, either by using quantitative (surveys) or qualitative (interviews and focus groups) data-gathering techniques (Saayman, 2006:120). The best source of information can sometimes come from interviewing a selected few subject-educated respondents (Troy *et al*., 2001:93). Alternatively, using surveys can allow tourists to provide information regarding their opinions on a new product and if they find the product to be important (satisfies needs) (Akrani, 2012). If an adequate quantity of information is gathered from the tourists, the researcher will be able to distinguish the *'must have'* products from the *'nice to have'* products (Sambandam, 2012:1).

The purpose of this study lies within the idea evaluation stage of new product development. By analysing the needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks, new soft and hard adventure activities can be evaluated based on their relative importance. By identifying the important adventure activities and the motives to why visitors participate in adventure, South African National Parks can make informed decisions regarding what type of adventure activities to implement and in which parks.

3.3.4. Development

Product ideas that survived both the sifting and idea evaluation process should be further analysed and researched before being developed (Saayman, 2006:120). Product development, also known as technical development, is recognized as the process of designing, developing and delivering products to the customers (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:643). By developing the product, the tourist will be able to see the idea set into motion as a real experience (Saayman, 2006:120). Key tasks of product development involve offering a product that can meet customer needs and establishing standards against which new product offerings can be measured (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:643; Sambandam, 2012:2).

Development is for the most part necessary if the idea involves using new technology or different applications to create the product (Murthy, Rausand & Østerås, 2010:31). In such cases, testing the product will allow management to verify if desired performance or reactions can be met (Murthy *et al*., 2010:31). Testing the product usually involves placing the product or providing the service in selected areas and observing its actual performance without it being a full-scale introduction (Antariksa, 2013:18).

3.3.5. Product commercialisation

If the new product endured all the previous stages of the new product development process, the product has shown a relatively good survival rate and can be placed on the market (Saayman, 2006:120). In other words, the product can be commercialized. The commercialization of a product corresponds with the introduction stage of a product's life cycle (Brown, 1996a). The commercialization of adventure products has greatly contributed to the growth of adventure tourism over the last few years (Johnson & Edwards, 1994:459; Buckley, 2000:438; Cater 2013:9). This means that the commercialization and packaging of adventure products have the potential to attract more tourists to a destination and new tourism business (Buckley, 2007:1428).

3.4. Product life cycle

All new products are considered to have a fixed life cycle and without timely alterations or modifications the product will eventually expire (Komninos, Milossis & Komninos, 2013:8). This also applies to the tourism industry, particularly to the tourism product (Saayman, 2006:111). In the context of this study, the adventure tourism product is referred to as the adventure activity. The adventure activity is considered a service, but it remains a product with a fixed life cycle (Shekar, 2007:3). Figure 3.4 illustrates the different life-cycle stages the tourism product (adventure activity) can move through. This model can enable management or consultants to analyse the maturing stages of their products within the tourism industry (Sanyal, 2002). Understanding the stage of product maturity can provide vital information on future growth expectations, enabling management to take adequate strategic steps towards future product development (Sanyal, 2002). Developing product strategies is vital for any organization to survive, because it helps to focus short-, medium- and long-term product operations towards changing market demands (Saayman, 2006:111; Komninos *et al*., 2013:8). The five life cycle stages in which a tourism product can move are as follows:

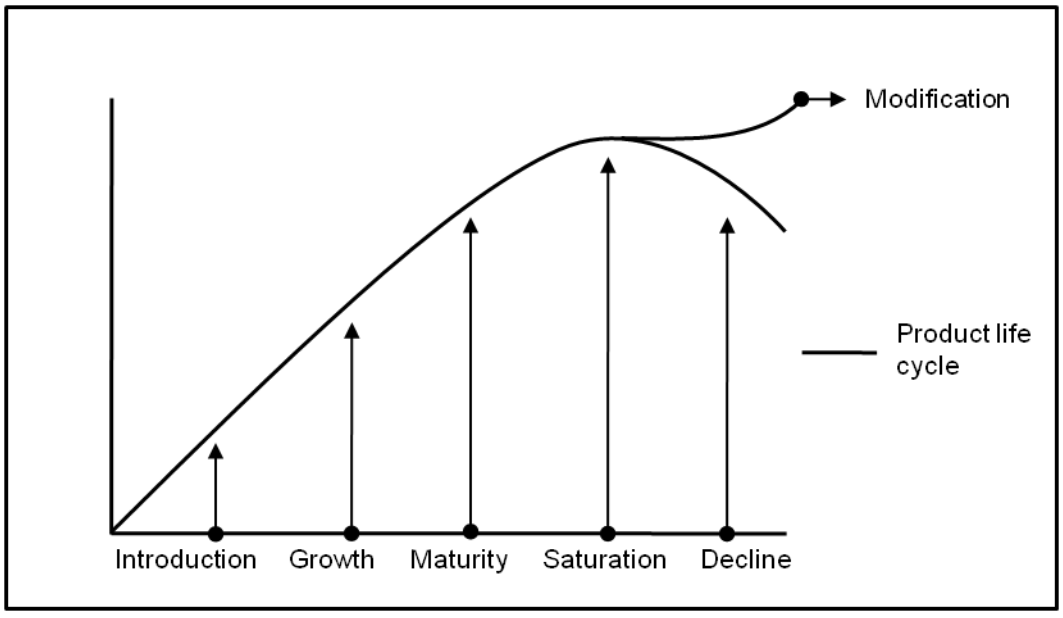

Figure 3.4: Product life cycle
(Source: Saayman, 2006:115)

3.4.1. Introduction stage

The introduction stage, also known as the exploration stage, is defined as the introduction of a new tourism product into the market (Hurd, Barcelona & Meldrum, 2008:174). The introduction stage is generally recognized by small market sizes, sales numbers and sales growth rates due to the tourism product's relative unfamiliarity (Sanyal, 2002). An introduction strategy would be to employ intensive marketing efforts as an attempt to expose new tourism products and to convince tourists to try it (Hurd *et al*., 2008:174). Adventure tourists usually participate in new

activities if they follow irregular visitation patterns or if they are attracted by the unique natural or cultural features of the activity (Butler, 2006:5). An example of introducing new adventure activities in national parks could be to introduce zip lining in the Golden Gate Highlands National Park, because the activity can benefit from the surrounding mountain ranges.

3.4.2. Growth stage

The growth stage is recognized by the rapid growth in tourism product sales. In this stage the tourism product gains public awareness (Sanyal, 2002). Public awareness can include the public's recognition and understanding of product benefits and their acceptance of a product (Sanyal, 2002). Product awareness can be spread through various marketing mediums, such as advertisements, promotions, publicity, and personal selling or even by word of mouth (Brown, 1996a; Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2012). Therefore, if a product moves into its growth stage, the tourism organization must place significant focus on marketing efforts to sustain and maintain growth as long as possible (Hurd *et al*., 2008:174). Increased product awareness can also result in increased rivalry (Rusu & Săbău, 2006:186). This further stresses the need to improve a product's image through marketing efforts to gain a competitive advantage (Sabo-Bucur, 2006:106). Increased rivalry can be beneficial, pushing the envelope for organizations to provide better prices, service delivery or better product offerings. For adventure organizations this could be to create and integrate value-added products that can sustain natural and cultural resources while also maintaining market portion relative to its competitors (Hassan, 2000:240).

3.4.3. Maturity

The maturity stage, also referred to as the post-stagnation stage, is recognized by a slow rise in product growth/demand until saturation is reached (Casasnovas & Rosselló, 2009:3). In this stage, the increase in the number of tourists participating in the tourism product slowly declines, while the total participation rate is still marginally increasing (Butler, 1980:8). Therefore it is not uncommon to find that a major part of the product's life takes place in this stage (Hurd *et al*., 2008:174). The organizational role in this stage is to consider different opportunities to explore new markets and develop modification strategies (Saayman, 2006:115). South African National Parks currently resides within this stage and although income from tourism operations steadily increases, operational costs are getting higher each year (SANParks, 2013b). Alternatively, it was indicated that the performance rate of activities in national parks decreased between the years 2011 to 2012 when compared to the same timeframes of previous years (SANParks, 2012b). It is therefore important for South African National Parks to focus on developing new activities or modifying existing activities to extend the life cycle of its adventure products.

3.4.4. Saturation

In the saturation stage the product has reached its growth/demand limit. The product is no longer in fashion and has reached its level of trendiness, even if the image of the product is still well established (Butler, 1980:8).

3.4.5. Decline

When the demand for a product is steadily decreasing, the product is moving into what is known as the decline phase (Hurd *et al*., 2008:175). A decline in product demand can be as a result of changing trends, lower competitive pricing, better competition offerings or better competitive service. The same applies to tourism products, while exceeding destination carrying capacity can also cause product demands to decline (Butler, 2011:6). If the appeal of a product declines due to an overload in carrying capacity, the result can reproduce a decline in participation, investment and development (Butler, 2011:6). Thus, the product is forced out of the market unless the product is modified (Saayman, 2006:115).

3.4.6. Modification

The modification phase only exists if strategies are implemented to extend a products' life cycle before it goes into decline (Riley, 2012). These strategies are known as extension or modification strategies (quadrants of product development) (Smith, I., 1994:63; Hurd *et al*., 2008:175). Extension strategies are used for manipulating the product or target market in an effort to rejuvenate or extend the product's life cycle (Hurd *et al*., 2008:174). Product modification strategies can include finding new markets for existing products or adapting existing products to better suit the needs of the current market (Hurd *et al*., 2008:175). A modification plan should be available before the product reaches the maturation stage (Saayman, 2006:115). Modification strategies are also linked to product development (c.f. 3.3) and anyone who implements these strategies should know how they fit within the product development framework (STCRC, 2010).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, South African National Parks is expected to move into a decline stage over the next ten years when operational costs will exceed income from tourism operations (SANParks, 2013b). A predominant requirement for countering future financial shortcomings would be to explore additional products and services by reaching into the adventure market (SANParks, 2013b). By implementing new adventure activities (i.e. hot air ballooning, wilderness training and survival courses, bungee jumping, elephant rides, etc.) or modifying current adventure activities (i.e. lengthier night drives and more frequent game drives), South African National Parks can potentially generate additional revenue that can help carry operational expenses. Without product development or modification strategies, South

African National Parks might not be able to cover future increases in conservation costs, even if annual accommodation rates are increased (SANParks, 2012a).

3.5. Tourism product development

Tourism products can be created or adapted from other firm offerings with similar or different industries or markets (Sandvik & Sandvik, 2003:357). Tourism product development is described as the development of new tourism products or the refreshment of existing tourism products (STCRC, 2010). Organizations within the tourism industry should constantly strive to develop new and innovative market offerings to obtain and maintain a competitive advantage (Zhou, Brown & Dev, 2009:1063). Besides maintaining a competitive advantage, new and innovate market offerings can also positively result in financial growth/performance (Sandvik & Sandvik, 2003:369). By constantly providing valued experiences to tourists, the organization can also insure increased tourist return (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:641). Tourist return is important for any tourism organization to endure dynamic market changes. Therefore, product development or modification is essential for the survival of tourism organizations and should be part of their long-term planning process (Saayman, 2006:118).

There are also different stages and strategies to developing the tourism product (STCRC, 2010; Badrinarayanan & Arnett, 2008:242). It is the responsibility of tourism organizations to develop skills at the various stages of product development (Hunt, as cited by Sandvik *et al*., 2011:641). Each stage of product development will determine the necessary skills required by the organization (STCRC, 2010). These skills include how the different components of the marketing mix should be managed. The following will discuss the stages of product development and the marketing mix.

3.5.1. Stages of product development

There are a number of approaches/stages for product development in tourism organizations. These approaches can scale from low-risk (existing products to existing customers), medium-risk (existing products to new customers), high-risk (new products to existing customers) to very high-risk strategies (new products to new customers), as identified by the Canadian Tourism Commission (CTC, 2003:11). The need to implement these strategies is highly dependent on changing market trends or they are implemented when new markets emerge (Tourism Victoria, 2010). To identify new markets or trends, an organization must fragment and categorize markets using marketing research efforts (Page *et al*., 2006:51). This is especially important within the adventure tourism industry because of its growing niche market (Page *et al*., 2006:51). It is a niche market where motives and preferences for adventure activities can be quite different from one individual to the next (Tourism Victoria, 2010). After new markets or

changing trends have been identified and categorized, there are four quadrants a tourism organization can use to develop appropriate tourism products (Figure 3.5).

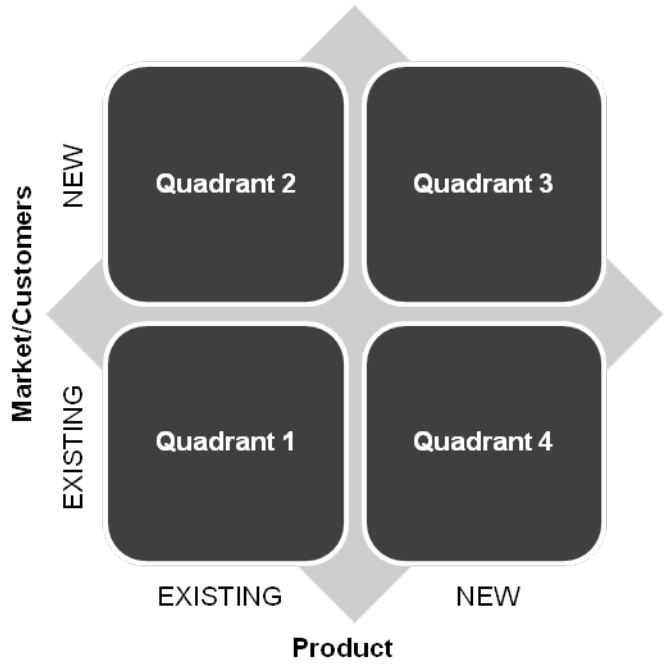

Figure 3.5: Quadrants of product development
(Source: adapted from Hurd *et al*., 2008:175; Ansoff, 1957:114)

These four quadrants will be discussed as follows:

- **Quadrant 1 - Existing customers / existing products**

The first quadrant, otherwise known as market extension or market penetration strategy, strongly focuses on strengthening cost efficiency and improving customer services (Smith, I., 1994:63). This quadrant is the lowest risk strategy in which an organization provides existing product ranges to its current market (CTC, 2003:11). Hands-on product strategies within this quadrant include slightly modifying the product or addressing its flaws (DTU, 2011:4). Product flaws can be addressed by providing customers with the opportunity to give product feedback and reacting on the feedback (Gibson, 2012:11). Modifications are done to provide value-added experiences (Sandvik *et al*., 2011:641). Take for example Addo Elephant National Park, where one of the opted reasons why people visit the park is to explore new destinations and learn about animals (Kruger, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012:4). The majority of the parks' visitors are between the ages of 35-64 years and are well educated (Kruger *et al*., 2012:4). By providing specialist talks or incorporating an auditorium that can offer slides shows, visitors can learn more about the park's history, its wildlife and the routes before embarking on 4x4 trails or going on game drives. This can potentially benefit current adventure activities because it can provide learning experiences.

Other market penetration strategies can include the adjustment of marketing strategies to attract markets that are unaware of the product or by using intensive promotion strategies to convince non-users to try the product (Hurd *et al*., 2008:175). For example, only 58.2% of visitors visiting South African National Parks in 2012 reported that they were informed of the activities available at the camps (SANParks, 2012b:33). This means that 41.8% of visitors were not informed of the availability of activities in national parks. If visitors are ill-informed about the availability of activities it can cause a loss in potential profits. It is therefore important for national parks to spread awareness amongst its visitors of any new or current adventure activities. A cost-effective way to create awareness is to use frontline staff to actively inform visitors about available adventure activities (SANParks, 2012b:33).

- **Quadrant 2 - New customers / existing products**

The second quadrant, also known as market development, is a medium-risk strategy where existing products are modified to best reflect the needs of a new market (Saayman, 2006:121). This involves developing or modifying the existing product for a new market segment and requires new market research to be conducted (Tourism Victoria, 2010). Looking at South African National Parks, the majority of visitors are between the ages of 35 to 64, well educated, married and travels with family (Du Plessis, Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2013:195). Current adventure activities offered in the parks include wilderness trails, game drives, guided walks, 4x4 trails, horse riding, abseiling, hiking trails, camping, bird watching and mountain climbing (SANParks, 2013a). Finding new customers for these current adventure offerings in parks would mean slightly modifying or altering the activity to fit a profile of visitors other than the one identified by Du Plessis *et al*. (2013:195). One example would be to package mountain climbing as a teambuilding opportunity for corporate groups by providing a guide who facilitates the experience. Another example would be to adapt current adventure activities for children and teens where guides could lead hiking expeditions or instructors could instruct horse riding. Other strategies within this quadrant could include targeting new markets with intensive promotional efforts, such as discounts or free passes to participate (Hurd *et al*., 2008:185).

- **Quadrant 3 - New customers / new products**

The third quadrant is considered to have the highest risk strategy because business resources are relocated for developing new products for new markets (Tourism Victoria, 2010). This means moving in a whole new or different direction and involves a research investigation into new market segments (Hurd *et al*., 2008:176). Therefore, the third quadrant may be referred to as a diversification strategy where a tourism organization diversifies its market and product opportunities (Tourism Victoria, 2010). An example for national parks would be to shift focus from family-orientated and mature visitors towards introducing new adventure activities for a younger crowd. These new adventure activities could include zip lining, paint ball, limited

patting and feeding, obstacle courses and fishing. Another example would be to develop new adventure activities or to adjust current adventure activities that would appeal to the black visitor market, since black visitors only made up an estimated 25.5% of the total visiting market to South African National Parks during the years 2012 and 2013 (SANParks, 2013d:30).

- **Quadrant 4 - Existing customers / new products**

The fourth quadrant, also known as the product replacement strategy, involves replacing a familiar product with an entirely new one or to completely improve or alter its current attributes (Hurd *et al*., 2008:176). In this quadrant, altering existing products means that they are modified to the extent where they are considered a new product (Hurd *et al*., 2008:176). Product replacement strategies are potentially high-risk strategies, since current markets can be alienated if new products are presented to them (DTU, 2011:4). Alternatively, if new products are presented by a trustworthy organization or source, customers may be willing to try the new product (Tourism Victoria, 2010). A replacement strategy for South African National Parks could be to convert some of its hiking trails into horse riding routes or to use hot air ballooning as an alternative way to view game. With reference to developing entirely new adventure products for the existing market, South African National Parks could use marine resources to provide sailing trips for married couples or family groups.

The quadrants of product development can also be divided into five product strategies for adapting products according to changes in the business environment (Saayman, 2006:121). This is to safeguard the future sales potential of a product and to ensure profitability (Saayman, 2006:121). Product strategies are also essential strategies used to prolong a product's life cycle or the life cycle of a business (Hurd *et al*., 2008:175). Table 3.3 identifies five product strategies that could be applied to changing tourist demands. These strategies include market penetration, market development, product development, diversification and integration (Saayman, 2006:121).

Table 3.3: Different service strategies

Strategy	Service	Example
Market penetration	Increase service delivery sales in existing market	South African National Parks can increase current market participation rates in available adventure activities through promotional efforts.
Market development	Find new markets for existing services	South African National Parks can provide special tour packages for business groups.
Service development	Develop new services for existing markets	South African National Parks can develop special interest tours or new adventure activities for family groups.
Diversification	Develop new services for new markets	South African National Parks can develop new adventure activities (hot air ballooning trips) for new markets (couples in love).
Integration	Obtain another business, which may or may not be in the same industry	Outward Bound or Konka can develop adventure programmes in South African National Parks.

(Source: Saayman, 2006:121)

3.5.2. Marketing mix

The marketing mix refers to a set of actions or strategies that is used by an organization to promote its product/service in the market (Economic Times, 2013). The marketing mix consists of 4P's - product, price, place and promotion. Each of these elements is interconnected with each of the others, which means that if any changes were to be made in one element it is likely to affect the others (Economic Times, 2013). Because this chapter already covers a broad spectrum of the adventure tourism product, the following marketing mixes will examined based on the role they play in tourism product development:

3.5.2.1. Price

The price of adventure activities can greatly influence the adventure tourist's decision-making process. In addition to having different price points for similar adventure activities, not all adventure activities are the same and may also be priced significantly different from one other. For instance, scuba diving may be an expensive adventure activity due to the requirement of specialized equipment, such a scuba gear, oxygen tanks and compressors (Buckley, 2007:1430). Alternatively, hiking through the Tsitsikamma Forest in the Garden Route National Park may be considered an inexpensive adventure activity, because it only requires the visitor to pay the entrance fee at the park gate. Entrances fees to access national parks are usually

below amounts visitors are willing and able to pay (Laarman & Gregersen, 1996:247). The price of adventure activities can also be influenced if the expertise of a guide is used, as opposed to an unguided tour undertaken by the tourists themselves (Buckley, 2007:1430). In some instances, a training course should be done before a person is allowed to perform the activity, such as with skydiving and scuba diving. Doing these courses may also increase the cost of activities, thus the price (Buckley, 2007:1430). Other factors that can also determine the price of adventure activities include transportation, food and accommodation (Laarman & Gregersen, 1996:248). It is therefore undeniably evident that different determinants can influence the price of adventure activities.

To determine the price of adventure activities, adventure product providers should be concerned with two budgeting elements, that is expenditure and revenue (Edginton *et al*., 2004:359). Expenditures are all the costs involved in creating and producing the adventure activity. This encompasses operation costs (supplies materials, marketing costs and personnel salaries), capital expenditures (structures and equipment) and indirect costs (overhead costs) (Edginton *et al*., 2004:359-360). Indirect costs refer to overhead costs that cannot be directly traced to the product or service, such as expenses regarding conservation efforts in national parks (Laarman & Gregersen, 1996:249). Revenue, on the other hand, is the income that is generated from delivering adventure activities (Edginton *et al*., 2004:359). In respect of the pricing of adventure activities, the following factors should be carefully examined and evaluated (Bukart & Medlik, as cited by Saayman, 2006:137):

- Development costs (i.e. equipment, transportation, supplies, etc.);
- Marketing expenses (promotions mix);
- Adventure product type (air-, water-, land- or mixed-based);
- Percentage profit desired (premium, penetration, economy or skim pricing); and
- Type of tourist (soft or hard adventure tourists; local or international tourists, children, teens, young adults or mature adults; nationality).

In addition, pricing strategies should also be considered as they play an important role for determining an appropriate pricing structure and for protecting long-term profitability (Friesner, 2013b). Pricing strategies are generally applied for several reasons (Hurd *et al*., 2008:181):

- To recover the operational costs of offering services;
- To generate additional revenue;
- To establish a price-quality relationship;
- To promote efficiency and shift demand during different seasons;
- To influence behaviour through damage deposits and early registry; and
- Adjusting or extending a product's life cycle.

Amongst all these mentioned reasons for the development of pricing strategies, four basic pricing strategies exist (Figure 3.6). The four basic pricing strategies are as follows:

- **Premium pricing**
  - A high price is charged for a high quality product.
- **Penetration pricing**
  - Prices are set artificially low to gain market share and once achieved, price will increase.
- **Economy pricing**
  - This is budget pricing, where operational and marketing costs are kept low to provide a product at minimum cost.
- **Skim pricing**
  - Charging a higher price because there is a lack of competition. This also means higher profits.

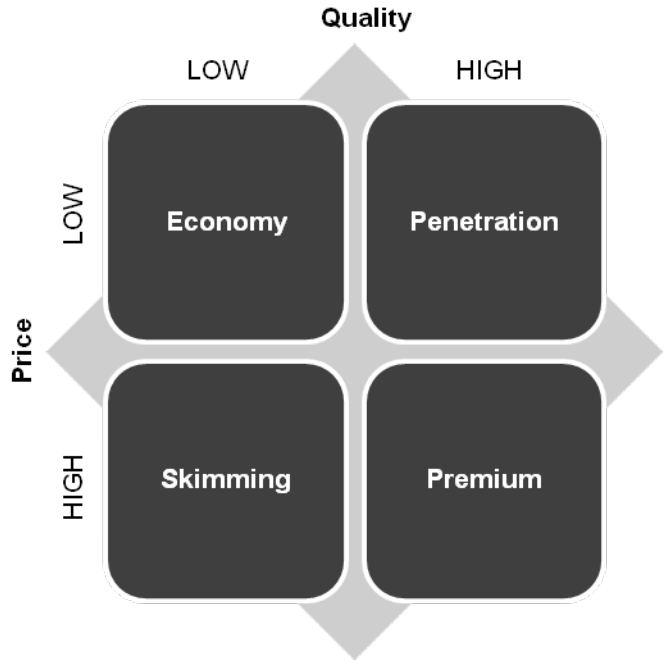

Figure 3.6: Pricing strategies matrix
(Source: Friesner, 2013b)

The four pricing strategies only outline the basis for setting prices and are not subject to all purchasing behaviours (Hurd *et al*., 2008:181). Other pricing strategies may include physiological pricing (pricing that responds to an emotional basis), optional pricing (pricing for product extras), bundle pricing (combined product pricing), geographical pricing (pricing based on product rarity) and promotional pricing (added-value pricing) (Friesner, 2013b). By considering the above budgeting elements and pricing strategies, South African National Parks can determine a pricing structure for any new adventure activity that is to be developed.

3.5.2.2. Place

In the marketing mix, the place (also known as distribution) is perceived as how the organization gets its product to the consumers (Hurd *et al*., 2008:176). In this study, national parks are the place of distribution for adventure activities. Different national parks have different landscapes, including Nama Karoo, Fynbos, Forest, Thicket, Grassland, Wetland, Succulent Karoo and Savannah (SANParks, 2008a:15; SANParks, 2008b:13; SANParks, 2008c:24; SANParks, 2010:25-26; SANParks, 2012c:2-3). This means that different adventure activities can be developed to suit to the different landscapes found in national parks. For example, Agulhas National park has a coastline where ocean-based activities could be developed, such as surfing, diving, sailing and snorkelling. Golden Gate National Park is situated in the Maluti Mountains where abseiling, rock climbing, mountain biking, trekking and hiking could be delivered. The Garden Route National Park covers the Tsitsikamma Forest and Knysna Lake section, making it an ideal park for bird watching and camping activities (SANParks, 2010:16).

Place is also concerned with making a product/service available at an appropriate location to fulfil its customer's needs (Batra, 2013:2). Determining the appropriate location for adventure activities to take place in can depend on several place-related elements, such as (Saayman, 2006:129; Hurd *et al*., 2008:176):

- **Distribution channels and intensity**
  - Marketing channels are the flow of products/services form the producer to the final user (Batra, 2013:3). Distribution channels can either be direct or indirect. Direct distribution does not include intermediaries to distribute the product and is directly distributed by the producer, whereas indirect distribution involves intermediaries (Batra, 2013:8). For example, South African National Parks could use their own staff to deliver adventure activities or they could outsource them to other adventure agencies to deliver the activities in the park. In respect of the intensity of distribution, the relative availability of these services depends on the distributors (McCarville, 2002:182).
- **Community composition**
  - Community composition requires investigating all who contribute to the product's success in a predetermined location, including local tourism-related businesses (retailers, transport, hospitality, catering, information services, etc.), human resources (potential staff), local authority and competition (Hurd *et al*., 2008:178).
- **Target market composition**
  - To determine the composition of a target market it is important for any tourism organization to answer the following market-related questions
    - Who is the adventure tourist?
    - Where do they come from?

        - What are their needs?
    - To conduct an empirical analysis of tourist needs and motives for adventure activities in South African National Parks is a secondary objective of this study (c.f. 1.4.2.3).
- **Location accessibility**
    - Accessibility is the capability of the intended target market to move to and from a destination/attraction (Saayman, 2006:129). In this regard, transportation is the main factor when it comes to location accessibility (Hurd *et al*., 2008:179). Besides having accessibility to a location, the adventure activity can also be an unconventional means of transport, such as zip lining, hot air ballooning, quad biking, distance hiking, helicopter flights, etc. (Whiriskey & McCarthy, 2006:1). South African National Parks will have to consider accessibility when new adventure activities are implemented. This can be done by either using the adventure activity as a means of transport or by developing new roads, routes, trails and motorized forms of transport for access.
- **Cultural and natural resources**
    - Adventure tourism relies on the cultural and natural environment for delivering adventure activities (ATTA, 2011:6). The physical attributes of these resources contribute largely to the overall experience of adventure (Williams & Souter, 2009:415).

3.5.2.3. Promotion

Tourism has become a centralized system for information technologies (Conway & Timms, 2010:6). Information technology connects tourists to tourism organizations through various mediums (promotions and advertisements) and networks (internet/online networks) (Table 3.4). These mediums and networks have played a major part in developing tourism products and promoting product awareness amongst tourists (Conway & Timms, 2010:6). Information technology has definitively proven to be a sustainable feature in the development of adventure tourism (Buckley, 2003:129). One example of how information technology provides a sustainable feature for adventure tourism is through wildlife and nature documentaries and magazines. These information technologies spread environmental awareness while also creating the desire to participate in nature-based adventure experiences (Buckley, 2003:129). Adventure tourism organizations also use different information technologies to advertise, promote and sell adventure tourism packages and tours (De Kock & Saayman, 2005:54). These tools are known as the promotions mix and include components, such as advertising, sales promotions and publicity (Brown, 1996b).

Table 3.4: Promotions mix

Promotional tool	Description	Types	Examples
Advertising	A paid form of communication through a media outlet that is paid for and controlled by the sponsoring organization.	Print advertising	Newspapers, magazines, books, posters, flyers
		Broadcast advertising	Radio, television, internet
		Direct advertising	Via letter, fax or phone call
Sale promotions	A financial value is added to a product or service to increase awareness and participation rates.	Promotional pricing	Discounts, half-off pricing, buy two get one free
		Free offers	Passes for free administration, free for children under 12
		Prizes	Giveaways, prizes, contests
		Celebrities	Local or national celebrities as spokespersons or for autograph signings
Personal selling	Face-to-face communication with the intention to exchange or sell something.	Face-to-face	At conferences, meetings, events, in the organization itself or capturing outside the organization.
Publicity	An unpaid form of communication activities to create and maintain favourable public relations, where the organization is not identified as the direct sponsor.	Broadcast media	Television, radio
		News releases	Magazines, newspapers, public service announcements

(Sources: Brown, 1996b; Hurd *et al*., 2008; Gharibi, Danesh & Shahrodi 2012)

The promotions mix is used for communicating product/service benefits to a target market (Hurd *et al*., 2008:185). To effectively communicate these benefits and to increase product awareness, the promotional tool in use must follow a pattern that will engage the viewer with the advertisement (Rawal, 2013:39). One such pattern is the AIDA (Attention, Interests, Desires and Actions) model approach (Rawal, 2013:39). The AIDA model allows an organization and its product to better acquaint itself with a target audience by focussing on the attentions, interests, desires and actions of the audience (Rawal, 2013:39).

- **Attention**

The promotional tool should grab the attention of the target audience. This is achieved by making the product appealing (pictures, benefits, colours, etc.) and giving the target audience a reason to take notice (Joseph, 2013). An organization can grab attention by providing shocking facts about the product, problems the product can solve or using the element of surprise (Joseph, 2013). For example, pictures in a mountain climbing advertisement of exotic mountain ranges can capture a rock climber, abseil adventurer or even a leisure tourist's attention.

- **Interest**

After the promotional tool has grabbed the attention of its intended audience, it should maintain attention and keep audiences engaged. This can be done through the use of an emotional appeal that addresses the value of a product on the lives of its target audience (Rawal, 2013:39). For example, adventure activities can be marketed to address unbalanced lifestyles caused by stress and urbanization or identify the physical benefits you can derive from participating (Swart & Van Andel, 2007:88-89). For example, by identifying emotionally appealing qualities, such as escape from routine or stress free experiences in the mountain climbing advertisement, the organization can keep a person's attention.

- **Desire**

The next stage would be to convert interest into desire. The objective here is to show how the product can solve a problem or how its benefits can fulfil a need (Joseph, 2013). A common process used in this stage is the before and after technique (Joseph, 2013). This allows the participant to capture the positive transformation process. For example, uShaka Marine World uses pictures of people having fun at its marine park (uShaka Marine World, 2013). With reference to the mountain climbing advertisement, before and after pictures could illustrate the joy of the participants when they reach the summit of the mountain.

- **Action**

The desire should be persuasive enough for the audience to make a buying decision or to require more information about the product (Rawal, 2013:40). Product benefits should thus be clearly positioned in the minds of its audience. With the decision to buy, the process comes to an end, but the responsibility remains with the advertiser/organization to reassure the buyer that their decision was correct (Gharibi *et al*., 2012:927). Tourism organizations can do this by providing the opportunity for customer feedback, complaint services and product warranty.

By using the model's four steps, the tourism organization can adapt a product's features, designs and pricing structure to appropriately influence a tourist decision-making process (Kam, 2010).

3.6. Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to do an analysis of adventure tourism product development. Adventure tourism products refer to the adventure activities people participate in at a destination or as a method of travel (Page *et al*., 2006:52). Adventure activities usually involve interaction with two of the following elements: interaction with nature, cultural interaction and physical performance involving risk (ATTA, 2011:15). Although adventure activities are presented as services, they are constructed from both tangible and intangible product types, including guides and instructors, goods (equipment and supplies), physical structures, natural and cultural resources, services, and experiences (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:76). The amount of service provided by tour operators in delivering adventure activities may differ according to whether the tour operator fulfils the role of facilitator or that of direct service provider (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:76). How these services are developed and managed can also determine how beneficial adventure activities may be as a sustainable tourism product.

Whenever new tourism products are developed, a product development process should be followed. Saayman (2006:119) identified five stages to developing new tourism products, including idea processing, sifting, evaluation, development and product commercialization. After a product is commercialized, the product begins its life cycle. Tourism products move through five life cycle stages, namely: introduction, growth, maturity, saturation and decline or modification (Saayman, 2006:115). South African National Parks currently resides in the maturity phase and is heading for the decline phase. It is therefore important for South African National Parks to develop new adventure activities to help combat increases in conservation costs.

In adventure tourism, tourism product development can be described as the development of new adventure activities or the refreshment of existing adventure activities. There are different stages in the development of tourism products, ranging from low-risk (existing customers / existing products), medium-risk (new customers / existing products), high-risk (existing customers / new products) to very high-risk strategies (new customers / new product) (CTC, 2003:11). The primary objective of this study is to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks, but to achieve this would also require looking into new adventure activities for current visitors. By using the marketing mix, national parks can employ product, price, place and promotion strategies within the different stages of product development when developing new adventure activities.

CHAPTER 4
EMPERICAL RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

A secondary objective of this study is to conduct an empirical analysis of tourist needs and motives for adventure activities in South African National Parks. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to provide empirical results regarding the data collected from questionnaires based on respondent feedback surrounding adventure activity needs for South African National Parks. To achieve the aim of this chapter, both exploratory and descriptive research methods were used in providing systematic and investigative information regarding the data collected from questionnaires. Empirical results in the following chapter are divided into two sections, namely

- Section A provides a descriptive analysis of the socio-demographic profile of respondents, the adventure activity needs and the adventure participation motives of tourists visiting South African National Parks. Included in this section is a factor analysis of soft adventure activities, hard adventure activities and adventure participation motives.
- Section B provides an exploratory analysis of soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives. T-tests and ANOVA's were carried out to compare socio-demographic characteristics and adventure behaviour responses with factor analyses.

SECTION A: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.2. Socio-demographic profile

In this segment the socio-demographic details from the respondents will be discussed. This will include the following: gender, home language, marital status, province of residence, highest level of education and accompanying children.

4.2.1. Gender

Figure 4.1 shows that 51% of the respondents were female and 49% were male.

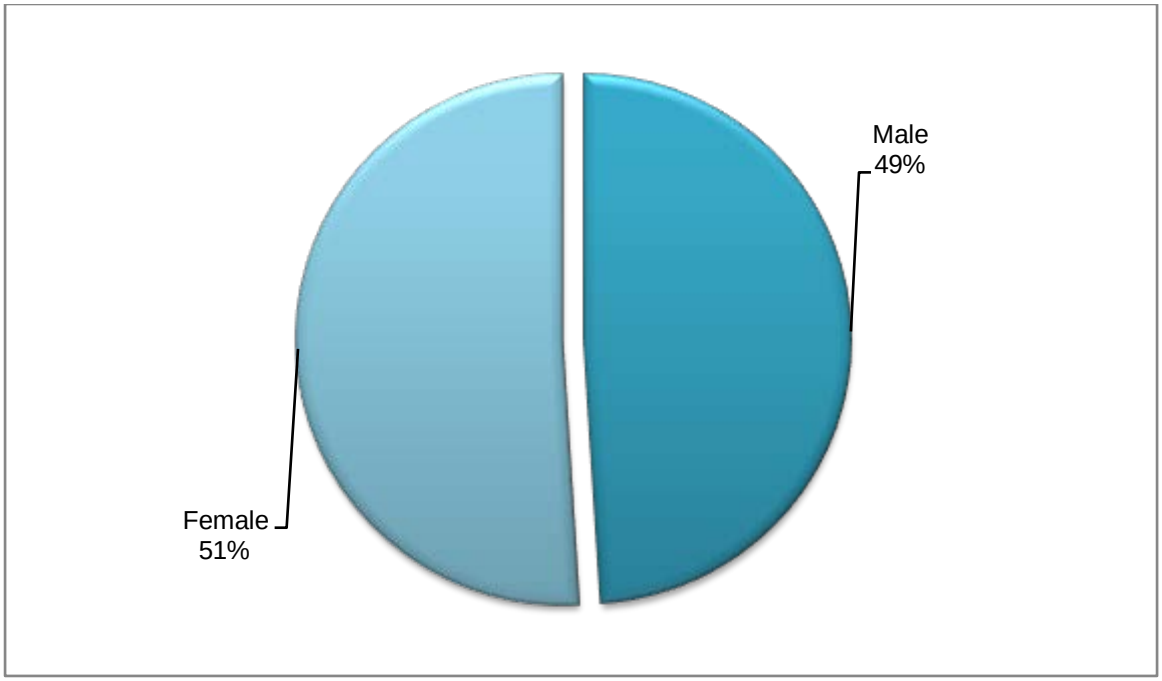

Figure 4.1: Gender

4.2.2. Age

As shown in Table 4.1, the largest category of respondents was between the ages 50 and 59 years (32%), followed by those who were 60 years and older (22%) and those between the ages of 40 and 49 years (21%). Du Plessis, Van der Merwe and Saayman (2013:195) obtained similar results in a visitor's profile of tourists visiting national parks between 2007 and 2009, which also identified that the majority of visitors were of a more mature age Their findings indicated that the majority of visitors were between the ages of 35-49 years (40%), while the second most number of visitors was between the ages of 50-64 years (30%) (Du Plessis *et al*., 2013:195). As a contrast to this, the smallest number of respondents for this study was identified to be 19 years and younger (1%), followed by those who were aged between 20 to 29 years (5%). The average age of respondents was 49 years.

Table 4.1: Age

AGE CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE
<19 years	1%
20-29 years	5%
30-39 years	19%
40-49 years	21%
50-59 years	32%
60+ years	22%
AVERAGE AGE:	49 years

4.2.3. Home language

Sixty-eight percent (68%) of the respondents spoke English as a home language, followed by 28% Afrikaans-speaking respondents (Figure 4.2). Four percent (4%) of respondents spoke other languages, which included Dutch, German, French, Italian and Tshivenda. Du Plessis *et al*., (2013:195) also found similar results for tourists visiting national parks between 2007 and 2009, where 52% of tourists spoke English as their first language and 42% of tourists spoke Afrikaans as their first language. By comparison, the only noticeable difference lies between Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents, where the number of English-speaking visitors has increased and the number of Afrikaans-speaking visitors declined since 2009.

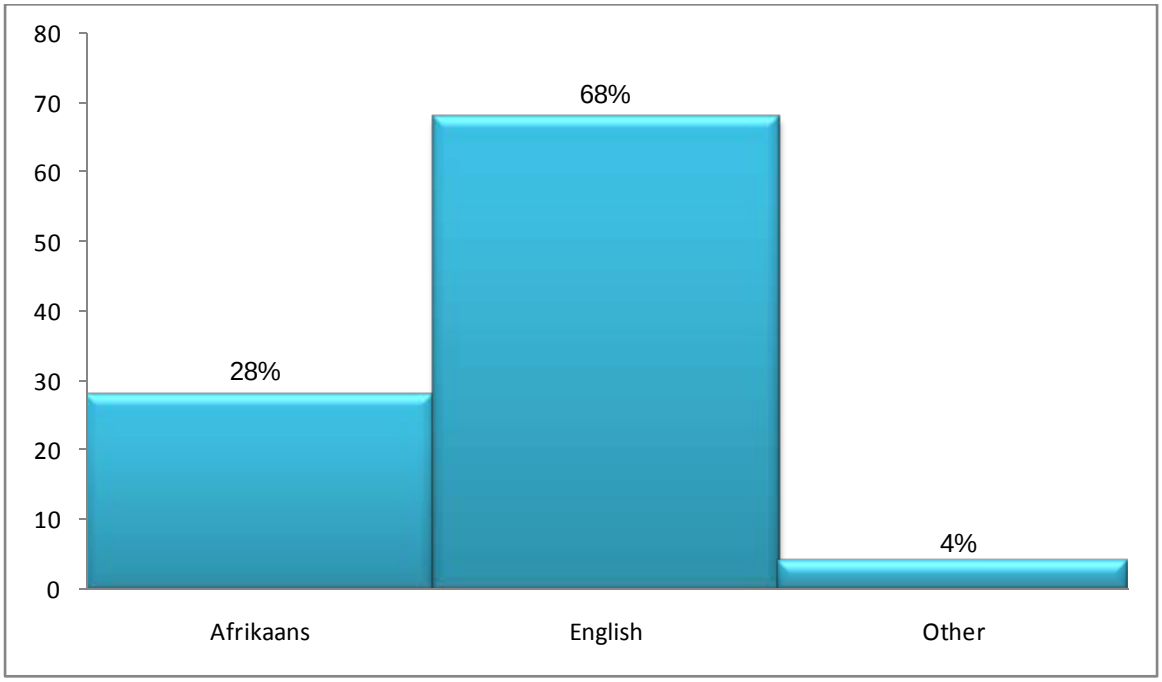

Figure 4.2: Home language

4.2.4. Marital status

As identified in Table 4.2, the majority of respondents (67%) were married, 14% were single and 10% indicated that they were living together. A visitor's profile of tourists visiting national parks during 2007 and 2009 yielded similar results, where 69% of visitors indicated being married (Du Plessis *et al*., 2013:195). Similar results were also found for visitors visiting Magoebaskloof Adventures during the year 2010, where the majority of visitors reported being married (Terblanche, 2012:90)

Table 4.2: Marital status

MARITAL STATUS	PERCENTAGE
Single	14%
Married	67%
Living together	10%
Divorced	6%
Widow/er	3%

4.2.5. Province of residence

Table 4.3 indicates that the majority of respondents (41%) reside in Gauteng, followed by the Western Cape (21%) and the Eastern Cape (11%). Du Plessis's *et al*. (2013:195) visitor profile of tourists visiting national parks between 2007 and 2009 yielded similar results, where the majority of respondents (52%) resided in Gauteng and in the Western Cape (19%).

Four percent of respondents resided in countries outside the borders of South Africa, which included the United Kingdom, the United States of America, the United Arab Emirates, Australia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Cyprus, England, France, Germany, Ireland, Mozambique, Namibia, the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland.

Table 4.3: Province of residence

PROVINCE	PERCENTAGE
Gauteng	41%
KwaZulu-Natal	8%
Eastern Cape	11%
Western Cape	21%
Limpopo	3%
Mpumalanga	7%
Free State	2%
North-West	3%
Outside RSA	4%

4.2.6. Highest level of education

According to Figure 4.3, the majority of respondents were well educated, as 47% had a diploma or a degree and 21% had a post-graduate qualification. Terblanche (2012:90) found similar results for adventure tourists visiting Magoebaskloof Adventures, where the majority of visitors had either obtained a diploma or a degree.

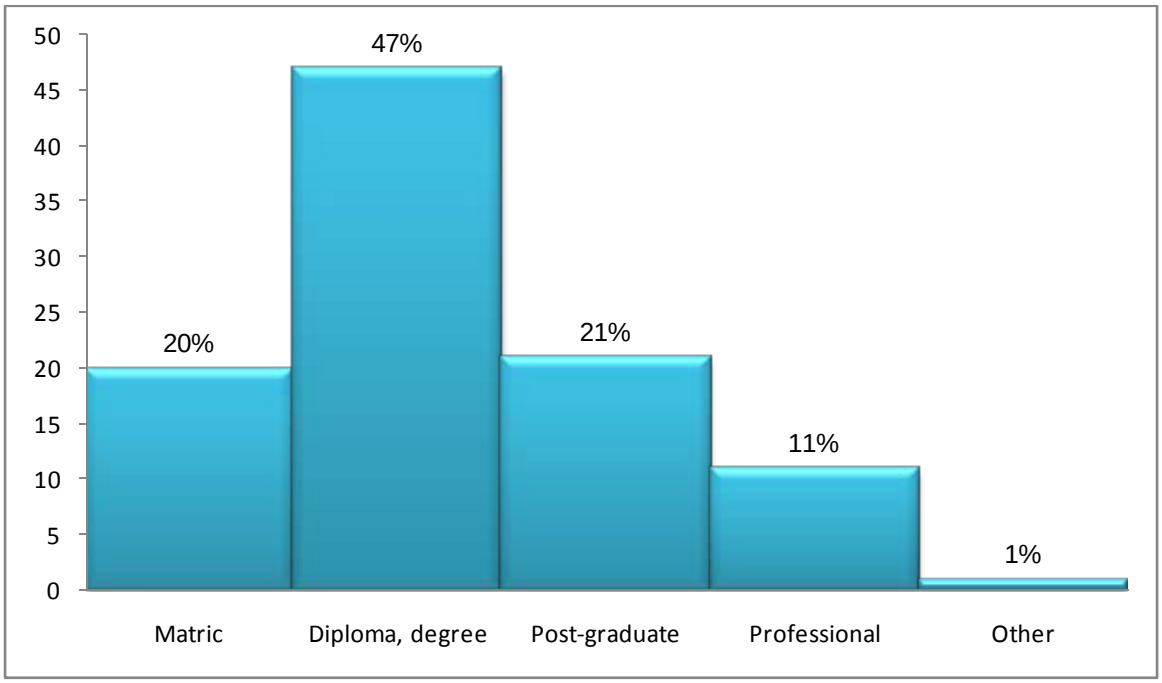

Figure 4.3: Highest level of education

4.2.7. Dependent children included in travel party

Figure 4.4 shows that 34% of respondents indicated that dependent children were included in their travelling party, whereas 66% of respondents were not accompanied by dependent children.

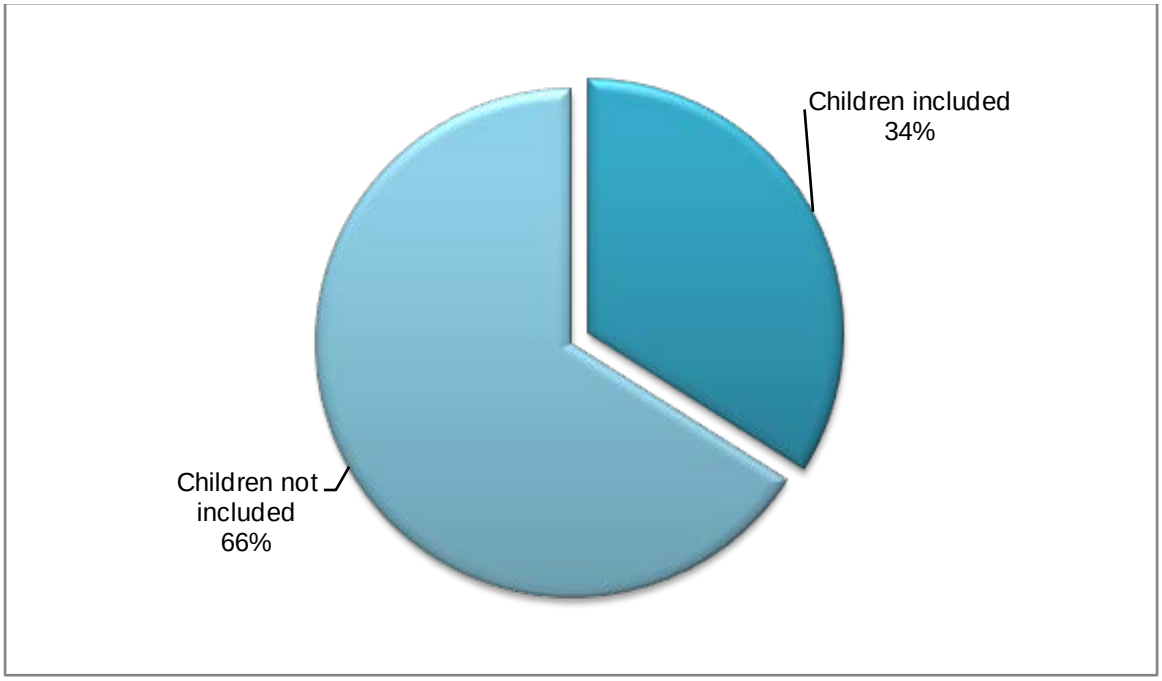

Figure 4.4: Dependent children included in travel party

4.2.8. Children's age categories

According to Table 4.4, the age of the majority of dependent children who were included in a travelling party ranged between 19 and 25 years (38%), followed by those between 7 and 13 years (26%).

Table 4.4: Age categories of dependent children included in travel party

AGE CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE
0-6 years	15%
7-13 years	26%
14-18 years	21%
19-25 years	38%

4.2.9. Number of accompanying children

Forty-nine percent (49%) of the respondents who indicated that dependent children were included in their travelling party were accompanied by two (2) children, followed by 33% of respondents with only one (1) accompanying child (Table 4.5). The average number of accompanying children included in the traveling party was two (2) children.

Table 4.5: Number of accompanying children

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	PERCENTAGE
One (1) child	33%
Two (2) children	49%
Three (3) children	11%
Four (4) children	7%
Average number of accompanying children:	2 children

4.3. Tourist adventure activity needs

The following subsection will discuss the questionnaire results from Section B regarding adventure activity needs in national parks.

4.3.1. Wild Card membership

According to Figure 4.5, 69% of the respondents indicated that they owned a Wild Card, whereas 31% did not.

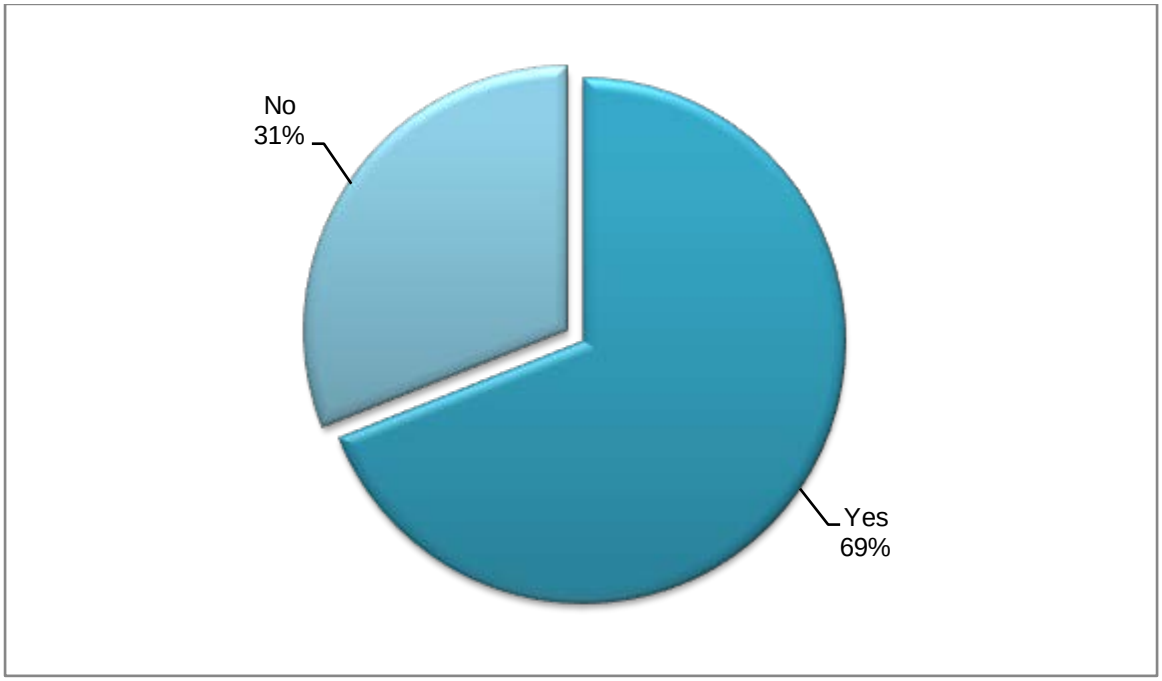

Figure 4.5: Wild Card membership

4.3.2. Visits to parks over the past five years

According to Table 4.6, twenty-four percent (24%) of respondents indicated that they had visited national parks eleven times and more over the past five years, followed by 13% who had visited parks three times and 11% who had visited parks six times. Only 3% of respondent indicated that they had not visited national parks over the past five years. On average, respondents had visited national parks 8.54 times over the past five years. A visitor profile of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park, between 2001 and 2007, indicated an average of six visits per person to

national parks over a three-year period (Kruger & Saayman, 2010:97). A visitor profile for Tsitsikamma National Park, between 2001 and 2008, indicated an average of four visits per person to national parks over a three-year period (Kruger & Saayman, 2010:97). By combining the average visits of both these national parks and calculating their combined average visits in a five-year period, similar visiting results were found (average of 8.33 visits) compared to those identified in this study (average of 8.54 visits).

Table 4.6: Times visited over past five years

Number of visits	Percentage of respondents
Had not visited	3%
Once	6%
Twice	9%
3 times	13%
4 times	9%
5 times	7%
6 times	11%
7 times	3%
8 times	6%
9 times	1%
10 times	8%
11+ times	24%
Average	8.54 times

4.3.3. Length of stay

As shown in Table 4.7, the majority of respondents (69%) indicated that they had stayed an average of two to seven nights at national parks, followed by those who indicated staying eight nights or more (23%). Only 6% of the respondents indicated that they do not overnight at national parks, making them primarily day visitors. The average number of overnight stays when visiting national parks is 5.97 nights.

A visitor profile of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park (2001 to 2007) and Tsitsikamma National Park (2001 to 2008) showed similar results for overnight stays, namely an average of two- to seven-days stay during the summer (Kruger & Saayman, 2009:97). However, during winter periods the length of stays shifted from four to fourteen days for the Kruger National Park and two to five days for Tsitsikamma National Park (Kruger & Saayman, 2009:97). In addition, Tiedt (2011:65) identified that overnight stays at Addo National Park only averaged one to three nights during 2005 to 2008. It is therefore evident that overnight stays may differ from park to park and from season to season.

Table 4.7: Average number of overnight stays

Average number of overnight stays	Percentage of respondents
0 Nights / Day visits	6%
1 Night	2%
2 Nights	13%
3 Nights	12%
4 Nights	13%
5 Nights	15%
6 Nights	5%
7 Nights	11%
8 Nights	3%
9 Nights	1%
10+ Nights	19%
Average	**5.97 Nights**

4.3.4. Adventure activity participation

When asked whether or not the respondents participated in adventure activities, the majority of respondents indicated in the affirmative (61%), while thirty-nine percent (39%) indicated that they do not participate in adventure activities (Figure 4.6). The fact that the majority of respondents do participate in adventure activities, means that there is a large market of visitors that would potentially participate in new adventure activities in national parks.

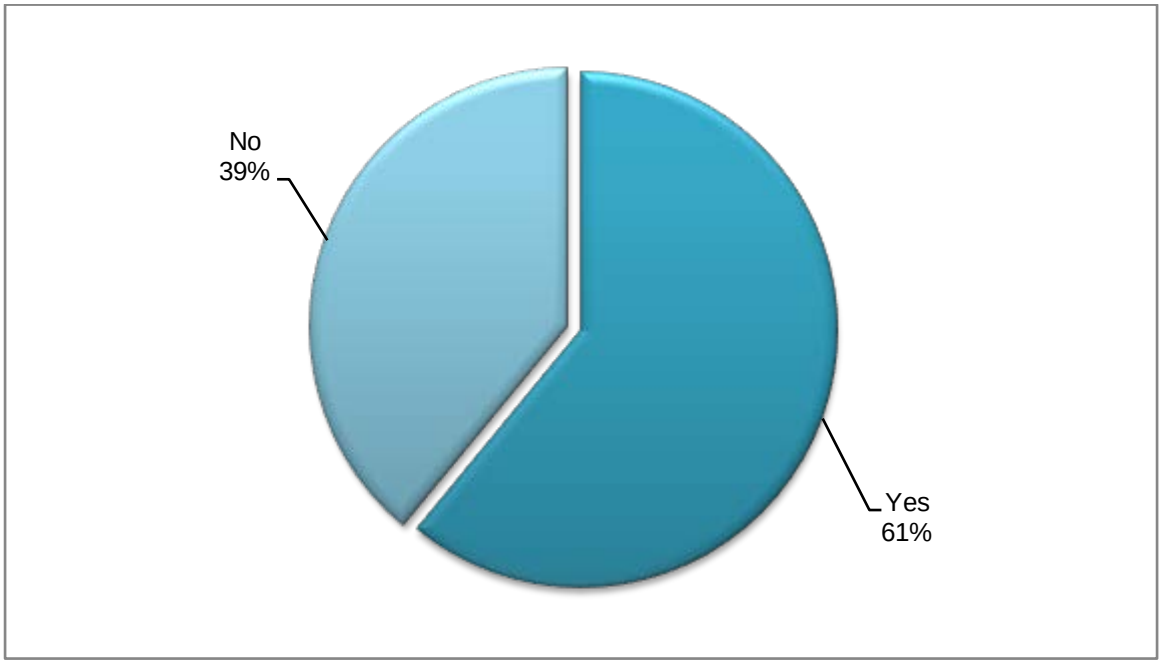

Figure 4.6: Participation in adventure activities

4.3.5. Sufficiency of current activities in national parks

Respondents were asked if they thought that the current activities being delivered in national parks were sufficient. Seventy-nine (79%) said that current activities were sufficient, while 21% thought it was not (Figure 4.7).

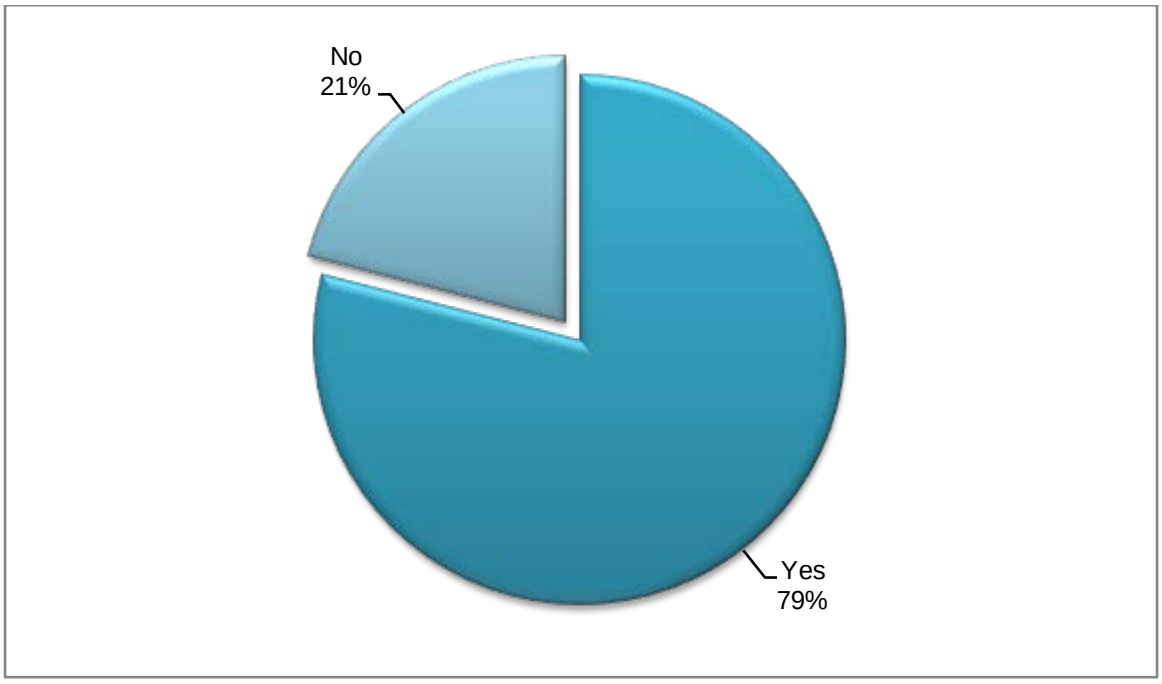

Figure 4.7: Sufficiency of current activities in national parks

Respondents were furthermore asked to motivate their reasons for why they thought that currents activities in national parks were sufficient or insufficient.

Popular answers for why current activities were sufficient in national parks

- More activities will interfere with the park's role to conserve and preserve nature (concern for environmental impact);
- Adventure activities simply have no place in national parks;
- More activities would encourage commercialization and attract the wrong type of tourist;
- More adventure activities will disrupt and endanger wildlife and can disturb or damage their habitats;
- More activities will disrupt other visitors and the nature experience; and
- Interferes with relaxation and the peace and quiet of the park.

Popular answers for why current activities were not sufficient in national parks

- There is a need for greater variety of activities in all national parks;
- There is a need for more 4x4 routes, guided trails, walking trails, photography and educational activities and wilderness camping;

- There is a need for more activities for children;
- There is a need for current activities to adjust to changing market needs, such as lengthier activities and a more frequent delivery of activities;
- Current activities are expensive and difficult to book.

It was stated by one respondent that any new activities should be competently managed, supervised and delivered in a way that contributes to park conservation.

4.3.6. Willingness to pay

The majority of respondents (65%) confirmed that they were willing to pay for adventure activities in national parks, compared to the 35% of respondents that said no (Figure 4.8).

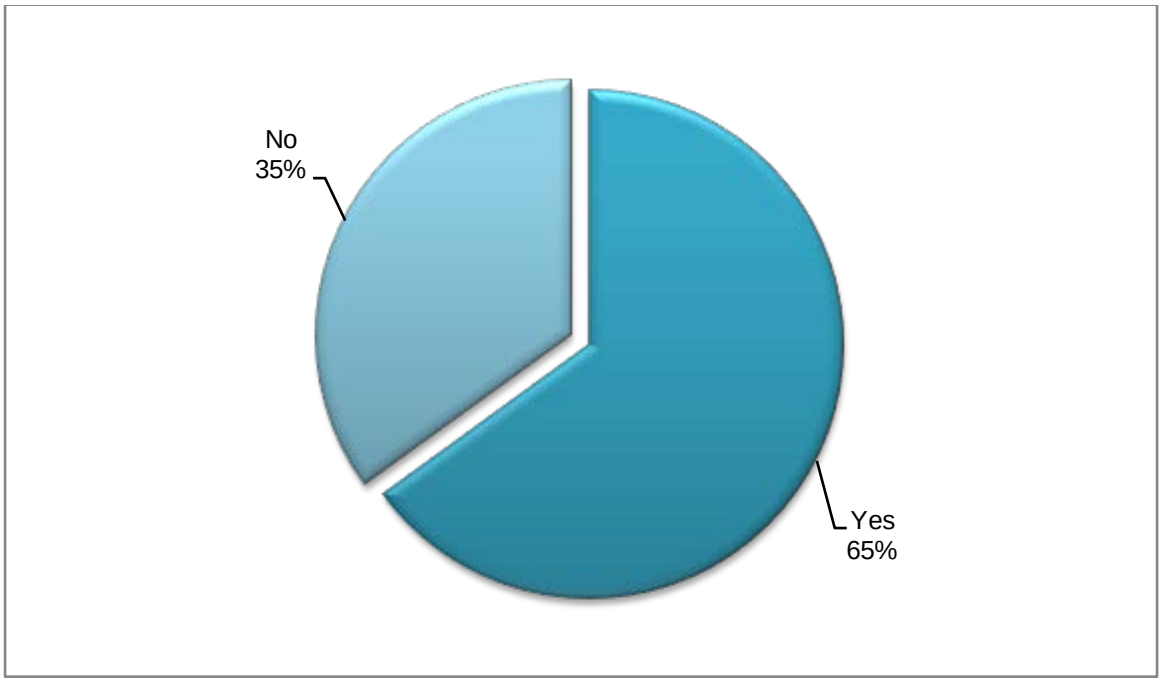

Figure 4.8: Willingness to pay for adventure activities

If they agreed to pay for adventure activities, respondents were asked to extend their answer by indicating the amount they would be willing to pay for an adventure activity per person. The majority of respondents (33%) were willing to pay between R101 and R200 for an adventure activity per person, followed by those (30% of respondents) willing to pay between R201 and R300 (Table 4.8). On average, respondents were willing to pay between R201-R300 for an adventure activity per person. This gives SANParks an idea of a price range within which adventure activities can be priced.

Table 4.8: Amount willing to pay for adventure activities

Amount	Percentage
R1-R100	13%
R101-R200	33%
R201-R300	30%
R301-R400	10%
R401-R500	8%
R500+	6%

4.3.7. Importance of adventure activities in national parks

Respondents were asked to assess the degree of importance of a list of various soft adventure (Table 4.9) and hard adventure activities (Table 4.10) to be hosted by national parks.

The majority of respondents felt that the following top-10 soft adventure activities were *important* to *extremely important* for national parks:

- Bird watching (95%);
- Safari/Game viewing (95%);
- Night drives (93%);
- Guided walks (88%);
- Botanical tours (86%);
- Campsite camping (85%);
- Stargazing (79%);
- Hiking (73%);
- 4x4 trails guided (72%); and
- Archaeological tours (70%).

The following top-10 soft adventure activities were rated as *less important* to *not important*:

- Jet skiing (96%);
- Hunting (94%);
- Archery (93%);
- Orienteering (92%);
- Sandboarding (89%);
- Surfboard surfing (88%);
- Quad biking (87%);
- Obstacle course (86%);
- Motorboat rides (85%); and
- Low-rope activities (84%).

Table 4.9: Level of importance: Soft adventure activities

SOFT ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES					
Activity	**Not important**	**Less important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Extremely important**
Cycling routes	54%	18%	19%	7%	2%
Backpacking	26%	20%	31%	15%	8%
Guided walks	4%	8%	30%	28%	30%
Horseback safaris	38%	23%	24%	11%	4%
Fishing (catch and release)	56%	17%	15%	5%	7%
Campsite camping	6%	9%	20%	19%	46%
Snorkelling	42%	23%	19%	9%	7%
Canoeing	38%	22%	25%	10%	5%
Sailing	56%	28%	12%	3%	1%
Surfboard surfing	65%	23%	9%	2%	1%
Hot air ballooning	40%	23%	23%	9%	5%
Quad biking	75%	12%	9%	3%	1%
Scuba diving	48%	21%	19%	7%	5%
Bird watching	2%	3%	17%	24%	54%
Cultural dances	46%	27%	20%	5%	2%
4x4 trails self-drive	19%	13%	24%	20%	24%
4x4 trails guided	16%	12%	28%	21%	23%
Hiking	15%	12%	28%	22%	23%
Safari/Game viewing	1%	4%	9%	19%	67%
Zip lining	56%	19%	14%	9%	2%
Hunting	91%	3%	2%	2%	2%
Geographical tours	21%	20%	32%	16%	11%
Archery	81%	12%	4%	2%	1%
Orienteering	53%	20%	19%	7%	1%
Team building	60%	19%	12%	7%	2%
Obstacle course	70%	16%	10%	3%	1%
Night drives	1%	6%	20%	23%	50%
Archaeological tours	15%	15%	38%	15%	17%
Historical tours (museums and historical buildings)	19%	17%	36%	13%	15%
Low-rope activities	64%	20%	14%	0%	2%
Motorboat rides	69%	16%	11%	4%	0%
Paddleboats	53%	20%	18%	5%	4%
Sandboarding	72%	17%	9%	2%	0%
Jet skiing	85%	11%	3%	1%	0%

Table 4.9: Level of importance: Soft adventure activities (continued)

SOFT ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES					
Activity	**Not important**	**Less important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Extremely important**
Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding)	64%	13%	10%	7%	6%
Elephant rides	70%	11%	10%	5%	4%
Stargazing	9%	12%	29%	22%	28%
Botanical tours (Tsitsikamma forests)	9%	5%	30%	25%	31%

As indicated in Table 4.10, the following hard adventure activities were rated as *important* to *extremely important* for national parks:

- Wilderness camping (81%);
- Field-guide training (77%); and
- Survival and wilderness training (54%).

The following 10 hard adventure activities had the most responses for being rated as *less important* to *not important*:

- Cliff jumping (90%);
- Bungee jumping (89%);
- Off-road and dirt biking (89%);
- Skydiving (88%);
- Hang gliding (88%);
- High-rope activities (87%);
- Kitesurfing (87%);
- Paragliding/Parasailing (85%);
- Shark diving (79%); and
- Abseiling (77%).

Table 4.10: Level of importance: Hard adventure activities

HARD ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES					
Activity	**Not important**	**Less important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Extremely important**
Paragliding/Parasailing	64%	21%	11%	3%	1%
Caving	50%	22%	17%	8%	3%
Kayaking	50%	21%	18%	7%	4%
White-water rafting	48%	20%	19%	9%	4%
Mountain biking	47%	19%	19%	11%	4%
Rock climbing	48%	23%	19%	7%	3%
Survival and wilderness training	28%	18%	24%	17%	13%
Skydiving	71%	17%	6%	4%	2%
Abseiling	61%	16%	14%	5%	4%
Hang gliding	69%	19%	8%	3%	1%
Mountain climbing	49%	18%	18%	8%	7%
Bungee jumping	74%	15%	7%	3%	1%
Kitesurfing	70%	17%	9%	3%	1%
Off-road and dirt biking	74%	15%	7%	3%	1%
Cliff jumping	75%	15%	6%	3%	1%
High-rope activities	72%	15%	9%	2%	2%
Trail running	55%	18%	16%	6%	5%
Field-guide training	13%	10%	26%	20%	31%
Wilderness camping	11%	8%	24%	20%	37%
Shark diving	64%	15%	11%	6%	4%
Survival games	62%	11%	13%	7%	7%

It is evident from Table 4.9 and Table 4.10 that a disparity exists between soft adventure and hard adventure activities. That being said, there seem to be far more soft adventure activities that are rated as important to extremely important compared to hard adventure activities.

4.3.8. Opposed adventure activities

After assessing the degree of importance of a list of various soft and hard adventure activities (Table 4.9 & Table 4.10), respondents were asked to identify which of those activities they would strongly oppose in national parks. Respondents gave strong responses against the delivery of the following activities in national parks:

- Hunting;
- Quad biking;
- Off-road and dirt biking;
- Animal interaction activities;

- Jet skiing;
- Elephant rides;
- Any form of motorised activity;
- Any activity that contributes to noise pollution;
- Any activity that is environmentally unfriendly; and
- Any activity that disrupts or endangers the wildlife.

Furthermore, respondents were also asked to provide their reasons for opposing these adventure activities in national parks. Popular answers included:

- Does not support nature conservation and preservation (negative impact on the environment);
- Noisy and promotes noise pollution;
- Against hunting or hurting animals in national parks, because it is cruel, unethical and inappropriate;
- Disrupts, frightens and endangers wildlife and their habitats;
- They simply do not belong in national parks; and
- They domesticate wildlife and commercialize national parks.

This information can assist national parks with product development of new and current adventure activities and serve as guidelines for what not to develop in national parks (aspects tourists do not like).

4.3.9. The need for other adventure activities in national parks

In this question, respondents were asked if they could identify any other adventure activities that they would like to see in national parks in the near future. The 10 most popular responses included the following activities:

- Wilderness camping;
- Stargazing;
- Educational activities;
- Bird watching;
- Wildlife photography activities and courses;
- Guided walks;
- Nature conservation activities;
- Field-guide training;
- 4x4 Trails; and
- Mountain biking.

Contrary to the above, a minority of the respondents indicated that they do not want to see any other adventure activities in national parks in the near future.

4.3.10. Adventure activities for people with disabilities

In this question, respondents were asked to identify the adventure activities, which they would recommend for people with disabilities. The most popular recommendations included the following activities:

- Guided game drives;
- Stargazing;
- Bird watching;
- Interpretive trail;
- Night drives;
- Guided 4x4 trails; and
- Game viewing.

It is also evident that several respondents indicated that the question was not applicable to them, whereas other respondents suggested that all activities (current and new) should be made available for people with disabilities.

4.3.11. Adventure activities for children

If children are included in the travelling party when visiting national parks, the respondents were asked to identify adventure activities that would match their child's age group (Table 4.11). The following adventure activities were identified as preferable for children aged between 0 and 6 years:

- Animal interaction activities;
- Indoor adventure centre; and
- Horse/Pony riding.

The following adventure activities were identified as preferable for children aged between 7 and 13 years:

- Children's trails;
- Boogie boarding;
- Lantern stalking;
- Obstacle courses;
- Outdoor learning programmes;
- Fishing (catch and release);
- Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding);

- Children's game drives;
- Cycling;
- Horse/Pony riding;
- Indoor adventure centre;
- Youth camps;
- Snorkelling; and
- Wall climbing.

The following adventure activities were identified as preferable for children aged between 14 and 18 years:

- Surfing;
- Zip lining;
- Team building programmes (raft building);
- Adventure programmes (rope courses and orienteering);
- Paint ball;
- Canoeing (guided);
- Youth camps;
- Paddling;
- Wall climbing; and
- Cycling.

Table 4.11: Adventure activities for children

Activity	**Percentage**		
	0-6 years	**7-13 years**	**14-18 years**
Children's game drives	17%	53%	30%
Paint ball	13%	28%	59%
Youth camps	5%	43%	52%
Children's trails	11%	63%	26%
Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding)	37%	54%	9%
Obstacle courses	8%	55%	37%
Outdoor learning programmes	11%	55%	34%
Cycling	9%	47%	44%
Horse/Pony riding	20%	46%	34%
Zip lining	6%	27%	67%
Fishing (catch and release)	9%	55%	36%
Team building programmes (raft building)	6%	33%	61%
Canoeing (guided)	9%	34%	57%

Table 4.11: Adventure activities for children (continued)

Activity	Percentage		
	0-6 years	7-13 years	14-18 years
Indoor adventure centre	32%	46%	22%
Adventure programmes (rope courses and orienteering)	4%	36%	60%
Snorkelling	6%	41%	53%
Paddling	12%	38%	50%
Boogie boarding	7%	58%	35%
Surfing	4%	23%	73%
Lantern stalking	14%	56%	30%
Wall climbing	9%	41%	50%

Besides the listed activities in Table 4.11, respondents were also asked if they could identify any other adventure activities that their children would prefer. Popular activities mentioned include

- Educational activities; and
- Photography activities and courses.

4.4. Adventure participation motives

This subsection covers the motives why tourists participate in adventure activities.

4.4.1. Motives for participating in adventure activities

In this question, respondents were asked to rate the degree of importance amongst a list of various reasons for participating in adventure activities (Table 4.12).

Reasons that were regarded as *important* to *extremely important* were as follows:

- To get in touch with nature (89%);
- To explore a new destination (79%);
- To spend time with family and friends (77%);
- To escape from my routine (71%);
- To have a novel experience (63%);
- To learn new skills (62%);
- To develop skills (59%); and
- Primarily for educational reasons (59%).

The following reasons were regarded as *less important* to *not important at all*:

- To overcome fears (64%);

- For fitness purposes (58%);
- Adventure has unknown outcomes (56%);
- Because it's challenging (52%); and
- To experience thrill and excitement (51%).

Table 4.12: Reasons for participating in adventure activities

Reason	Percentage				
	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important	Extremely important
To have a novel experience	25%	12%	33%	17%	13%
Because it is challenging	36%	16%	30%	13%	5%
To develop skills	25%	16%	30%	17%	12%
To learn new skills	23%	15%	28%	21%	13%
To overcome fear	40%	24%	21%	8%	7%
To get in touch with nature	9%	2%	15%	20%	54%
For fitness purposes	38%	20%	28%	6%	8%
To experience thrill and excitement	33%	18%	21%	13%	15%
To explore a new destination	15%	6%	24%	22%	33%
To escape from my routine	19%	10%	24%	17%	30%
To spend time with friends and family	16%	7%	25%	20%	32%
Primarily for educational reasons	23%	18%	33%	14%	12%
Adventure has unknown outcomes	38%	18%	22%	10%	12%

At the end of this question, the respondents were also given the opportunity to identify any other reasons for participating in adventure activities. Other reasons for participating in adventure included

- To advance conservation;
- For enjoyment purposes;
- For the love of nature;
- For relaxation purposes;
- To have a wildlife experience;
- To have shared experiences;
- To make new friends; and
- To try new things.

4.5. Factor analysis results

Three factor analyses were conducted; the first regarding soft adventure activities, the second regarding hard adventure activities and the third on adventure participation motives. Regarding the three factor analyses, a principal component analysis was done using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation. Factors were determined by using Kaiser's criterion, where components were selected if they had an eigenvalue of 1 or more (Pallant, 2010:181). Al items loaded on a factor had a loading greater than 0.3, indicating that there were reasonably high correlation between factors and their component items. According to Pietersen and Maree (2007:221), the arbitrary chosen cut-off value for a loading is 0.4. Only zip lining (soft adventure item) had a loading score beneath this value, but was placed accordingly due to its strong correlation with the factor team-based. Items that showed double loadings were placed according to its highest loading or according to the factor that best represented its characteristic.

The total variance explained for all three factor analyses was above 50%, which is considered to be the cut-off value for an appropriate fit of the selected components (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:218). In other words, anything above 50% can be seen as an acceptable value to explain variance (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:218; Beavers, Lounsbury, Richards, Huck, Skolits & Esquivel, 2013:8).

4.5.1. Soft adventure factors

A pattern matrix was used to categorize soft adventure activities (forty-one constructs) into eight factors based on their correlating similarity with one another (Table 4.13). From these eight factors, 64.84% of the total variance was explained.

Table 4.13: Pattern matrix: Soft adventure activities

ACTIVITIES	FACTORS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Water-based	Interpretive	Wildlife interaction	Heritage	Consumptive	Trail/ Trekking	Self-executing	Team-based
Surfboard surfing	.735							
Paddle boats	.697							
Sailing	.687							
Snorkelling	.662							
Sandboarding	.623							
Motorboat rides	.619							
Jet skiing	.613							
Scuba diving	.596							
Canoeing	.560							
Safari/Game viewing		.805						
Night drives		.768						
Bird watching		.564						
Stargazing		.440						
Guided walks		.423						
Elephant rides			.852					
Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding)			.819					
Quad biking			.563					
Archaeological tours				-.846				
Historical tours (museums and buildings)				-.825				

Table 4.13: Pattern matrix: Soft adventure activities (continued)

ACTIVITIES	FACTORS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Water-based	Interpretive	Wildlife interaction	Heritage	Consumptive	Trail/ Trekking	Self-executing	Team-based
Geographical tours				-.707				
Cultural dances				-.684				
Botanical tours (Tsitsikamma forests)				-.434				
Hunting					.897			
Archery					.819			
Fishing (catch and release)					.515			
Backpacking						-.659		
Cycling routes						-.601		
Hiking						-.549		
Horseback safaris						-.503		
4x4 trails (guided)							-.623	
4x4 trails (self-drive)							-.752	
Campsite camping							-.666	
Orienteering								-.772
Team building								-.627
Obstacle course								-.522
Zip lining								-.303
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	**0.90**	**0.72**	**0.81**	**0.85**	**0.67**	**0.81**	**0.72**	**0.84**
MEAN VALUE	**1.76**	**3.71**	**1.62**	**2.86**	**1.49**	**2.49**	**3.45**	**1.7**
INITIAL EIGENVALUES: TOTAL	**12.43**	**3.67**	**2.09**	**1.68**	**1.39**	**1.26**	**1.08**	**1.05**

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for the soft adventure factors is .913, which is above .5, indicating that the sample size is adequate for yielding distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:695). According to Barlett's test, $X^2(703) = 7492.650$, $p<.001$ indicates that the correlation within the R-matrix are sufficiently different from zero to warrant an appropriate factor analysis (Field, 2013:695).

The eight soft adventure factors, as identified in Table 4.13, are as follows:

Factor 1: Water-based

This factor encompasses water-related activities, such as surfboard surfing, paddle boats, sailing, snorkelling, sandboarding, motorboat rides, jet skiing and scuba diving. The Cronbach's alpha value for this factor is 0.90, which is a highly acceptable score, and has a mean value of 1.76, which is an indication of unfavourable responses. As water is a large programme area for adventure activities to take place in, it is not uncommon to see water-based activities covering other areas of leisure, sporting and athletic domains (Edginton, Hudson, Dieser & Edginton, 2004:178).

Factor 2: Interpretive

This factor is characterised by activities that require the leadership or guidance of a guide or instructor. Guides are responsible for interpreting and presenting an observational activity in a way that is meaningful, educational and appropriate. This will include making interpretive observations about the environment, wildlife or even the stars. Activities, such as game viewing, night drives, bird watching and stargazing are interpretive activities. This factor has a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.72, while having a mean value of 3.71, which makes it the most important soft adventure factor. With that said, interpretive activities are considered the most important adventure activities for national parks. When looking at the Kruger National Park, some of its most popular activities include night drives, game viewing and bird watching (Kruger Park Travel, 2014). Similar results were found in Costa Rica's Valle Central, a wilderness area rich in fauna and flora diversity, where interpretive activities are playing a major role in attracting tourism to the area (Villalobos-Céspedes, Galdeano-Gómez & Tolón-Becerra, 2010:244).

Factor 3: Wildlife interaction

Wildlife interaction has always been a growing interest all over the world, expanding beyond viewing animals in wilderness areas towards viewing, interacting (riding) and feeding captive wildlife in facilities, such as zoos, circuses, aquariums, animal sanctuaries, fenced game farms, and wildlife parks (Orams, 1996:39). Botswana and Thailand are examples of this growing interest, where elephant riding, petting and feeding has become a custom and popular tourism practice (Duffy & Moore, 2010:742). Quad biking, however, provides a more interactive

experience with nature than game viewing from a car, since the journey can entail various terrains (mud, water etc.) and weather conditions, stopping at view points, up-close viewing of wildlife and personal encounters with local flora. The wildlife interaction activities found in this factor are elephant rides, quad bikes, and limited patting and feeding of animals. This factor has a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.81 and a mean value of 1.62. The low mean value indicates that responses appeared to be more biased towards the negative impacts of wildlife interaction. Negative impacts usually occur when wilderness areas are inappropriately managed, causing an unethical impact on animal welfare, habitats, migration patterns and the ecosystem (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001:35; Orams, 2002:283). Alternatively, wildlife interaction has educational and rehabilitation value that can enhance animal care if managed appropriately (Orams, 2002:290).

Factor 4: Heritage

Heritage tourism activities can encompass any authentic experience where the lives, events, accomplishments and history of people and places are communicated (Pinter, 2005:9). In other words, heritage activities can include travelling to archaeological and historical sites, parks (geographical sites), museums, and places of traditional or ethnic importance (Pinter, 2005:9). The activities identified in this factor include archaeological tours, historical tours, geographical tours, cultural dances and botanical tours. The Cronbach's alpha value for this factor is 0.85, which is highly acceptable, while having a mean value of 2.86, making it the third most important soft adventure factor. In 2004, the National Assembly of Stat Arts Agencies (NASAA, 2004) publicized that 81 percent of travelling US adults was considered either heritage or cultural tourists. For national parks this means that a large percentage of US tourists may seek heritage or cultural experiences when visiting the parks.

Factor 5: Consumptive

Consumptive activities place direct value on the harvesting of natural products (fauna and flora) for consumptive uses (Saayman & Van der Merwe, 2009:208). Consumptive activities identified for this factor include hunting, archery and fishing (catch and release). This factor had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.67 and a mean value of 1.49, making it the least important factor. It can therefore be deduced that the general feeling towards consumptive activities in national parks is one of taboo.

Alternatively, hunting is sometimes used in national parks to regulate specie numbers. This is true for Gros Morne National Park and Terra Nova National Park in Alaska where a hunting season was opened that allowed hunters to hunt moose in an attempt to reduce their populations to protect the region's boreal forests (Alaska Dispatch News, 2014). In Yellowstone

National Park, fly-fishing has become a popular activity in the park since over a hundred lakes, rivers and streams are found in such a condensed area (Yellow Stone National Park, 2014).

Factor 6: Trail/Trekking

In the context of South African National Parks, trail/trekking activities are mostly delimited by zones or trails to control environmental impact. Trail and trekking activities can range from guided or self-guided distance walking, cycling or horse riding, as identified within this factor. The Cronbach's alpha value for this factor is 0.81, indicating strong correlation, while the mean value for this factor is 2.49, making it the fourth most important soft adventure factor. One assumption with regard to this mean value, can be that the level of importance between trail/trekking activities may vary between national parks. In terms of the Kruger National Park, guided bush walks are considered a highly popular activity, while cycling and hiking are amongst the most popular activities in the Garden Route National Park (SANParks, 2014).

Factor 7: Self-executing

This factor includes activities, such as 4x4 trails (guided and self-guided) and campsite camping, where the activity is performed by the participant himself/herself. When looking at guided 4x4 trails in national parks, the guide serves as the convoy leader and interpreter. Activities found in this factor have an acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of 0.72 and a mean value of 3.45, which is also the second most important soft adventure factor. Camping has long been an intrinsic part of most national parks, whereas 4x4 trails have become popular activities in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (Nossob 4x4 Ecotrail), Namaqua National Park (Caracal 4x4 Ecotrail), Marakele National Park (Marakele 4x4 Ecotrail) and Addo Elephant National Park (Bedrogfontein 4x4 Trail) to name but a few (Siyabona Africa, 2014b).

Factor 8: Team-based

Team-based activities are teamwork activities, where social and collaborative skills are developed and used in completing a mutually beneficial task (Wolfe & Gould, 2001:87-88). Activities identified within this section include obstacle courses, team building, zip lining and orienteering. This factor has an acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84 and a low mean value of 1.7. According to the low mean value, team building and social skills development are very low priority/motives for tourists for visiting South African National Parks.

Alternatively, Brecon Beacons National Park (situated within the Brecon Beacons mountain range in South Wales) is an example of a national park that uses group activities to promote team-building opportunities for families, friends and corporate groups (Brecon Beacon National Park, 2014). The most popular of these activities are rope courses, zip-wire activities and raft building (Brecon Beacon National Park, 2014). In addition, rope courses and orienteering have

long been used in outdoor adventure education programmes for developing life skills, social skills, team-building skills, specific skills and physical fitness (Wu, Hsieh & Wang, 2013:219-220).

4.5.2. Hard adventure factors

From twenty-one hard adventure constructs, three factors were identified. The three factors identified in Table 4.14 include adrenaline rush, wilderness training and adventure sports. The three hard adventure factors explained 72.23% of the total variance.

Table 4.14: Pattern matrix: Hard adventure factors

ACTIVITIES	**FACTORS**		
	1	**2**	**3**
	Adrenaline rush	Wilderness training and survival courses	Adventure sports
Bungee jumping	.903		
Skydiving	.880		
High-rope activities	.845		
Off-road and dirt biking	.826		
Cliff jumping	.816		
Hang gliding	.729		
Kitesurfing	.689		
Paragliding/Parasailing	.578		
Abseiling	.578		
Shark diving	.515		
Field-guide training		.890	
Wilderness camping		.757	
Survival and wilderness training		.676	
Survival games		.460	
Kayaking			-.948
Mountain biking			-.880
Trail running			-.747
Rock climbing			-.735
White-water rafting			-.722
Caving			-.682
Mountain climbing			-.645
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	**0.95**	**0.83**	**0.94**
MEAN VALUE	**1.53**	**2.91**	**1.98**
INITIAL EIGENVALUES: TOTAL	**12.18**	**1.91**	**1.08**

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for the hard adventure factors is .955, which is above .5, indicating that the sample size is adequate for yielding distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:695). According to Barlett's test, $X^2(210) = 6865.996$, $p<.001$ indicates that the correlation within the R-matrix are sufficiently different from zero to warrant an appropriate factor analysis (Field, 2013:695).

The three hard adventure factors, as identified in Table 4.14, are as follows:

Factor 1: Adrenaline rush

Adrenaline rush is achieved when thrill and flow take place simultaneously (Buckley, 2012:963). Adrenaline rush is associated with high-risk activities that require advanced skills and mental focus to perform, while providing participants with pure adrenaline-producing experiences. Adrenaline rush activities within this factor consist of the following activities: bungee jumping, skydiving, high-rope activities, cliff jumping, off-road and dirt biking, hang gliding, kitesurfing, parasailing, shark diving and abseiling. The mean value for this factor is 1.53, making it the least important hard adventure factor, while having a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.95, which is a highly acceptable value. The low mean value for this factor is understandable since the average age of respondents who completed the questionnaire was forty-nine years (c.f. 4.2.2). The average age of participates who are usually associated with participating in these activities is thirty-five years (Mill, 2010). Introducing adrenaline rush activities into national parks might be a way of attracting younger tourists to national parks as it is one of the aims of SANParks to attract more younger tourists as well (SANParks, 2013e:8-14).

Factor 2: Wilderness training and survival courses

For the purpose of this study, wilderness training and survival courses refer to those activities that provide a first-hand wilderness experience (Burdette, 2013:15). Wilderness training and survival courses included in this factor are field-guide training, wilderness camping, survival and wilderness training and survival games. The Cronbach's alpha value for this factor is 0.83 and the mean value is 2.91, making it the most important hard adventure factor. Wilderness training has become an important activity for developing outdoor leadership and educating people on the preservation of wilderness areas (WEA, 2014).

For example, in 1977 the Wilderness Education Association (WEA) offered its first national standard programme for outdoor leadership certification in the United States (WEA, 2014). The role of these programmes was aimed at developing outdoor leadership and to educate on the preservation of wild land areas (WEA, 2014). Since then, the WEA expanded into various affiliate networks of universities, colleges and outdoor programmes (WEA, 2014). The Bay Area Wilderness Training project in Oakland (USA) is another example of how popular

wilderness training has become (Burdette, 2013:15). Since 1999, the Bay Area Wilderness Training project has had over 20 000 participants passing through their training courses (Burdette, 2013:15).

Factor 3: Adventure sports

Sport tourism and adventure sports are similar due to the fact that both include travel away from one's primary residence with the purpose of participating in sporting activities for recreation or competition reasons (Hudson, 2003:2). Adventure sports are strongly related to dynamic environments that pose a high degree of risk and are physically demanding to perform (Collins & Collins, 2013:72). Adventure sports also allow tourists to control the decision-making process and create opportunities to develop skills (Collins & Collins, 2013:72). The adventure sports included in this factor are kayaking, mountain biking, trail running, rock climbing, white-water rafting, caving and mountain climbing. The Cronbach's alpha value is 0.94, while having a mean value of 1.98, making it the second most important hard adventure factor.

It was found that mountain biking and kayaking were some of the most important adventure activities in New Zealand's national parks (Becken & Simmons, 2002:345). The Vredefort Dome World Heritage Site in South Africa is an example of an area where adventure sports, such as trail running, rock climbing, white-water rafting and mountain climbing have become very popular (Greffrath & Roux, 2011:400). Local communities and students participate in these activities for recreational and/or training purposes (Greffrath & Roux, 2011:400).

4.5.3. Adventure participation motives (factors)

Only two factors were identified for adventure participation motives (Table 4.15), namely internal and external motives. Internal motives focus on the performance of activity, whereas external motives shift the focus towards external influences (social and physical environment). The two factors explain 62.91 % of total variance.

Table 4.15: Pattern matrix: Adventure participation motives

MOTIVES	FACTORS	
	1	2
	Internal motives (performance of activity)	External motives (Social and physical environment)
Because it is challenging	.940	
To experience thrill and excitement	.821	
For fitness purposes	.782	
Adventure has unknown outcomes	.769	
To overcome fear	.764	
To develop skills	.688	
To learn new skills	.666	
To have a novel experience	.508	
To get in touch with nature		.885
To spend time with friends and family		.831
Primarily for education reasons		.694
To escape from my routine		.675
To explore a new destination		.627
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	**0.91**	**0.85**
MEAN VALUE	**2.54**	**3.44**
INITIAL EIGENVALUES: TOTAL	**6.82**	**1.36**

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for adventure participation motives (factors) is .900, which is above .5, indicating that the sample size is adequate for yielding distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:695). According to Barlett's test, $X^2(78) = 2912.736$, $p<.001$ indicates that the correlation within the R-matrix are sufficiently different from zero to warrant an appropriate factor analysis (Field, 2013:695).

The adventure participation motives (factors), as identified in Table 4.15, are as follows:

Factor 1: Internal motives

Intrinsic motives are caused by a person's internal needs to perform adventure activities, pushing one to achieve inner satisfaction (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:66). The following internal motives were identified for this factor: because it is challenging, to experience thrill and excitement, to develop skills, to learn new skills, develop new skills, adventure has unknown outcomes, and for fitness purposes. This factor had a mean value of 2.54 (of the two factors this one had the lowest mean value) and a highly acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.91.

Ewert, Gilbertson, Luo and Voight (2013:100) also found that fear and danger, physical and emotional challenges, and skill development had strong correlation as reasons to participate in adventure. Ewert *et al*., (2013:101) aligned these motivations with sensation seeking, suggesting that they are linked by a strong interaction effect between the activity type and the experience of a person. According to their theory, participants with more advanced levels of experience would have a higher level of sensation seeking and would rather seek to fulfil internal needs (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999:150; Ewert *et al*., 2013:101).

Factor 2: External motives

External motives are referred to as those motives that are driven by the social and/or physical environment (Buckley, 2012:962). The following external motives included in this factor are to get in touch with nature, spending time with family and friends, exploring a new destination and to escape from daily routines. The mean value for this factor is 3.44, making it the most important factor, with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.85. Terblanche (2012:92) obtained similar results on the travel motives of adventure tourists to Magoebaskloof Adventures in South Africa. She identified that motives, such as exploring a new destination, relaxing and escaping from one's routine had a strong correlation with one another, while also being important reasons for visiting Magoebaskloof Adventures (Terblanche, 2012:92). Ewert *et al*. (2013:100) also found similar correlation values in social motives for pursuing adventure activities, such as meeting new people, spending time with friends and family, and being part of a team.

SECTION B: EXPLORATORY STATISTICS

The results for section B will be discussed in two parts; firstly, by socio-demographic results and secondly, by adventure behaviour results. Two statistical analyses were done, namely t-tests and ANOVA and Post Hoc tests. The mean values identified and discussed in all the tests are from a five-point Likert scale, where five was considered *extremely important* and one was considered *not important* at all. Lastly, Spearman's correlation will be used to examine the relationship between ranked variables.

4.6. Socio-demographic results

The socio-demographic results are divided into two analyses, firstly by t-tests and secondly by ANOVA and Post Hoc tests.

4.6.1. T-test results

T-tests were done to identify if a statistical significant difference existed between gender, home language and Wild Card membership when compared to soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives. According to Pallant (2010:242) if the Sig. (2-Tailed) value is equal or less than 0.05, there is a significant difference in the mean scores on your depended variable for each of the two groups. Tables drawn for illustrating t-test results will only include the factors which indicated statistical significant differences between socio-demographics profiles of interest.

4.6.1.1. Gender

A statistical significant difference was found in soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and in adventure participation motives.

- **Soft adventure factors**

No statistical significant differences were found between male and female respondents for interpretive (p = 0.912), wildlife interaction (p = 0.203), heritage (p = 0.163), and team-based (p = 0.447) activities. This means that the Sig. (2-tailed) value for these factors were above .05. Alternatively, statistical significant differences were found for the following factors (Table 4.16):

- **Water-based:** The mean value for male respondents is 1.85, while the mean value for females is 1.67, indicating that males are more in favour of water-based activities in national parks.
- **Consumptive:** Female respondents had a mean value of 1.38, whereas male respondents were more in favour of hunting, fishing and archery in national parks, having scored a mean value of 1.61.

- **Trail/Trekking:** Male respondents indicated a higher need for trail/trekking activities in national parks (mean value of 2.61) compared to female respondents (mean value of 2.38).
- **Self-executing:** Self-executing activities in national parks are important to both male and female respondents (combined mean value of 3.45), but were considered to be more important to the male respondents (mean value of 3.58) than to the female respondents (mean value of 3.31).

If the mean values are an indication for the above mentioned factors, male respondents tend to have a higher level of favourability towards soft adventure activities for national parks than female respondents.

Table 4.16: Gender comparison for soft adventure factors

Factors	Mean Value Male	Mean Value Female		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Water-based	**1.85**	**1.67**	Equal variances assumed	6.105	.014	2.352	374	**.019***	.18311	.07786	.03002	.33621
			Equal variances not assumed			2.348	360.940	**.019**	.18311	.07800	.02973	.33650
Consumptive	**1.61**	**1.38**	Equal variances assumed	19.937	.000	3.010	371	**.003***	.23589	.07837	.08179	.38999
			Equal variances not assumed			3.007	319.449	**.003**	.23589	.07845	.08155	.39024
Trail/ Trekking	**2.61**	**2.38**	Equal variances assumed	.395	.530	2.264	373	**.024***	.22928	.10125	.03018	.42837
			Equal variances not assumed			2.264	372.899	**.024**	.22928	.10125	.03018	.42837
Self-executing	**3.58**	**3.31**	Equal variances assumed	.539	.463	2.488	377	**.013***	.27501	.11052	.05770	.49232
			Equal variances not assumed			2.490	376.991	**.013**	.27501	.11045	.05783	.49219

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Hard adventure factors**

T-tests indicated that no statistical significant differences were found between male and female respondents for adrenaline rush (p = 0.823) and adventure sports (p = 0.080). As a contrast to

this, a statistical significant difference was found between male and female respondents for wilderness training and survival courses (Table 4.17). Male respondents scored a mean value of 3.03, while females scored a mean value of 2.78. According to these mean values, males are more likely to participate in wilderness training and survival courses in national parks than females.

Table 4.17: Gender comparison for hard adventure factors

Factors	Mean Value Males	Mean Value Female		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Wilderness training and survival courses	**3.03**	**2.78**	Equal variances assumed	.203	.652	2.235	373	**.026***	.25274	.11309	.03037	.47511
			Equal variances not assumed			2.235	372.827	**.026**	.25274	.11308	.03038	.47509

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Adventure participation motives**

Considering external motives, no statistical significant difference was found between male and female respondents (p = 0.674), whereas a statistical significant difference was found for internal motives (Table 4.18). Male respondents scored a mean value of 2.66, making it important motives, while female respondents scored a mean value of 2.40, making it less important motives. Based on this significant difference between the mean values, it can be suggested that males are more likely to be attracted to the physical performance aspects of adventure activities than females.

Table 4.18: Gender comparison for adventure participation motives

Factors	Mean Value Male	Mean Value Female		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Internal	**2.66**	**2.40**	Equal variances assumed	.243	.623	2.330	352	**.020***	.25703	.11032	.04006	.47400
			Equal variances not assumed			2.330	351.997	**.020**	.25703	.11031	.04008	.47398

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

4.6.1.2. Age

Statistical significant differences were found between respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger and forty years and older for all soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives.

- **Soft adventure factors**

Table 4.19 identifies the mean values of respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger and forty-years and older for all soft adventure factors.

Table 4.19: Soft adventure needs between age groups

Soft adventure factors	Age (years)	N	Mean
Water-based	≤39	89	2.11
	40≤	266	1.66
Interpretive	≤39	91	3.99
	40≤	269	3.64
Wildlife interaction	≤39	89	1.95
	40≤	264	1.51
Heritage	≤39	89	3.16
	40≤	267	2.77
Consumptive	≤39	90	1.83
	40≤	263	1.40
Trail/Trekking	≤39	89	2.90
	40≤	266	2.39
Self-executing	≤39	89	3.72
	40≤	269	3.38

Table 4.19: Soft adventure needs between age groups (continued)

Soft adventure factors	Age (years)	N	Mean
Team-based	≤39	89	2.09
	40≤	261	1.58

As shown in Table 4.19, respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger scored higher mean values for all soft adventure factors compared to those aged forty years and older. The most significant disparity between mean values was found in team-based, trail/trekking, water-based and wildlife interaction activities (Table 4.20). According to the mean value results, visitors below the age of forty years are more likely to participate in soft adventure activities in national parks than visitors above this age.

Table 4.20: Age comparison for soft adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Water-based	Equal variances assumed	12.650	.000	4.925	353	**.000***	.45187	.09175	.27142	.63232
	Equal variances not assumed			4.316	124.217	**.000**	.45187	.10469	.24467	.65907
Interpretive	Equal variances assumed	1.891	.170	4.209	358	**.000***	.34858	.08282	.18571	.51146
	Equal variances not assumed			4.560	180.711	**.000**	.34858	.07645	.19774	.49943
Wildlife interaction	Equal variances assumed	29.771	.000	3.930	351	**.000***	.43496	.11067	.21730	.65262
	Equal variances not assumed			3.209	114.347	**.002**	.43496	.13553	.16649	.70343
Heritage	Equal variances assumed	4.210	.041	3.460	354	**.001***	.39419	.11394	.17010	.61829
	Equal variances not assumed			3.215	134.415	**.002**	.39419	.12261	.15170	.63669

Table 4.20: Age comparison for soft adventure factors (continued)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Consumptive	Equal variances assumed	23.309	.000	4.681	351	**.000***	.42985	.09183	.24924	.61047
	Equal variances not assumed			3.723	112.493	**.000**	.42985	.11546	.20110	.65861
Trail/ Trekking	Equal variances assumed	1.528	.217	4.352	353	**.000***	.51289	.11786	.28111	.74468
	Equal variances not assumed			4.518	161.592	**.000**	.51289	.11353	.28870	.73709
Self-executing	Equal variances assumed	2.500	.115	2.645	356	**.009***	.34738	.13135	.08906	.60570
	Equal variances not assumed			2.784	165.015	**.006**	.34738	.12477	.10103	.59373
Team-based	Equal variances assumed	15.410	.000	5.380	348	**.000***	.50433	.09373	.31998	.68869
	Equal variances not assumed			4.690	123.717	**.000**	.50433	.10753	.29150	.71717

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Hard adventure factors**

Table 4.21 identifies the mean values of respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger and forty-years and older for all hard adventure factors.

Table 4.21: Hard adventure needs between age groups

Hard adventure factors	Age (years)	N	Mean
Adrenaline rush	≤39	88	1.96
	40≤	262	1.41
Wilderness training and survival courses	≤39	89	3.48
	40≤	265	2.75
Adventure sports	≤39	89	2.57
	40≤	261	1.80

As shown in Table 4.21, adrenaline rush, wilderness training and survival courses, and adventure sports documented higher mean values amongst respondents below the age of forty years compared to those aged forty years and above. The most significant disparity between the mean values was found for wilderness training and survival courses and adventure sports. Respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger thought wilderness training and survival courses to be more important for national parks (mean value of 3.48) than those aged forty years and older, who thought it to be important to less important (mean value of 2.75). Similarly, adventure sports was considered more important amongst respondents below the age of forty years (mean value of 2.57) compared to those aged forty years and older, who thought it to be less important to not important at all (mean value of 1.80).

Table 4.22: Age comparison for hard adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Adrenaline rush	Equal variances assumed	41.152	.000	5.973	348	**.000***	.54938	.09198	.36848	.73028
	Equal variances not assumed			4.752	109.949	**.000**	.54938	.11561	.32027	.77850
Wilderness training and survival courses	Equal variances assumed	.518	.472	5.604	352	**.000***	.72876	.13004	.47301	.98450
	Equal variances not assumed			5.499	146.562	**.000**	.72876	.13253	.46684	.99067

Table 4.22: Age comparison for hard adventure factors (continued)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Adventure sports	Equal variances assumed	13.687	.000	6.485	348	**.000***	.76912	.11860	.53585	1.00238
	Equal variances not assumed			5.632	123.121	**.000**	.76912	.13657	.49879	1.03945

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Adventure participation motives**

As mentioned, statistical significant differences were found between respondents over the age of thirty-nine years and under the age of forty years for both internal and external adventure participation motives (Table 4.23).

- **Internal motives:** The mean value for respondents thirty-nine years and younger was 3.38, making them important motives, while respondents over the age of thirty-nine years had a mean value of 2.29, making them less important motives.
- **External motives:** Respondents aged forty years and older had a mean value of 3.29, which translates to important motives, while respondents thirty-nine years and younger scored a mean value 4.00, making them very important motives.

As evident from the above, higher mean values were documented amongst respondents aged thirty-nine years and younger for both factors, of which external motives was considered the most important motives for both groups. Alternatively, the largest disparity between mean values was documented for internal motives, suggesting that visitors below the age of forty years may find both performance aspects and physical aspects as important reasons for participating in adventure activities.

Table 4.23: Age comparison for adventure participation motives

Factors	Mean Value Age ≤39 (years)	Mean Value Age 40≤ (years)		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Internal	**3.38**	**2.29**	Equal variances assumed	4.152	.042	8.255	331	**.000***	.98425	.11923	.74970	1.21880
			Equal variances not assumed			8.724	168.057	**.000**	.98425	.11282	.76152	1.20698
External	**4.00**	**3.29**	Equal variances assumed	18.716	.000	5.534	341	**.000***	.70466	.12734	.45419	.95513
			Equal variances not assumed			6.742	231.845	**.000**	.70466	.10452	.49874	.91059

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

4.6.1.3. Home language

Statistical significant differences were found in soft adventure factors between respondents who spoke different home languages (Afrikaans & English). With reference to hard adventure factors, no significant statistical differences were found between Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents (Adrenaline rush, p = 0.240; Wilderness training and survival courses, p = 0.247; Adventure sports, p = 0.260). This means that Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents had a mutual or similar perspective towards hard adventure activities in national parks. In addition, no statistical significant differences were found for either internal (p = 0.775) or external (p = 0.391) motives as reasons for participating in adventure activities.

- **Soft adventure factors**

There was no statistical significant difference between Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents for water-based (p = 0.254), interpretive (p = 0.478), wildlife interaction (p = 0.070), trail/trekking (p = 0.134) and heritage activities (p = 0.661). Significant statistical differences were, however, identified for consumptive, self-executing and team-based activities (Table 4.24). Afrikaans-speaking respondents indicated a higher mean value for consumptive activities (mean value of 1.65) compared to that of English-speaking respondents (mean value of 1.45). The same results were found for self-executing activities (mean value of 3.74 vs. 3.3) and team-based activities (mean value of 1.87 vs. 1.64), where Afrikaans-speaking respondents documented higher mean values for both these factors. It can therefore be suggested that

consumptive, self-executing and team-based activities are more important to people who speak Afrikaans than to people who speak English as a home language.

Table 4.24: Home language comparison for soft adventure factors

Factors	Mean Value Afr	Mean Value Eng		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Consumptive	**1.65**	**1.45**	Equal variances assumed	6.978	.009	2.308	356	**.022***	.20467	.08869	.03025	.37909
			Equal variances not assumed			2.030	154.902	**.044**	.20467	.10084	.00547	.40387
Self-executing	**3.74**	**3.3**	Equal variances assumed	3.018	.083	3.286	362	**.001***	.40719	.12392	.16351	.65087
			Equal variances not assumed			3.493	228.397	**.001**	.40719	.11658	.17748	.63690
Team-based	**1.87**	**1.64**	Equal variances assumed	.530	.467	2.450	353	**.015***	.22284	.09094	.04398	.40169
			Equal variances not assumed			2.404	187.294	**.017**	.22284	.09271	.03995	.40572

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

4.6.1.4. Wild Card membership

Statistical significant differences were indicated between Wild Card holders and non-Wild Card holders for several soft and hard adventure factors, as well as motives for adventure participation.

- **Soft adventure factors**

No significant statistical differences were found between Wild Card holders and non-Wild Card holders for interpretive (p = 0.986), heritage (p = 0.108) and trail/trekking (p = 0.143) activities. The following soft adventure factors did, however, indicate significant statistical differences (Table 4.25):

- **Water-based:** Respondents who did not own a Wild Card had a mean value of 1.90, while those who owned a Wild Card had a mean value of 1.7. Therefore, non-Wild Card holders find water-based activities to be more important for national parks than Wild Card holders.

- **Wildlife interaction:** Respondents who did not own a Wild Card had a mean value of 1.9, while respondents who owned a Wild Card scored a mean value of 1.49, meaning that Wild Card holders are more opposed to wildlife interaction activities.
- **Team-based:** Team-based activities were favoured more by respondents who did not own a Wild Card (mean value 1.91), compared those who did own a Wild Card (mean value 1.61).
- **Self-executing:** Alternatively, self-executing activities was considered more important to Wild Card holders (mean value of 3.55) as opposed to those who did not own a Wild Card (mean value of 3.21).

Table 4.25: Wild Card holder comparison for soft adventure factors

Factors	Mean Value non-Wild Card Holder	Mean Value Wild Card Holder		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Water-based	**1.90**	**1.7**	Equal variances assumed	.915	.339	-2.403	374	**.017***	-.20488	.08525	-.37251	-.03724
			Equal variances not assumed			-2.311	199.629	**.022**	-.20488	.08864	-.37967	-.03008
Wildlife interaction	**1.9**	**1.49**	Equal variances assumed	32.570	.000	-4.042	371	**.000***	-.40775	.10088	-.60611	-.20939
			Equal variances not assumed			-3.531	164.901	**.001**	-.40775	.11547	-.63575	-.17976
Self-executing	**3.21**	**3.55**	Equal variances assumed	.104	.747	2.862	377	**.004***	.34478	.12045	.10795	.58161
			Equal variances not assumed			2.844	213.812	**.005**	.34478	.12125	.10578	.58378
Team-based	**1.91**	**1.61**	Equal variances assumed	18.739	.000	-3.383	368	**.001***	-.29506	.08723	-.46660	-.12353
			Equal variances not assumed			-3.068	177.349	**.002**	-.29506	.09617	-.48484	-.10529

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Hard adventure factors**

Statistical significant differences were found between Wild Card Holders and non-Wild Card holders for every single hard adventure factor (Table 4.26).

- **Adrenaline rush:** The mean value for Wild Card holders is 1.41, making it less important, while the mean value for non-Wild Card holders is 1.79, meaning that adrenaline rush activities are more loathsome to Wild Card holders than non-Wild Card holders.
- **Wilderness training and survival courses:** Respondents who did not own a Wild Card had a mean value of 3.13, while Wild Card holders had a mean value 2.81. In both cases wilderness training and survival courses were considered important, but more so for non-Wild Card holders.
- **Adventure sports:** Wild Card holders thought adventure sports to be less important (mean value 1.84), whereas those who did not own a Wild Card thought adventure sports to be more important (mean value 2.29).

Based on the findings, it is evident that the majority of soft and hard adventure activities are favoured more by those who do not own a Wild Card than those who do. This makes sense since Wild Card holders tend to be more involved with national parks for its wilderness and wildlife lore, while non-Wild Card holders may seek additional entertainment. It is therefore plausible to relate non-Wild Card holders to *'new crop*' tourists (c.f. 1.3). New crop tourists refer to those who seek the wilderness lure of national parks, including a wider range of activities (SANParks, 2013b).

Table 4.26: Wild Card holder comparison for hard adventure factors

Factors	Mean Value non-Wild Card Holder	Mean Value Wild Card Holder		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Adrenaline rush	**1.79**	**1.41**	Equal variances assumed	28.840	.000	-4.510	369	**.000***	-.38157	.08461	-.54794	-.21520
			Equal variances not assumed			-3.923	162.216	**.000**	-.38157	.09725	-.57362	-.18953
Wilderness training and survival courses	**3.13**	**2.81**	Equal variances assumed	.019	.890	-2.602	373	**.010***	-.31969	.12287	-.56130	-.07808
			Equal variances not assumed			-2.583	214.674	**.010**	-.31969	.12377	-.56365	-.07573

Table 4.26: Wild Card holder comparison for hard adventure factors (continued)

Factors	Mean Value non-Wild Card Holder	Mean Value Wild Card Holder		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Adventure sports	**2.29**	**1.84**	Equal variances assumed	4.754	.030	-3.996	369	**.000***	-.44843	.11221	-.66909	-.22777
			Equal variances not assumed			-3.766	191.897	**.000**	-.44843	.11907	-.68329	-.21357

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Adventure participation motives**

No statistical significant difference was found between Wild Card holders and non-Wild Card holders for external motives (p = 0.266), while a statistical significant difference was found for internal motives (Table 4.27). Respondents who owned a Wild Card were found to be less driven by internal motives as reasons to participate in adventure activities (mean value of 2.46), as opposed to non-Wild Card holders, who found them to be more important (mean value of 2.71).

Table 4.27: Wild Card holder comparison for adventure participation motives

Factors	Mean Value non-Wild Card Holder	Mean Value Wild Card Holder		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
											Lower	Upper
Internal	**2.71**	**2.46**	Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	-2.104	351	**.036***	-.25082	.11922	-.48529	-.01635
			Equal variances not assumed			-2.068	207.627	**.040**	-.25082	.12128	-.48992	-.01173

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

4.6.2. ANOVA results (One-way analysis of variance)

A one-way analysis of variance was done to compare the marital status and the province of residence of respondents to the three analyses. In addition to identifying statistical significant differences, Post hoc tests were done to identify if significant differences existed between mean values. Tables drawn for illustrating ANOVA test results will only include the factors which indicated statistical significant differences, whereas Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ Post hoc test results will only include the factors that showed significant differences between mean values.

Effect sizes were calculated for all factors that showed statistical significant differences. According to Cohen (1988:284-287), 0.01 is considered a small effect, 0.06 a medium effect and 0.14 a large effect.

4.6.2.1. Marital status

Due to a lack of population representatives, divorced and widowed respondents were grouped together in obtaining a shared result. Statistical significant differences were found for soft and hard adventure factors, as well as for adventure participation motives.

- **Soft adventure factors**

No statistical significant differences were found for interpretive ($p = 0.529$), wildlife interaction ($p = 0.087$), consumptive ($p = 0.086$), Trail/trekking ($p = 0.052$), self-executing ($p = 0.517$) and team-based ($p = 0.293$) activities. Statistical significant differences were found for water-based ($p = 0.037$) and heritage activities ($p = 0.022$) (Table 4.28). Despite reaching statistical significance, both these factors obtained a small effect size. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.023 for water based-activities and 0.023 for heritages activities. According to the Post hoc test results:

- **Water-based:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for single respondents (mean value of 2.00) was significantly different from the mean value of divorced/widowed respondents (mean value of 1.54).
- **Wildlife interaction:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for single respondents (mean value of 1.87) was significantly different from the mean value of respondents living together (mean value of 1.38).
- **Heritage:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for respondents living together (mean value of 3.32) was significantly different from the mean values of divorced/widowed (mean value of 2.80), married (mean value of 2.81) and single (mean value of 2.82) respondents.
- **Trail/Trekking:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for respondents living together (mean value of 2.72) and single respondents

(mean value of 2.7) was significantly different from the mean value of divorced/widowed (mean value of 2.18) respondents.

Based on the mean values (Table 4.29), it can be suggested that visitors who are single are more likely to participate in water-based activities in national parks, while visitors living together are more likely to participate in heritage activities in national parks.

Table 4.28: ANOVA: Marital status comparison for soft adventure factors

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Water-based	Between Groups	4.946	3	1.649	2.856	**.037***
	Within Groups	214.189	371	.577		
	Total	219.135	374			
Heritage	Between Groups	8.863	3	2.954	3.250	**.022***
	Within Groups	338.167	372	.909		
	Total	347.031	375			

**Sig. < 0.05*

Table 4.29: Tukey's Post Hoc test: Marital status comparison for soft adventure factors

	Marital status	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1 (mean value)	2 (mean value)
Water-based	Divorced & Widowe/er	32	**1.54**	
	Married	252	1.74	1.74
	Living together	39	1.85	1.85
	Single	52		**2.00**
Wildlife interaction	Living together	38	**1.38**	
	Divorced & Widowe/er	31	1.55	1.55
	Married	251	1.62	1.62
	Single	52		**1.87**

Table 4.29: Tukey's Post Hoc test: Marital status comparison for soft adventure factors (continued)

	Marital status	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1 (mean value)	2 (mean value)
Heritage	Divorced & Widowe/er	32	**2.80**	
	Married	253	**2.81**	
	Single	53	**2.82**	
	Living together	38		**3.32**
Trail/Trekking	Divorced & Widowe/er	31	**2.18**	
	Married	251	2.47	2.47
	Single	53		**2.70**
	Living together	39		**2.72**

- **Hard adventure factors**

Statistical significant differences were found for adrenaline rush activities (p = 0.007) and adventure sports (p = 0.016) (Table 4.30). No statistical significant difference was found for wilderness training and survival courses (p = 0.398). A small effect size was calculated for both adrenaline rush activities (Cohen's d value of 0.032) and adventure sports (Cohen's d value of 0.028). According to the Post-hoc test results (Table 4.31):

- **Adrenaline rush:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for single respondents (mean value of 1.79) and respondents living together (mean value of 1.74) was significantly different from the mean value of divorced/widowed respondents (mean value of 1.32).
- **Adventure sports:** Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test indicated that the mean value for single respondents (mean value of 2.24) and respondents living together (mean value of 2.23) was significantly different from the mean value of divorced/widowed respondents (mean value of 1.60).

It can therefore be suggested that visitors who are single or living together will be more likely to participate in adrenaline rush activities and adventure sports in national parks, whereas divorced/widowed visitors will be less likely to participate in these activities in national parks.

Table 4.30: ANOVA: Marital status comparison for hard adventure factors

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Adrenaline rush	Between Groups	7.099	3	2.366	4.054	**.007***
	Within Groups	213.634	366	.584		
	Total	220.733	369			
Adventure sports	Between Groups	10.682	3	3.561	3.494	**.016***
	Within Groups	372.962	366	1.019		
	Total	383.644	369			

**Sig. < 0.05*

Table 4.31: Tukey's Post Hoc test: Marital status comparison for hard adventure factors

	Marital status	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1 (mean value)	2 (mean value)
Adrenaline rush	Divorced & Widowe/er	32	**1.32**	
	Married	249	1.48	1.48
	Living together	38		**1.74**
	Single	51		**1.79**
Adventure sports	Divorced & Widowe/er	32	**1.60**	
	Married	249	1.95	1.95
	Living together	38		**2.23**
	Single	51		**2.24**

- **Adventure participation motives**

Statistical significant differences were found for both internal motives (p = 0.012) and external motives (p = 0.023) (Table 4.32). A small effect size was calculated for both internal motives (Cohen's d value of 0.031) and external motives (Cohen's d value of 0.026). Regarding internal

motives, a statistical significant difference was found between single respondents and married respondent. Single respondents found internal motives to be more important reasons for participating in adventure (mean value of 3.00), while married respondents found them to be less important (mean value of 2.46). Looking at the Post hoc results for external motives (Table 4.33), the mean value for single respondents (mean value of 3.76) was significantly different from the mean value of divorced/widowed respondents (mean value of 3.00). It can therefore be suggested that visitors who are single will more likely be motivated to participate in adventure activities based on external motives than visitors who are divorced/widowed.

Table 4.32: ANOVA: Marital status comparison for adventure participation motives

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Internal	Between Groups	11.708	3	3.903	3.680	**.012***
	Within Groups	370.127	349	1.061		
	Total	381.835	352			
External	Between Groups	11.165	3	3.722	3.225	**.023***
	Within Groups	414.345	359	1.154		
	Total	425.510	362			

**Sig. < 0.05*

Table 4.33: Tukey's Post Hoc test: Marital status comparison for adventure participation motives

	Marital status	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1 (mean value)	2 (mean value)
External	Divorced & Widowe/er	32	**3.00**	
	Living together	38	3.44	3.44
	Married	244	3.45	3.45
	Single	49		**3.76**

4.6.2.2. Province of residence

Due to a lack of provincial representatives, respondents who resided in the Northern Cape, Limpopo, Free State and North-West were not accounted for in the following results. The same decision was applied for international respondents. No statistical significant differences were found for soft adventure factors and adventure participation motives in respect of the ANOVA results.

- **Hard adventure factors**

Statistical significant differences were found for adrenaline rush activities (p 0.020) and adventure sports (p = 0.013) (Table 4.34). A small effect size was calculated for both adrenaline rush activities (Cohen's d value of 0.04) and adventure sports (Cohen's d value of 0.044). No statistical significant difference was found for wilderness training and survival courses (p = 0.842). Looking at the Post hoc results for adventure sports (Table 4.35), the mean value for respondents form the Western cape (mean value of 2.37) was significantly different from the mean value of respondents from Mpumalanga (mean value of 1.68). Although Tukey's $B_{a,b}$ test did not indicate any significant differences between the mean values for adrenaline rush activities, respondents from the Western Cape did, however, score the highest mean value (mean value of 1.77), while respondents from Mpumalanga scored the lowest mean value (mean value of 1.35). In addition, it was identified that respondents from Mpumalanga scored the lowest mean values for all three hard adventure factors, whereas the highest mean values for all three hard adventure factors come from the respondents who resided in the Western Cape. It is therefore plausible to say that visitors from Mpumalanga have a generally low approval rate for hard adventure activities in national parks compared to visitors from the Western Cape.

Table 4.34: ANOVA: Province of residence comparison for hard adventure factors

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Adrenaline rush	Between Groups	6.037	4	1.509	2.975	**.020***
	Within Groups	143.089	282	.507		
	Total	149.127	286			
Adventure sports	Between Groups	12.641	4	3.160	3.250	**.013***
	Within Groups	274.222	282	.972		
	Total	286.863	286			

**Sig. < 0.05*

Table 4.35: Tukey's Post Hoc Test: Province of residence comparison for hard adventure factors

	Provinces	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1 (mean value)	2 (mean value)
Adventure sports	Mpumalanga	24	**1.68**	
	Eastern Cape	36	1.89	1.89
	KwaZula-Natal	26	1.89	1.89
	Gauteng	135	1.95	1.95
	Western Cape	66		**2.37**

4.7. Adventure behaviour results

Two adventure behaviour questions where identified for this section, namely

- Do you participate in adventure activities in your leisure time?; and
- Do you feel that current activities in national parks are sufficient?

4.7.1. T-test results

T-tests were conducted to ascertain whether there were significant differences between the adventure behaviour responses (answers to the two adventure behaviour questions) for the three factor analyses. Tables drawn for illustrating t-test results will only include the factors that showed statistical significant differences.

4.7.1.1. Participation in adventure activities

Statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found for all soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives (internal and external factors).

- **Soft adventure factors**

Statistical significant differences were observed in all soft adventure factors between respondents who affirmed participating in adventure activities and those who denied participating in adventure activities (Table 4.36). As expected, respondents who responded in the affirmative (participate in adventure activities) had higher mean values compared to those that responded in the negative (do not participate in adventure activities), as identified for the following factors (Table 4.37):

- **Water-based:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 1.88, while respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.57.
- **Interpretive:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 3.80, while respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 3.57.
- **Wildlife interaction:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 1.75, while respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.40.

- **Heritage:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 2.96, while those who responded in the negative had a mean value of 2.70.
- **Consumptive:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 1.59, while those who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.34.
- **Trail/Trekking:** Respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 2.20, while those who confirmed participating in adventure had a mean value of 2.69.
- **Self-executing:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 3.59, while those who responded in the negative had a mean value of 3.24.
- **Team-based:** Respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.48, while those who confirmed adventure participation had a mean value of 1.84.

The most significant statistical differences (highest range difference between mean values) were observed for wildlife interaction, trail/trekking, self-executing and team-based activities.

Table 4.36: Adventure participation comparison for soft adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Water-based	Equal variances assumed	5.557	.019	3.903	375	**.000***	.31038	.07952	.15402	.46673
	Equal variances not assumed			4.053	344.869	**.000**	.31038	.07658	.15976	.46100
Interpretive	Equal variances assumed	5.412	.021	3.026	380	**.003***	.22396	.07402	.07842	.36950
	Equal variances not assumed			2.928	283.019	**.004**	.22396	.07649	.07339	.37453
Wildlife interaction	Equal variances assumed	31.513	.000	3.620	372	**.000***	.34737	.09596	.15868	.53607
	Equal variances not assumed			3.954	370.379	**.000**	.34737	.08785	.17462	.52012
Heritage	Equal variances assumed	7.132	.008	2.557	376	**.011***	.25717	.10057	.05942	.45493
	Equal variances not assumed			2.476	277.920	**.014**	.25717	.10387	.05269	.46165

Table 4.36: Adventure participation comparison for soft adventure factors (continued)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Consumptive	Equal variances assumed	16.351	.000	3.069	372	**.002***	.24681	.08043	.08866	.40496
	Equal variances not assumed			3.400	371.886	**.001**	.24681	.07260	.10405	.38957
Trail/ Trekking	Equal variances assumed	1.307	.254	4.807	374	**.000***	.48776	.10146	.28825	.68726
	Equal variances not assumed			4.744	295.205	**.000**	.48776	.10281	.28542	.69010
Self-executing	Equal variances assumed	3.560	.060	3.051	378	**.002***	.34522	.11314	.12276	.56767
	Equal variances not assumed			2.985	290.337	**.003**	.34522	.11566	.11759	.57285
Team-based	Equal variances assumed	17.708	.000	4.372	369	**.000**	.35853	.08200	.19728	.51977
	Equal variances not assumed			4.650	355.560	**.000**	.35853	.07710	.20690	.51016

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

Table 4.37: Adventure participation: Mean value comparison for soft adventure factors

Soft adventure factors	Participation in adventure activities	N	Mean
Water-based	Yes	231	1.88
	No	146	1.57
Interpretive	Yes	232	3.80
	No	150	3.57
Wildlife interaction	Yes	230	1.75
	No	144	1.41
Heritage	Yes	231	2.96
	No	147	2.70
Consumptive	Yes	231	1.59
	No	143	1.34

Table 4.37: Adventure participation: Mean value comparison for soft adventure factors (continued)

Soft adventure factors	Participation in adventure activities	N	Mean
Trail/Trekking	Yes	230	2.69
	No	146	2.20
Self-executing	Yes	232	3.59
	No	148	3.24
Team-based	Yes	228	1.84
	No	143	1.48

- **Hard adventure factors**

As with soft adventure factors, statistical significant differences were found for all three hard adventure factors (Table 4.38). Respondents who responded in the affirmative (participate in adventure activities) had higher mean values compared to those who responded in the negative (do not participate in adventure activities) (Table 4.39).

- **Adrenaline rush:** Respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.27, while those who confirmed adventure participation had a mean value of 1.69. The range between mean values is the second highest in this factor
- **Wilderness training and survival courses:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 3.12, while those who responded in the negative had a mean value of 2.57. The range difference between mean values is the second highest in this factor.
- **Adventure sports:** Respondents who responded in the affirmative had a mean value of 2.20, while respondents who responded in the negative had a mean value of 1.63. The range difference between mean values is the highest in this factor.

As was expected and is evident in the above results, respondents with a history of adventure participation are more likely to participate in adventure activities (both soft and hard) in national parks than those who deny participating in adventure activities.

Table 4.38: Adventure participation comparison for hard adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Adrenaline rush	Equal variances assumed	40.468	.000	5.315	370	**.000***	.42224	.07945	.26601	.57847
	Equal variances not assumed			5.901	369.949	**.000**	.42224	.07156	.28152	.56295
Wilderness training and survival courses	Equal variances assumed	.120	.729	4.798	374	**.000***	.54555	.11369	.32199	.76911
	Equal variances not assumed			4.803	306.961	**.000**	.54555	.11359	.32204	.76906
Adventure sports	Equal variances assumed	8.593	.004	5.355	370	**.000***	.56161	.10487	.35539	.76783
	Equal variances not assumed			5.597	339.541	**.000**	.56161	.10035	.36423	.75899

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

Table 4.39: Adventure participation: Mean value comparison for hard adventure factors

Hard adventure factors	Participation in adventure activities	N	Mean
Adrenaline rush	Yes	229	1.69
	No	143	1.27
Wilderness training and survival courses	Yes	231	3.12
	No	145	2.57
Adventure sports	Yes	230	2.20
	No	142	1.63

- **Adventure participation motives**

Statistical significant differences were found for both internal and external motives between respondents who participate in adventure activities and those who do not (Table 4.40).

- **Internal motives:** Respondents who confirmed participating in adventure activities had a mean value of 2.78, making it an important motive, while those who indicated otherwise (do not participate) had a mean value of 2.12, making it a less important motive.
- **External motives:** Respondents who confirmed participating in adventure activities had a mean value of 3.66, making it the most important motive, while those who do

not participate in adventure activities had a mean value of 3.08, which is considered an important motive.

In both cases, external motives were considered more important reasons for the respondents to participate in adventure activities than internal motives (see mean values in Table 4.41). This indicates that social interaction and interaction with the natural environment are probability the most important aspects that visitors will look for when seeking adventure experiences in national parks.

Table 4.40: Adventure participation comparison for adventure participation motives

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Internal	Equal variances assumed	.170	.680	6.079	352	**.000***	.66919	.11008	.45268	.88569
	Equal variances not assumed			6.106	273.313	**.000**	.66919	.10960	.45343	.88495
External	Equal variances assumed	17.981	.000	5.111	362	**.000***	.58374	.11422	.35913	.80835
	Equal variances not assumed			4.791	234.742	**.000**	.58374	.12183	.34371	.82376

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

Table 4.41: Adventure participation: Mean value comparison for adventure participation motives

Adventure participation motives	Participation in adventure activities	N	Mean
Internal	Yes	224	2.78
	No	130	2.12
External	Yes	225	3.66
	No	139	3.08

4.7.1.2. Sufficiency of adventure activities in national parks

Statistical significant differences were found in all three factor analyses between respondents who thought current activities to be sufficient in national parks and those who thought otherwise.

- **Soft adventure factors**

Table 4.42 identifies the mean values of respondents who thought current activities sufficient for national parks and those who did not for all soft adventure factors.

Table 4.42: Sufficiency of adventure activities: Mean value comparison for soft adventure factors

Do you feel that current activities in national parks are sufficient?		N	Mean
Water-based	Yes	292	1.67
	No	80	2.08
Interpretive	Yes	295	3.64
	No	81	3.97
Wildlife interaction	Yes	289	1.48
	No	80	2.09
Heritage	Yes	292	2.80
	No	80	3.09
Consumptive	Yes	289	1.40
	No	80	1.80
Trail/Trekking	Yes	291	2.34
	No	79	3.02
Self-executing	Yes	295	3.31
	No	80	3.90
Team-based	Yes	287	1.54
	No	79	2.27

As expected, respondents who thought activities insufficient in national parks indicated higher mean value scores for all soft adventure factors. Not only that, statistical significant differences were also found for all soft adventure factors (Table 4.43). The most significant statistical differences, based on the largest variance between mean values, were found for trail/trekking (mean value of 3.02 vs. 2.34), self-executing (mean value of 3.90 vs. 3.31) and team-based activities (mean value of 2.27 vs. 1.54).

Respondents who thought current activities to be insufficient in national parks appeared to be in the minority (Table 4.42). Thus, developing new adventure activities could potentially result in problematic challenges (loss of loyal visitors) if the majority of visitors are not willing to accept these activities. Luckily, in agreement with the factor analysis results, respondents who thought activities to be sufficient in national parks found interpretive activities (mean value of 3.64),

heritage activities (mean value of 2.80) and self-executing activities (mean value of 3.31) to be important activities for national parks.

Table 4.43: Sufficiency comparison for soft adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Water-based	Equal variances assumed	.974	.324	-4.358	370	**.000***	-.41160	.09445	-.597 32	-.225 88
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.200	119.723	**.000**	-.41160	.09800	-.605 65	-.217 56
Interpretive	Equal variances assumed	1.328	.250	-3.820	374	**.000***	-.33010	.08642	-.500 03	-.160 17
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.075	140.147	**.000**	-.33010	.08100	-.490 24	-.169 97
Wildlife interaction	Equal variances assumed	21.810	.000	-5.499	367	**.000***	-.60675	.11034	-.823 73	-.389 78
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.718	105.556	**.000**	-.60675	.12860	-.861 74	-.351 77
Heritage	Equal variances assumed	7.901	.005	-2.450	370	**.015***	-.29627	.12092	-.534 04	-.058 49
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.821	157.777	**.005**	-.29627	.10503	-.50370	-.08883
Consumptive	Equal variances assumed	15.574	.000	-4.259	367	**.000***	-.39689	.09318	-.580 12	-.213 66
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.433	99.750	**.001**	-.39689	.11562	-.626 28	-.167 49
Trail/ Trekking	Equal variances assumed	4.931	.027	-5.665	368	**.000***	-.67946	.11995	-.915 33	-.443 59
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.299	145.515	**.000**	-.67946	.10786	-.892 64	-.466 28

Table 4.43: Sufficiency comparison for soft adventure factors (continued)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Self-executing	Equal variances assumed	1.837	.176	-4.473	373	**.000***	-.59569	.13318	-.857 57	-.333 81
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.873	142.264	**.000**	-.59569	.12225	-.837 36	-.354 03
Team-based	Equal variances assumed	4.624	.032	-7.824	364	**.000***	-.72730	.09295	-.910 10	-.544 51
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.136	110.905	**.000**	-.72730	.10193	-.929 28	-.525 33

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Hard adventure factors**

Table 4.44 identifies the mean values between respondents who thought current activities sufficient for national parks and those who did not for all hard adventure factors.

Table 4.44: Sufficiency of adventure activities: Mean value comparison for hard adventure factors

Do you feel that current activities in national parks are sufficient?		N	Mean
Adrenaline rush	Yes	288	1.40
	No	79	1.99
Wilderness training and survival courses	Yes	291	2.72
	No	80	3.56
Adventure sports	Yes	288	1.80
	No	79	2.63

Similar to soft adventure factors, the highest mean values were scored by respondents who thought current activities insufficient in national parks (Table 4.44), while statistical significant differences were also found for all hard adventure factors (Table 4.45). The most statistical significant differences, based on the largest variance between mean values, were found for wilderness training and survival courses (mean value of 3.56 vs. 2.27) and adventure sports (mean value of 2.63 vs. 1.80).

Table 4.45: Sufficiency comparison for hard adventure factors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Adrenaline rush	Equal variances assumed	23.024	.000	-6.285	365	.000*	-.58762	.09349	-.771 48	-.403 77
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.167	100.074	.000	-.58762	.11373	-.813 26	-.361 98
Wilderness training and survival courses	Equal variances assumed	8.637	.004	-6.376	369	.000*	-.84608	.13270	-1.10 702	-.585 15
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.313	156.972	.000	-.84608	.11570	-1.07 461	-.617 56
Adventure sports	Equal variances assumed	.976	.324	-6.834	365	.000*	-.83873	.12274	-1.08 009	-.597 37
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.444	115.142	.000	-.83873	.13017	-1.09 656	-.580 90

**Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05*

- **Adventure participation motives**

Respondents who thought activities to be insufficient in national parks considered both internal and external motives as important reasons for participating in adventure activities (see mean values in Table 4.46). On the other hand, respondents who thought activities sufficient in national parks mostly considered external motives as important reasons to be participating in adventure activities.

Table 4.46: Sufficiency of adventure activities: Mean value comparison for adventure participation motives

Do you feel that current activities in national parks are sufficient?		N	Mean
Internal	Yes	271	2.33
	No	79	3.20
External	Yes	280	3.28
	No	80	3.97

In addition, statistical significant differences were found between respondents who thought current activities to be sufficient in national parks and those who did not for both internal and external motives (Table 4.47).

- **Internal motives:** Respondents who thought activities insufficient in national parks had a mean value of 3.2, making internal motives important, while those who though activities sufficient had a mean value of 2.33, making internal motives less important.
- **External motives:** Respondents who thought activities insufficient in national parks had a mean value of 3.9, making external motives very important, while those who though activities sufficient had a mean value of 3.28, making external motives mostly important.

In conclusion, whether or not current activities in national parks are considered sufficient, most visitors will participate in adventure activities based on external motivations.

Table 4.47: Sufficiency of adventure activities comparison for adventure participation motives

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Internal	Equal variances assumed	11.636	.001	-7.007	348	**.000***	-.87674	.12513	-1.12 285	-.630 63
	Equal variances not assumed			-8.146	165.274	**.000**	-.87674	.10763	-1.08 926	-.664 23
External	Equal variances assumed	29.328	.000	-5.116	358	**.000***	-.68786	.13446	-.952 29	-.423 43
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.857	229.688	**.000**	-.68786	.10031	-.885 51	-.490 20

**Sig. (2-Tailed) < 0.05.*

4.8. Spearman's correlation coefficient

Spearman's correlation was used to determine the association that visits to national parks and length of stay had with the age of the respondents for soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives.

- **Spearman's correlation**

Spearman's correlation is a nonparametric measurement that is used to test the strength and direction of association that can exist between two variables (Laerd Statistics, 2014a). Strength of association is determined using the following effect sizes (Laerd Statistics, 2014b).

- a small effect size range between 0.1 - 0.3;
- a medium effect size range between 0.3 - 0.5; and
- a large effect size range between 0.5 - 1.0.

The effect sizes are relevant for both negative and positive correlations. A positive correlation indicates a positive relationship between two variables, meaning that an incline in the one variable will cause an incline in the other variable, while the opposite is true for a negative correlation (Laerd Statistics, 2014b).

4.8.1. Visits to national parks over the past five years

As shown in Table 4.48, a small effect correlation existed between the age of respondents and visits to national parks over the past five years. Seeing that this is a positive correlation, visits to national parks over the past five years increased as the age of respondents increased. For national parks this means that the older the visitor, the more likely the number of visits will increase.

In respect of soft adventure factors, a small effect correlation was found between visits to national parks and the following hard adventure activities: wildlife interaction and self-executing activities. Wildlife interaction had a negative correlation, meaning that wildlife interaction activities became less important as visits over the past five years increased. For national parks this means that if visitor's visits increase, wildlife interaction activities become less important. Alternatively, self-executing activities had a positive correlation. A positive correlation indicates that as visits increased, so did the level of importance for self-executing activities. For national parks this means that if visitor's visits increase so does the importance of self-executing activities. Therefore, regular visitors would be more likely to participate in self-executing activities.

Table 4.48: Spearman: Visits to national parks over the past five years

	Age	Wildlife interaction	Self-executing
Correlation Coefficient	.118	-.116	.163
Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.026	.002
N	355	368	374

4.8.2. Length of stay

A small effect correlation was found between the length of stay and the following soft adventure factors: water-based, wildlife interaction, consumptive, trail/trekking and team-based activities (Table 4.49). All these activities had a negative correlation with length of stay, indicating that if length of stay increases the levels of importance for water-based, wildlife interaction, consumptive, trail/trekking and team-based activities decrease. For national parks this means that if visitors extend visiting periods, water-based, wildlife interaction, consumptive, trail/trekking and team-based activities could become less important to them. With reference to hard adventure factors, a small negative effect correlation existed between the length of stay and adrenaline rush activities and adventure sports. This means that if visitors extend their visiting periods in national parks, adrenaline rush activities and adventure sports would become less appealing. National parks can thus benefit from all of the abovementioned activities if product development and marketing efforts are more focused on day-visitors or those who do not stay long.

Lastly, internal motives showed a small effect correlation when associated with length of stay. As this correlation was negative, internal motives became less important as the average length of visits increased. For national parks this means that visitors who stay for extended periods of time are more likely to be less motivated by internal factors for participating in adventure activities.

Table 4.49: Spearman: Length of stay

	Water-based	Wildlife interaction	Consumptive	Trail/ Trekking	Team-based	Adrenaline rush	Adventure sports	Internal Motives
Correlation Coefficient	-.123	-.171	-.176	-.186	-.229	-.228	-.234	-.169
Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.001	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002
N	371	368	368	369	365	366	366	349

4.9. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to provide empirical results from data collected, recorded and analysed. The chapter was divided into two sections based on two statistical analyses, namely descriptive analysis and exploratory analysis. The following conclusions could be drawn:

- **Descriptive results**

Respondents had an average age of 49 years and consisted of 51% female and 49% male. The majority of respondents spoke English as a home language, were married, had a diploma

or a degree and resided in Gauteng or the Western Cape. Thirty-four percent (34%) of respondents included an average of two dependent children in their travelling party, from which the largest number of children ranged between the ages of 19 to 25 years. Respondents visited parks 8.54 times in the past five years, during which they stayed an average of two to seven nights. Most respondents participated in adventure activities and were willing to pay between R101-R300 per person per activity, whereas 79% of respondents thought current activities in national parks to be sufficient. The majority of respondents owned a Wild Card.

Important to *extremely important* soft adventure activities included: bird-watching, game viewing, night drives, guided walks and botanical tours, while *important* to *extremely important* hard adventure activities included wilderness camping and field-guide training. Guided game drives, star gazing, bird watching and interpretive trails were identified as recommended activities for people with disabilities, whereas educational and photographic activities where recommended as additional activities for children. Alternatively, strong responses were given against the delivery of hunting, quad biking, off-road and dirt biking, jet skiing and animal interaction activities in national parks. Respondents identified the following five motives as *important* to *extremely important* reasons to participate in adventure: getting in touch with nature, exploring new destinations, spending time with family and friends, escaping from routines and to have novel experiences.

Three factor analyses were done that revealed eight factors (water-based, interpretive, wildlife interaction, heritage, consumptive, trail/trekking, self-executing and team based) for soft adventure activities, three factors (adrenaline rush, wilderness training and survival courses, and adventure sports) for hard adventure activities and two factors for adventure participation motives (internal and external motives).

- **Exploratory results**

T-tests, ANOVAs, Post Hoc tests and Spearman's correlation coefficient were done to identify if statistical significant differences existed in soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives between socio-demographic and behavioural profiles.

For the most part, respondents who fit the following socio-demographic profile had the highest mean values in both soft and hard adventure factors, namely male, age thirty-nine years and younger, speaks Afrikaans as home language, is either single or living together, resides in the Western Cape and does not own a Wild Card. Regarding adventure participation motives, single respondents scored the highest mean values for both soft and hard adventure factors, whereas married respondents scored the second highest mean value for external motives and

the lowest mean value for internal motives. In addition, external motives were identified as the most important reasons for adventure participation amongst respondents from all provinces.

Regarding the behavioural profile, the highest mean values were found amongst respondents that participated in adventure activities and who thought current activities to be insufficient in national parks. Similar results were also found for internal and external motives, where respondents who participated in adventure activities and those who thought current activities to be insufficient in national parks scored the highest mean values. Considering all behavioural responses, external motives were ultimately the most important reasons for adventure participation.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The primary objective of this study was to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks. This chapter will serve as the conclusion to the study, as well as provide recommendations resulting from the research. The following objectives were formulated and needed to be reached in order to achieve the primary objective of this study:

Objective one: To conduct a literature analysis of adventure tourism. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2. In this chapter a literature analysis was done concerning the term adventure, the history of adventure, related definitions, characteristics and experience theories. The second part of this chapter discussed adventure tourism and its growth, history and key stakeholders. The third and final part of this chapter identified and defined the adventure tourist according to profile, needs, motives, behaviour and type.

Objective two: To conduct a literature analysis of adventure tourism product development. This was achieved in Chapter 3, where a theoretical analysis was done on adventure tourism product development. The chapter started with an examination of the adventure tourism product, including the advantages and disadvantages of adventure activities and the product types in adventure activities. This was followed by a discussion of the new product development process, product life cycle and the aspects of tourism product development.

Objective three: To conduct an empirical analysis of tourist needs and motives for adventure activities in South African National Parks. This objective was reached in Chapter 4. Data obtained from the questionnaires was recorded and statistically analysed, providing empirical results. Empirical results were divided into two sections. Section A provided a descriptive analysis of the socio-demographic profile, the adventure activity needs and the adventure participation motives of tourists visiting South African National Parks. Section B provided an exploratory analysis of soft adventure factors, hard adventure factors and adventure participation motives.

Objective four: To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding tourist needs and motives concerning adventure activities in South African National Parks. The objective will be met in this chapter. Conclusions will be drawn from each chapter, whereafter recommendations will be made.

5.2. Conclusions regarding research

Conclusions will be drawn regarding research done in each chapter and are divided as follows:

- Firstly, conclusions will be drawn regarding the literature analysis of adventure tourism (Chapter 2).
- Secondly, conclusions will be drawn from the literature analysis of adventure tourism product development (Chapter 3).
- Lastly, conclusions will be drawn regarding the empirical results (Chapter 4).

5.2.1. Conclusions regarding the adventure tourism analysis

The following conclusions can be drawn from Chapter 2:

- Tourism is defined as the total experiences that originate from interactions between the tourist, government system and community, by means of attractions, entertainment, transportation and accommodation (c.f. 2.1).
- Tourism is divided into two categories, mass tourism and alternative tourism (c.f. 2.1). Alternative tourism is an alternative approach to mass tourism, where common interests are shared and emphasis is placed on environmental conservation (c.f. 2.1).
- Nature-based tourism is considered a part of alternative tourism, of which adventure tourism is a part of (c.f. 2.1).
- Although no singular definition exists for adventure tourism, it is commonly accepted as travelling to a remote or climatically extreme area to participate in adventure activities (c.f. 2.1).
- There are several terms and concepts that are closely linked to adventure, such as recreation (c.f. 2.2.1.1), outdoor recreation (c.f. 2.2.1.2), adventure recreation (c.f. 2.2.1.3), exploration and discovery (c.f. 2.2.1.4), wilderness (c.f. 2.2.1.5), ecotourism (c.f. 2.2.1.6) and wildlife tourism (c.f. 2.2.1.7).
- There are several interrelated qualities involved in providing an adventure experience, including: uncertainty of outcomes, danger and risk, challenge, anticipated rewards, novelty, stimulation and excitement, escapism and separation, exploration and discovery, absorption and focus, contrasting emotions, and education (c.f. 2.3).
- Many theories exist that attempt to differentiate how adventure is experienced, including:
  - The adventure activity scale (c.f. 2.4.1);
  - Stage of adventure(c.f. 2.4.2);
  - Adventure experience paradigm (c.f. 2.4.3); and
  - Adventure continuum (c.f. 2.4.4).
- According to the adventure activity scale, difficulty levels can directly influence participation volume (c.f. 2.4.1). Higher levels of difficulty result in lower participation volumes and vice versa. Visitors participating in adventure activities in national parks are part of a high volume and low difficulty market (c.f. 2.4.1).

- The four stages of adventure include (c.f. 2.4.2):
  - play (participant operates below capabilities);
  - adventure (participant feels in control of a situation);
  - frontier adventure (participant has little to moderate control over a situation); and
  - misadventure (challenges are beyond the control of the participant).
- The adventure paradigm is similar to the stages of adventure, comparing level of competence to situational risk, but consists of five levels of how adventure is experienced, namely (c.f. 2.4.3):
  - exploration and experimentation (low risk / high competence);
  - adventure (moderate risk / high competence);
  - peak adventure (high risk / high competence);
  - misadventure (high risk / moderate competence); and
  - devastation and disaster (high risk / low competence).
- The adventure continuum identifies two categories on how adventure behaviours differ, namely soft and hard adventure (c.f. 2.4.4). Soft adventure refers to low risk / low skilled pursuits in remote locations (cf. 2.4.4.1), while hard adventure refers to high risk / skilled pursuits in remote locations (c.f. 2.4.4.2).
- Travel as a form of adventure tourism must constitute an outdoor adventure activity (i.e. rafting or orienteering) (c.f. 2.5.1).
- Most historical travels were taken to gain new land, wealth and scientific insight of which adventure was only considered a by-product on these travels at the time (c.f. 2.5.2). Contemporary adventure travels are a voluntary action for gaining thrills in challenging situations (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Those who deviated from the norm of pleasure travel and travelled further to more exotic places to participate in unique activities became known as adventure travellers (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Adventure tourism today is the result of a number of themes of travel and ways of thinking throughout history, including: explorers and adventurers, pilgrims, travel writer adventurers, merchants and traders, trekking, Outward Bound, ecotourism, wildlife tourism and World War periods (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Adventure tourism has shown signs of tremendous growth over the past few years (c.f. 2.5.3). Key factors that have led to this growth include the involvement of tour operators, increased technological advances, increased marketing efforts, commercialization of outdoor recreation, increased environmental awareness and the reduction of travel uncertainty (c.f. 2.5.3).
- Several key stakeholders are involved in the adventure tourism planning process, including the natural and cultural environment, government, tour operators, guides and instructors, training institutions for adventure guides, community, local businesses,

activist groups, competition, and the adventure tourist (c.f. 2.5.4). Their involvement can play an important role in sustainable adventure tourism development (c.f. 2.5.4).

- Adventure tourists are reasonably evenly spread between males and females, although hard adventure activities tend to attract slightly more males, while soft adventure activities tend to attract slightly more females (c.f. 2.6.1). The majority of adventure tourists tend to be young (average 35 years old), are married, educated (post-secondary education) and affluent (c.f. 2.6.1).
- Adventure tourists can be categorised according to their involvement in the commercial or private sector (c.f. 2.6.1). Private adventure tourists share duties amongst one other and perform adventure activities by themselves (c.f. 2.6.1). Commercial adventure tourists pay licensed guides to take responsibility for all activity duties (c.f. 2.6.1).
- Adventure tourists have basic physiological, psychological and social needs (c.f. 2.6.2.1). Physiological needs can include the need for water, food, safety, housing, sex and sleep (c.f. 2.6.2.1). If basic physiological and safety needs are not met, the need for adventure may no longer exist (c.f. 2.6.2.1). Psychological and social needs in adventure can include the need for arousal, agreeableness, competitiveness, achievement, learning (seek new knowledge), uniqueness, cultural experiences, contrasting emotions, thrill and companionship (c.f. 2.6.2.1).
- Adventure holidays can be taken as a result of internal or external motives for participating in adventure activities (c.f. 2.6.2.2). Internal adventure motives are a reflection of a person's internal needs for performing an activity (c.f. 2.6.2.2). External adventure motives are the result of external influences, such as the natural, cultural and social setting of a destination (c.f. 2.6.2.2).
- Tourist motives to travel can be the result of push or pull factors (2.6.2.2). Push factors are a direct reflection of needs and internal motives, whereas pull factors have to do with the attributes of a destination (2.6.2.2).
- Adventure tourists can take on different roles of involvement when participating in adventure activities, ranging from *"Passenger to Participant to Partner to Practitioner"* (c.f. 2.6.3).
- Adventure tourists are generally categorised according to the soft and hard adventure continuum based on their degree of involvement. Soft adventure tourists participate in low-risk / perceived risk / low-commitment activities (c.f. 2.6.3.2). Soft adventure tourists are usually well educated, wealthy, mature in age and motivated by novelty, escapism, socialization and excitement (c.f. 2.6.3.2). Hard adventure tourists participate in high-risk / high-competence activities that require physical and mental commitment (c.f. 2.6.3.2).
- Hard adventure tourists are usually young, educated, employed full-time and are motivated by risks, challenges and the opportunity to test and develop skills (c.f. 2.6.3.2).

5.2.2. Conclusions to the adventure tourism product development analysis

The following conclusions can be drawn from Chapter 3:

- Products are tangible (goods) or non-tangible (services) offerings to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption to fulfil a need or a want (c.f. 3.1).
- Tourism products refer to all the components consumed or experienced during travels, ranging from entertainment, accommodation, transportation, catering, attractions (manmade, natural or cultural) and destination structures (c.f. 3.1).
- Adventure tourism products refer to the adventure activities that tourists participate in at the destination (c.f. 3.2). This can take place in an indoor or outdoor environment. Unconventional means of transport, such as kayaking and rock climbing are also viewed as adventure activities (c.f. 3.2).
- Adventure activities are services and can only be evaluated after being paid for (c.f. 3.2). Tourist can evaluate adventure activities based on search or experience attributes (c.f. 3.2).
- If managed and performed correctly, adventure activities can benefit the participant (psychologically, socially, educationally and physically), the natural and cultural environment (sustainable development and create awareness), local community (economic and financial benefits) and the organization (increase attractiveness and tourist return) (c.f. 3.2.1).
- There are several product types involved when developing the adventure activities, including (c.f. 3.2.2): guides or instructors (c.f. 3.2.2.1), goods (c.f. 3.2.2.2), physical structures (c.f. 3.2.2.3), natural and cultural resources (c.f. 3.2.2.4), services (c.f. 3.2.2.5), and experiences (c.f. 3.2.2.6).
- The amount of direct service provided by tour operators is usually determined by the company's philosophies, mission statement and code of conduct (c.f. 3.2.2.5). If adventure tourists provide their own direction, the operator functions as a facilitator, but if the provider provides most of the service the operator serves as the direct service provider (c.f. 3.2.2.5).
- Product development is described as either the development of a new product or the refreshment of an existing product (c.f. 3.3). New product offerings should be part of an organizations long-term planning process (c.f. 3.3).
- New product development consists of five stages, namely (c.f. 3.3):
  - Idea processing (analysing different points of view for product) (c.f. 3.3.1);
  - Shifting process (analysing ideas according to strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and treats) (c.f. 3.3.2);
  - Idea evaluation (evaluate ideas according to consumer perceptions) (c.f. 3.3.2);
  - Development (Physical development of product and testing) (c.f. 3.3.3); and
  - Product commercialisation (product is placed on the market) (c.f. 3.3.4).

- The primary objective of this study forms part of the idea evaluation stage of the new product development process, since adventure activities were evaluated according to tourist needs for adventure activities in national parks (c.f. 3.3.2).
- Product commercialization corresponds with the introduction stage of a product's life cycle (c.f. 3.3.5, 3.4.1).
- All products, even adventure tourism products, have a product life cycle. There are five stages to a product's life cycle, namely introduction, growth, maturity, saturation and decline or modification stage (c.f. 3.4). Developing product strategies for each stage are vital for business survival (c.f. 3.4).
- South African National Parks currently reside in the maturity stage, where the increase of income steadily decreases and is expected to be overwhelmed by future operational costs (c.f. 3.4.3).
- By implementing modification or rejuvenation strategies in the decline phase, a product's life can be extended (c.f. 3.4.6). Modification strategies include finding new markets for existing products or adapting existing products to suit current market needs (c.f. 3.4.6).
- There are four stages/quadrants to product development for addressing tourist demands (c.f. 3.5.1).
  - Quadrant 1 - Market penetration: Providing existing products to existing customers
  - Quadrant 2 - Market development: Providing existing products to new customers
  - Quadrant 3 - Diversification: Providing new products to new customers
  - Quadrant 4 - Product development: Providing new products to existing customers
- The marketing mix is a set of strategies used in product development to promote a product to its target market (c.f. 3.5.2). The marketing mix revolves around four components, namely product, place, price and promotion (c.f. 3.5.2).
- The price of an adventure product should be reflected in expenditure and revenue (c.f. 3.5.2.1). Expenditure refers to all the cost involved, while revenue refers to the income and profit generated from delivering adventure activities (c.f. 3.5.2.1).
- Pricing strategies can be implemented according to four categories, namely premium pricing (high price for high quality), penetration pricing (low price for high quality), economy pricing (low price for low quality) and skim pricing (high price for low quality) (c.f. 3.5.2.1).
- Place in the marketing mix refers to the distribution location. In this study, place refers to all South African National Parks (c.f. 3.5.2.2).
- There are several place-related elements to consider when choosing an appropriate location for adventure activities to be presented, namely distribution channels and intensity, community composition, target market composition, location accessibility, and cultural and natural resources (c.f. 3.5.2.2).

- Cultural and natural resources are the most important place-related aspects to consider when developing adventure activities for national parks (c.f. 3.5.2.2).
- The promotions mix utilizes information technologies to raise product awareness through advertisements, sales promotions, personal selling and publicity (c.f. 3.5.2.3).
- Publicity is an unpaid form of communication to gain public relations, where the organization is not identified as the direct sponsor (c.f. 3.5.2.3).
- The promotions mix is also used to appropriately influence the tourist decision-making process and should be implemented towards obtaining market attention, interest, desire and the action to make a buying decision (acting on the advertisement) (c.f. 3.5.2.3).

5.2.3. Conclusions regarding empirical results

The aim of this research was to determine tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks. A web-based questionnaire was posted on the SANParks web site using quantitative research questions, while data was analysed using descriptive and exploratory research approaches. The following conclusions could be drawn regarding descriptive results and exploratory results (Chapter 4):

5.2.3.1. Descriptive results

Table 5.1 represents the socio-demographic profile of respondents.

Table 5.1: Profile of respondents

Profile	Results
Gender	Female (51%) and Male (49%) (c.f. 4.2.1)
Age	49 years (c.f. 4.2.2)
Home language	English (68%) and Afrikaans (28%) (c.f. 4.2.3)
Marital status	Married (67%) (c.f. 4.2.4)
Province of residence	Gauteng (41%) and Western Cape (21%) (c.f. 4.2.5)
Highest level of education	Diploma or degree (47%) (c.f. 4.2.6)
Dependent children	34% of respondents included dependent children in the travel party (c.f. 4.2.7)
Dependent children's age categories	19-25 years (38%) (c.f. 4.2.8)
Number of accompanying children	Two (49%) (c.f. 4.2.9)
Wild Card member	Yes (69%) (c.f. 4.3.1)
Visits to parks over past five years	8.54 times (c.f. 4.3.2)
Length of stay	2 to 7 nights (69%) (c.f. 4.3.3)

Table 5.2 represents the adventure participation profile of respondents visiting national parks.

Table 5.2: Adventure participation profile

Question/Description	Result
Do you participate in adventure activities in your leisure time?	Yes (61%) (c.f. 4.3.4)
Do you feel that current activities are sufficient in national parks?	Yes (78%) (c.f. 4.3.5)
Reasons why current activities are sufficient in national parks.	Interfere with park's role to preserve and conserve, encourage commercialization, attract wrong type of tourist, disrupt and disturb wildlife, disrupt visitors and nature experience, and interfere with peace and quiet (c.f. 4.3.5).
Reasons to why current activities are insufficient in national parks.	Need more variety, need activities for children, current activities are expensive and difficult to book, need lengthier activities and more frequent delivery of activities (c.f. 4.3.5).
Are you willing to pay for adventure activities in national parks?	Yes (65%) (c.f. 4.3.6)
On average, how much are you willing to pay for an adventure activity per person?	R101-R300 (63%) (c.f. 4.3.6)
Important to *extremely important* soft adventure activities	Bird watching, safari/game viewing, night drives, guided walks, botanical tours, campsite camping, stargazing, hiking, guided 4x4 trails and archaeological tours (c.f. 4.3.7).
Less important to *not important* soft adventure activities	Jet skiing, hunting, archery, orienteering, sandboarding, surfboard surfing, quad biking, obstacle course, motorboat rides, low-rope activities (c.f. 4.3.7).
Important to *extremely important* hard adventure activities	Wilderness training, field-guide training, and survival and wilderness training (c.f. 4.3.7).
Less important to *not important* hard adventure activities	Cliff jumping, bungee jumping, off-road and dirt biking, skydiving, hang gliding, high-rope activities, kitesurfing. Paragliding/parasailing, shark diving and abseiling (c.f. 4.3.7).
Adventure activities opposed to in national parks.	Hunting, quad biking, off-road and dirt biking, animal interaction, jet skiing, elephant rides, motorised activities and activities that cause pollution or endanger animals (c.f. 4.3.8).
Reasons for opposing above mentioned activities.	Does not support nature conservation and preservation, noisy, pollutes, hunting is cruel and unethical, frightens and endangers animals, domesticates wildlife and commercialized national parks (c.f. 4.3.8).
The need for other adventure activities in national parks.	Educational activities, wildlife photography and courses, nature conservation activities and mountain biking (c.f. 4.3.9).

Table 5.2: Adventure participation profile (continued)

Question/Description	Result
Adventure activities for people with disabilities	Guided game drives, stargazing, bird-watching, interpretive activities, night drives, guided 4x4 trails and game viewing (c.f. 4.3.10).
Adventure activities for children	Age 0 to 6 years: animal interaction (limited patting and feeding), indoor adventure centre and pony/horse riding (c.f. 4.3.11). Age 7 to13 years: children's trails, boogie boarding, lantern stalking, obstacle courses, outdoor learning programmes, fishing, animal interaction (limited patting and feeding), children's game drives, cycling, horse/pony riding, indoor adventure centre, youth camps, snorkelling and wall climbing (c.f. 4.3.11). Age 14 to 18 years: surfing, zip lining, team building programmes, adventure programmes (rope courses and orienteering), paint ball, canoeing, youth camps, paddling, wall climbing and cycling (c.f. 4.3.11).
Other mentioned adventure activities for children.	Educational activities, photography activities and courses (c.f. 4.3.11).
Important to *extremely important* motives for participating in adventure activities.	To get in touch with nature, to explore a new destination, to spend time with family and friends, to escape from my routine, to have a novel experience, to learn new skills, to develop skills and primarily for educational reasons (c.f. 4.4.1).
Other mentioned reasons for participating in adventure activities.	To advance conservation, for enjoyment, for the love of nature, for relaxation, to have a wildlife experience, to share experiences, to make new friends and to try new things (c.f. 4.4.1).

Three factor analyses were conducted, the first for soft adventure activities, the second for hard adventure activities and the third for adventure participation motives.

- The eight factors identified for soft adventure activities are as follows:
  - Factor 1: Water-based - surfboard surfing, paddle boats, sailing, snorkelling, sand-boarding, motorboat rides, jet skiing, scuba diving and canoeing.
  - Factor 2: Interpretive - safari/game viewing, night drives, bird watching, stargazing, guided walks and hot air ballooning.
  - Factor 3: Wildlife interaction - elephant rides, animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding) and quad biking.
  - Factor 4: Heritage - archaeological tours, historical tours (museums and historical buildings), geographical tours and botanical tours.

- Factor 5: Consumptive - hunting, archery and fishing (catch and release).
- Factor 6: Trail/Trekking - backpacking, cycling routes, hiking and horseback safaris
- Factor 7: Self-executing - 4x4 trails (guided and self-drives) and campsite camping
- Factor 8: Team-based - orienteering, team building, obstacle course and zip lining.

Interpretive was indicated as the most important soft adventure factor with a mean value of 3.71. Self-executing was given as the second most important soft adventure factor with a mean value of 3.45. Heritage was considered the third most important soft adventure factor with a mean value of 2.86. The fourth most important soft adventure factor was trail/trekking with a mean value 2.49. All four these factors had an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value of above 0.70.

- The three factors identified for hard adventure activities are as follows:
  - Factor 1: Adrenaline rush - bungee jumping, skydiving, high-rope activities, off-road and dirt biking, cliff jumping, hang gliding, kitesurfing, paragliding/parasailing, abseiling and shark diving.
  - Factor 2: Wilderness training and survival courses - field-guide training, wilderness camping, survival and wilderness training, and survival games.
  - Factor 3: Adventure sports - Kayaking, mountain biking, trail running, rock climbing, white-water rafting, caving and mountain climbing.

The most important hard adventure factor was wilderness training and survival courses with a mean value of 2.91. The second most important hard adventure factor was adventure sports with a mean value of 1.98, while adrenaline rush came in at third place with a mean value of 1.53. An acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of above 7.0 was recorded for all three hard adventure factors.

- Two factors were identified for adventure participation motives and are as follows:
  - Factor 1: Internal motives - because it is challenging, to experience thrill and excitement, for fitness purposes, adventure has unknown outcomes, to overcome fear, to develop skills, to learn new skills and to have a novel experience.
  - Factor 2: External motives - to get in touch with nature, to spend time with family and friends, for education reasons, to escape routine and to explore a new destination.

External motives were considered the most important reasons for participating in adventure activities in national parks with a mean value of 3.44 and a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.85, which is a highly acceptable value.

5.2.3.2. Exploratory results

An exploratory analysis was done to compare socio-demographic and adventure behaviour aspects of respondents with the three factor analyses. Comparisons were done using T-tests and ANOVA tests to determine if significant differences existed.

Table 5.3 identifies the socio-demographic aspects of respondents who showed statistical significant differences (highest mean values) in the factor analyses.

Table 5.3: Socio-demographic profile for factors

Profile	Significant differences (highest mean values)	Soft adventure factors	Hard adventure factors	Adventure participation motives
Gender	Male	Water-based Consumptive Trail/Trekking Self-executing	Wilderness training and survival courses	Internal motives
Age	≤39 years	All soft adventure factors	All hard adventure factors	Internal motives External motives
Home language	Afrikaans	Consumptive Self-executing Team-based	-	-
Wild Card membership	No (not a Wild Card holder)	Water-based Wildlife interaction Team-based	All hard adventure activities	Internal motives
	Yes (Wild Card holder)	Self-executing	-	-
Marital status	Single	Water-based	Adrenaline rush Adventure sports	Internal motives External motives
	Living together	Heritage	-	-
Province of residence	Western Cape	-	Adrenaline rush Adventure sports	-

According to Table 5.3:

- Male respondents considered water-based, consumptive, trail/trekking, self-executing, and wilderness training and survival courses to be more important adventure factors for national parks than female respondents. Male respondents also found internal motives

as more important reasons for participating in adventure activities than female respondents.

- Respondents aged 39 years and younger thought all soft and hard adventure factors to be more important for national parks than those aged 40 years and older. Both internal and external motives were considered more important reasons for participating in adventure activities for respondents aged 39 years and younger, compared to respondents aged 40 years and older.
- Respondents who spoke Afrikaans as a home language thought consumptive, self-executing and team-based to be more important soft adventure factors for national parks than respondents who spoke other home languages.
- Respondents who did not own a Wild Card thought that water-based, wildlife interaction and team-based were more important soft adventure factors for national parks compared to Wild Card holders. Alternatively, self-executing was considered a more important soft adventure factor for Wild Card members as opposed to non-Wild Card members. In addition, those who did not own a Wild Card also thought that all hard adventure factors were more important for national parks compared to Wild Card holders. In respect of adventure participation motives, non-Wild Card holders thought internal motives to be more important reasons for participating in adventure activities compared to Wild Card holders.
- Respondents who were single thought that water-based, adrenaline rush and adventure sports were more important adventure factors for national parks compared to any other marital status. Alternatively, heritage was considered a more important soft adventure factor for people living together. Both internal and external motives were considered more important reasons to participate in adventure activities amongst respondents who were single compared to any other marital status.
- Respondents who resided in the Western Cape thought that adrenaline rush and adventure sports were more important hard adventure factors when compared to respondents from other provinces.

Table 5.4 identifies the responses to behavioural questions that showed statistical significant differences (higher mean values) in the factor analyses.

Table 5.4: Adventure behaviour profile for the factors

Behavioural question	Significant differences (highest mean values)	Soft adventure factors	Hard adventure factors	Adventure participation motives
Do you participate in adventure activities in your leisure time?	Affirmative response (replied "yes")	All soft adventure activities	All hard adventure activities	Internal motives External motives
Do you feel that current activities in national parks are sufficient?	Negative response (replied "no")	All soft adventure factors	All hard adventure factors	Internal motives External motives

As identified in Table 5.4

- Respondents who affirmed to participating in adventure activities thought all soft and hard adventure factors to be more important than those who did not participate in adventure activities. Both internal and external motives were considered more important reasons for participating in adventure activities by respondents who participated in adventure activities than those who did not.
- Respondents who thought current activities insufficient in national parks thought all soft and hard adventure factors to be more important than those respondents who thought current activities to be sufficient in national parks. Both internal and external motives were considered more important reasons for participating in adventure activities amongst respondents who thought current activities insufficient in national parks compared to those who thought otherwise.

Spearman's correlation coefficient was done to determine the relationship that visits to national parks (over the past five years) and length of stay had with the age of the respondents for the three factor analyses (c.f. 4.8). The following Spearman's correlation results were identified:

- Age had a positive small effect correlation with visits to national parks over the past five years (c.f. 4.8.1).
- Wildlife interaction (soft adventure factor) had a negative small effect correlation with visits to national parks over the past five years (c.f. 4.8.1).

- Self-executing (soft adventure factor) showed a positive effect correlation with visits to national parks over the past five years (c.f. 4.8.1).
- Water-based, wildlife interaction, consumptive, trail/trekking and team-based factors (soft adventure factors) had a negative small effect correlation with length of stay (c.f. 4.8.2).
- Adrenaline rush and adventure sports (hard adventure factors) had a negative small effect correlation with length of stay (c.f. 4.8.2).

5.3. Recommendations with regard to tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks

The following recommendations can be made regarding adventure activity needs in South African National Parks:

- It was mentioned by several respondents that current adventure activities in national parks are too expensive, difficult to book and infrequently delivered. By providing a larger variety of adventure activities, visitors will be able to have access to other activities (i.e. stargazing or horse riding) if intended activities (i.e. night drives or 4x4 drives) are fully booked. Providing adventure activities on a more frequent basis can also increase user accessibility to perform these activities and make bookings easier. With a larger variety of adventure activities, current activity prices can be lowered because profit is now shared amongst several activities and is not solely dependent on a selected few activities.
- Interpretive (i.e. night drives, bird watching and stargazing), self-executing (i.e. guided and self-guided 4x4 trails and campsite camping), heritage (i.e. historical, archaeological, botanical and geographical tours), wilderness training and survival courses (i.e. field-guide training and wilderness camping) were considered the most important adventure activities for national parks. Implementing these activities in various national parks can play an essential role in the fight against future increases in operational costs as they provide the potential to generate additional income.
- Developing new adventure activities is key to attracting a broader South African society of visitors to national parks. The following adventure activities are regarded as new to national parks, of which more than 25% of the respondents indicated as important to extremely important, namely cycling routes, backpacking, fishing (catch and release), hot air ballooning, cultural dances, zip lining, geographical tours, orienteering, historical tours, paddleboats, caving, kayaking, white-water rafting, mountain biking, rock climbing, survival and wilderness training, mountain biking, trail running, field-guide training, wilderness camping and survival games.
- It is recommended that age-appropriate adventure activities be developed for children of all ages who visit national parks. This will enable children of different ages to have

access to adventure activities that will not compromise their safety or performance level. For example, animal interaction activities (limited patting and feed) and indoor adventure centres were identified as appropriate for children between the ages of 0 to 6 years, children trails, lantern stalking, obstacle courses and outdoor learning programmes for children between the ages of 7 to 13 years, and surfing, zip lining, team building programmes, adventure programmes (rope courses and orienteering) and paint ball for children between the ages of 14 to 18 years.

- It is recommended that most if not all adventure activities be made available to people with disabilities, especially guided game drives, stargazing, bird-watching, interpretive activities, night drives, guided 4x4 trails and game viewing. This allows people with disabilities to be exposed to equal opportunities, while also attracting a new kind of market resulting in favourable public relations.
- By following the new product development process, for which this study contributes greatly within the idea processing and evaluation stages, South African National Parks can develop new adventure activities, with a relatively good survival rate, that will suit the needs of both current visitors and potential new visitors (c.f. 1.3).
- Since strong responses were given against adventure activities that can cause noise pollution, such as motorized activities, such as quad biking, off-road and dirt biking, and jet skiing, it is recommended that these activities be avoided or take place away from the campsites. An alternative solution would be to enter partnership agreements with bordering game farm owners, wildlife lodges and adventure organizations to deliver these activities outside national parks on their properties. National parks can provide visitors with transportation to and from these activities.
- Hunting and animal interaction activities should be totally avoided in national parks. The implementation of these activities could have dire and unethical consequences, causing dissatisfaction amongst loyal park visitors and attracting activist groups, which could result in negative public relations.
- Since adventure activities are associated with high levels of risk and danger, national parks could outsource the responsibility of delivering new adventure activities to local adventure organizations with the expertise to present these activities within the parks. This would enable national parks to save on development costs, while also transferring safety and performance responsibility to established adventure organizations.
- It was identified that the majority of respondents who participated in adventure activities did not own a Wild Card and were below the age of forty years. Male respondents were also found to be more in favour of participating in adventure activities in national parks. Attracting these markets could be essential for the long-term survival of new adventure activities. This includes all soft and hard adventure activities that are to be implemented

in national parks (particularly water-based activities, such as scuba diving, canoeing and snorkelling, and wilderness training and survival courses).

- Since the majority of Wild Card holders indicated that they did not participate in adventure activities, adventure offerings could be promoted and packaged and aimed exclusively at Wild Card holders in an attempt to attract a larger portion of these visitors to participate in adventure activities. This could also encourage non-Wild Card holders to obtain Wild Card membership.
- Since external motives were regarded as the most important reasons for participating in adventure activities, adventure product development should thus focus on providing visitors with experiences where they interact with nature, escape from their routine, explore new destinations, spend time with family and friends, learn new skills, have educational opportunities and novel encounters. By focusing adventure activity outcomes on these experiences, parks can increase participation satisfaction, fulfil participation needs and increase repeated participation rates.

5.4. Recommendations with regard to future research

The following aspects are important consideration for future research regarding this study:

- Surveying visitors at different national parks can help determine park specific needs for adventure activities.
- Future research can be done regarding the sustainable development of new adventure activities. This could help South African National Parks to identify how resources should be allocated to specific activities and what procedures should be followed to perform the activities.
- Future research can be done regarding the marketing aspects of new adventure activities in national parks. Different adventure activities appeal to different markets and by identifying the information technologies used by different markets SANParks could use the promotional mix to attract target markets through different mediums of interest.
- Because risk is an inherent part of adventure activities, future research can be done regarding risk management of adventure activities. This can help South African National Parks to prioritize the risks and allocate resources towards minimizing, monitoring and controlling the probability of risk in adventure activities.
- Future research can be done regarding a visitor's view of how SANParks should manage adventure activities without compromising the integrity of the parks and the loyalty of its visitors. This can include a visitor's view of how adventure activities can be developed, modified or adapted to better meet the needs of the participants.
- A supply side analysis can be done by SANParks, since a demand side analysis was done among tourists in this study, allowing park management to identify gaps in the current supply of adventure activities and to identify if they have a need for more

adventure activities in national parks, and if so, what activities would they then recommend.

5.5. Limitations of the study

The following limitations were identified for this study:

- The questionnaire was only accessible thorough the SANParks web site, which excluded visitors without internet access. In addition, the questionnaire was available to all who were willing to complete it and may therefore not be a truthful representation of visitors visiting national parks.
- Since the questionnaire was mainly targeted at current visitors, the results may, for a large part, be limited to current markets and may not necessarily represent a general public's perspective. Therefore people/tourists/communities outside the parks must also be surveyed to determine their preferences and can be recommended for future research.
- The questionnaire was only available during the months of April and May 2014, whereas if it was done during the June or November holidays it could have yielded different results since families are then planning holiday getaways.

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Appendix A
Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

The purpose of this survey is to determine the tourist needs for adventure activities in South African National Parks. The importance of this research will help South African National Parks to determine, develop and implement a wide variety of suitable adventure activities based on various visitor needs (children, teenagers and adults). Developing new adventure activities will also serve as an alternative strategy for generating revenue, aimed at increased conservational efforts and the future sustainability of South African National Parks.

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire is highly appreciated. Completing the questionnaire will not take more than 5 to 10 minutes of your time. On completion of the questionnaire, please include your contact details to ensure an automatic entry for a lucky draw prize.

Yours sincerely
Jacques Bosch

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SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL

1 What is you gender? Male [1] female [2]

2 Year of birth? 19____

3 Home language?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
Other (specify)	3

4 Marital status?

Single	1
Married	2
Living together	3
Divorced	4
Widow/er	5

5 Country of residence (If outside RSA)? _____

6 In which province do you currently reside in?

Gauteng	1
KwaZulu-Natal	2
Eastern Cape	3
Western Cape	4
Northern Cape	5
Limpopo	6
Mpumalanga	7
Free State	8
North West	9

7 Indicate you highest level of education.

No school	1
Primary school	2
Matric	3
Diploma, degree	4
Post-graduate	5
Professional	6
Other (specify)	7

8 Information regarding dependent children included in your travel party (if any).

	Age in years			
	0-6	7-13	14-18	19-25
1st child	1	1	1	1
2nd child	2	2	2	2
3rd child	3	3	3	3
4th child	4	4	4	4

SECTION B: TOURIST ADVENTURE ACTIVITY NEEDS

1	Are you a 'Wild Card' holder?	Yes	1	No	2
2	How many times have you visited National Parks over the past 5 years?				
3	On average, how many nights do you overnight at a park?				
4	Do you participate in adventure activities in your leisure time?	Yes	1	No	2
5.1	Do you feel that current activities (e.g. guide trails) in National Parks are sufficient?	Yes	1	No	2
5.2	Motivate your answer for question 5.1.				
6.1	Are you willing to pay for adventure activities in National Parks?	Yes	1	No	2

6.2 If you answered yes in question 6.1, on average, how much are you willing to pay for an adventure activity per person?

Rand	
R1 - R100	
R101 - R200	
R201 - R300	
R301 - R400	
R401 - R500	
↑ R500	

7.1 According to your needs, assess the importance of the following adventure activities for National Parks.

		5 = Extremely important 4 = Very important 3 =Important 2= Less important 1= Not important				
	SOFT ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES					
a	Cycling routes	1	2	3	4	5
b	Backpacking	1	2	3	4	5
c	Guided walks	1	2	3	4	5
d	Horseback safaris	1	2	3	4	5
e	Fishing (catch and release)	1	2	3	4	5
f	Campsite camping	1	2	3	4	5
g	Snorkelling	1	2	3	4	5
h	Canoeing	1	2	3	4	5
i	Sailing	1	2	3	4	5
j	Surfboard surfing	1	2	3	4	5
k	Hot air ballooning	1	2	3	4	5
l	Quad biking	1	2	3	4	5
m	Scuba diving	1	2	3	4	5

		5 = Extremely important 4 = Very important 3 =Important 2= Less important 1= Not important				
SOFT ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES						
n	Bird watching	1	2	3	4	5
o	Cultural dances	1	2	3	4	5
p	4 x 4 trails (self-drive)	1	2	3	4	5
q	4 x 4 trails (guided)	1	2	3	4	5
r	Hiking	1	2	3	4	5
s	Safari/Game viewing	1	2	3	4	5
t	Zip lining	1	2	3	4	5
u	Hunting	1	2	3	4	5
v	Geographical tours	1	2	3	4	5
w	Archery	1	2	3	4	5
x	Orienteering	1	2	3	4	5
y	Team building	1	2	3	4	5
z	Obstacle courses	1	2	3	4	5
aa	Night drives	1	2	3	4	5
bb	Archaeological tours	1	2	3	4	5
cc	Historical tours (museums and historical buildings)	1	2	3	4	5
dd	Low-rope activities	1	2	3	4	5
ee	Motorboat rides	1	2	3	4	5
ff	Paddleboats	1	2	3	4	5
gg	Sandboarding	1	2	3	4	5
hh	Jet skiing	1	2	3	4	5
ii	Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding)	1	2	3	4	5
jj	Elephant rides	1	2	3	4	5
kk	Stargazing	1	2	3	4	5
ll	Botanical tours (Tsitsikamma forests)	1	2	3	4	5
HARD ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES						
mm	Paragliding/Parasailing	1	2	3	4	5
nn	Caving	1	2	3	4	5
oo	Kayaking	1	2	3	4	5
pp	White-water rafting	1	2	3	4	5
qq	Mountain biking	1	2	3	4	5
rr	Rock climbing	1	2	3	4	5
ss	Survival and wilderness training	1	2	3	4	5
tt	Skydiving	1	2	3	4	5
uu	Abseiling	1	2	3	4	5
vv	Hang gliding	1	2	3	4	5
ww	Mountain climbing	1	2	3	4	5
xx	Bungee jumping	1	2	3	4	5
yy	Kitesurfing	1	2	3	4	5
zz	Off-road and dirt biking	1	2	3	4	5
aaa	Cliff jumping	1	2	3	4	5
bbb	High-rope activities	1	2	3	4	5
ccc	Trail running	1	2	3	4	5
ddd	Field-guide training	1	2	3	4	5
eee	Wilderness camping	1	2	3	4	5
fff	Shark diving	1	2	3	4	5
ggg	Survival games	1	2	3	4	5

7.2a Which of the above adventure activities would you be strongly opposed to in National Parks?

7.2b Why (give your reasons for question 7.2a)?

7.2c If you are interested in being contacted by SANParks surrounding your reasons in question 7.2b, provide the following contact information:

Name and surname: _____

E-mail address: _____

7.3 Which other adventure activities would you like to see in National Parks in the near future?

7.4 Which adventure activities will you recommend for people with disabilities?

7.5 If children are included in your travel party, which type of adventure activities would they prefer?

		Age in years		
		0 - 6	7 - 13	14 - 18
a	Children's game drives	1	2	3
b	Paint Ball	1	2	3
c	Youth camps	1	2	3
d	Children's trails	1	2	3
e	Animal interaction activities (limited patting and feeding).	1	2	3
f	Obstacle course	1	2	3
g	Outdoor learning programmes	1	2	3
h	Cycling	1	2	3
i	Horse/Pony riding	1	2	3
j	Zip lining	1	2	3
k	Fishing (catch and release)	1	2	3
l	Team building programmes (raft building)	1	2	3
m	Canoeing (guided)	1	2	3
n	Indoor adventure centre	1	2	3
o	Adventure programmes (rope courses and orienteering)	1	2	3
p	Snorkelling	1	2	3
q	Paddling	1	2	3
r	Boogie boarding	1	2	3
s	Surfing	1	2	3
t	Lantern stalking	1	2	3
u	Wall climbing	1	2	3

Other (specify) _____

SECTION C: ADVENTURE PARTICIPATION MOTIVES

1.1 According to your motives, assess the importance of the following motives as reasons for participating in adventure activities.

		5 = Extremely important 4 = Very important 3 =Important 2= Less important 1= Not important				
a	A novel experience	1	2	3	4	5
b	Because it is challenging	1	2	3	4	5
c	To develop skills	1	2	3	4	5
d	To learn new skills	1	2	3	4	5
e	To overcome a fear	1	2	3	4	5
f	To get in touch with nature	1	2	3	4	5
g	For fitness purposes	1	2	3	4	5
h	To experience thrill and excitement	1	2	3	4	5
i	To explore a new destination	1	2	3	4	5
j	To escape from my routine	1	2	3	4	5
l	To spend time with friends and family	1	2	3	4	5
n	Primarily for educational reasons	1	2	3	4	5
p	Adventure has unknown outcomes	1	2	3	4	5

1.2 Other reasons for participating in adventure activities, please identify?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION