

Tourists' Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions of
Wildlife Souvenirs: A Case Study in Cuba

by

Jennifer Alexandria Woronuk

A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo

in fulfillment of the

thesis requirement for the degree of

Master of Environmental Studies

in

Geography – Tourism Policy and Planning

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2008

© Jennifer Alexandria Woronuk 2008

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

Considerable research has been conducted on tourist souvenirs but one area that has been widely neglected in souvenir literature is the concept of *wildlife* souvenirs. Many tourists purchase wildlife products when they go traveling, as evidenced by the continued production, sale, and confiscation of wildlife items such as coral/shell jewellery and animal skin/fur accessories around the world. Endangered species are often infiltrated into the souvenir trade and tourists both knowingly and unknowingly purchase endangered items as trip memorabilia. While the economic, environmental, and legal implications of the trade in wildlife have been well documented, the impacts of wildlife souvenirs have not; particularly the environmental consequences which are predominantly unknown.

The purpose of this research was to assess tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs by exploring their purchase behaviour, general awareness, attitudes and perceptions, perception of environmental impact, and awareness of importation laws. A survey was conducted in the resort town of Varadero, Cuba in order to assess the frame of mind of international tourists (and potential souvenir consumers) while abroad. The findings revealed that there were significant differences in the way tourists identify with wildlife souvenirs and that these differences were occasionally attributed to sex and age but frequently attributed to geographic region (or place of origin). In general, tourists were found to be largely unaware of the concept of wildlife souvenirs and their implications, and fickle in terms of their attitudes and behaviours. A greater effort to educate the traveling public about the trade in wildlife and wildlife souvenirs

would be a valuable strategy in enhancing overall awareness, promoting sustainable consumer practices, and conserving the world's wildlife resources.

Acknowledgements

There are many people that deserve to be recognized and thanked for making this thesis a reality. First of all, I would like to thank the various tourists vacationing in Varadero, Cuba for actively participating in this study. Their enthusiasm was much appreciated and made the data collection process easy and rewarding. In particular, I would like to deeply thank my colleague, Angela Gilmore, for her spontaneity, humour, motivation, and support both in Cuba and after our return to Canada. Swapping long-distance stories about our thesis woes helped me get through the tough times with laughter, a shared perplexity, and a renewed sense of determination. In addition, I would like to thank Ernie Cooper with WWF/TRAFFIC and April White with Environment Canada for contributing to this thesis by sharing their invaluable expertise.

The advice and support of my thesis advisor, Dr. Judie Cukier, cannot be overlooked. Although the majority of my masters program has been conducted long-distance from Alberta, Dr. Cukier has provided helpful advice and positive feedback, and without her research funding, this thesis would not have been possible. My interaction with my committee member, Dr. Brent Doberstein, was brief but meaningful as he also provided helpful feedback and support. The contributions of both Dr. Cukier and Dr. Doberstein helped make a stronger thesis. In addition, I would like to thank a family friend and academic, Dr. Brian Neilson, for making last-minute house-calls to help me decipher my statistics, comprehend my analysis, and conceptualize my format.

My family and friends have also greatly contributed to the completion of this thesis. My parents, Garth and Gail, have supported me throughout the entire process; from allowing

me to live at home for free and take over the office with my multiple stacks of paper and books to gently probing about progress while never pressuring to rush. There was a ‘method to my madness’ and they allowed me to revel in it freely without question. For their unconditional love and support, I will always be grateful. Thank you to my cousin, Amberly Colter, for her calming nature and conceptual insight. Special thanks to my precious cat, Oz, for providing just the right amount of distraction and rejuvenation through his relentless demand for ‘loves’ and cat-naps. Finally, I would like to thank my best friend, Cindy Platt, who has been there for me from the very beginning. She has never tired of listening to my thesis-related rants and has been unbelievably patient in answering my endless barrage of questions ranging from writing to statistics to formatting to submission. Without her unwavering guidance, empathy, and encouragement, this thesis would not have been accomplished.

Table of Contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Souvenirs	1
1.2 Purpose of Study.....	3
1.3 Research Questions	4
1.4 Research Objectives	5
1.5 Significance	5
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1 Wildlife Trade	7
2.2 Trade Monitoring.....	18
2.3 Importation	26
2.4 Public Awareness	31
3.0 METHODS.....	39
3.1 Research Design	39
3.2 Population and Sample	46
3.3 Instrumentation.....	49
3.4 Data Analysis.....	51
3.5 Ethical Considerations.....	55
3.6 Limitations.....	55
4.0 FINDINGS.....	58
4.1 Response Rate	58
4.2 Descriptive Analysis.....	59
4.3 Inferential Analysis	77
4.4 Summary of Main Findings.....	121
5.0 DISCUSSION.....	124
5.1 Purchase Behaviour	124
5.2 Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Wildlife Souvenirs.....	130
5.3 Perception of Environmental Impact.....	137
5.4 Awareness of Importation Laws.....	139
5.5 Implications	142
6.0 CONCLUSION.....	158

Bibliography	163
Appendix A: Various Wildlife Souvenir Publications and Advertisements	172
Appendix B: Survey Instrument	182
Appendix C: Canada Customs Wildlife Trade Awareness Sign	186
Appendix D: Cubatur – Polymita Awareness Poster	187

List of Tables

Table 1:	Research Questions	5
Table 2:	Tourist Souvenirs and CITES Permits Required in Canada	32
Table 3:	Survey Response Characteristics	58
Table 4:	Country of Residence	62
Table 5:	Characteristics of Wildlife Souvenir Purchases	63
Table 6:	Means and Standard Deviations of Likert-type Statements	73
Table 7:	Summary Indicator Scores and Standard Deviations	74
Table 8:	Modified Variables for Inferential Analysis	78
Table 9-10:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Wildlife Purchases	81/82
Table 11-12:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Not Purchasing Wildlife	83/84
Table 13:	Chi Square Results for Asking an Artisan/Retailer	87
Table 14-15:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Physical Characteristics	88/89
Table 16-17:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Souvenir Perception	92/93
Table 18-19:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for How Awareness Affects Purchases	94/95
Table 20-21:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Importance of Awareness	96/97
Table 22-23:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Willingness to Purchase	98/99
Table 24-25:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Powerful Protectors	100/101

Table 26:	T-test and ANOVA Results for Wildlife Preference	104
Table 27:	T-test and ANOVA Results for Artisan/Retailer Integrity	106
Table 28:	T-test and ANOVA Results for Consumer Ethics	108
Table 29:	T-test and ANOVA Results for Consumer Responsibility	110
Table 30-31:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Environmental Impact	111/112
Table 32:	T-test and ANOVA Results for Environmental Impact (Sum. Indicator)	113
Table 33-34:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Prohibited Species	114/115
Table 35-36:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Importation Penalties	116/117
Table 37-38:	Chi Square and Crosstab Results for Knowing Where to Find Info	119/120
Table 39:	Chi Square Results for Effort to Research Importation Info	120

List of Figures

Figure 1:	Location of the World’s Tropical Zone	12
Figure 2:	Map of the Caribbean	42
Figure 3:	Map of Cuba	44
Figure 4:	Age Statistics	60
Figure 5:	Education Statistics	61
Figure 6:	Reasons for Purchasing Wildlife Souvenirs	65
Figure 7:	Reasons for Not Purchasing Wildlife Souvenirs	66
Figure 8:	Wildlife Souvenir Physical Characteristics	67
Figure 9:	Perception of Wildlife Souvenirs	68
Figure 10:	How Awareness Affects Purchase Intention	70
Figure 11:	Importance of Awareness	70
Figure 12:	Approach for Reporting and Discussing Inferential Statistic Results	80
Figure 13:	Means Plot for Wildlife Preference	105
Figure 14:	Means Plot for Consumer Ethics	109
Figure 15:	Awareness of Prohibited Species	116
Figure 16:	Awareness of Importation Penalties	118

1.0 Introduction

1.1 *Souvenirs*

World tourism has demonstrated dynamic growth over the last century and shows a promising future in the decades to come (UNWTO, 2007). Global tourism reached an all-time high in 2006 as international tourist arrivals totalled 846 million, generating US\$733 billion in international tourism receipts (UNWTO, 2007). The tourism industry transcends political, economic, cultural, and environmental boundaries, and as such, it has significant implications for destination communities, particularly those more dependent on tourism as a primary source of revenue and economic stability.

Shopping is a favourite tourist activity and an increasingly important component of the leisure travel experience (Kim & Littrell, 1999). Shopping provides a source of entertainment, adventure, and discovery of unusual objects (Anderson & Littrell, 1995) and “tourists not only invest time toward shopping during their travels, but they also spend approximately one-third of their total tourism expenditures on retail purchases” (Yu & Littrell, 2003, p. 140). Shopping opportunity is also accredited as a major attraction that draws tourists to travel abroad, particularly to lower-income or developing countries, where the prices of goods are generally low (Kim & Littrell, 1999 citing Keown, 1989) and where the selection of goods is often different from that at home.

All cultures need symbols to represent their ethnic identity and image, and to help define their external boundaries to the outside world (Graburn, 1976). Arts and crafts offer creative and tangible mediums to express a nation’s history, heritage, or geography and

can be shared with others (Love & Sheldon, 1998). Traveling is often a rewarding, enlightening, and memorable experience, and in some cases, it “becomes a ‘sacred journey’ during which tourists seek experiences that symbolize reversals in their daily activities at home” (Littrell, 1990, p. 230 citing Graburn, 1977, 1983). As tourists search for meaning in their travels, they are simultaneously looking for ways to hold-on to, or capture, the valuable but impalpable sensations experienced. This need to define and remember meaningful travel experiences is strong and drives tourists to find objects (i.e. souvenirs) that encapsulate the essence of the people, places, or moments they wish to remember. Therefore, souvenirs are the ‘tangible’ reminders of the ‘intangible’ travel experiences and come in endless forms and types and serve a variety of purposes and meanings for their owners (Anderson & Littrell, 1995; Gordon, 1986; Graburn, 1977; Littrell, 1990; Littrell et al., 1993, 1994; Love & Sheldon, 1998). Moreover, souvenirs acquired during special travel situations or conditions often become among the most valued possessions of individuals (Littrell, 1990), providing opportunities to “reminisce, differentiate the self from or integrate with others, bolster feelings of confidence, express creativity, and enhance aesthetic pleasure” (Littrell et al., 1994, p. 3). Memorable shopping experiences and special souvenir purchases are also believed to be an integral part of the search for authenticity (Anderson & Littrell, 1995), providing an explanation for the difference in tourists’ shopping behaviour while on vacation and the tendency to ‘splurge’ or buy items one would not normally find or purchase at home (Littrell et al., 1993).

Although the sale of souvenirs provides an important source of revenue for tourism communities, their production has environmental implications largely unbeknownst to

the average tourist. As tourism grows and shopping activity increases, there is added pressure on souvenir producers and retailers to meet the escalating demands of tourists' souvenir needs. In turn, this growth can put pressure on the natural environment where souvenirs, or their raw materials, originate (e.g. wood and animal parts). Wild plants and animals and their derivatives are sold worldwide through hotels and resorts, tourism outlets, and local markets as curiosities (curios) and souvenirs, in both raw and processed form, as trophies, trinkets, jewellery, art, crafts, ornaments, clothing, food, and pets (Grey et al., 2005). As the world population and global tourism grow, the demand for wildlife products increases putting species at risk of becoming threatened, endangered, or extinct indirectly via habitat loss or directly via hunting and harvesting for subsistence and commercial purposes. Thus, tourists' interest in wildlife commodities raises questions about the exploitation and sustainability of the numerous species and ecosystems affected by the trade in wildlife.

1.2 Purpose of Study

Many tourists purchase wildlife souvenirs when they go traveling, as evidenced by the continued production and sale of wildlife items such as coral/shell jewellery and animal skin accessories found in marketplaces around the world. Wildlife souvenirs have economic, environmental, and legal implications, and thus, it should be of interest to researchers, conservationists, and the wider tourism community to know: who is buying these products and why; if tourists are aware of the environmental implications of wildlife souvenirs; and if tourists know the legalities surrounding the importation of

wildlife products to their home countries. Thus, the purpose of this research was to examine tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs.

In the literature, souvenirs are typically defined as the *symbolic* representations of destinations or experiences tourists wish to remember from their travels. However, it is also possible that tourists purchase products that bear no symbolic significance to a person, place, or memory, but simply because they liked the item (e.g. a non-descript clothing item such as a plain t-shirt). It is therefore unclear whether these items would still be classified as 'souvenirs' in the symbolic sense as defined in the literature, or under some other classification. However, for the purposes of this research, the term 'souvenir' will refer to all objects available for tourist consumption during travel regardless of symbolic significance. Moreover, although the term 'wildlife' could be interpreted to refer to all living things (i.e. plants and animals) living in the wild or an undomesticated state, for the purposes of this study, only wildlife souvenirs made from *wild animals* were considered. Future studies might benefit from a similar examination of souvenirs made from wild plants (e.g. trees, flowers, and herbs).

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions relate directly to the purpose of this study by seeking to explain the relationship between tourists and wildlife souvenirs (Table 1).

Table 1: Research Questions

1. What is the purchase behaviour of tourists with respect to wildlife souvenirs?
 2. What are tourists' attitudes and perceptions toward wildlife souvenirs?
 3. What are tourists' perceptions of the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs?
 4. Do tourists know the wildlife importation laws of their home country and how to access this information?
-

1.4 Research Objectives

Based on the founding research questions the four research objectives of this study are:

- 1.) To assess tourists' purchase behaviour with respect to wildlife souvenirs
- 2.) To assess tourists' general awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs
- 3.) To assess tourists' perception of the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs
- 4.) To assess tourists' awareness of importation policies regarding wildlife souvenirs

To meet the research objectives above, Cuba was used as a case study destination in this study in order to interact with tourists on holiday. Details of the case study will be outlined in Chapter 3.

1.5 Significance

The significance of conducting a research study of this nature is primarily empirical. There are several studies on (craft) souvenirs and tourist art in academic literature that

focus on the following themes: purpose and meaning (Littrell, 1990; Love & Sheldon, 1998); typologies (Gordon, 1986; Graburn, 1976); authenticity and commoditization (Blundell, 1993; Cohen, 1988, 1993; Graburn, 1984; Littrell et al., 1993; Notar, 2006); and purchase behaviour and intentions (Anderson & Littrell, 1995; Kim & Littrell, 1999, 2001; Littrell et al., 1994; Swanson & Horridge, 2004; Yu & Littrell, 2003). However, to my knowledge there has not been any published research that has specifically addressed the relationship between tourists and *wildlife* souvenirs. This presents a unique opportunity for investigation, particularly because there is some debate among researchers and conservationists over the environmental impact of wildlife trade and the role tourist souvenirs play in this trade. Therefore, for the first time, this research project will address tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs and the results will build upon the existing knowledge of souvenirs by examining a previously unexplored but ecologically significant matter. Furthermore, the results will provide a benchmark for future studies.

2.0 Literature Review

The following chapter provides an overview of the literature on wildlife trade to provide a general understanding of the concept and highlight the various issues surrounding it. This chapter is divided into four sections: (1) wildlife trade; (2) trade monitoring; (3) importation; and (4) public awareness.

2.1 Wildlife Trade

The world's wildlife resources are important to all people, providing us with food, healthcare, clothing, and other useful products (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Wildlife trade refers to the “sale and exchange of wild animals and plants, and the products made from them” (WWF, 2007d, para. 1). The trade provides a diverse range of goods such as: (a) food (e.g. caviar, bushmeat); (b) medicines (e.g. herbal remedies); (c) clothing and accessories (e.g. fur coat, leather wallet); (d) tourist curios and ornaments (e.g. skin drum, wood carving); (e) pets (e.g. live bird, turtle); and (f) building or industrial materials (e.g. timber, gum resin, coral substrate), most of which can be found in marketplaces around the world.

2.1.1 Types of Wildlife Trade

Although the definition of wildlife trade is discrete, the scope of wildlife trade is broad and references to several different types of trade are found in the literature, such as: commercial trade; ornamental trade; souvenir trade; and illegal trade. These ostensible types of trade do not appear to be rigorous classifications since there is overlap between

them. For example, large quantities of bushmeat are sold commercially on the world markets, while small quantities are sold in tourist markets as food souvenirs, and in some cases, certain species of bushmeat are sold illegally. Thus, there are no distinct boundaries between these types of trade, and wildlife and wildlife products are not necessarily exclusive to one category or another. In fact, these types of trade seem to be interconnected in several ways.

To help clarify this point, a general description of the types of wildlife trade is provided. The commercial trade in wildlife is typically identified as the buying and selling of large quantities of raw or unworked material (e.g. timber or mother-of-pearl) for further manufacturing before being re-sold as finished products for a profit (Wells, 1989). However, it can also mean buying finished products in bulk for resale. The ornamental wildlife trade is associated with the selling of finished goods of decorative (hence ornamental) value (e.g. wood carving or shell picture frame) (TRAFFIC, 2006b). The wildlife souvenir trade is the selling of ornamental and food goods to a specific group of consumers (i.e. tourists) and the illegal wildlife trade is characterized by the unlawful selling of raw material or finished goods on the black markets (WWF, 2007c).

However, as mentioned above, there is some overlap within these trade types. For example, ornamental products can be sold to locals and visitors alike, thus blurring the boundaries between the ornamental trade and the souvenir trade. Moreover, the souvenir trade often sells many of the same items as the ornamental trade, but simply has a specific target audience in mind. Illegal or prohibited goods are often available and sold

to tourists in tourism outlets, such as ivory figurines or stuffed turtles, thus blurring the boundaries between the souvenir trade and the illegal trade.

Another way to conceptualize these trade types is to make the following generalizations: The *commercial trade* refers to the mass traffic of all kinds of wildlife products, whereas the *ornamental trade* refers to a more specific type of product being trafficked (decorative goods as opposed to food or medicinal goods). The *souvenir trade* includes all kinds of products and is directed at a certain consumer market (i.e. tourists), while the *illegal trade* is a manner in which business is conducted. Therefore, despite the variances in orientation and purpose, these terms all refer to the trade in wildlife in some way and will be used throughout this paper accordingly.

2.1.2 Environmental Impact

Trade in wildlife is not a recent phenomenon. Humans have been exploiting wildlife for millennia as the economic, aesthetic, and medicinal value of these natural resources was realized and coveted by individuals and communities worldwide. Wildlife products are still valued and sought after today and their trade is “a booming business, estimated to be worth billions of dollars and involving hundreds of millions of plants and animals every year” (WWF, 2007d, para. 2). There are many specialized people involved in the wildlife trade, including hunters, manufacturers, transporters, and merchants to name a few, but driving the industry is the end-consumer who has a need or desire for such goods. Thus, the primary motivation for trading in wildlife resources is economic, whether for personal consumption or as part of a larger business venture (TRAFFIC, 2006b). For example, the commercial harvest of corals, such as black coral, primarily

used to make jewellery, was valued at US\$500 million per year in the 1980's (Green & Hendry, 1999), providing an important source of employment and income for families and communities, especially in lower-income areas (Grey et al., 2005).

However, consumer demand for wildlife products has generated concern among conservationists regarding the ecological implications of the commercial exploitation of wildlife. As the human population increases and the abundance of natural habitats decreases globally, the result is that there are many more interested consumers and much less wildlife, causing demand to exceed supply in many species (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

Moreover:

Expanding markets and increasing demand, combined with improved access and techniques for capture, and increased ease of transportation and techniques of preservation, are causing the exploitation of many species beyond sustainable levels (Baillie et al., 2004, p. 90).

In areas where wildlife is the only viable source of food, healthcare, or clothing necessities, overexploitation is a concern because it harms human livelihoods (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Therefore, safeguarding a county's wildlife from overexploitation is vital to securing a future for the people and communities that depend upon these resources for survival (IFAW, 2005; WWF, 2007c).

All living creatures, whether it is a single organism, a whole population, or an entire species, are potentially faced with threats to their survival. The natural world is delicately balanced and disturbances to the complex and sensitive framework of life can have serious ecological consequences (WWF, 2007c). In many cases, these consequences have a chain-like reaction within the encompassing ecosystem, whereby

an increase or decrease in one species may result in the opposite reaction in another species, and so forth down the line, with each affected species impacting another.

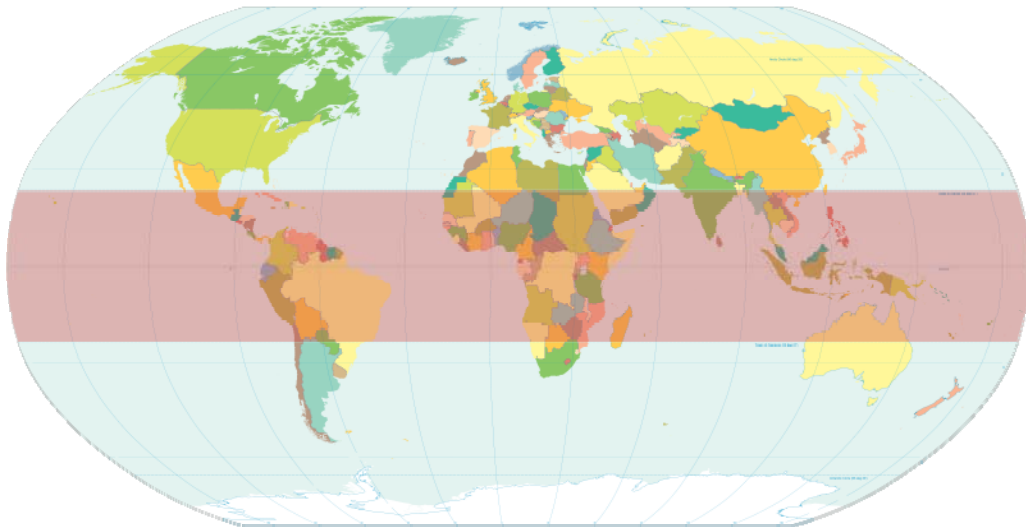
For example, the extirpation of gray wolves from Yellowstone National Park in the U.S. through hunting resulted in the rapid increase in elk populations (who now had fewer predators). The lack of predation or the risk of predation allowed elk to forage unimpeded on woody browse species, resulting in the drastic overexploitation of certain flora through grazing, which in turn caused severe consequences for other fauna species (Ripple & Beschta, 2004). Predicting potential outcomes and interpreting actual outcomes of a change in ecological stability can be difficult and it is possible that significant impacts may not be recognized immediately as being related to a specific cause or event. Only after close examination of the causes and effects might these linkages be learned, evaluated, and reported.

Humans are credited as being the main cause of extinction in the last 500 years primarily through habitat destruction caused by rapid development in particular regions, introducing invasive alien species that compete with or prey on endemic species, and overexploitation of local populations or entire species (Baillie et al., 2004). Other threats to species include pollution, disease, and accidental death from by-catch (e.g. dolphins accidentally being caught in fishing nets). Most of the world's threatened species reside in tropical areas (see Figure 1), especially on or near mountains and islands (Baillie et al., 2004). Cuba, for example, has the richest biodiversity among the Caribbean islands and also has the highest number of threatened¹ animal species (114 species) in the

¹ Note: The figures for threatened species used in this paper only account for the species listed as critically endangered, endangered, or vulnerable by the IUCN.

Caribbean including, but not limited to, sharks, turtles, seahorses, manatees, whales, crocodiles, iguanas, toads, bats, parakeets, hawks, doves, and hutia (a type of rodent) (IUCN, 2006a).

Figure 1: Location of the World's Tropical Zone



www.planetsave.com

Although tropical countries are known to be the most troublesome areas for threatened species, the data collected on threatened species by the IUCN (the World Conservation Union) and reported in the Red List summary identifies the United States (a temperate zone) as having the highest number of both threatened species (935 species) and extinct species (231 species) in the world (IUCN, 2006c). One might wonder if these large figures are due in part to the physical size of the United States; meaning, the bigger the country the more species the country is likely to have in the first place, or in part to the diversity in habitats ranging from arctic to subtropical. Thus, in comparison based on

countries of at least similar physical size (and according to the data available by the IUCN), Australia has 583 threatened species and 38 extinct species, China has 362 threatened species and 4 extinct species, and Brazil has 339 threatened species and 6 extinct species. Moreover, in addition to having the highest number of species at-risk per country, the United States is also the largest consumer of wildlife products in the world (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 2006).

2.1.3 Illegal Trade

Although habitat destruction is the largest direct threat to species survival, overexploitation is the primary threat to many species (WWF, 2007c), particularly highly-valued species (Blundell & Mascia, 2005). For example, thousands of critically endangered Tibetan antelope are illegally hunted every year for their valuable wool called 'Shahtoosh' (meaning 'king of wool') used to make shawls prized for their extraordinary warmth and softness (Yi-Ming et al., 2000). Despite conservation efforts to protect this species, illegal hunting continues to occur wherever this animal is found. The Black rhino, targeted for its horn used in traditional Chinese medicines and for ornamental purposes such as the hilt of daggers in Yemen, is one of the most endangered species on the planet after poaching caused populations to fall from 60,000 in 1970 to 2,500 in 1990 (WildAid, n.d.a). Thus, despite the supposed health-related and economic benefits of trade in wildlife, there are also associated costs, the biggest and most obvious problem being the potential for targeted species to be overexploited to the point of becoming critically endangered, as with the Tibetan antelope and Black rhino, or even extinct, as in the cases of the Great Auk and Caribbean Monk Seal (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

While most wildlife trade is legal and operating in a sustainable manner, a large and profitable portion of this trade is neither legal nor sustainable (WWF, 2007d). Although the exact volume and worth of this illegal trade is unknown, Interpol estimates its worth to be US\$6.2 billion making it a lucrative criminal activity (Pearl, 2004) and a major threat to a large number of species (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Illegal wildlife trade is usually fuelled by the demand for rare or protected species, which need to be smuggled across international borders, and/or by the desire to avoid paying duties or obtaining permits for such commodities (WWF, 2007c). Hunters and traders are motivated to poach and smuggle prohibited species for the financial profit to be gained from customers who, in many cases, desire the species for no other reason than the aesthetic pleasure derived from owning it (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

For example, China's Giant panda is another one of the world's most endangered species with a fragile population of only 1,000 individuals left in the wild. The Giant panda is hunted for its skin, which can fetch up to US\$100,000 in the black markets of Asia (Yi-Ming et al., 2000). Illegal hunting and trade of the Giant panda began in the 1980's, completely decimating the species, and in an effort to reduce illegal activity, severe penalties were inflicted on poachers and smugglers ranging from imprisonment to death (Yi-Ming et al., 2000). But despite the harsh punishments imposed and the conservation efforts made to protect this species from further exploitation, illegal trade is still a primary threat to this species today.

Thus, the illegal wildlife trade is problematic in the following ways: it further endangers the survival of some species already threatened, including their interconnected

ecosystems; it undermines a nation's ability to manage its own natural resources and benefit from them; and it is more likely to utilize environmentally-insensitive and/or unethical methods to capture, harvest or hunt, and transport species, such as using cyanide or dynamite to kill fish or smuggling live birds and reptiles in unsanitary cramped conditions that often results in high mortality rates (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

The trade in wildlife is a prosperous business enterprise that exists on a global scale and potentially relates to every human being, in that, most people have consumed wild plants or animals, owned wood furniture, or worn some kind of animal product in their lifetime (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Since, according to TRAFFIC and WWF, the majority of wildlife trade is both legal and sustainable, there is only a problem when species become overexploited. Overexploitation occurs when demand for targeted species exceeds supply and supply of these species shrinks mainly due to the human-induced causes highlighted earlier. Overexploitation contributes to the reduction in species populations and this decline can harm human livelihoods and wider ecosystems. Thus, when overexploitation occurs, some form of protection or conservation is needed to remove the potential threat of extinction and ensure the survival of those species for generations to come. Furthermore, conservation efforts are also needed so that humans can continue benefiting from trade in wildlife.

Illegal trade exists because there is a demand for rare or protected species (TRAFFIC, 2006b). People are willing to pay for restricted wildlife goods and as long as there is a profit to be made, species will continue to be illegally exploited, even to the point of extinction. Illegal wildlife products are not only sold in black markets to specific buyers

but are also infiltrated into regular open markets, such as souvenir bazaars, where other potential consumers may be found and profits made (Anon., 1978).

2.1.4 Souvenir Trade

For many tourists, browsing through markets and shops for great deals on unique items to commemorate their travel experiences can be one of the best parts of a vacation (Kent et al., 1983). A wide variety of animal products are found in the ornamental/souvenir trade. Skins, furs, wools, hairs, feathers, teeth, bones, and shells from many species of mammals, reptiles, birds, fish, molluscs, and corals are used to make products ranging from clothing and accessories such as footwear, jewellery, wallets, and shawls to ornamental furnishings such as handicrafts, carvings, rugs, and trophies (TRAFFIC, 2006b). However, although wildlife souvenirs may seem like a bargain in the shop, the ecological cost could be much higher, particularly if the products purchased are made from endangered species.

The wildlife souvenir trade is only one part of the broader wildlife trade and there is some debate over the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs. This is mainly because most wildlife trade data pertain to the larger commercial trade, making it difficult to determine what proportion of wildlife products are destined for the souvenir trade (Wood & Wells, 1988), and likewise, difficult to determine what proportion of wildlife souvenirs are made from endangered, and therefore, trade-prohibited species.

Corals and molluscs² have been exploited by humans for food, decoration, and building materials since prehistoric times (Wells, 1981; Wells & Alcala, 1987). The collection of corals and shells, valued for their varied forms, rareness, and attractive colouring, is a common practice worldwide. Semi-precious and precious corals and big colourful molluscs or gastropods are harvested to make jewellery or to decorate homes (Bruckner, 2001) and tourists' interest in trip mementos has helped bring the curio and souvenir trade in corals and shells into existence (Gossling et al., 2004). As a result, increased tourism and demand for coral and shell souvenirs over the past several decades, has in turn, increased pressure on marine species, ecosystems, and communities to provide unique and attractive product specimens (Wells & Alcala, 1987). While some studies have reported depletions in local wildlife populations in tourism areas (e.g. Gossling et al., 2004), other studies have either not found the same result or cannot conclusively claim it is because of the souvenir trade alone. Therefore, the question is: How much impact does the souvenir trade have on the environment?

Several researchers have recognized the contribution of coral and shell exploitation for the souvenir and/or international trade to coral reef degradation (see Bruckner, 2001; Gossling et al., 2004; Harriot, 2003; Salm, 1983; Salvadori, 1981; Wells, 1981, 1989; Wells & Alcala, 1987; Wood & Wells, 1988). Yet some of these researchers and others (Grey et al., 2005) found no reason why the marine curio and souvenir trades should be discouraged, as long as sustainable and sensible management practices and regulations are implemented and monitored.

² Molluscs are marine organisms with exterior skeletons (i.e. shells) such as mussels and snails, but do not include sea turtles, which are reptiles.

On the other hand, many of the same researchers have also acknowledged that little is known about the ecological impact of the tourist souvenir trade. Despite observed depletions in local populations of certain terrestrial and marine animals in and around many tourist areas, there are too few studies, and therefore, little empirical evidence to discern if hunting or harvesting wildlife for the souvenir trade is a significant cause of overexploitation and habitat degradation. In other words, more research is needed to determine the relationship(s), if any, between all kinds of wildlife souvenirs and the natural environment.

In the meantime, however, the trade in wildlife souvenirs should not be overlooked or dismissed as insignificant. Wildlife souvenirs could become (more) problematic in the future as tourism grows and the presence of illegal or prohibited items that are infiltrated into souvenir markets continues and/or increases.

2.2 Trade Monitoring

Wildlife trade occurs all over the world but a few of the trade's hotspots include China's international borders, eastern and southern Africa and Asia, the eastern borders of the European Union, and parts



Prohibited turtle shell accessories (on table) for sale in a Cuban tourist market – Photo by Jennifer Woronuk

of the Caribbean, Indonesia, and Mexico (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Through consumptive demand of wildlife products made from elephant ivory, sea turtle shell, spotted cat fur, black coral, and crocodile skins, for example, consumers are contributing to the exploitation of these species, most of which are already endangered but are still sold in various markets around the world, and in many cases, illegally. These animals are hunted and harvested to satisfy demand for unique, rare, and exalted products and souvenirs. Several high-profile extinctions have been the direct result of overexploitation and many other endangered species are subject to hunting or harvesting for international trade (Missios, 2004).

2.2.1 Policy and Regulation

CITES (the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora) was created in 1975 to ensure that international trade in wildlife specimens does not threaten the survival of species (CITES, n.d.b.). It aims to accomplish this by identifying species at risk of overexploitation through trade, categorizing species according to their vulnerability status, collecting import and export statistics from member countries; and monitoring trade through licensing and permits. In other words, “CITES sets controls on the trade and international movement of animal and plant species that have been, or may become, threatened with overexploitation as a result of trade pressures” (Canadian Wildlife Service [CWS], 2005, para. 3). The agreement helps safeguard the world’s wildlife resources by ensuring trade in specimens operates at a sustainable level.

CITES is an international agreement between governments to which States (i.e. countries) voluntarily join. Once States have joined CITES, they are called Parties and are legally bound to implement the Convention by creating their own domestic legislation to execute CITES at the national level (CITES, n.d.b.). Parties are obligated to issue import and export permits, monitor trade in CITES species, and compile annual trade reports (The Humane Society of the United States, 2007a). There are currently 171 Parties under CITES.

CITES is organized around three Appendices that identify wild animal and plant species already threatened by international trade or that may become threatened if trade is not regulated (Environment Canada, 2005a) and categorizes them according to the level of control deemed necessary to manage and protect them (CWS, 2005). The CITES Appendices are:

- Appendix I lists species that are threatened with extinction and international trade of any kind is prohibited except under exceptional circumstances (e.g. scientific research)
- Appendix II lists species that are not currently threatened with extinction but that may become so if trade is not regulated
- Appendix III lists species that are protected by at least one member Party who seeks the cooperation of other Parties to control international trade in those species

Parties meet every few years to submit proposals to add or remove species from the Appendices or to transfer species from one Appendix to another (The Humane Society of the United States, 2007b). A two-thirds majority vote by the Parties present at the time of submission is needed to pass a proposal.

CITES controls trade through a permit system designed to regulate the movement of wildlife products across international borders. By monitoring permits, CITES can identify trends in trade volumes and species involved (Bruckner, 2001), which allows it to better protect wildlife from overexploitation. The basic CITES permits for each Appendix are:

- Appendix I trade is generally prohibited except under very rare circumstances – a CITES export permit is required from the exporting country and a CITES import permit is required from the importing country
- Appendix II trade is possible but controlled – a CITES export permit is required from the exporting country and an import permit is only needed if the national law of the importing country requires it
- Appendix III trade is monitored by the listing nation(s) – a CITES export permit is required from the exporting country if it has listed the species in Appendix III or a certificate of origin is required from all other exporting countries that did not list the species in Appendix III

Although CITES is a leading conservation agency, it is not without its limitations. CITES only monitors international trade in wildlife; not domestic trade, which includes selling to tourists (Wood & Wells, 1988). Thus, if, for example, a species is highly-valued among local residents and available to tourists, but not as prized or demanded internationally on a commercial scale, then there is the potential for this species to become seriously endangered from overexploitation under the CITES ‘radar’ at the domestic level, unless national legislation is in place to protect it. As such, import and export trade figures cannot be linked to the total exploitation of species (Wood & Wells, 1988).

Furthermore, wildlife trade records have been criticized for being unreliable because of inaccuracies and inconsistencies in data collecting and reporting methods (Blundell &

Mascia, 2005, 2006). For example, discrepancies were found between U.S. import and export figures under CITES and U.S. Customs trade volumes. The sources of inaccuracy include conflicting records of the units required to measure shipment size, taxonomic miscategorization, smuggling, and other recording and data-management errors (Blundell & Mascia, 2005, 2006). Moreover, Blundell & Mascia (2005) point out that these issues are not exclusive to the United States alone; that other importing and exporting countries have been known to report different trade figures for the same shipment, and therefore, they urge governments to “explore the potential for harmonization of wildlife trade reporting systems and cross-agency notification of wildlife shipments” (p. 2024) in order to accurately address conservation issues and allocate resources.

In spite of its difficulties and criticisms, CITES is a globally respected and successful conservation agreement because it recognizes both the economic importance of trading wildlife resources, and therefore, still allows trade in most species (albeit controlled), and the ecological significance of conserving and protecting species for the future and to the benefit of mankind and the natural environment alike. Currently, there are approximately 5,000 animal species and 28,000 plant species protected by CITES, and to its credit, not one species listed on the Appendices has gone extinct due to trade (WWF, 2007b).

TRAFFIC is the world’s largest wildlife trade monitoring network and its research-driven and action-oriented methodology has made it a global expert on wildlife trade issues (TRAFFIC, 2006a). TRAFFIC was founded in 1976 largely to assist with the

implementation of CITES and works closely with its partners – WWF (World Wildlife Fund) and IUCN (The World Conservation Union) – to ensure trade in wildlife is sustainable and not a threat to the conservation of nature. WWF and IUCN are both conservation agencies dedicated to the sustainable use of the world’s natural resources. IUCN monitors the world’s species through a database called the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, which aims to identify species at risk of extinction and promote their conservation (IUCN, 2006c). Currently, IUCN manages data on 41,000 species; however, there are limitations to the database in terms of biases toward terrestrial ecosystems over non-terrestrial and animals over plants (IUCN, 2006b). Furthermore, only 15,000 of the 41,000 species in the system are well documented with information on ecology, population, size, threats, and conservation measures and utilization. Nonetheless, IUCN is another world leader in conservation and is working hard to address these issues.

While WWF oversees and manages multiple conservation issues concerning wildlife, such as climate change and pollution, TRAFFIC’s entire focus is on the wildlife trade specifically. Like CITES, TRAFFIC also recognizes the importance of wildlife resources to human livelihoods and ecosystem integrity, and as such, strives to find innovative and practical solutions to conservation and trade issues. Working together, WWF and TRAFFIC use a variety of approaches to communicate their conservation ethic and achieve their objectives around the world, such as: (a) the acquisition (through research) and dissemination of scientific and technical knowledge; (b) the use of effective regulation; (c) the use of positive economic incentives; and (d) the promotion of sustainable consumptive behaviour (TRAFFIC, 2006z).

2.2.2 Conservation Obstacles

Although effective implementation of legislation and trade controls has led to the conservation of many species threatened with overexploitation (see TRAFFIC and WWF websites), “the political pressures against accomplishing such goals cannot be overstated” (Gibbons et al., 2000, p.662). Governments and/or law enforcement agencies may be unsupportive of conservation efforts if and when they are “corrupt, overworked, under-resourced or have insufficient knowledge about or interest in wildlife conservation” (IFAW, 2005, para. 1). Issuing and regulating licenses and permits and monitoring closed seasons, quotas, and minimal size limits can be burdensome for authorities who are ill-equipped to make the commitment and handle the responsibility (Gossling et al., 2004). The WTO (World Trade Organization) is an influential institution strictly driven by the laws of economics and has little consideration for other potential long-term impacts (WWF, 2007b). Its lack of support in curtailing exploitation in endangered sea turtles, for example, brings into perspective on a global scale the challenges faced by organizations trying to resolve conservation and trade issues (Gibbons et al., 2000).

Another major issue surrounding the existence of wildlife trade legislation is the impact such controls have on the legal and illegal trade of species. CITES became increasingly concerned about the trade in wildlife souvenirs, such as turtle shell and coral accessories and jewellery, after trade controls relaxed and systematic abuses started occurring (Wells & Barzdo, 1991). A long-standing debate among CITES Parties is whether to limit or outright ban international trade in certain threatened species. Some nations, such

as South Africa, argue that the revenue generated from allowing limited trade in certain wildlife stockpiles (e.g. rhino horn), could help fund conservation initiatives and programs (Hugo, 2000). But other nations reason that relaxing trade controls to allow legal trade, even if limited, in previously-prohibited species would be detrimental to their continued conservation. These nations and preservation groups fear that permitting trade in elephant ivory or rhino horn stockpiles, for example, would remove the stigma associated with owning such items, revitalize demand, encourage smuggling, and increase poaching within these species (Fischer, 2004 citing Hastie, et al. 2002) to the possibility of extinction because these species are still actually endangered. For example, having observed increased seizures of ivory after the first one-off sales of ivory stockpiles in Asia, the Species Survival Network worried that “further legalized ivory trade is likely to confuse consumers even more and encourage them to believe that all international ivory trade is now legal” (Fischer, 2004, p. 229 citing Bulte et al., 1999).

However, Hugo points out that there is not much, if any, solid evidence to support such claims or fears. He points out that there have been some independent studies conducted by NGOs, but due to a lack of funding, they are criticized for being unreliable because of limitations in their scope and methodology. Some nations, such as Cuba, and other advocates of trade contend that there is a black market or illegal trade in endangered species (e.g. Hawksbill turtle) precisely because selling them is prohibited in the first place (Tena, 2000), and that tightening control only motivates smugglers to become more sophisticated in their techniques and drives the illegal trade even further

underground (Hugo, 2000). Nonetheless, more research is needed to critically assess the impacts of trade lifts and bans on endangered species populations.

2.3 Importation

Seemingly innocuous products such as hair clips, necklaces, and belts made from materials such as turtle shell, coral, and reptile skin may not only have environmental implications, but legal implications as well, particularly when they are transported across international borders. Tourists frequently purchase products made from CITES-listed species whilst traveling abroad which they often bring home with them without permits. Often this illegal trade is unintentional, brought about through ignorance of the laws and the species that require export and import permits (TRAFFIC, 2006b). However, ignorance of the laws does not absolve individuals from their responsibility as consumers or shield them from the legal consequences.

Nations have different rules and regulations regarding the purchase, exportation and importation of wildlife products, which can be extremely confusing for tourists, especially when it might be legal to buy certain wildlife souvenirs but illegal to take them home (Gossling et al., 2004). In other words, just because wildlife products are available for sale in another country does not necessarily mean they are legally allowed to be exported from that country or imported into another (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 2006). Thus, wildlife consumers face several difficulties when traveling abroad, some of which are: knowing what wildlife species are endangered; being able to recognize if an endangered species has been used in or to make a product; and knowing what the exportation and importation restrictions and requirements are for various

species in various countries. These issues all contribute to the numerous trade violations committed by tourists annually around the world.

Mentioned earlier, international trade in wildlife is monitored by CITES and through the use of permits. Many wildlife products require a CITES permit in order to be legally transported across international borders. Thus, consumers wanting to transport CITES-listed species would need to request and receive the necessary permits before trying to export the items. In cases with Appendix I species, an import permit is required by the importing country prior to an export permit being granted by the exporting country (but since trade for commercial purposes is generally prohibited, import permits are extremely difficult to obtain). Failure to have the required permits could result in legal ramifications if caught, regardless if the illegal transport was unintentional.

2.3.1 Trade Consequences

The penalties for smuggling³ or illegally transporting prohibited goods ranges from confiscations to fines to prison time to death. In Cuba, it is illegal to hunt Hawksbill turtles in all but two areas and punishable by a hefty fine of about US\$250, which is a significant amount for a country in which the average person only earns around US\$20 a month. However, the confiscation of a poacher's boat is the harshest penalty under Cuban law because it is a primary means of transportation, employment, and income generation (Tena, 2000, citing Alvarez, 2000). By comparison in other countries, fines are so small that some individuals (usually smugglers) will continue trying to transport prohibited species because of the high profits to be made and the generally light

³ Smuggling is the deliberate concealment of prohibited items during transport from one place or country to another.

consequences to endure (Yi-Ming et al., 2000). Furthermore, illegal hunters and traders will often go free because of inadequate resources to properly detect and investigate their cases.

2.3.2 Crossing the Border

According to the European Commission (2007), the most commonly seized wildlife souvenirs in the EU are:

- *Alligator, crocodile, snake, and lizard skin/leather products (such as boots, bags, wallets, belts, shoes, and watchstraps)
- *Queen conch shells
- *Coral (live or products such as jewellery and ornaments)
- Traditional Chinese medicine containing tiger or leopard bone, rhino horn, or bear bile and musk
- *Live plants (such as orchids and cacti)
- *Spotted cat fur and shahtoosh products (such as coats/shawls, rugs, and wall hangings)
- *Turtles and tortoise shell products (such as combs, jewellery, sunglass frames, and ornaments)
- Elephant ivory and skin products
- *Caviar
- *Live specimens of parrots, birds of prey, scorpions, and reptiles
- Wood carvings made from rare timber species (such as mahogany)

Most of these items (noted by an asterisk) can be found throughout the Caribbean, including Cuba (WWF, 2003). These goods are confiscated at Customs when tourists, trying to transport them, fail to have the necessary permits. Seized goods are either stored or destroyed, depending on their perceived or known value or threat. Goods that

can serve a useful function are often stored to be used later for educational and training purposes (CITES Secretariat, 2005). Some seized stockpiles, such as turtle shell and ivory, are housed for many years, even decades, in the hope that their trade will be legally permissible in the future. Goods that are deemed non-valuable, unusable, or a risk to the health of humans and/or agriculture are usually destroyed (Australian Government Department of the Environment and Heritage, 2005; Canadian Food Inspection Agency [CFIA], 2005). Perishable products, such as caviar or bushmeat, and items that are untreated or improperly treated, such as animal skins or bones with flesh still attached or wooden instruments with live bugs or eggs inside, need to be destroyed to ensure contamination, disease, and infestation do not occur.

Cross border control of animal products is also attempted because live plants and animals and their derivatives can carry insects, micro-organisms, viruses, fungi, bacteria, and diseases, and the introduction of alien plant and animal products can threaten the health of domestic species, affecting the local food supply, agriculture industry, economy, and environment (CFIA, 2005). Furthermore, human health and well-being are also at risk from the importation of tainted goods that can carry or spread disease, such as avian influenza and salmonellosis. Concern for public health is increasing as awareness of wildlife-related diseases, such as SARS and West Nile Virus, grows around the world (Pearl, 2004). Many wild-caught animals and pets in markets are not tested for diseases or parasites and the introduction of these animals or their derivatives into other countries could have serious health consequences. Thus, tourists are required by law in many countries to declare all goods made from plants and animals, including food, medicines, and pets, when crossing international borders. In an effort to further

protect domestic species and agriculture from contamination in Canada, CFIA demands tourists avoid all contact with farmed, zoo, and wild animals for a period of five days upon returning home and avoid visiting any farm for two weeks if contact with farms or wild birds occurred abroad.

2.3.3 Exceptions to the Rule

CITES Parties utilize national acts and agreements as the legislative vehicles by which they meet their conservation obligations under CITES. The time and effort required to create the statutes is demanding, but once the legislation is drawn up and finalized, it is seldom changed and becomes legally binding and ready for implementation. However, once implemented, the on-going enforcement of wildlife trade laws is a costly and time-consuming process that requires technical expertise and continued governmental support in order to be successful. Upholding the Convention is a significant drain on the financial and personnel resources of many governments.

As a result, many nations have instituted export and import exemptions on certain non-commercial wildlife products, which include personal and household effects, hunting trophies, and tourist souvenirs (Environment Canada, 2005b). This ‘relaxation’ of control has reduced the need for international travelers with certain wildlife products to require permits and has alleviated the administrative and enforcement burden on Customs agents from having to monitor the smaller-scale souvenir trade, allowing them to focus instead on the larger-scale commercial trade (Wells & Barzdo, 1991). Exemption conditions for tourist souvenirs require that the goods being transported must be for personal use only (not for commercial re-sale purposes) and must be carried on

one's body (as clothing or accessories) or in one's accompanying luggage (Canada Border Services Agency [CBSA], 2001). Exempted tourist souvenirs include dead plants and animals or their parts and products listed on CITES Appendix II and III. Live plants and animals and any species listed on Appendix I are not included in the list of souvenir exemptions and still require all appropriate CITES permits (CBSA, 2001). Table 2 provides a non-exhaustive list of products that do and do not require CITES permits for importation into Canada when purchased as tourist souvenirs (CBSA, 2001).

Export and import exemptions mean that trade in certain previously restricted species is now being allowed to take place unmonitored. The exempted items are still considered threatened species under CITES but travelers no longer require permits to transport them (unless they are Appendix I species).

2.4 Public Awareness

Wildlife trade is driven by supply and demand economics. In most cases, consumer demand for wildlife products spurs the market to supply the goods. Interest in certain products sends a message to local communities that there is an opportunity to profit from this demand and so suppliers react by providing the desired goods. In other cases though, supply stimulates demand. Souvenir artisans and retailers in lower-income (or developing) countries may only have wildlife resources available to utilize and benefit from. Thus, they supply the market with products made from the natural resources they have around them to work with. Since the products are available for sale, tourists end up buying them.

Table 2: Tourist Souvenirs and CITES Permits Required in Canada

Souvenirs made from Appendix I species that still require CITES permits	Souvenirs made from Appendix II and III species that <u>no longer</u> require CITES permits
Whale bone carvings and teeth	Walrus products
Cat skins, teeth, and claws	Flamingo feathers
Rhino horn carvings	Certain butterflies and scorpions
Eagle feathers	Sturgeon caviar (limited amount)
Shahtoosh shawls made from Tibetan antelope	Stuffed armadillo
Elephant ivory carvings, jewellery, chopsticks, etc., and elephant leather products	Coral jewellery and dead coral skeletons
Primate (monkeys and apes) products such as skins, skulls, and hands	Queen conch shells and meat products
Crocodile leather products such as purses, wallets, shoes, boots, and belts	Cacti rain sticks
Sea turtle and tortoise shells and products including oils, jewellery, and ornamental items and sea turtle meat, soup, and leather products such as purses, wallets, and belts	Alligator, lizard, iguana, and snakeskin leather products such as handbags, wallets, boots, shoes, and belts
Traditional medicines containing tiger, rhino, and other Appendix I species parts or derivatives	

Both the frivolity of spending money on ‘small foolish items’ because of being in a ‘different time and place’ (Gordon, 1986) and the purposeful intention of purchasing

meaningful or attractive souvenir items raises questions about consumer awareness of wildlife trade. With the implementation of souvenir exemptions by Environment Canada or other similar national agencies, tourists no longer require permits to transport certain personal wildlife items. However, these items are only exempted to reduce the administrative burden of having to monitor *all* trade in wildlife (e.g. commercial, illegal, souvenir), not because there is a reduced threat to the conservation of these species. Although exempted products may still be derived from species which are technically endangered, at least from a commercial standpoint, the tourist souvenir trade is likely deemed too small to have much critical impact, warranting the exemption of certain tourist souvenirs from regulation. However, even if the souvenir trade is minimal compared to other forms of trade (e.g. commercial and illegal) there can still be environmental consequences for purchasing such items, and thus, greater awareness of wildlife products is needed so international travelers can buy wisely when abroad, and therefore, avoid contributing to a trade that ultimately can threaten species and the ecosystems and communities dependent upon them (TRAFFIC, 2006b).

2.4.1 Growing Awareness

Unsustainable use of nature can be controlled through legislation (as previously discussed) as well as through cultural shifts in environmental attitudes (Gibbons et al., 2000). Awareness of environmental issues has been increasing over the last 20 years (Hillery et al., 2001) as topics such as climate change, biodiversity loss, and pollution increasingly appear in the global media. In spite of its economic ethic, even the marketplace is becoming more environmentally sensitive (Paul & Brad, 1997) as

consumers and governments push for more sustainable practices. In tourism, for example, the evolution of 'eco-tourism' or nature-based tourism has developed in response to demand for more environmentally and culturally responsible and sustainable travel experiences (Paul & Brad, 1997; Pennington-Gray et al., 2005). The growing popularity of eco-tourism may suggest that tourists are becoming more aware of how their actions impact the environment. However, not all tourists are eco-tourists, nor does being (or not being) an eco-tourist necessarily determine one's level of environmental knowledge or dictate one's environmental behaviour.

The literature is replete with studies that have examined the relationship(s) between environmental attitudes and recreational behaviour (Uysal, et al. 1994). Perceptions of environmental impacts are found to be affected by various demographic and behavioural factors. For example, higher education has been linked to heightened awareness and tourists with more education (e.g. university) are significantly more likely to perceive environmental problems in an area than tourists with less education (Lothian, 2002; Lindsey & Holmes, 2002; Priskin, 2003; Totaro & Simeone, 2001).

Nationality has also been found to have a significant influence on environmental awareness (Baysan, 2001). In a study on the tourism shell trade, Gosling et al. (2004) learned that although awareness of issues associated with trade in shells seems to be increasing among tourists, tourists are still generally uncertain about local legislations concerning shell collecting. Interviews with visitors from different countries indicated varying degrees of awareness, in that they perceived the purchasing of shells or shell

products as environmentally harmful, but the degree of harm caused by this activity was inconsistent across nationalities (Gossling et al., 2004).

Furthermore, international visitors and local residents tend to differ on perceptions of tourism and impacts (Priskin, 2003). Foreign tourists were more likely to perceive environmental problems occurring in an area than domestic tourists (Lindsey & Holmes, 2002; Priskin, 2003). Thus, in areas where domestic tourism is substantial, the importance of educating national residents and communities about environmental conservation cannot be overstated since those locals may not perceive accurately the environmental damage that could be occurring.

Uysal et al. (1994) found trip behaviour, in terms of destination choice and trip type (e.g. cruise vs. nature-based), rather than demographic characteristics to account for most of the difference in environmental awareness among tourists. And finally, Hillery et al. (2001) found that tourists, in general, are less perceptive of their own 'wear and tear' impact on the environment, but are more sensitive to the direct impacts of other tourists in terms of litter, vegetation damage, waste disposal, and vandalism.

It is clear from the studies mentioned above that there have been several influential factors in identifying or assessing environmental awareness of tourists, and in some cases, even contradictory findings. Although these studies tackled issues regarding recreation and tourism in a variety of capacities, only one addressed the topic of tourist souvenirs – a major tourism product. Gossling et al's. (2004) identification of nationality as a significant factor in environmental awareness of shell souvenirs spurred my interest to further explore the topic, and although demographics are not the only factors with

which to assess environmental awareness, they are nonetheless a solid starting point for an initial investigation into wildlife souvenirs and their perceived implications.

2.4.2 Spreading the Word

Environmental damage is often caused due to ignorance – ignorance of the laws, cause-and-effect relationships, and the natural environment itself (Paul & Brad, 1997). For example, many tourists are unaware (or forget) that coral reefs are living organisms and critical components of marine ecosystems (Wells & Alcala, 1987; Wells, 1989). Damage to reefs caused by removing shells or corals from the wild is due in part to a lack of awareness of what reefs are, their special sensitivities, and the effects various activities have on them (Salm, 1983). Thus, in addition to creating legislation to conserve nature, education is often recommended as a means of reducing the negative impacts of recreation and tourism on the environment (Lück, 2003; Orams, 1997; Paul & Brad, 1997).

Educating tourists about sustainable or eco-friendly initiatives can potentially protect the natural environment by increasing visitor awareness and understanding, and promoting more environmentally-sustainable behaviour (Orams, 1997). Tourism is widely seen as an opportune vehicle to foster environmental awareness through the provision and dissemination of information using various media, such as: brochures, posters, and other publications (Gossling et al., 2004); visual or interactive displays and kiosks (Cooper & Chalifour, 2004); tour guides and operators (Lück, 2003; Paul & Brad, 1997); and the internet. However, it is easier and more convenient to disseminate information to a collective audience, such as a tour, where tourists travel together in a group with a leader

who is responsible for their welcome and orientation, than it is to individual travelers who are not 'led' by any one person. Moreover, tour operators have the opportunity to educate potential clients through their tour brochures used in the initial vacation-planning process (but whether they do or not is a topic for future investigation). Conversely, it is much more difficult to capture the attention of, and disseminate information to, the millions of independent tourists and families not traveling on a guided tour. This begs the question: How are tourists being educated about the trade in wildlife?

Many governments and conservation organizations use media such as brochures, posters, displays, and websites to educate the traveling public about wildlife souvenirs, but are tourists aware such information exists? How is the information available being utilized and how effective have promotional efforts been in increasing awareness or reducing prohibited imports? These questions will be explored throughout this study. Many agencies concerned about the trade in wildlife use catch-phrases and graphic imagery in their marketing to increase awareness by capturing the viewer's attention, as is typical of most marketing initiatives. Some examples of catch-phrases used in wildlife trade awareness are:

- "If we don't buy, they won't die!" – IFAW
- "Don't bring home a suitcase full of trouble!" – WWF
- "Know the rules – sometimes carrying a purse is illegal" – Environment Canada
- "Be aware and declare!" – CFIA
- "What are you really bringing back with you?" – IFAW
- "When in doubt, don't buy!" – WWF, TRAFFIC, and Environment Canada

Although the message promoted by various agencies is generally similar (i.e. caution and information), the tone being conveyed and the target audiences are variable. In addition to posting information on its website, WWF, in conjunction with TRAFFIC North America and U.S Fish and Wildlife Service, created a few publications in 2003 that caution travelers about souvenirs made from endangered species (See Appendix A for illustrated publications and advertisements by various organizations). The two 'Buyer Beware' brochures and single advertisement can be downloaded online and are likely available elsewhere, although distribution is unknown. The message in these publications is one of caution (hence the term 'beware') and education, and the tone seems to be factual and informational.

Likewise, online publications by IFAW (i.e. 'Think Twice' campaign) are similarly informational but differ from WWF's campaign in that they tend to utilize more descriptive and emotional language, such as the terms: cruel; slaughter; deadly; and suffering, to appeal to its audience and evoke an emotional response. TRAFFIC, on the other hand, has run several awareness campaigns over the past two or three years, utilizing both video and print media, but has been focusing its marketing efforts on the Asian and Indian populace specifically⁴. Thus, while some nations or consumer groups are being actively targeted, other nations and groups are not, which may result in differences among regions or groups in educational awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife trade and possibly differences in wildlife purchasing behaviour.

⁴ Visit www.traffic.org/campaigns to view TRAFFIC's recent campaign initiatives.

3.0 Methods

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research design used in this study and present how the research questions were addressed. This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section will introduce the research design, discuss the strengths and weaknesses of using each method, and describe the study area. Section two will describe the population and sample. Section three will examine the research instrument used to collect data and review the content areas addressed. The fourth section will examine the data analysis process, including a comprehensive review of the variables used. The fifth section of this chapter provides a description of the ethical considerations undertaken in this study, and in the final section, a review of the study's limitations is provided.

3.1 Research Design

The purpose of this research was to examine tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs. Due to the lack of research in this subject area to date, and the size of the tourist population that could be studied, it was decided early on that utilizing a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis would be an appropriate method of gathering original and empirical data. More specifically, a survey design was employed to collect measurable numerical data and to serve as a benchmark for future research. Future studies might benefit from a qualitative research design, which can add further depth to the results found here.

The objective of a survey is to make descriptive generalizations about the trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population based on a representative sample of that population

(Babbie, 2004; Creswell, 2003). As such, the benefits of using a survey design for this particular study included: (a) the use of pre-determined and closed-ended questions, with standardized responses, making the survey an effective measurement tool; (b) the economy of the survey design was very cost-effective; (c) the turnaround in data collection and analysis was quick; (d) the reach of the surveys likely exceeded other forms of data collection in that a sizeable sample was obtained; (e) the surveys lent themselves to reducing researcher and participant bias; and (f) the response rate was high likely due to participants' general comfort and familiarity with survey methods, the fast completion time, the relaxed environment, and guaranteed anonymity.

However, there are also disadvantages to using surveys (Creswell, 2003). In particular, the standardization of a pre-determined design not only prohibits adjustments from being made once implementation has commenced but can also curb the exploration of new insights. Furthermore, pre-selected answers can limit the prospect of other plausible responses. To remedy this particular issue, I added an 'other' category to most of the questions in the survey, allowing participants to give an alternative response to the ones already provided. Surveys have also been criticized for being unemployable in a natural setting (Babbie, 2004). On the contrary, I found the opposite to be true. It was the aim of this study to investigate how tourists conceive and respond to wildlife souvenirs from the standpoint of being 'actual' tourists. In other words, I needed to intercept people actively participating in tourism (i.e. on holiday) at the time of study in order to examine their attitudes and perceptions as actual and potential souvenir consumers. Therefore, it was imperative to the integrity of the research to conduct the surveys on site, at an actual

tourist destination (see section 3.1.2), which ultimately served as an ideal ‘natural tourism setting’.

In trying to develop a benchmark measure of tourists’ awareness of wildlife souvenirs it was determined that a cross-sectional survey design would apply and that participants would only be asked once for their input. Future studies might benefit from a longitudinal design whereby changes in attitudes or perceptions can be explored over an extended period of time.

Data Collection

In order to tap into the frame of mind of tourists as actual or potential souvenir consumers in a natural tourism environment, data were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Phone or mail surveys would have had to take place in tourists’ home countries, after-the-fact, and would be too costly and time-consuming to conduct. Furthermore, a high response rate was anticipated using self-administered questionnaires due to face-to-face contact with potential participants and the relaxed environment in which they would be intercepted.

3.1.2 Study Site – Varadero, Cuba

Cuba was chosen as the study area for this research for three primary reasons: (1) it is a major tourism destination, particularly within the Caribbean market; (2) Cuban artisans use endangered species in the souvenir trade and; (3) an opportunity for research funding was available for Cuba. Located 150 km off the coast of Key West Florida, between the Caribbean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean (Figure 2), Cuba is the largest

island nation in the Caribbean with a total area of 110,860 sq km and is home to over 11.3 million people (CIA, 2006). Cuba is one of the few remaining communist states in the world (the only one in the Western hemisphere), providing a unique traveling experience for tourists.

Figure 2: Map of the Caribbean



www.caribbeandiving.com

Despite its close proximity to the United States, Cuba receives few American tourists since visitation is widely discouraged by the U.S. trade embargo established in 1961 and reinforced in 2004 and 2005 (Sullivan, 2007). Consequently, Cuba is a major tourist destination for Canadians and Europeans because of its tropical climate and unique Latin-American and communist culture.

Tourist arrivals to Cuba increased 12% in 2005 to just over 2.2 million people, generating US\$1.9 billion in international tourism receipts. This growth ranks Cuba the third most popular destination in the Caribbean and eighth out of the top 23 major travel destinations in all of the Americas (UNWTO, 2007).

Cuba has the largest number of endemic species in the Caribbean but is suffering biodiversity loss due mainly to habitat destruction (CIA, 2006) and in part to unsustainable fishing and hunting practices (The Field Museum, 2002). A wide variety of wildlife souvenirs are available throughout the Caribbean, and therefore likely in Cuba, and include, but are not limited to, coral carvings and jewellery, shellcraft and shell jewellery, stuffed turtles and caimans, turtle-shell ornaments, and animal-skin textiles and accessories (WWF, 2003). Cuba has several threatened or endangered animal species, including black and stony corals, queen conch, polymita snail, turtles and tortoises, and caiman and crocodiles (IUCN, 2006a), whose derivatives are used in souvenir products found in marketplaces across the country.

Varadero is Cuba's signature beach resort area, located 140 km east of Havana, on a narrow peninsula on the north coast of the province of Matanzas (Figure 3). With over 20 km of white sandy beaches, Varadero is the largest resort complex in the Caribbean and a premier hot-spot for vacation-goers. Most tourists visit Varadero by way of pre-booked vacation packages lasting one to two weeks in length. This means that groups of tourists arrive together from a particular country (or via flight connections) and are then dispersed amongst the numerous resorts according to their respective packages.

Flights from many different countries arrive almost daily, constantly bringing new groups of tourists to Varadero. This means that there are always new people coming and going at any given time of the week, although most packages seemed to operate around a weekend departure schedule (e.g. Saturday to Saturday) rather than a mid-week one.

Figure 3: Map of Cuba



www.cubamaps.com

This continuous turnover of tourists meant that I could safely conduct all my surveys at once by walking the stretch of beach from one resort to the next until my quota was reached and never run into the same person twice. By doing this, I also minimized bias that may have existed if one resort was particularly favoured by a certain clientele. For example, one resort could have more German-speaking staff than other resorts, consequently attracting a high proportion of German tourists, which in turn, could bias the study if this particular property had been repeatedly surveyed.

Surveys were conducted on the beach, as opposed to inside resorts or in marketplaces, for the following reasons. Firstly, resorts are private property and would have required permission from management to conduct the surveys on site, which would have been difficult to obtain due to possible language barriers and a universal uncertainty about participating in anything that could, in their eyes, get them into trouble with the government. The beach on the other hand, is public space and tourists, including myself, were free to roam about. However, I was approached several times by various hotel security guards patrolling the beach area in front of their respective resorts with inquiries about what I was doing and where I was from. In these instances, I would always introduce myself and try to explain the purpose of my study. More often than not, I would soon find myself with a complimentary drink in-hand and a new friend. It is likely that because I was a tourist (and female), they felt little reason to intervene so long as I did not disturb their guests.

Secondly, although seemingly perfect for researching souvenirs, the markets in Varadero were not ideally suited to conducting surveys. Being outdoors, they were extremely hot and humid as the beach breeze was unable to penetrate far enough inland. There were few, if any, places to sit down to complete the surveys and tourists were busy shopping, sight-seeing, and socializing. Moreover, the tourist-flow to the markets was inconsistent and often lead to prolonged slow-periods with few or no tourists at all. By comparison, the beach was always teeming with tourists, thus providing an ideal location to attain my sample. Tourists on the beach were relaxed, not busy or in a hurry, and often welcomed the break in routine to complete a questionnaire and chat about the study.

Data were collected over a one week period in June 2006. The time of day the surveys were conducted varied. Since many resorts have scheduled meal times, I seldom found tourists at the beach before 9am (breakfast) and very few tourists stayed past 6pm (dinner). Thus, data collection fell between these times. I distributed the questionnaires myself, which were individually attached to a clipboard for ease of use and privacy. At most, I had five surveys going at one time and frequently rotated among participants to clarify points or answer any questions.

An extremely high response rate was achieved, which can be attributed to participants having plenty of time of their hands, generally being in a good (or at least a relaxed) mood, and seeming to find the topic of wildlife souvenirs somewhat interesting. It was also evident that many participants were instantly intrigued by the idea that a graduate student could snag such a “terrific research project” and wanted to see what it was all about. The self-administered questionnaires were to be completed at the time of distribution and returned to the researcher immediately thereafter. The response rate was calculated by dividing the number of completed surveys by the number of tourists asked to participate in the study (Section 4.1, Table 3).

3.2 Population and Sample

International tourists vacationing in Varadero were the population examined in this study. With around 50 major resorts and hotels, the size of the tourist population in Varadero was extremely large and dynamic, and therefore, difficult to calculate. However, the means of identifying the tourist population were simple and based on a combination of the following characteristics: (a) location; (b) activity; (c) skin colour;

and (d) language. Even if they could afford it, Cubans are not permitted as guests in the major resorts of Varadero, thus ensuring that the guest population was comprised of international and not domestic tourists. The easiest and most obvious way to identify the guests was through their beach activity, which usually involved reclining on beach chairs. This specific activity separated the tourists from resort staff and other local Cubans who may have been on the beach⁵. Skin colour was also a distinguishing characteristic in that the majority of the tourist population was Caucasian, and in the cases of darker-skinned individuals, language often readily differentiated them from the local Cuban population. The tourist population included both genders, all ages, and a variety of nationalities.

Random sampling ensures that every member of a population has the same probability of being selected into the sample, providing the desired capability of generalizing to a larger population (Babbie, 2004) and was the sampling design used in this study. More specifically, a systematic sampling technique was employed whereby every third person was selected for inclusion in the sample, imparting a more accurate and practical approach to data collection. For reliable statistical analysis, I required a minimum sampling frame of 150 people, but for piece of mind, I increased the sampling frame to 200. This sample size was also dictated in part by size restrictions. More specifically, I had a baggage limit of two suitcases (as per airline standards) and was already carrying an additional 450 multi-paged surveys for another research project that I was concurrently involved in. Despite the lack of luggage space, I was confident that the 200

⁵ Previously, local Cubans were not only banned from resort properties (unless they were staff), but from the beaches as well. More recently, it is more common to see Cubans enjoying the stretches of beach *between* the resort complexes as they are still prohibited guests, and therefore, not entitled to use the resort beach chairs.

person sampling frame was sufficient for my research needs. A high response rate (over 75%) was anticipated with confidence based on previous research experiences in Cuba of some of my colleagues at the University of Waterloo.

When dealing with an international population, an obvious communication issue arises. Cuba receives visitors from over 40 different countries, making it difficult to know which languages could be encountered, and complicated to predict, in advance, the number of translated questionnaires that might be required in each probable language. It is extremely difficult (and surprisingly expensive) to make photocopies in Cuba, usually owing to a lack or breakdown of the necessary equipment and I was only able to carry one small bag of questionnaires with me each day because of the extreme heat and being constantly on the move. It was therefore, inconceivable, not to mention inefficient, to fill what precious luggage space I had with a variety of translated surveys, since the hotel where I was staying (and containing the remaining unused surveys) was a two-hour roundtrip bus ride away, rendering it virtually inaccessible for restocking the same day.

Knowing these issues before departing for Cuba, it was evident that a language criterion was necessary for participation in the study. Since English was likely to be the most universally spoken and understood language within the tourist population in Varadero (consisting mainly of Canadians and Europeans), it was decided that the questionnaires would only be available in English and only those individuals who could comfortably speak and read English would be asked to participate. English language ability was determined by first asking potential participants if they spoke English. If the answer was 'yes' then I would proceed with my introductory speech asking for their participation in

the study at which point they would either accept or decline my request. If the answer was 'no' to the English-speaking question, I would thank them for their time and move on the next available candidate.

Age also played a role in selecting my sample. To eliminate the need for parental consent, participants had to be 18 years of age or older to participate in the study. Finally, people had to be visibly awake at the time of interception to participate, as I felt waking them up would be discourteous. Therefore, if the systematically selected person happened to be non-English speaking, under the age of 18, or lying with their eyes closed, they would be skipped over and either replaced by another member of their party if they were in a group, or by the next closest person if they were alone. The systematic sampling interval (every third person) was resumed following the newly replaced participants in all the cases of a sleeping individual, a non-English speaking individual, and an underage individual. These criteria did not affect my response rate as they were part of the sampling design used to determine who my participants would be.

3.3 Instrumentation

The self-administered questionnaire was designed by the researcher specifically for this study (see Appendix B). The survey was pilot-tested in Canada (prior to entering the field) on 14 individuals chosen by the researcher in various professions (e.g. teacher, police officer, truck driver, student, retiree, biologist, mechanic, business person, administrative assistant, etc.) to establish the instrument's content validity, determine its efficiency, and to improve questions, answers, grammar, and overall format. Feedback from the pilot-test indicated that the survey was too long (exceeding 10 minutes to

complete) and that some vocabulary and syntax changes were necessary to ensure the survey would be universally understood. Thus, several questions were rephrased to ensure clarity while others were removed entirely to reduce the completion time to less than 10 minutes. The final questionnaire consisted of 26 items and took between five and eight minutes on average to complete, depending on the individual.

The survey began with a cover letter that clarified the purpose of the research study, who was conducting the study, and how the study was being conducted. The cover letter was signed by the principal researcher and also provided contact information in the event that participants had questions about the study after returning home.

The first part of the questionnaire (Q1-7) dealt with the independent demographic variables (e.g. sex, age, income level). These items are important to understanding how personal attributes might contribute to differences in awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs. By collecting this information, possible relationships could be revealed where tourists with similar demographic characteristics share parallel views about wildlife souvenirs.

The second part of the survey (Q8-26) dealt with the dependent variables and included behavioural, attitudinal, and factual items pertaining to attitudes and perceptions, environmental impact, importation laws, and purchase behaviour. The significance of these items is that they are the cornerstones of the study and aim to answer the aforementioned research questions. The survey questions were created by the researcher to explore a range of concepts and issues with respect to wildlife souvenirs from the perspective of tourists.

The scales used to measure items in this study comprise both categorical and continuous. The majority of the questionnaire (Q1-25) employs categorical scales seeking nominal and ordinal data, except for questions 2 and 11, which solicit age and cost of purchases, respectively, using a ratio, or absolute zero, level of measurement. Question 12 (Why did you purchase these wildlife souvenirs?) was asked as an open-ended question so as not to limit the ingenuity and significance of potential responses. Participants' written responses were later reviewed and collapsed into common categories, or themes, at the nominal level to yield measurable data. The same tactic was applied to the survey questions that offered an "other" response category (Q5, 9, 10, 13-15, 17, 18, and 24), which allowed participants to give their own answers should the supplied responses not suffice.

The final question (Q26) was an interval level measure encompassing 15 statements about wildlife souvenirs whereby participants were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement utilizing a 5-point Likert-type scale with the following anchors: (5) strongly agree; (4) agree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (2) disagree; and (1) strongly disagree. The reason for incorporating the Likert statements was twofold: They provided a check for consistency among responses to previous questions and they also provided the opportunity for creating new composite measures derived from the combination of several statements.

3.4 Data Analysis

Upon returning to Canada, the survey data were reviewed and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This software program uses

descriptive and inferential statistical tools to analyze quantitative data. This study utilized frequency distributions, chi-square cross tabulations, and independent t-tests to scrutinize the survey data and all statistical analyses employed a 95% confidence limit. Three main steps were used to comprehensively evaluate the data and answer the research questions found in Section 1.3. They are: (a) response rate information; (b) a descriptive analysis of the discrete measures; and (c) the inferential analysis process used to examine relationships among variables.

The first step of the data analysis process includes a description of the survey response rate. This information is presented in a table in Section 4.1 and includes the number and percentage of both participants and non-participants. The second step of the data analysis process uses descriptive analysis to examine the independent and dependent variables used in the study. The means to analyze this information varies according to the level of measurement sought by the survey questions. For instance, the independent demographic variables comprise nominal (Q1, 3, 4, 5, and 7), ordinal (Q6), and ratio (Q2) data. Therefore, all of these questions are explained using frequencies and percentages and question 2 is additionally explained by indicating the mean and standard deviation, permitting a more detailed description because of its absolute zero characteristic.

The second portion of the survey pertains to the dependent variables and also includes nominal (Q8-10, 12-15, and 18-24), ordinal (Q16, 17, and 25), and ratio (Q11) data, which are subject to the same descriptive scrutiny warranted by their level of measurement as explained for the independent variables. Although the absolute zero

characteristic of question 2 (age) and question 11 (cost) provides more descriptive detail, the numerous data can also make analysis more cumbersome. Thus, both ratio measures were later collapsed into rank order categories at the ordinal level for analytical simplicity. Moreover, as noted in the previous section, question 12 and the questions offering the “other” response option (Q5, 9, 10, 13-15, 17, 18, and 24), originally sought qualitative data via an open-ended format. These data were later screened for themes and eventually categorized by such commonalities. The newly formed categories were assigned a numerical code in order to yield measurable data at the nominal level. These data were descriptively explained using frequencies and percentages.

The Likert-type scale used in question 26 provides the only interval level⁶ data in the study and each agreement statement can be analyzed independently as well as collectively in groups through the formation of composite variables or summary indicators (i.e. grouping similar statements together to create a new variable). All of the scaled statements are first analyzed individually prior to being analyzed as summary indicators or with other survey items. At the interval level, these data are described by their means and standard deviations.

In addition to the items on the questionnaire, a few other discrete measures were created by collapsing various Likert-type items into indicator measures. Five summary indicators were created within SPSS by computing variables that combined the scores of selected statements and then divided the totals by the number of statements used for each new variable. For example, a ‘wildlife preference’ summary indicator was created

⁶ There is a long-standing debate among researchers over whether Likert-type scales should be treated as ordinal or interval levels of measurement (Jamieson, 2004). I decided to treat the Likert-type data in this study as interval based on human tendency to perceive a steady graduation from one level to another.

by combining the scores of six particular statements and then dividing the total score by six. The five summary indicators created were: (1) wildlife preference; (2) artisan/retailer integrity; (3) consumer ethics; (4) environmental impact; and (5) consumer responsibility. All summary indicators were described by their mean and standard deviation. Figure 12 (in Section 4.3) depicts how all the survey items relate to the variables.

In addition to using descriptive statistics, research questions 1 through 4 (Section 1.3, Table 1) were also addressed analytically using the inferential statistics conducted during the third phase of the analysis process. In order to examine the relationship(s), if any, between the independent variables and the dependent variables, comparisons were drawn using chi-square and one way analysis of variance. A chi-square suited the units of measurement between the variables because most of the dependent variables and all of the independent variables⁷ were coded as either nominal or ordinal measures. Cross tabulations were performed and tested by Pearson's chi square to determine if differences between the observed outcomes and the expected outcomes were statistically significant. Fisher's exact test was used in instances when 2x2 contingency tables had cells with expected counts less than five (Townend, 2002). To gain a better understanding of how the independent variables related to the summary indicators, one way analysis of variance was performed, further exploring research questions 1 and 2.

⁷ Question 2 (age) was recoded as an ordinal measure for statistical simplicity.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Prior to entering the field, the researcher received approval from her Supervisor and ethical clearance from the Office of Research Ethics for research involving humans in May 2006. There were no anticipated risks to the participants in the study and participation was entirely voluntary. Verbal consent was first received by participants when they were asked to partake in the study. Then informed consent was implied with the completion and return of the questionnaires. Participants were randomly selected and no effort was made to identify who they were, thus guaranteeing anonymity. All the surveys were deemed confidential and were securely stored at the researcher's home for one year following the completion of the thesis before being destroyed.

3.6 Limitations

There were a number of limitations encountered that could have affected data collection and interpretation of the results. One limitation was that the survey was only available in English, limiting participation to English-speaking and reading tourists only. Another language limitation was interpretation. Although every attempt was made to ensure participants understood the survey's terminology, some non native-English speakers still had difficulty understanding or interpreting some of the terms or questions even though they claimed to speak and read English well. This was evidenced when a number of participants asked me to clarify certain terms (e.g. endangered species, importation, perception, and environment) or explain a question.

In order to make effective use of my time and to minimize any respondent pressure, I conducted several surveys at once, moving back and forth among participants in an area. Since I was not always by the side of a participant while he/she completed the entire questionnaire, I happened to observe some respondents receiving input from family members or friends while filling out the survey. Having more than one person complete the same survey means there could be external bias included in some of the responses, affecting the consistency and autonomy of the data. Furthermore, although anonymity was guaranteed, tourists might have answered questions ‘strategically’ in order to look good in the eyes of the researcher (who might try to sneak a glance at their responses) or to feel good about themselves.

There were also a couple of limitations regarding the survey instrument itself. Question 8, which asked tourists if they had purchased any wildlife souvenirs, was restricted to Cuba specifically for the purpose of identifying current behaviour and the appeal of Cuba’s wildlife products. This study might have benefited differently if this question did not limit purchases to a single destination. Accounting for *all* past purchases regardless of location would have painted a more typical behavioural pattern and not just recent activity. However, the reasons for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs may have been the same even if question 8 was globalized, unless the selection in Cuba was particularly unappealing.

Moreover, how long respondents had been in Cuba at the time of study varied from a few hours to more than a week, making it difficult for the more recent arrivals to have had sufficient time to shop. Had the survey been conducted at the end of tourists’

vacations (at the airport for example) then results might have been different. However, the logistics of conducting airport surveys in Cuba were neither practical nor advisable. The survey was conducted on the beach over a one week period in June, likely permitting a wider array of tourists than had the study been conducted during the winter months where a greater concentration of 'Canadian winter escapees' would be found. However, the seasonality of the study might also be seen as a limitation in that it may be biased towards a summer-vacationing clientele.

A limitation that was unforeseen until the data were being analyzed was the relatively small sample size (n=179). Although the sample size was sufficient for statistical analysis (>150), it was barely so. As such, many of the variables had to be modified in order to be statistically analyzed, sacrificing detail that might have otherwise been enlightening. A larger sample size would have better maintained the survey's original integrity.

This study was strictly quantitative in nature and might have benefited from some qualitative involvement. Respondent interviews, in addition to the survey, would have helped to further explore the survey responses and the mindset of tourists. Finally, this study only focused on souvenirs made from wild animals; not plants. This might be seen as a limitation in that tourists might be more biased toward animal products because of a stronger identification and sentimentality with fauna than with flora.

4.0 Findings

The results of this study are presented in this chapter, beginning with the sample response rate and followed by the outcome of the descriptive and inferential analyses.

4.1 Response Rate

As the surveys were being distributed, it became clear that a decent response rate would be achieved. The actual response rate attained was 89.5%. Out of a sampling frame of 200 English-speaking and alert adult tourists, only 17 people declined participation in the study. Of the 183 surveys returned, four were incomplete and had to be removed from the sample, leaving a final total of 179 useable surveys. The survey response characteristics are reported in Table 3. It is believed that the high response rate achieved was due to the relaxed environment wherein the participants were recruited.

Table 3: Survey Response Characteristics

Survey Response	n	%
Sample Frame	200	100
Declined	17	8.5
Returned	183	91.5
Incomplete	4	2
Total Useable Surveys	179	89.5

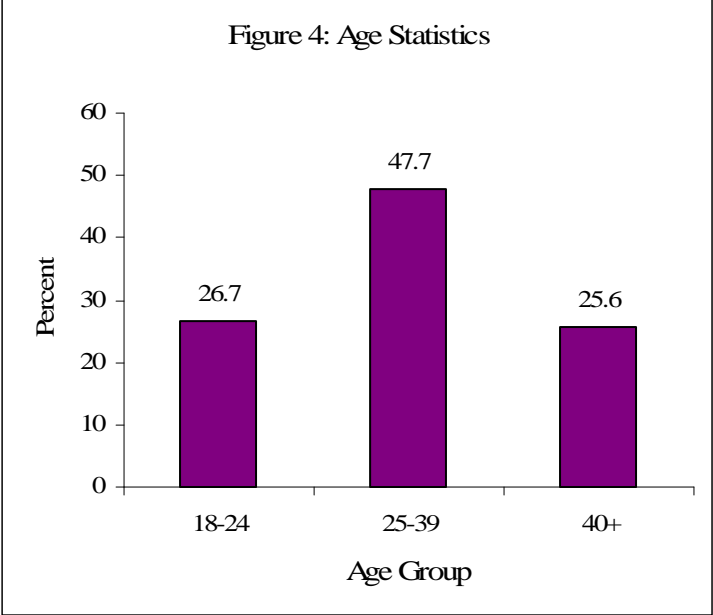
4.2 Descriptive Analysis

The following sections provide a description of each item on the survey as it pertains to the independent and dependent variables. The results for each of the independent variables (sex, age, marital status, employment, education, income, and geographic region) are described first, followed by each of the dependent variables and the five dependent summary indicators. A solid understanding of the raw data provides a substantial amount of knowledge that helps to deduce meaning during the inferential analysis.

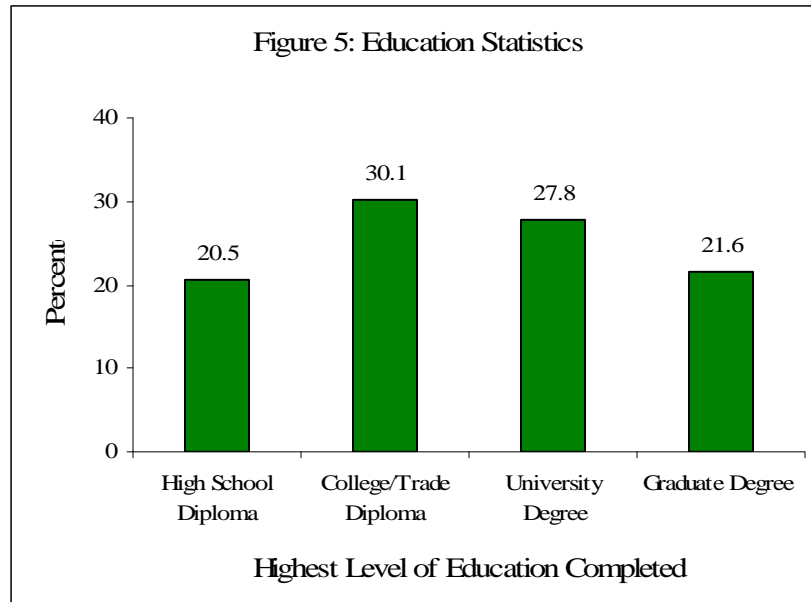
4.2.1 Tourist Demographics

There was some disparity between the number of males and females that participated in the study. More females (62.6%) participated than males (37.4%) denoting a 25.2% difference. Due to the relatively high response rate, this disparity is assumed to be representative of the tourist population in Varadero, Cuba since it was observed that it was more common for women to travel together as a group of friends than men. However, it was also observed that many of the respondents were couples (not necessarily married, but dating) or families. Thus, the respondent discrepancy might also be attributable to differences in resort preferences or behaviours among genders. For example, if more men than women preferred the pool over the beach (where the survey was conducted), then there would have been less potential male respondent candidates to sample from. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 72 years with a mean age of 32.48 years. The individual ages were then collapsed into three groups for further analysis (see Figure 4). The age groups were determined by running preliminary analyses on intuitive

age segments and determining which age parameters revealed the most statistically meaningful results.



Slightly less than half of the respondents were married (46.6%), while the majority were single (53.4%), which included being divorced, engaged, or widowed. The employment rate among respondents was high with 89.9% of participants being employed at the time of study. Furthermore, the results of this study indicate that the tourist population was a highly educated group with 79.5% of participants having some level of post-secondary education with nearly 50% having a bachelor's or graduate degree. No participants specified having less than a high school (or equivalent) education. The four categories illustrated in Figure 5 depict the dispersion of tourist responses for the highest level of education attained. If more than one category was selected by a participant, only the highest level of education was used for analysis.



Participants were asked to select their personal income level within the context of their own country. Out of three income level categories, the majority of respondents stated their personal income level to be in the middle third (73.7%) of their country's spectrum, followed distantly by the lower third (14.3%) and the upper third (12%).

The final independent variable to be described is geographic region. Table 4 provides a breakdown of participants by country of residence. Although Europeans, as a regional group, comprised the majority of the sample population (n=90, 50.6%), Canadians, as a single nation, comprised nearly half of the sample alone (n=86, 48.3%), while Other International respondents (outside of Canada and Europe) accounted for only 1.1% (n=2) of the sample.

Table 4: Country of Residence

Country	n	%
Canada	86	48.3
Total North America	86	48.3
England	38	21.3
Scotland	7	3.9
Wales	2	1.1
Ireland	5	2.8
Northern Ireland	1	0.6
Norway	2	1.1
France	2	1.1
Holland	9	5.1
Belgium	6	3.4
Germany	9	5.1
Switzerland	1	0.6
Italy	1	0.6
Greece	1	0.6
Cyprus	2	1.1
Portugal	4	2.2
Total Europe	90	50.6
Brazil	1	0.6
Japan	1	0.6
Total Other International	2	1.1
Total Respondents	178	100

4.2.2 Descriptive Survey Variables

The remaining 19 survey questions pertain to the dependent variables and will be described individually according to their related research question category. The four research categories are: (1) purchase behaviour; (2) awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs; (3) perception of environmental impact; and (4) awareness of

importation laws. The Likert-type question and its summary indicators will be described in section 4.2.3.

1. Purchase Behaviour

Only 36 out of 179 respondents (20.1%) stated that they had purchased one or more wildlife souvenirs on their trip. Of the wildlife products purchased, jewellery was the most popular souvenir form (83.3%), followed by craft/ornament/carvings (38.9%), clothing/accessories (11.1%), and food (2.8%)⁸. No live pets were purchased. Table 5 provides a description of the wildlife souvenirs acquired including the animal part or derivative used, the animal or species name, and the quantity of each item purchased (Note: many of the respondents required to complete this question failed to do so in its entirety, leaving several gaps and incomplete information).

Table 5: Characteristics of Wildlife Souvenirs Purchased in Cuba

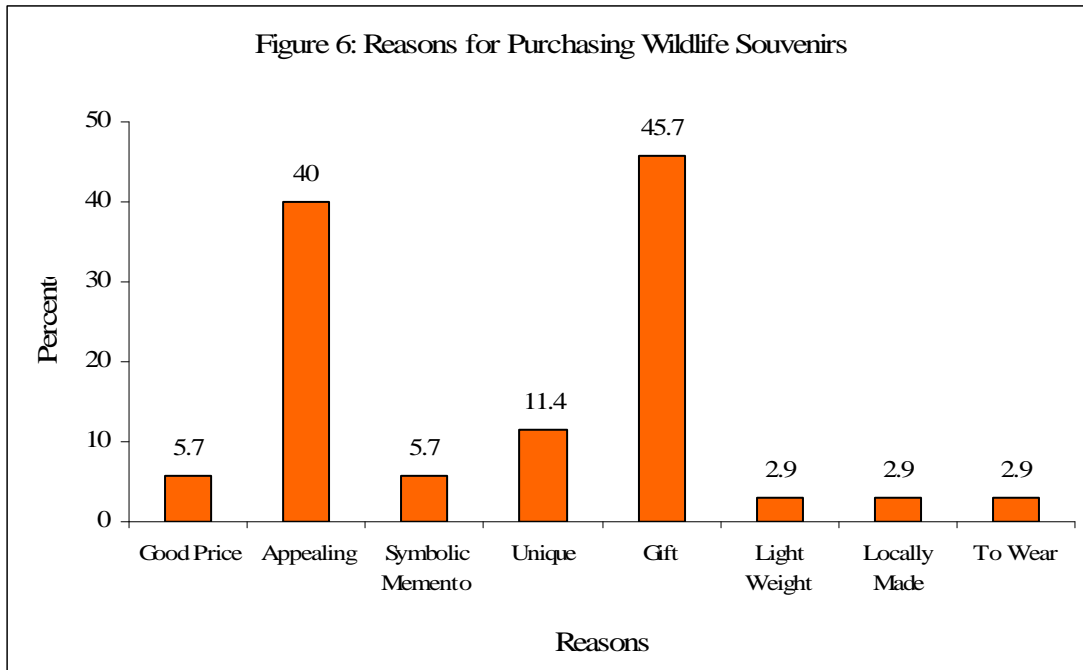
Animal Part / Derivative	n of Respondents	Animal / Species Name	# of Items Identified i	Quantity Purchased q
Animal Skin	4	--	--	1
Teeth / Bone	8	Shark	5	10
Coral	10	Black Coral	2	22
Shell	24	Snail	1	57
Fur	0	--	--	--
Feathers	0	--	--	--
Whole Body	0	--	--	--
Other	0	--	--	--

Note: -- denotes not applicable and/or not stated.

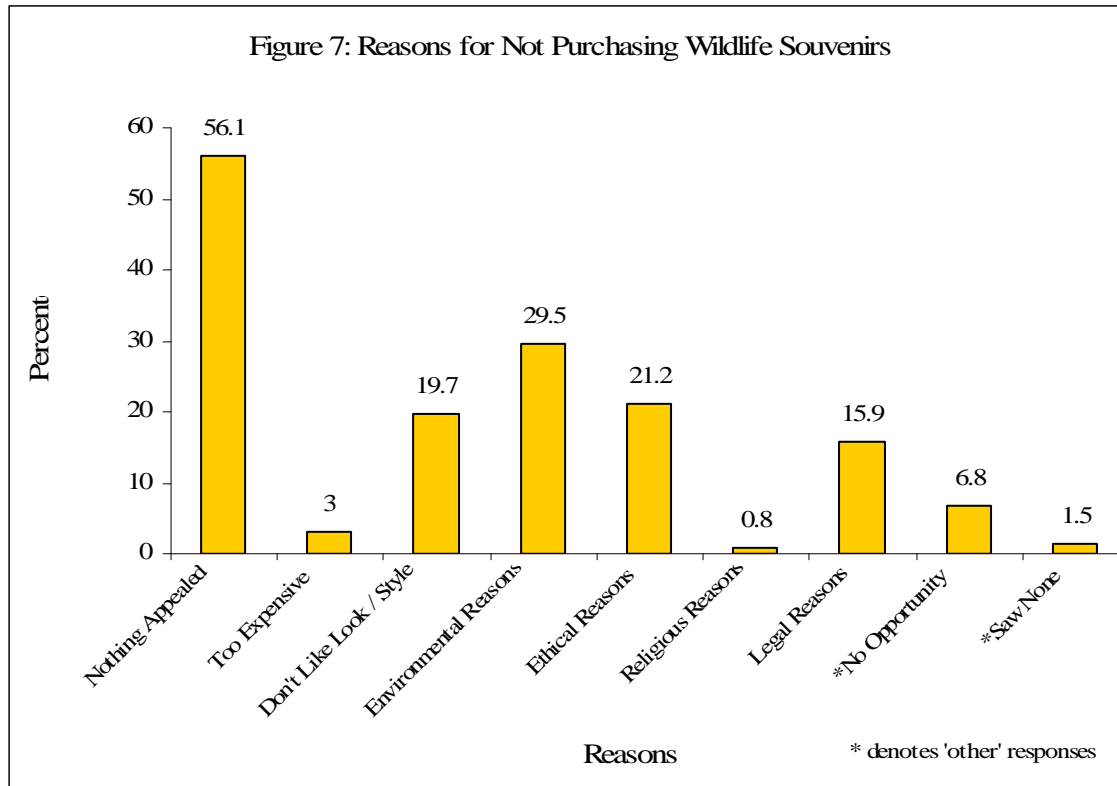
⁸ Since the respondent did not identify the food source in the following question, it can only be assumed that he/she correctly identified the product as coming from the wild and not from a domesticated or husbanded source.

Shell and coral products were the most popular souvenirs purchased by respondents (n=24, q=57 and n=10, q=22 respectively). However, the type of shell and coral (i.e. animal or species name) used in these products was largely unreported, likely due to respondents' unfamiliarity with identifying mollusc and coral species (only 20% identified black coral and 4% identified a snail shell). On the other hand, 62.5% of the respondents who purchased teeth/bone souvenirs were able to identify the teeth as shark. It is also evident that many respondents purchased multiple coral and/or shell items. In fact, the results show that of the respondents who declared the number of souvenirs purchased, 44.4% of the coral consumers and 73.6% of the shell consumers bought two or more items (e.g. one person bought ten coral souvenirs alone). Moreover, seven of the ten coral consumers also purchased shell products.

Respondents paid as little as US\$1 and as much as \$50 for their total wildlife purchases with an average around \$15. The reason why they purchased wildlife souvenirs was asked in an open-ended format. When respondents provided more than one reason for their purchases, each motive was accounted for. The reasons were grouped into common themes and are presented in Figure 6. Although 'gift' was the most prominent reason for purchasing wildlife souvenirs, this reason does not explain why *wildlife* souvenirs were purchased over other kinds of souvenirs as gifts. In other words, I still do not know why respondents chose wildlife products over non-wildlife products for their gifts.



Until now, the focus of purchase behaviour has been on the consumers of wildlife products. However, the majority of respondents (79.9%) had not purchased wildlife souvenirs in Cuba at the time of study. Although investigating the type of wildlife items purchased and the reasons behind their purchase is important to understanding purchase behaviour, it is equally important to learn why tourists did not purchase wildlife souvenirs. Out of the 143 respondents who claimed not to have purchased wildlife souvenirs, 132 selected reasons why they did not buy such products. The survey was designed to have the non-consumers skip the series of questions pertaining to purchasing wildlife (Q9-12) and resume at question 13, which asked participants to select reasons why they did not buy souvenirs made from wildlife. It is probable that the remaining (missing) 11 non-consumers somehow misread the instructions and accidentally overlooked this question. Multiple selections were accepted. The results are displayed in Figure 7.



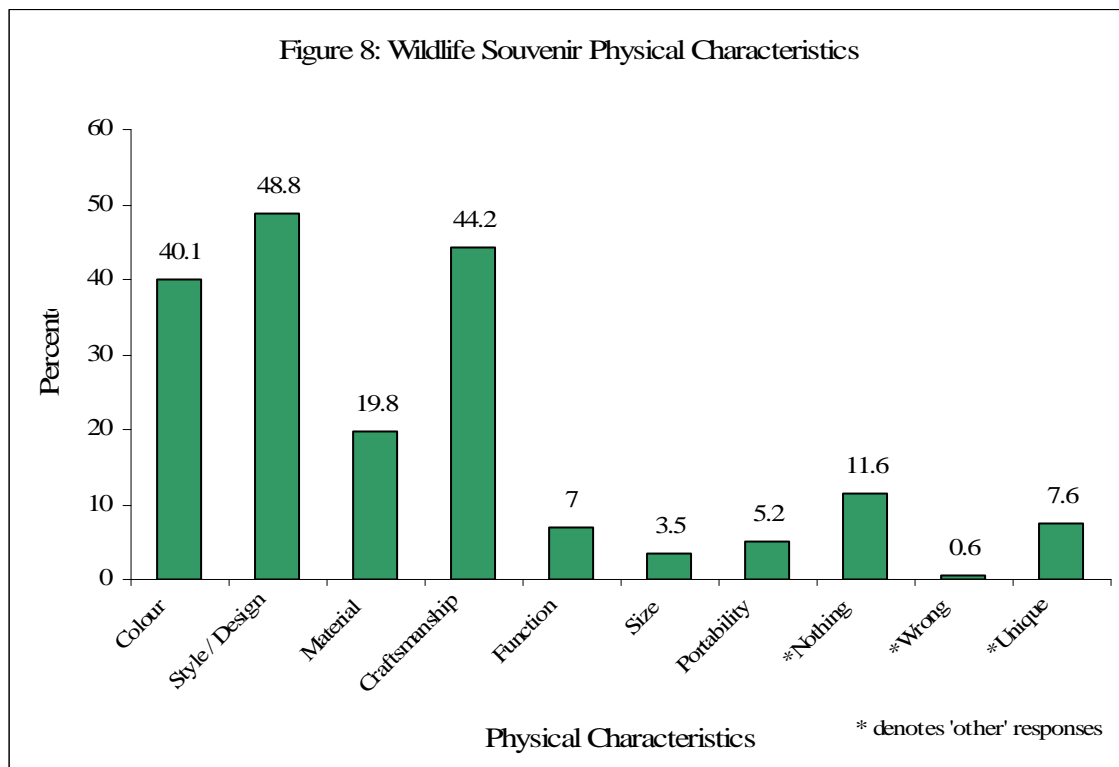
Over half of the respondents reported their reason for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs was because nothing appealed to them (56.1%). Nearly a third (29.5%) cited environmental reasons and just over a fifth (21.2%) reported ethical reasons for not purchasing wildlife products. To a lesser extent, 6.8% and 1.5% of respondents stated that they had either no opportunity to shop for souvenirs yet or saw no wildlife products when shopping, respectively, indicating that the reasons for not purchasing were based on the lack of opportunity (in both cases) and not because of personal attitudes or perceptions of wildlife souvenirs. Thus, it is unclear whether or not these participants would have purchased wildlife products had the opportunity presented itself.

Finally, in order to assess how many tourist consumers actually make an effort to learn about a product they are interested in, participants were asked if they have ever asked an

artisan or retailer what animal species a wildlife souvenir is made from. 62.3% said 'no', 29.8% said 'yes', and 7.9% 'cannot remember' if they have ever asked or not.

2. Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Wildlife Souvenirs

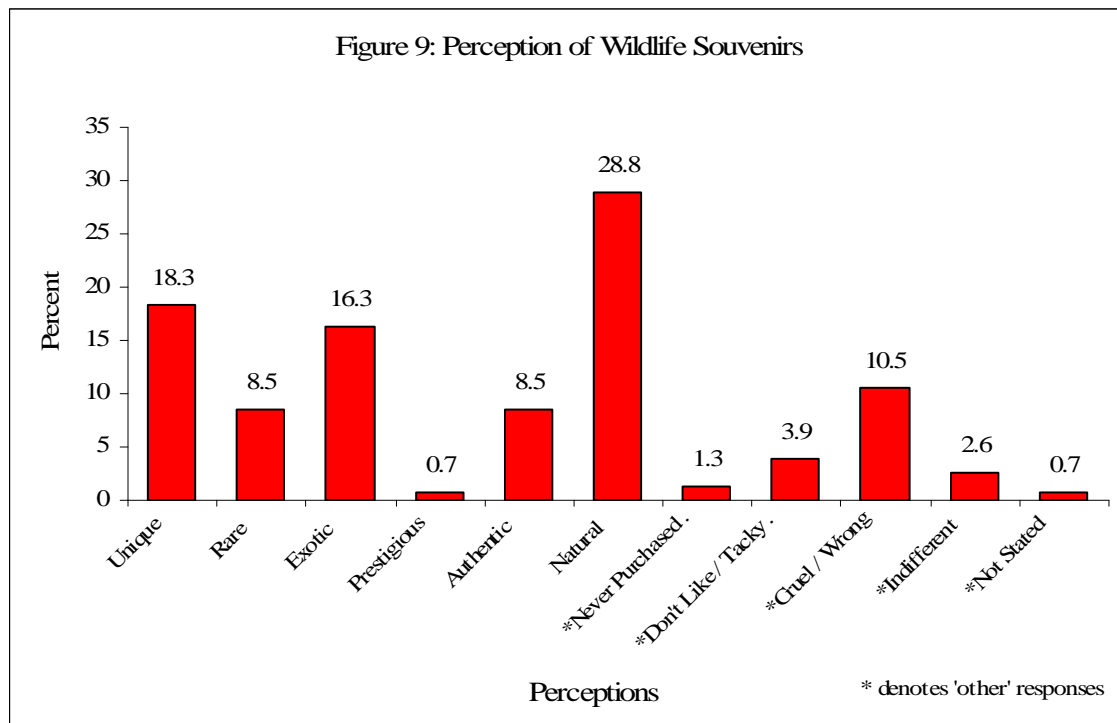
Regardless of whether participants had purchased wildlife products or not, and despite their reasons for or against buying such items, it is still important to examine their general attitudes and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs. Participants were asked to select the physical characteristics they like most about wildlife souvenirs. Multiple selections were accepted and the results are presented in Figure 8.



The style/design of wildlife souvenirs had the greatest physical appeal (48.8%) to respondents, followed closely by craftsmanship (44.2%). Surprisingly though, the

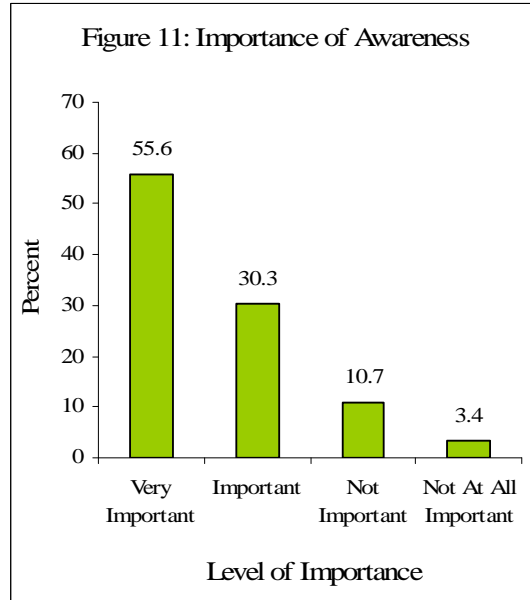
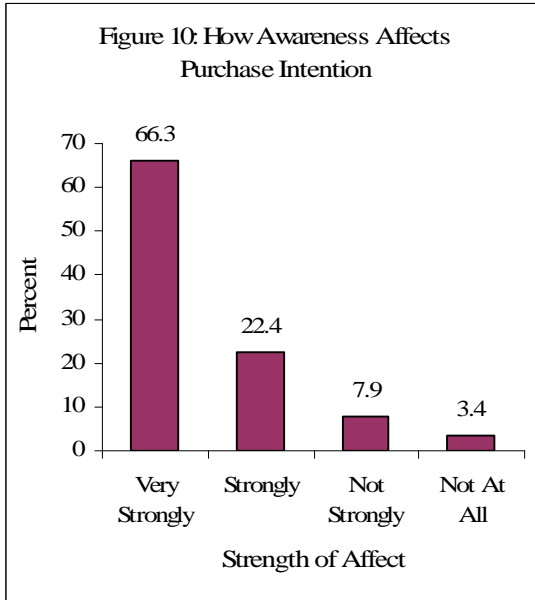
material a wildlife product was made of (i.e. the animal part or derivative) was only half as appealing (19.8%) as a souvenir's colour (40.1%). Size, function, and portability had minimal appeal. None of the 'other' responses provided by participants had to do with physical characteristics, but rather, included the following sentiments: nothing; wrong; and unique.

Respondents were then asked to select a phrase, or provide their own phrase ('other'), that best describes their overall perception of wildlife souvenirs. If more than one item was marked, the question was eliminated, since the instructions clearly stated that only one response was required. As such, 26 responses had to be removed because of multiple selections. Figure 9 depicts the distribution of participants' overall perceptions of wildlife souvenirs.



The majority of respondents perceive wildlife souvenirs to be ‘natural’ (28.8%), followed by ‘unique’ (18.3%) and ‘exotic’ (16.3%). To a lesser degree, participants perceive wildlife souvenirs to be ‘authentic’ (8.5%) and ‘rare’ (7.8%), while only one respondent (0.7%) perceives wildlife souvenirs to be ‘prestigious’. Interestingly however, nearly a fifth of respondents (19.6%) selected ‘other’ and provided their own description of wildlife souvenirs. These items were collapsed into themes, of which, the most striking perception of wildlife souvenirs is that they are ‘cruel and/or wrong’ (10.5%).

Participants were asked how strongly the knowledge that an endangered species was used to make a souvenir would affect their decision to purchase the item (see Figure 10). Then, in a similar question, participants were asked to rank how important it is to know if a souvenir they want is made from an endangered species (see Figure 11). The results are similar in that the majority of respondents for both questions expressed that the awareness of endangered species is important when shopping (86.9%) and does affect purchase intentions (88.8%).



Moreover, when participants were asked if they would purchase a souvenir if they knew that it was made from an endangered species, only 2.2% said ‘yes’ they would, whereas 79.9% said ‘no’ they would not purchase an endangered item. Of the 17.9% who said ‘maybe’, the majority stated that the decision to still purchase the endangered souvenir would depend on how much they ‘liked’ the item (88.9%), followed by the ‘cost’ of the item (25.9%), and the presence of certain ‘shopping companions’ (3.7%). Interestingly, one respondent stated that he/she would still consider buying an endangered species product if the animal was “bred for sale”, bringing into question whether animals being bred for profit are still endangered. Another respondent stated that he/she would be willing to purchase an endangered species if the sale contributed to a “preservation fund” for that species, which seems somewhat ironic since the likelihood that the animal was killed specifically for trade is a viable possibility.

Finally, participants were asked who they believe has the ‘most power’ in ensuring that wildlife is not being overexploited through trade. Multiple selections were accepted. Results indicate that respondents think ‘consumers’, through their purchasing power, and ‘government’ have the greatest influence on protecting wildlife in trade (53.4% and 37.1% respectively). ‘Conservation organizations’ are perceived to have a modest influence (19.7%), while souvenir ‘artisans’ and ‘retailers’ have an equal but minimal influence (9.6% each) on protecting wildlife in trade.

3. Perception of Environmental Impact

Participants were asked how much impact wildlife souvenirs have on the environment. Predictably, based on previous response trends, the majority of respondents believe that wildlife souvenirs have high impact on the environment (65.1%), followed by low impact (34.3%) and no impact at all (0.6%).

4. Awareness of Importation Laws

A series of questions were asked pertaining to the importation of wildlife souvenirs. The results indicate that there is a general lack of awareness of importation laws and policies regarding wildlife souvenirs among the tourist population. Half of the respondents (50.9%) claim to know (23.2%) or have some knowledge (27.7%) of the wildlife products prohibited from importation into their home countries. The remaining 49.1% admit to not knowing anything about such restrictions. However, when asked if they know what the penalties are for importing endangered souvenirs (i.e. products made from endangered species), only a quarter of respondents (26.8%) claim to know (9.5%)

or have some knowledge (17.3%) of the consequences, while a sizeable majority (73.2%) does not. These findings may be symptomatic of unfamiliarity with where to find wildlife importation information, as indicated by the majority of respondents (62%). Moreover, little effort has been made to research or investigate the importation of wildlife souvenirs, since an overwhelming majority of respondents admitted to having never done so themselves (93.8%).

4.2.3 Likert-type Statements and Summary Indicators

The final survey question asked participants to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with statements pertaining to wildlife souvenirs using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The results are generally discussed and details about each statement are reported in Table 6. The higher the mean score the stronger the agreement is with that particular statement, and the lower the mean score the weaker the agreement is with that particular statement. However, when reading Table 6 it must be remembered that higher scores are not necessarily better and lower scores necessarily worse (i.e. higher scores are not superior to lower scores). Each score must be read within the context of its own statement. Overall, the statements that commanded the strongest agreement by respondents include 26g, 26l, 26m, 26n, and 26o. Conversely, the statements that earned the weakest agreement include 26c, 26d, 26e, 26j, and 26k.

The standard deviations for statements 26i, 26l, and 26n are slightly greater than for the other statements with stronger agreement. This may indicate an inconsistent level of agreement associated with the statements or a variegated interpretation of the statements.

Table 6: Means and Standard Deviations of Likert-type Statements

Item #	Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
26a	Wildlife souvenirs generally appeal to me	2.44	1.11
26b	I like the 'look' of wildlife souvenirs	2.81	1.16
26c	I look for wildlife souvenirs when I shop	1.98	0.97
26d	I prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs	1.89	0.91
26e	I would pay more for wildlife souvenirs than for other souvenirs	1.91	0.96
26f	Wildlife souvenirs should not be available for sale	3.49	1.16
26g	I think retailers and artisans are only concerned about making a sale	3.92	0.99
26h	I would believe what the retailer or artisan tells me about a wildlife souvenir	2.82	0.93
26i	The type of animal that a souvenir is made from would influence my decision to purchase it	3.45	1.26
26j	I do not need to know if I am buying an endangered species	1.81	0.98
26k	I would buy a souvenir if I knew it was made from an endangered species	1.73	0.92
26l	I think the sale of wildlife souvenirs impacts the environment	3.84	1.05
26m	I believe wildlife purchases put animal species at risk of extinction	3.97	0.97
26n	It is the consumer's responsibility to know what wildlife souvenirs are legal and illegal to bring home	3.62	1.11
26o	Learning about wildlife souvenirs is important to all tourist consumers	4.03	0.89

Note: Responses to each item were measured using a 5-point scale with the following scale point anchors: (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Neither Agree Nor Disagree; (4) Agree; (5) Strongly Agree.

The 15 statements were then collapsed into five summary indicators based on similar themes. The five summary indicators are: (1) wildlife preference; (2) artisan/retailer integrity; (3) consumer ethics; (4) environmental impact; and (5) consumer responsibility. The summary indicator scores and standard deviations are presented in Table 7. All of these scores are a mean total of the statements that encompass each variable.

Table 7: Summary Indicator Scores and Standard Deviations

Variable	Item #s	Summary Indicator Score	Std. Dev.
Wildlife Preference	26a, 26b, 26c, 26d, 26e, 26f*	2.26	0.83
Artisan/Retailer Integrity	26g*, 26h	2.45	0.71
Consumer Ethics	26i, 26j*, 26k*	3.97	0.67
Environmental Impact	26l, 26m	3.9	0.91
Consumer Responsibility	26n, 26o	3.83	0.86

Note: The new summary indicator scores are based on a maximum score of 5 and a minimum score of 1. An * denotes the items that were reverse-scored.

When creating the summary indicators, some of the items had to be reverse-scored because the statements were negatively phrased or negatively intonated. These items are noted by an asterisk. Thus, the statistics presented in Table 7 must be read with the understanding that a smaller mean score indicates a summary indicator where agreement is weak and that a bigger mean score indicates where agreement is strong. For example, statement 26g (from Table 6 above) was reverse scored because it was negatively intonated, but the ultimate interpretation when it is combined with statement 26h to

create the 'Artisan/Retailer Integrity' summary indicator is that the higher the score, the more integrity the respondents feel artisans and retailers have when selling their wares.

The third (mid) point on the 5-point scale is described as 'neither agree nor disagree' on the survey and the five summary indicators fall just beyond either side of the mid range of 2.5 to 3.5. Furthermore, the scores express very little variation around the mean (all standard deviations <1.00). This indicates that more respondents expressed some degree of agreement or disagreement for each of the variables than remained neutral. As such, the following conclusions about wildlife souvenirs can be drawn from Table 7: (a) tourists do not prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs; (b) tourists do not perceive artisans and retailers to have much integrity; (c) tourists employ some ethical standards when it comes to purchasing wildlife souvenirs; (d) tourists believe there are environmental implications from purchasing wildlife products; and (e) tourists believe consumers have some responsibility to learn about wildlife souvenirs.

4.2.4 Summary of Descriptive Results

A general overview of the descriptive results seems to indicate that tourists do not prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs and are not big purchasers of wildlife souvenirs (at least not in Cuba). The reason for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs is primarily because nothing appealed at the time, but not liking the style of wildlife souvenirs and environmental, ethical, and legal reasons were also prominent factors. Tourists are ethically-minded in that the use of endangered species would affect their souvenir purchase intentions and that knowing about the use of endangered species in advance is important to them. Although a sizeable proportion of tourists would still

consider purchasing endangered species products depending on the circumstances, the majority of tourists would not purchase products made from endangered species, possibly because wildlife souvenirs are perceived as having a large impact on the environment.

However, as important as knowing about the use of endangered species appears to be to tourists, surveyed tourists reported rarely enquiring to souvenir artisans or retailers about the species used in wildlife souvenirs. This could be in part because tourists do not perceive artisans and retailers as having much integrity. Moreover, tourists are only modestly aware (50.9%) of prohibited wildlife species and minimally aware (26.8%) of wildlife importation penalties. Despite tourists believing that it is primarily the consumer's responsibility to be aware and make informed purchase decisions, most have made no effort in trying to research wildlife importation information and most claim not to know where to find importation information.

Generically summarizing the descriptive results in this way would lead to the conclusion that tourists are fickle in terms of their thoughts and feelings about wildlife souvenirs. However, such a deduction would be far too simplistic to acquire any constructive meaning for policy improvements. It is critical to understand how demographic characteristics influence tourists' responses because they in turn reveal the specific personal attributes that affect differences in their awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs.

4.3 Inferential Analysis

All of the results up to this point have focused on describing the characteristics of individual variables. This section highlights how the variables relate to each other. The inferential statistics that were conducted investigate the relationships, if any, between the independent and dependent variables and they are all analyzed at the 95% confidence level.

After conducting some preliminary cross tabulations, many of the results were deemed unreliable or invalid because certain statistical criteria were not being met (i.e. too many cells had expected counts less than five). This issue typically arose when variables had too many categories and responses were spread too thinly across them or when certain categories acquired an overwhelming majority of responses. Thus, several of the independent and dependent variables were modified by collapsing some categories together and excluding other categories from tests in order to minimize this problem. Furthermore, several questions offered an ‘other’ option to allow respondents the opportunity to give their own answer if the categories provided did not sufficiently meet their response needs. The information collected from the ‘other’ categories was meant for descriptive purposes only and could not be used for statistical analysis because the respondent-supplied categories were not available to all participants at the time of study. Thus, the ‘other’ categories were also excluded from the inferential analysis.

All category collapses and exclusions were based on conceptual rationales and an effort was made to retain as much original survey detail as possible. Table 8 shows the modified variables (and their categories) used in the inferential analysis (Note: To see

the unmodified independent and dependent variables [questions 1, 6, 8, and 20-24], refer to the categories provided by the survey in Appendix B).

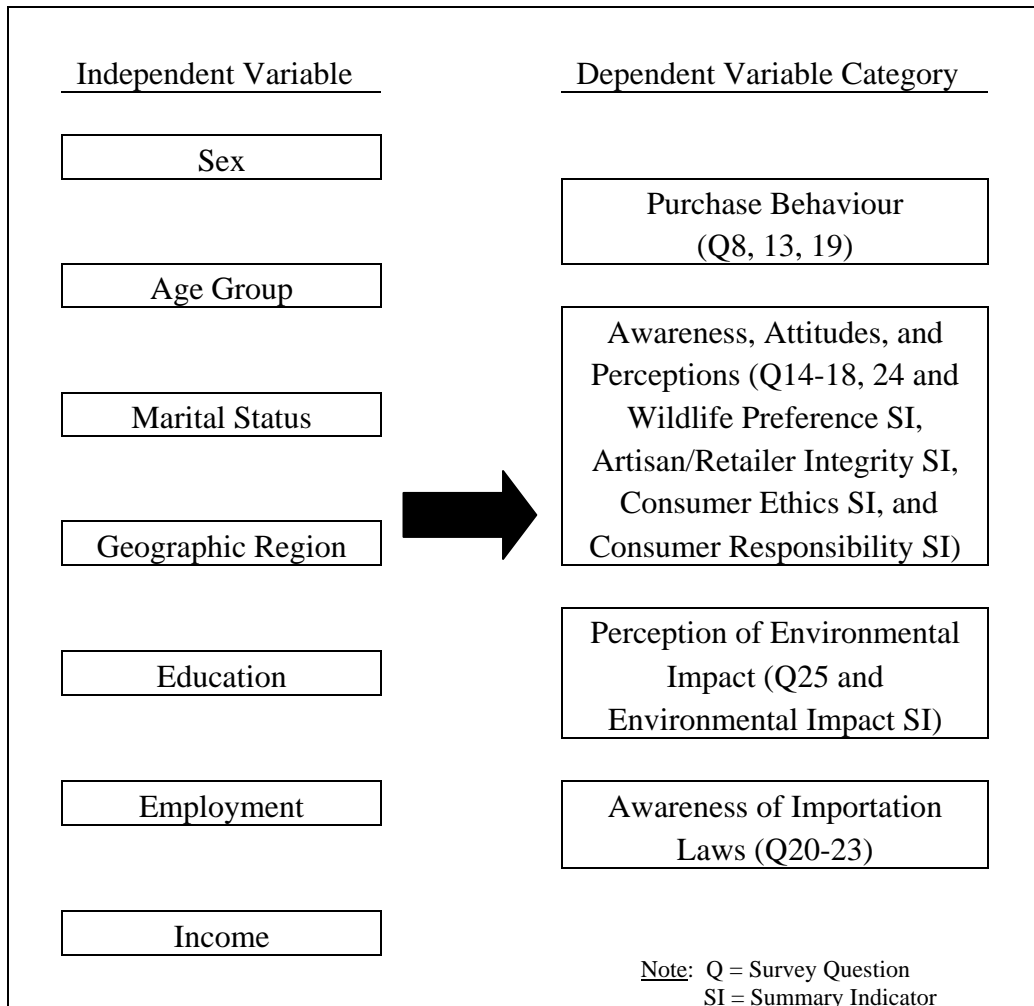
Table 8: Modified Independent and Dependent Variables for Inferential Analysis

Survey Question	Variable	# of Categories	Category Descriptions
	Independent Variable		
3	Marital Status	2	Married Single (including engaged, divorced, and widowed)
4	Employment	2	Employed Non-employed (incl. retired and student)
5	Education	2	No University (incl. high school and trade/college diplomas) Have University (incl. bachelor's and masters/PhD degrees)
7	Geographic Region	2	Canada Europe (excluded other international)
2	Age Group	3	18-24 25-39 40+
	Dependent Variable		
13	Reasons for Not Purchasing	5	Nothing Appealed to Me Don't Like the Style Environmental Reasons Ethical Reasons Legal Reasons
14	Attractive Physical Characteristics	4	Colour Design Material Craftsmanship
15	Overall Perception	2	Unique/Rare/Exotic Natural/Authentic
16	How Awareness Affects Purchase Intentions	2	Low Strength (incl. not strongly) High Strength (incl. strongly and very strongly)
17	Importance of Knowing Endangered Species	2	Less Important (incl. not very important) More Important (incl. important and very important)
18	Willingness to Purchase Endangered Species	2	No Maybe
19	Asked Retailer	2	Yes No
25	Perceived Environmental Impact	2	Low Impact (excluding no impact) High Impact

Cross tabulations were conducted and tested with Pearson's chi square statistic (or Fisher's exact test when 2x2 contingency tables had expected cell counts less than 5 [Townend, 2002]) to assess the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables.

The manner in which the inferential results will be reported and explained is shown in Figure 12. The analysis will first be described with the independent variables as they relate to the dependent variables, which are divided into the four research categories. Up until now (and for organizational simplicity), the five summary indicators have been analyzed separately from the rest of the survey questions under the four research categories. In this section, the summary indicators will be incorporated into a related research category and discussed accordingly. Each summary indicator analysis was conducted using independent t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Figure 12: Approach for Reporting and Discussing Inferential Statistic Results



4.3.1 Purchase Behaviour

The first research category is purchase behaviour and refers to survey questions 8, 13, and 19. Following the demographic survey questions, the first dependent variable question asked respondents if they had purchased wildlife souvenirs while in Cuba. The results of the chi square cross tabulations are reported in Table 9. The independent variables marital status, education, employment, and income did not have statistically

significant differences, meaning that they were not important influences on whether tourists purchased wildlife souvenirs or not.

Table 9: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the purchase of wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Purchase of Wildlife Souvenirs		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	179	4.450	.035*
Age Group	176	7.496	.024*
Marital Status	178	1.086	.297
Geographic Region	176	12.854	<.001*
Education	176	.412	.521
Employment	178	.708	.369
Income	175	.689	.709

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

There were significant relationships found between three independent variables and who purchased wildlife souvenirs: (a) sex ($p=.035$); (b) age group ($p=.024$); and (c) geographic region ($p<.001$). The cross tabulation results for each of the three independent variables are shown in Table 10. With respect to sex, women were more likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs than men. In terms of age, younger tourists (18-24) were two and a half times more likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs as middle-aged tourists (25-39) and nearly twice as likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs as older tourists (40+). The results of this analysis show that where international tourists' call home does affect souvenir purchase behaviour. Canadians were three times as likely to make wildlife purchases in Cuba as were Europeans, indicating a substantial geographical and probable cultural difference in purchasing preferences.

Table 10: The individual relationships between sex, age group, and geographic region and whether or not wildlife souvenirs were purchased

Independent Variable	Purchase of Wildlife Souvenirs		
	Yes	No	Total
Sex			
Males	8 (11.9%)	59 (88.1%)	67
Females	28 (25%)	84 (75%)	112
Total Sex	36 (20.1%)	143 (79.9%)	179
Age Group			
18-24	16 (34%)	31 (66%)	47
25-39	12 (14.3%)	72 (85.7%)	84
40+	8 (17.8%)	37 (82.2%)	45
Total Age Group	36 (20.5%)	140 (79.5%)	176
Geographic Region			
Canada	26 (30.2%)	60 (69.8%)	86
Europe	8 (8.9%)	82 (91.1%)	90
Total Geographic Region	34 (19.3%)	142 (80.7%)	176

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Respondents who did not purchase wildlife souvenirs were asked to skip a series of questions (that pertained to tourists who did purchase) and resume at question 13, which asked them why they did not purchase wildlife souvenirs. The reasons for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs might help explain some of the purchasing differences

Table 11: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the reasons for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Reason for Not Purchasing (Dependent Categories)	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	Nothing Appealed to Me	132	3.795	.051
	Don't Like the Style	132	.221	.638
	Environmental Reasons	132	1.445	.229
	Ethical Reasons	132	4.439	.035*
	Legal Reasons	132	2.316	.128
Age Group	Nothing Appealed to Me	129	3.366	.186
	Don't Like the Style	129	7.095	.029*
	Environmental Reasons	129	4.133	.127
	Ethical Reasons	129	2.195	.334
	Legal Reasons	129	4.731	.094
Marital Status	Nothing Appealed to Me	131	.314	.575
	Don't Like the Style	131	5.823	.016*
	Environmental Reasons	131	2.061	.151
	Ethical Reasons	131	.428	.513
	Legal Reasons	131	.034	.853
Geographic Region	Nothing Appealed to Me	131	7.159	.007*
	Don't Like the Style	131	1.226	.268
	Environmental Reasons	131	6.964	.008*
	Ethical Reasons	131	2.089	.148
	Legal Reasons	131	2.878	.090
Education	Nothing Appealed to Me	130	.004	.948
	Don't Like the Style	130	9.942	.002*
	Environmental Reasons	130	1.697	.193
	Ethical Reasons	130	1.278	.258
	Legal Reasons	130	1.435	.231
Employment	Nothing Appealed to Me	131	.176	.675
	Don't Like the Style	131	.220	.704 ^b
	Environmental Reasons	131	.080	.750 ^b
	Ethical Reasons	131	.103	.719 ^b
	Legal Reasons	131	.004	1.000 ^b
Income	Nothing Appealed to Me	130	.825	.662
	Don't Like the Style	130	3.994	.136 ^a
	Environmental Reasons	130	.282	.869
	Ethical Reasons	130	1.450	.484 ^a
	Legal Reasons ⁹	130	6.073	.048 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square. It is possible that a Type 2 error occurred in this analysis due to the high number of chi square relationships being tested.

⁹ It is also possible that a Type 2 error occurred between income and legal reasons since the relationship was found to be statistically significant (p=.048) but also invalid because of failing to meet the analytical criterion of having minimum expected cell counts.

identified above. Table 11 displays the results of the chi square cross tabulations. There were no significant differences between the independent variable employment and any of the reasons for not purchasing. The variable income did not have any statistically reliable or valid relationships with any of the reasons, and therefore, could not be analyzed.

Significant relationships were found between five independent variables and certain reasons for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs: (a) sex and ethical reasons ($p=.035$); (b) age group and don't like the style ($p=.029$); (c) marital status and don't like the style ($p=.016$); (d) geographic region and nothing appealed to me ($p=.007$) and geographic region and environmental reasons ($p=.008$); and (e) education and don't like the style ($p=.002$). The cross tabulation results for each of the five significant independent variables and the reasons for not purchasing are shown in Table 12.

The only reason selected by tourists that was not significantly influenced by demographic characteristics was 'legal' concerns, which also received a smaller proportion of tourist responses in comparison to other reasons (15.9%, see Figure 7).

Table 12: The individual relationships between sex, age group, marital status, geographic region, and education and the reasons why wildlife souvenirs were not purchased

Independent Variable	Reason for Not Purchasing		
	Ethical Reasons		
Sex	Yes	No	Total
Males	6 (11.8%)	45 (88.2%)	51
Females	22 (27.2%)	59 (72.8%)	81
Total Sex	28 (21.2%)	104 (78.8%)	132
Age Group	Don't Like the Style		
18-24	9 (33.3%)	18 (66.7%)	27
25-39	15 (21.7%)	54 (78.3%)	69
40+	2 (6.1%)	31 (93.9%)	33
Total Age Group	26 (20.2%)	103 (79.8%)	129
Marital Status	Don't Like the Style		
Married	7 (11.1%)	56 (88.9%)	63
Single	19 (27.9%)	49 (72.1%)	68
Total Marital Status	26 (19.8%)	105 (80.2%)	131
Geographic Region	Nothing Appealed to Me		
Canada	37 (69.8%)	16 (30.2%)	53
Europe	36 (46.2%)	42 (53.8%)	78
Total Geographic Region	73 (55.7%)	58 (44.3%)	131
Geographic Region	Environmental Reasons		
Canada	9 (17%)	44 (83%)	53
Europe	30 (38.5%)	48 (61.5%)	78
Total Geographic Region	39 (29.8%)	92 (70.2%)	131
Education	Don't Like the Style		
No University	6 (8.8%)	62 (91.2%)	68
Have University	19 (30.6%)	43 (69.4%)	62
Total Education	25 (19.2%)	105 (80.8%)	130

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Sex had a significant influence on tourists' selection of 'ethical reasons' as grounds for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs. A substantially greater proportion of women refrained from purchasing wildlife souvenirs for ethical reasons than men. With respect to age, one third of younger tourists were dissuaded from purchasing wildlife souvenirs because of not liking their style compared to a meagre 6% of older tourists. Regarding marital status, a greater proportion of single tourists were dissuaded from purchasing wildlife souvenirs because of not liking their style than married tourists, indicating that the presence of a spouse in a relationship diminishes the impact this reason has on making purchase decisions. The cross tabulation scores for 'education' and 'don't like the style' of wildlife souvenirs demonstrates that tourists with a university education were three times as likely to refrain from purchasing wildlife souvenirs because they disliked the style of them as non university-educated tourists.

Another demographic characteristic that significantly impacted tourists' reasons for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs was geographic region (country of residence). Proportionally, more Canadians than Europeans decided not to purchase wildlife souvenirs because they did not find anything they liked at the time. The opposite pattern was true for environmental reasons, whereby, twice as many Europeans as Canadians refrained from purchasing because of ecological principles.

The final purchase behaviour survey question asked tourists if they have ever asked a souvenir artisan or retailer what animal species a wildlife souvenir was made from. Although nearly 30% of the tourists in this study claimed to have made an effort to ask retailers about wildlife souvenirs at some point in time, no demographic variables were

significant in this regard (see Table 13), denoting that there were no meaningful relationships between tourists' personal attributes and whether or not they inquired about wildlife souvenirs to artisans or retailers.

Table 13: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on whether or not tourists have asked artisans or retailers about wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Asked a Retailer		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	164	.012	1.000
Age Group	162	.619	.734
Marital Status	163	1.600	.206
Geographic Region	161	.316	.574
Education	163	.152	.697
Employment	164	1.060	.303
Income	160	3.131	.209

4.3.2 Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Wildlife Souvenirs

The second research category is awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs and refers to survey questions 14-18 and 24 and also includes the summary indicators: wildlife preference; artisan/retailer integrity; consumer ethics; and consumer responsibility. One of the survey questions asked tourists to select the physical attributes they liked most about wildlife souvenirs, regardless of whether they had purchased any souvenirs or not. Table 14 displays the chi square results of the cross tabulations.

Table 14: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the physical attributes liked most about wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Physical Attributes Liked Most	Physical Attributes Liked Most		
		n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	Colour	172	5.721	.017*
	Design	172	.490	.484
	Material	172	.592	.442
	Craftsmanship	172	.003	.959
Age Group	Colour	169	2.043	.360
	Design	169	6.193	.045*
	Material	169	9.518	.009*
	Craftsmanship	169	10.199	.006*
Marital Status	Colour	172	2.523	.112
	Design	172	3.446	.063
	Material	172	2.143	.143
	Craftsmanship	172	.040	.841
Geographic Region	Colour	169	3.188	.074
	Design	169	3.126	.077
	Material	169	4.720	.030*
	Craftsmanship	169	5.011	.025*
Education	Colour	169	.001	.976
	Design	169	3.685	.055
	Material	169	.095	.758
	Craftsmanship	169	.130	.718
Employment	Colour	171	.184	.668
	Design	171	.397	.529
	Material	171	.972	.532 ^b
	Craftsmanship	171	.000	1.000
Income	Colour	168	4.248	.120
	Design	168	1.709	.426
	Material	168	.505	.777 ^a
	Craftsmanship	168	1.216	.544

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square.

No significant relationships were found between the independent variables marital status, education, employment, and income and any of the physical attributes (except between income and material, which had a statistically unreliable result). There were significant relationships found between the following three demographic variables and

physical attributes: (a) sex and colour ($p=.017$); (b) age group and design ($p=.045$), age group and material ($p=.009$), and age group and craftsmanship ($p=.006$); and (c) geographic region and material ($p=.030$) and geographic region and craftsmanship ($p=.025$). Table 15 displays the results of the cross tabulations.

In determining the attributes tourists like most about wildlife souvenirs, age had a significant influence. Younger and older tourists differed on certain attributes they favoured in wildlife souvenirs. While younger tourists' associated attractive wildlife souvenir attributes with design and material, these features declined in importance among tourists over 25 years of age and particularly among tourists over 40. The association of a wildlife souvenir's craftsmanship showed an unusual pattern in that it was attractive to young tourists, declined in importance for middle-aged tourists, and became attractive again to tourists over 40.

With respect to other favoured souvenir attributes, only colour was significantly associated with sex. Women were more likely to select 'colour' as a favourable souvenir attribute than men, indicating that men were not nearly as attracted to a souvenir's colour as women were. Interestingly however, there were no statistically significant differences between sex and a souvenir's design or a souvenir's material, which indicates that while men and women may differ on being attracted to a souvenir's colour, they are at least similarly attracted to these other fashionable souvenir attributes.

Table 15: The individual relationships between sex, age group, and geographic region and the physical attributes liked most about wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Physical Attributes Liked Most		
	Colour		Total
Sex	Yes	No	
Males	19 (28.8%)	47 (71.2%)	66
Females	50 (47.2%)	56 (52.8%)	106
Total Sex	69 (40.1%)	103 (59.9%)	172
Age Group	Design		Total
18-24	29 (64.4%)	16 (35.6%)	
25-39	37 (45.7%)	44 (54.3%)	81
40+	17 (39.5%)	26 (60.5%)	43
Total Age Group	83 (49.1%)	86 (50.9%)	169
Age Group	Material		Total
18-24	15 (33.3%)	30 (66.7%)	
25-39	16 (19.8%)	65 (80.2%)	81
40+	3 (7%)	40 (93%)	43
Total Age Group	34 (20.1%)	135 (79.9%)	169
Age Group	Craftsmanship		Total
18-24	27 (60%)	18 (40%)	
25-39	26 (32.1%)	55 (67.9%)	81
40+	22 (51.2%)	21 (48.8%)	43
Total Age Group	75 (44.4%)	94 (55.6%)	169
Geographic Region	Material		Total
Canada	22 (26.2%)	62 (73.8%)	
Europe	11 (12.9%)	74 (87.1%)	85
Total Geographic Region	33 (19.5%)	136 (80.5%)	169
Geographic Region	Craftsmanship		Total
Canada	44 (52.4%)	40 (47.6%)	
Europe	30 (35.3%)	55 (64.7%)	85

Total Geographic Region	74	95	169
	(43.8%)	(56.2%)	

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Lastly, geographic region had a significant influence on tourists' preferred wildlife souvenir attributes. Canadians and Europeans differed on how they perceived the attractiveness of a souvenir's material and craftsmanship. Canadians were twice as likely to select 'material' and one and a half times as likely to select 'craftsmanship' as Europeans, suggesting again, a difference in cultural values with respect to wildlife and wildlife products.

The next question under this research category asked tourists what their overall perception of wildlife souvenirs was. Table 16 presents the chi square cross tabulation results. The independent variables sex, age group, marital status, geographic region, and income did not have statistically significant differences, and are therefore, not influential factors in tourists' perceptions of wildlife souvenirs. There were significant relationships found between two independent variables and perception: (a) education ($p=.006$) and (b) employment ($p=.010$).

Table 16: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the overall perception of wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Perception of Wildlife Souvenirs		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	123	.185	.667
Age Group	120	2.067	.356
Marital Status	123	.673	.412
Geographic Region	120	1.552	.213
Education	121	6.576	.010*
Employment	122	7.659	.006*
Income	120	.158	.294

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

The results of the cross tabulations are shown in Table 17. The sample number in this analysis is lower than in other analyses because 29 respondents (16.2%) chose ‘other’ and supplied their own answers (see Figure 9) and 26 respondents (14.5%) incorrectly selected multiple answers and had to be removed from the analysis.

Proportionally more university-educated tourists than non university-educated tourists perceive wildlife souvenirs as unique, rare, and exotic, whereas the inverse pattern is true for the ‘natural/authentic’ category of perception. In other words, tourists with a university education were more likely to perceive wildlife souvenirs as unique, rare, and exotic, while tourists without a university education were more likely to perceive wildlife souvenirs as natural and authentic. This result demonstrates that the level of education tourists possess influences their overall perception of wildlife souvenirs.

Table 17: The individual relationships between education and employment and the overall perception of wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Perception of Wildlife Souvenirs		
	Unique/Rare/Exotic	Natural/Authentic	Total
Education			
No University	29 (43.3%)	38 (56.7%)	67
Have University	36 (66.7%)	18 (33.3%)	54
Total Education	65 (53.7%)	56 (46.3%)	121
Employment			
Employed	52 (48.6%)	55 (51.4%)	107
Non-employed	13 (86.7%)	2 (13.3%)	15
Total Employment	65 (53.3%)	57 (46.7%)	122

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

With respect to employment, 38% more non-employed tourists perceive wildlife souvenirs as unique, rare, and exotic, whereas the inverse pattern is true for employed tourists and the ‘natural/authentic’ category. Thus, employed tourists were more likely to perceive wildlife souvenirs as natural and authentic and non-employed tourists were more likely to perceive them as unique, rare, and exotic. As a result, tourists’ state of employment also seems to influence their perception of wildlife souvenirs.

In the next question, tourists were asked to consider how knowing that an endangered species was used to make a souvenir would affect their decision to purchase the item. The results of the chi square cross tabulations are reported in Table 18. The independent variables marital status, education, and employment did not have statistically significant differences and the variables age group and income had statistically invalid results.

Therefore, these variables were either unimportant or unreliable in affecting tourists' intentions to purchase souvenirs made from endangered species.

Table 18: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on how the use of endangered species would affect purchase intentions

Independent Variable	Awareness of Endangered Species		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	178	4.799	.028*
Age Group	175	.684	.759 ^a
Marital Status	177	.595	.440
Geographic Region	175	4.151	.042*
Education	175	1.807	.179
Employment	177	.576	.434 ^b
Income ¹⁰	174	8.027	.018 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square.

Significant relationships were found between two independent variables and the awareness of endangered species: (a) sex ($p=.028$) and (b) geographic region ($p=.042$). Table 19 presents the cross tabulation results. Sex proved to be influential on how the use of endangered species for a particular product would affect tourists' souvenir purchase intentions. While a sizeable majority of both men (82.1%) and women (92.8%) claimed the awareness of endangered species would strongly affect their decision to purchase wildlife items, the conviction was greater for women, meaning women's

¹⁰ It is possible that a Type 2 error occurred for income since it was found to be statistically significant ($p=.018$) but also invalid because of failing to meet the analytical criterion of having minimum expected cell counts.

purchase intentions were more likely to be strongly affected than men's. Likewise, with respect to geographic region, the purchase intentions of both Canadians and Europeans would be strongly affected by the awareness of endangered species being used in souvenirs, but more so for Europeans (93.3% Europeans vs. 83.5% Canadians). These results indicate that there are small but statistically significant gendered and geographical differences in how tourists are affected by the awareness of the use of endangered species in souvenir products.

Table 19: The individual relationships between sex and geographic region and how the use of endangered species in souvenirs would affect purchase intentions

Independent Variable	Awareness of Endangered Species		
	Low Strength	High Strength	Total
Sex			
Male	12 (17.9%)	55 (82.1%)	67
Female	8 (7.2%)	103 (92.8%)	111
Total Sex	20 (11.2%)	158 (88.8%)	178
Geographic Region			
Canada	14 (16.5%)	71 (83.5%)	85
Europe	6 (6.7%)	84 (93.3%)	90
Total Geographic Region	20 (11.4%)	155 (88.6%)	175

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

The previous question assessed whether knowing that a product made from an endangered species would affect purchase intention. This next question assesses how

important it is to know, in advance, if a desired product is made from an endangered species. In the former question, it is presumed that tourists already know that an item of interest contains an endangered species and they are being asked to consider how this information would affect their decision to still purchase the item. In this next question, tourists do not already know that an endangered species is being used in a desired product and are being asked to consider the importance of knowing this information in advance (i.e. before purchasing). The results of the chi square cross tabulations are displayed in Table 20.

Table 20: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the importance of knowing if an endangered species was used in a desired souvenir

Independent Variable	Importance of Knowing about Endangered Species		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	178	2.555	.110
Age Group	175	.294	.863
Marital Status	177	.595	.440
Geographic Region	175	4.407	.036*
Education	175	.034	.853
Employment	177	.107	.723 ^b
Income ¹¹	174	12.938	.002 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square.

¹¹ It is possible that a Type 2 error occurred for income since it was found to be statistically significant (p=.002) but also invalid because of failing to meet the analytical criterion of having minimum expected cell counts.

The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and the importance of knowing about endangered species used was geographic region ($p=.036$). A greater proportion of Europeans than Canadians indicated that knowing this information was of considerable importance to them (see Table 21). Thus, although both geographic regions felt it would be quite important to know if endangered species were used in desired souvenirs, the difference in importance was greater for Europeans, meaning that they were more interested in knowing this information than Canadians were.

Table 21: The relationship between geographic region and importance of knowing if endangered species are used in souvenirs

Independent Variable	Importance of Knowing about Endangered Species		
	Less Important	More Important	Total
Canada	17 (20%)	68 (80%)	85
Europe	8 (8.9%)	82 (91.1%)	90
Total Geographic Region	25 (14.3%)	150 (85.7%)	175

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Assuming that it was known that an endangered species was used to make a souvenir, tourists were then asked if they would still purchase the item. This question attempted to assess tourists' attitudes regarding endangered species and souvenir purchase intentions, whereas the previous two questions tried to assess tourists' awareness. Table 22 reports the chi square cross tabulation results.

Table 22: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the willingness to purchase a souvenir made from an endangered species

Independent Variable	Willingness to Purchase an Endangered Species		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	175	.091	.763
Age Group	172	7.885	.019*
Marital Status	174	2.125	.145
Geographic Region	172	10.189	.001*
Education	172	.154	.695
Employment	174	.196	.747 ^b
Income	171	1.768	.413 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square.

There were no significant differences found between the independent variables sex, marital status, education, and employment and the willingness to purchase an endangered species souvenir, and the variable income had a statistically unreliable relationship. However, there were significant relationships found between two independent variables and the willingness to purchase an endangered species: (a) age group ($p = .019$) and (b) geographic region ($p = .001$). The results of the cross tabulations are presented in Table 23.

Age had a significant influence on tourists' willingness to purchase souvenirs made from endangered species. While the majority of tourists across all three age groups indicated a reluctance to purchase such items, younger tourists were twice as likely as middle-aged tourists and three times as likely as older tourists to still consider purchasing these

products, depending primarily on an item’s appeal or cost (see section 4.2.2). In other words, nearly a third of young tourists would consider buying souvenirs made from endangered species, compared to a sixth of middle-aged tourists and only a tenth of older tourists.

In addition, geographic region was also significantly associated with tourists’ willingness to purchase endangered species souvenirs. Although the majority of Canadians and Europeans would be unwilling to purchase endangered species, Canadians were three times more likely to still consider purchasing products made from endangered species than Europeans.

Table 23: The individual relationships between age group and geographic region and the willingness to purchase endangered species souvenirs

Independent Variable	Willingness to Purchase Souvenirs Made From Endangered Species		
	No	Maybe	Total
Age Group			
18-24	32 (69.6%)	14 (30.4%)	46
25-39	71 (85.5%)	12 (14.5%)	83
40+	39 (90.7%)	4 (9.3%)	43
Total Age Group	142 (82.6%)	30 (17.4%)	172
Geographic Region			
Canada	60 (72.3%)	23 (27.7%)	83
Europe	81 (91%)	8 (9%)	89
Total Geographic Region	141 (82%)	31 (18%)	172

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Another question in this research category asked tourists who they believe has the most power to ensure wildlife is not overexploited through trade. The chi square cross tabulation results are shown in Table 24. There were no significant differences (or the results are statistically unreliable) between the independent variables sex, education, employment, and income and who has the most power to protect wildlife.

There were significant relationships found between three independent variables and perceived powerful entities: (a) age group and government ($p=.043$); (b) marital status and government ($p<.001$); and (c) geographic region and artisans ($p=.004$). Table 25 presents the cross tabulation results. It should be remembered that the majority of tourists (53.4%) perceived consumers, through their purchasing power, as having the most power to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade. Where tourists differed, however, was how powerful they perceived government and souvenir artisans to be. With respect to age and the selection of 'government', middle-aged tourists were twice as likely as older tourists to perceive government as having the most power to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade.

Table 24: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on who is believed to have the most to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade

Independent Variable	Most Power to Prevent Overexploitation	Most Power to Prevent Overexploitation		
		n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	Consumers	178	.055	.814
	Retailers	178	.542	.462
	Artisans	178	3.201	.074
	Government	178	.003	.960
	Conservation Organizations	178	1.527	.217
Age Group	Consumers	175	.448	.799
	Retailers	175	2.069	.355 ^a
	Artisans	175	.643	.725 ^a
	Government	175	6.283	.043*
	Conservation Organizations	175	5.355	.069
Marital Status	Consumers	177	.549	.459
	Retailers	177	.004	.949
	Artisans	177	.004	.949
	Government	177	13.021	<.001*
	Conservation Organizations	177	1.545	.214
Geographic Region	Consumers	175	1.259	.262
	Retailers	175	3.465	.063
	Artisans	175	8.309	.004*
	Government	175	.592	.442
	Conservation Organizations	175	1.582	.208
Education	Consumers	175	3.052	.081
	Retailers	175	.053	.818
	Artisans	175	3.282	.070
	Government	175	1.414	.234
	Conservation Organizations	175	.119	.730
Employment	Consumers	177	1.361	.243
	Retailers	177	.052	.685 ^b
	Artisans	177	1.418	.212 ^b
	Government	177	1.813	.178
	Conservation Organizations	177	.076	.759 ^b
Income	Consumers	174	.710	.701
	Retailers	174	.165	.921 ^a
	Artisans	174	.165	.921 ^a
	Government	174	3.371	.185
	Conservation Organizations	174	1.717	.424 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square. It is possible that a Type 2 error occurred in this analysis due to the high number of chi square relationships being tested.

Table 25: The individual relationships between age group, marital status, and geographic region and who is believed to have the most power in protecting wildlife from overexploitation through trade

Independent Variable	Most Power to Protect Wildlife		
	Government		
Age Group	Yes	No	Total
18-24	18 (38.3%)	29 (61.7%)	47
25-39	37 (44.6%)	46 (55.4%)	83
40+	10 (22.2%)	35 (77.8%)	45
Total Age Group	65 (37.1%)	110 (62.9%)	175
Marital Status	Government		
	Yes	No	Total
Married	19 (23.2%)	63 (76.8%)	82
Single	47 (49.5%)	48 (50.5%)	95
Total Marital Status	66 (37.3%)	111 (62.7%)	177
Geographic Region	Artisans		
	Yes	No	Total
Canada	14 (16.3%)	72 (83.7%)	86
Europe	3 (3.4%)	86 (96.9%)	89
Total Geographic Region	17 (9.7%)	158 (90.3%)	175

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Furthermore, marital status was also significantly associated with government. Single tourists were more than twice as likely as married tourists to perceive government as a powerful protector of wildlife. Thus, as with older tourists, married tourists have substantially less confidence in government to protect wildlife from overexploitation

through trade than single tourists. Geographic region was only significantly associated with artisans, in that, Canadians were five times as likely to perceive souvenir artisans as having the most power to protect wildlife as Europeans. This indicates that Canadians have a stronger belief than Europeans that the craftspeople producing the souvenirs can be the most helpful to wildlife.

At the end of the survey, tourists were asked to score a series of statements that were later divided into five summary indicators. The summary indicators: wildlife preference; artisan/retailer integrity; consumer ethics; and consumer responsibility were used to help assess tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs and are reported below.

Wildlife Preference

The main effects between each of the independent variables and the wildlife preference score are shown in Table 26. There were no significant differences found between the independent variables sex, marital status, education, employment, and income and wildlife preference, indicating that these demographic characteristics do not influence tourists' preference for wildlife souvenirs. There were significant relationships found between two independent variables and wildlife preference: (a) geographic region ($p < .001$) and (b) age group ($p = .029$). With respect to geographic region, Canadians rated the preference for wildlife souvenirs higher than Europeans (mean = 2.61 and 1.91 respectively). Despite both geographic regions having scores on the lower end of the scale, implying that they are not overly fond of wildlife souvenirs in general, Canadians still prefer wildlife souvenirs more than Europeans do.

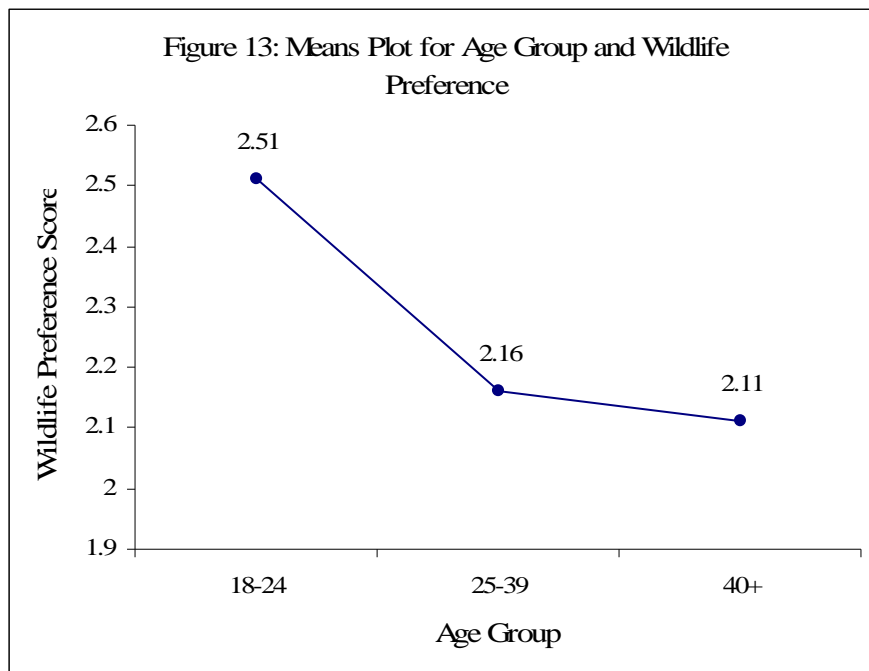
Table 26: Comparative analysis between the independent variables and wildlife preference

Independent Variable	Wildlife Preference			
	n	Mean	T-Value	Sig.
Sex				
Males	67	2.36	1.270	.206
Females	112	2.20		
Marital Status				
Married	83	2.28	.227	.820
Single	95	2.25		
Geographic Region				
Canada	86	2.61	6.088	<.001*
Europe	90	1.91		
Education				
No University	89	2.28	.372	.711
Have University	87	2.24		
Employment				
Employed	160	2.26	-.055	.956
Non-employed	18	2.27		
Independent Variable	n	Mean	F-Value	Sig.
Age Group				
18-24	47	2.51	3.604	.029*
25-39	84	2.16		
40+	45	2.11		
Income				
Lower Third	25	2.25	.149	.861
Middle Third	125	2.23		
Upper Third	21	2.33		

Note: The mean values represent the average score administered on the wildlife preference summary indicator. The minimum score is 1 (weak agreement) and the maximum score is 5 (strong agreement). An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

In addition, younger and older tourists varied in how they rated their preference for wildlife souvenirs. Younger tourists rated the preference for wildlife souvenirs higher (mean=2.51) than both middle-aged and older tourists (mean=2.16 and 2.11 respectively), suggesting that the older tourists are, the weaker are preferences for

wildlife souvenirs. A means plot describes the variations in preference between each of the age groups (see Figure 13). The greatest difference occurs between tourists who are 18-24 years of age and tourists who are over 40 years of age ($p=.064$). This demonstrates that there is a noticeable drop in preference for wildlife souvenirs among older tourists, which is consistent with previous findings above (Tables 9 and 10 and Tables 22 and 23) that show younger tourists as greater consumers of wildlife than their elders.



Artisan/Retailer Integrity

The main interaction effects between the independent variables and the artisan/retailer integrity score are shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Comparative analysis between the independent variables and artisan/retailer integrity

Independent Variable	Artisan/Retailer Integrity			
	n	Mean	T-Value	Sig.
Sex				
Males	67	2.39	-.894	.372
Females	112	2.2		
Marital Status				
Married	83	2.51	1.144	.254
Single	95	2.39		
Geographic Region				
Canada	86	2.60	3.056	.003*
Europe	90	2.28		
Education				
No University	89	2.44	-.419	.676
Have University	87	2.49		
Employment				
Employed	160	2.44	-.160	.873
Non-employed	18	2.47		
Independent Variable	n	Mean	F-Value	Sig.
Age Group				
18-24	47	2.41	.042	.958
25-39	84	2.45		
40+	45	2.46		
Income				
Lower Third	25	2.42	.012	.988
Middle Third	125	2.43		
Upper Third	21	2.45		

Note: The mean values represent the average score administered on the artisan/retailer integrity summary indicator. The minimum score is 1 (weak agreement) and the maximum score is 5 (strong agreement). An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

The only independent variable that revealed a significant direct relationship toward artisan/retailer integrity was geographic region ($p=.003$), suggesting that Canadians and Europeans vary in the amount of integrity they perceive artisans and retailers to possess. Canadians rated artisan/retailer integrity higher than Europeans (mean=2.60 and 2.28 respectively), indicating that they perceive artisans and retailers to be more honest and trustworthy than do Europeans. However, since both mean scores fall below the scale's mid-point (between 'neither agree nor disagree' and 'disagree'), the ultimate interpretation is that neither geographical group perceives artisans and retailers to have much integrity when it comes to making a sale or sharing pertinent information with customers.

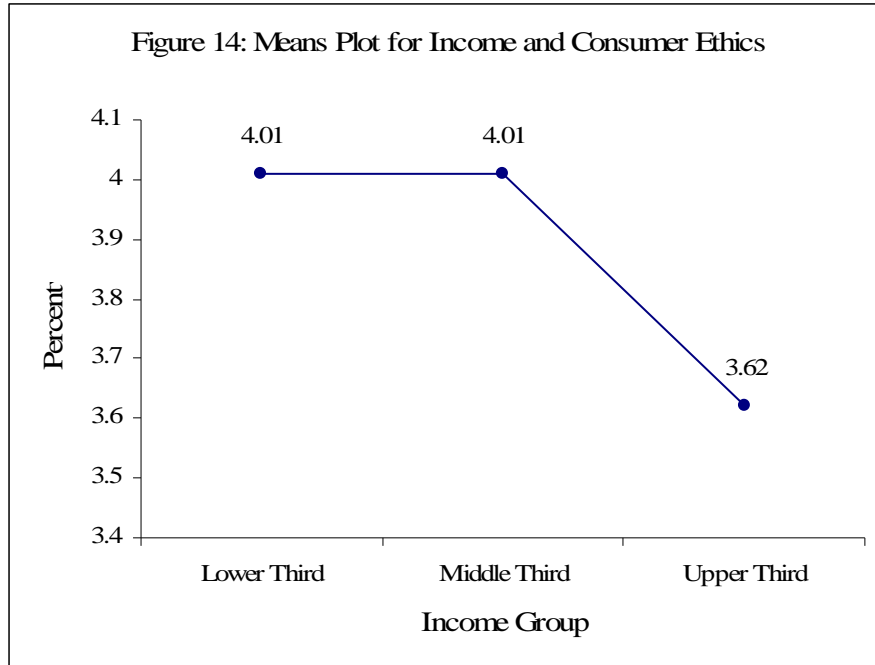
Consumer Ethics

Table 28 displays the main effects between the independent variables and the consumer ethics score. The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and consumer ethics was income ($p=.040$). Tourists who report their personal income level in the upper third of their nation's income range rated consumer ethics significantly lower (mean=3.62) than the two lower income groups, who rated consumer ethics the same (mean=4.01 each). This finding implies that the amount of money tourists make influences their ethical attitudes. Although all three income groups are above the scale's mid-point (between 'neither agree nor disagree' and 'agree') and claim to have ethical standards, the upper income group seems to be less ethical than the two lower income groups when it comes to making purchase decisions about endangered species souvenirs (see Figure 14).

Table 28: Comparative analysis between the independent variables and consumer ethics

Independent Variable	Consumer Ethics			
	n	Mean	T-Value	Sig.
Sex				
Males	67	3.93	-0.614	.540
Females	112	3.99		
Marital Status				
Married	83	3.99	0.401	.689
Single	95	3.95		
Geographic Region				
Canada	86	3.87	-1.711	.089
Europe	90	4.05		
Education				
No University	89	3.87	-1.883	.061
Have University	87	4.06		
Employment				
Employed	160	3.96	-0.458	.648
Non-employed	18	4.04		
Independent Variable	n	Mean	F-Value	Sig.
Age Group				
18-24	47	4.02	0.429	.652
25-39	84	3.93		
40+	45	4.03		
Income				
Lower Third	25	4.01	3.273	.040*
Middle Third	125	4.01		
Upper Third	21	3.62		

Note: The mean values represent the average score administered on the consumer ethics summary indicator. The minimum score is 1 (weak agreement) and the maximum score is 5 (strong agreement). An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.



Consumer Responsibility

The last summary indicator under this research category is consumer responsibility and Table 29 reports the main interaction effects between the independent variables and the consumer responsibility score. The only significant direct relationship between the independent variables and consumer responsibility was sex ($p=.014$). Women rated consumer responsibility higher than men (mean=3.95 and 3.63 respectively), indicating that the responsibility of consumers to learn about wildlife souvenirs is more important to female tourists than male tourists.

Table 29: Comparative analysis between the independent variables and consumer responsibility

Independent Variable	Consumer Responsibility			
	n	Mean	T-Value	Sig.
Sex				
Males	67	3.63	-2.485	.014*
Females	112	3.95		
Marital Status				
Married	83	3.78	-.620	.536
Single	95	3.86		
Geographic Region				
Canada	86	3.74	-1.376	.171
Europe	90	3.92		
Education				
No University	89	3.79	-.452	.652
Have University	87	3.84		
Employment				
Employed	160	3.81	-1.157	.249
Non-employed	18	4.06		
Independent Variable	n	Mean	F-Value	Sig.
Age Group				
18-24	47	3.84	.794	.454
25-39	84	3.90		
40+	45	3.70		
Income				
Lower Third	25	3.90	.272	.762
Middle Third	125	3.83		
Upper Third	21	3.71		

Note: The mean values represent the average score administered on the consumer responsibility summary indicator. The minimum score is 1 (weak agreement) and the maximum score is 5 (strong agreement). An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

4.3.3 Perception of Environmental Impact

The third research category is perception of environmental impact and refers to survey question 25 and includes the environmental impact summary indicator. In order to address this research question, tourists were asked how much impact they thought wildlife souvenirs have on the environment. The chi square cross tabulations are reported in Table 30.

Table 30: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the perceived environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Environmental Impact		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	177	1.133	.287
Age Group	174	3.124	.210
Marital Status	176	1.970	.160
Geographic Region	174	6.020	.014*
Education	174	.407	.523
Employment	176	.356	.551
Income	173	.247	.884

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and environmental impact was geographic region ($p=.014$). The cross tabulation results are shown in Table 31. Nearly 18% more Europeans than Canadians perceive the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs to be high, indicating that Canadians and Europeans differ in terms of their perception of the ecological consequences of consuming wildlife products.

Table 31: The relationship between geographic region and the perceived environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs

Independent Variable	Environmental Impact		
	Low Impact	High Impact	Total
Canada	37 (43.5%)	48 (56.5%)	85
Europe	23 (25.8%)	66 (74.2%)	89
Total Geographic Region	60 (34.5%)	114 (65.5%)	174

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Environmental Impact

Tourists' perception of the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs was additionally assessed using a summary indicator as a way to compare respondent consistency. The main interaction effects between the independent variables and the environmental impact score are presented in Table 32. In this analysis, there were no significant direct relationships between the independent variables marital status, education, employment, age group, and income and environmental impact, indicating that these variables were not influences in tourists' perception of environmental impact.

Table 32: Comparative analysis between the independent variables and environmental impact

Independent Variable	Environmental Impact			
	n	Mean	T-Value	Sig.
Sex				
Males	67	3.69	-2.487	.014*
Females	112	4.03		
Marital Status				
Married	83	3.93	.476	.635
Single	95	3.87		
Geographic Region				
Canada	86	3.67	-3.243	.001*
Europe	90	4.11		
Education				
No University	89	3.80	-1.389	.167
Have University	87	3.99		
Employment				
Employed	160	3.88	-1.002	.318
Non-employed	18	4.11		
Independent Variable	n	Mean	F-Value	Sig.
Age Group				
18-24	47	3.96	.765	.467
25-39	84	3.95		
40+	45	3.76		
Income				
Lower Third	25	4.00	.582	.560
Middle Third	125	3.90		
Upper Third	21	3.71		

Note: The mean values represent the average score administered on the environmental impact summary indicator. The minimum score is 1 (weak agreement) and the maximum score is 5 (strong agreement). An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

With respect to geographic region in this analysis, Europeans and Canadians again varied in their perception of environmental impact, with Europeans believing the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs as greater, or more detrimental, than Canadians.

4.3.4 Awareness of Importation Laws

The final research category is awareness of importation laws and refers to survey questions 20-23. One question in this category asked tourists if they knew what wildlife souvenirs were not allowed to be imported into their home countries. Table 33 presents the results of the chi square cross tabulations.

Table 33: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the awareness of prohibited souvenir imports

Independent Variable	Awareness of Prohibited Imports		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	177	2.291	.318
Age Group	174	5.750	.219
Marital Status	176	1.500	.472
Geographic Region	174	11.073	.004*
Education	174	.831	.660
Employment	176	1.297	.523
Income	173	1.047	.903

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level.

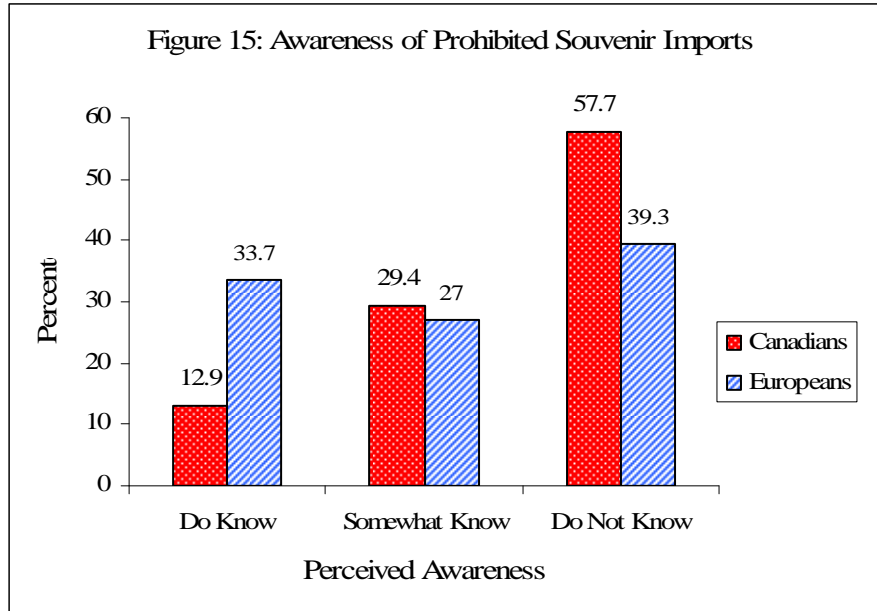
The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and the awareness of prohibited imports was geographic region ($p=.004$), indicating that there is a difference between what Canadians and Europeans think they know about prohibited wildlife species. Table 34 reports the cross tabulation results for this relationship. Approximately 20% more Europeans than Canadians claim to know what wildlife souvenirs are prohibited from importation into their home countries.

Table 34: The relationship between geographic region and the awareness of prohibited wildlife souvenir imports

Independent Variable	Awareness of Prohibited Imports			Total
	Yes	Somewhat	No	
Canada	11 (12.9%)	25 (29.4%)	49 (57.6%)	85
Europe	30 (33.7%)	24 (27%)	35 (39.3%)	89
Total Geographic Region	41 (23.6%)	49 (28.2%)	84 (48.3%)	174

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Thus, while nearly 60% of the Canadian respondents claim to have no knowledge of prohibited souvenir imports, only 40% of the European respondents share the same sentiment (see Figure 15). Furthermore, a greater proportion of Europeans claim to be ‘fully aware’ of their own countries’ souvenir prohibitions than those who are only ‘somewhat aware’, whereas, the opposite is true for Canadians, with nearly twice as many tourists reporting being ‘somewhat aware’ than those who reported ‘fully aware’. In other words, not only do European tourists appear to have a greater awareness of the wildlife souvenirs prohibited from importation into their own home countries than Canadian tourists, but more Europeans seem to know or have some knowledge of these souvenir prohibitions than know nothing at all. The same cannot be said for Canadians, who appear less knowledgeable overall.



The next question asked tourists if they knew what the penalties were for importing souvenirs made from endangered species into their home countries. The chi square cross tabulation results are presented in Table 35.

Table 35: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the awareness of importation penalties

Independent Variable	Awareness of Importation Penalties		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	179	.114	.945
Age Group	176	3.804	.433 ^a
Marital Status	178	1.950	.377
Geographic Region	176	.642	.725
Education	176	6.281	.043*
Employment	178	4.470	.107 ^a
Income	175	4.110	.301 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases.

There were no significant differences found between the independent variables sex, marital status, and geographic region and the awareness of importation penalties. Moreover, the independent variables age group, employment, and income did not have statistically reliable results. The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and awareness of importation penalties was education ($p=.043$), indicating that level of education influences perceived awareness of importation penalties. Table 36 shows the cross tabulation results.

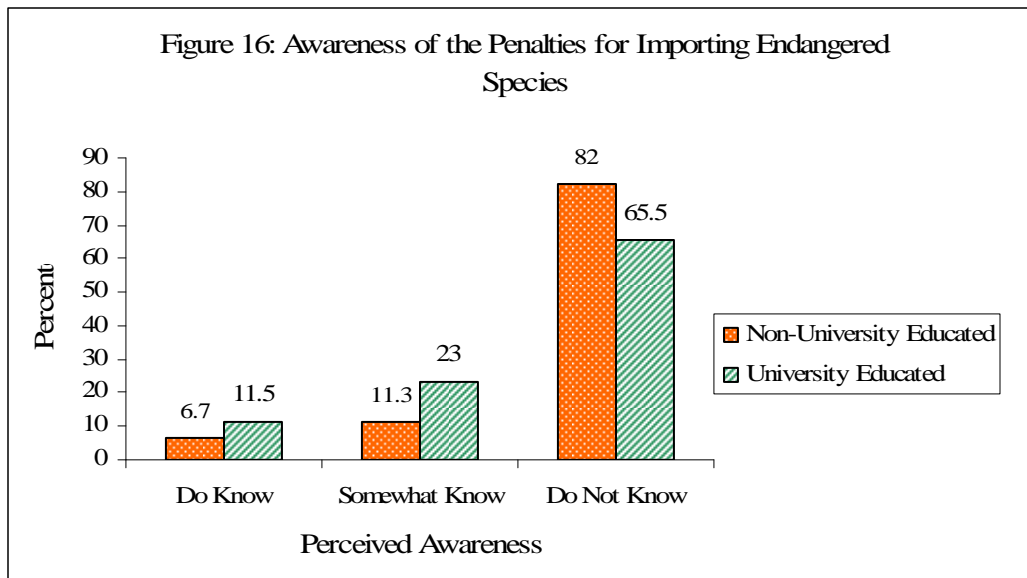
Table 36: The relationship between education and the awareness of importation penalties

Independent Variable	Awareness of Importation Penalties			Total
	Yes	Somewhat	No	
Education				
No University	6 (6.7%)	10 (11.2%)	73 (82%)	89
Have University	10 (11.5%)	20 (23%)	57 (65.5%)	87
Total Education	16 (9.1%)	30 (17%)	130 (73.9%)	176

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Proportionally more university-educated (UE) tourists than non university-educated (NUE) tourists claimed to either ‘know’ or have ‘some knowledge’ of the consequences of importing endangered species souvenirs into their home countries. The inverse pattern was true for having no knowledge of the penalties. Although UE and NUE tourists differed in terms of their perceived awareness of importation penalties across all three categories of knowledge, the most noticeable difference was observed between the two education groups and *not* knowing the penalties, with nearly 17% more NUE tourists claiming to be unaware of any importation penalties than their UE counterparts.

In total, 18% of NUE tourists and 34% of UE tourists claim to be partially or fully aware of the consequences for importing souvenirs made from endangered species into their home countries (see Figure 16). This finding implies that UE tourists either *have* or *think they have* a greater awareness of importation penalties than their counterparts. However, although UE tourists claim to be more knowledgeable than NUE tourists about importation penalties, the overall interpretation of this analysis is that neither education group is all that aware of the potential consequences of transporting endangered species souvenirs across international borders.



Tourists were then asked whether or not they know where to find information on importing wildlife souvenirs. The results of the chi square cross tabulations are reported in Table 37. The only significant relationship found between the independent variables and knowing where to find importation information was marital status ($p=.016$), suggesting that having a spouse does influence awareness of importation information.

Table 37: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on knowing where to find importation information

Independent Variable	Know Where to Find Importation Information		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	179	.021	.886
Age Group	176	1.564	.457
Marital Status	178	5.789	.016*
Geographic Region	176	3.176	.075
Education	176	2.802	.094
Employment	178	.004	.950
Income	175	1.301	.552

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level

Married tourists were one and a half times as likely as single tourists to claim to know where to find importation information (see Table 38). Just under half (47%) of the married respondents know where to find this information compared to only 30% of the single respondents. This difference demonstrates that not only do married tourists claim to be more competent than single tourists about knowing where to find importation information, but that the majority of respondents in both marital categories report having no idea at all where to find this information (married 53%; single 70.5%).

Table 38: The relationship between marital status and knowing where to find importation information

Independent Variable	Know Where to Find Importation Information		
	Yes	No	Total
Married	39 (47%)	44 (53%)	83
Single	28 (29.5%)	67 (70.5%)	95
Total Marital Status	67 (37.6%)	111 (62.4%)	178

Note: Row percentages in parentheses.

Finally, in an attempt to assess tourists' efforts to learn about (or learn more about) wildlife souvenirs, the last question in this research category asked tourists if they have ever tried researching information about importing wildlife souvenirs. Table 39 presents the chi square cross tabulation results.

Table 39: Chi square results for the influence of the independent variables on the effort to research wildlife souvenir importation

Independent Variable	Ever Researched Wildlife Importation Information		
	n	X ²	Sig.
Sex	177	1.929	.211 ^b
Age Group	174	.031	.985 ^a
Marital Status	177	1.320	.251
Geographic Region	174	.001	1.000 ^a
Education	174	.377	.747 ^b
Employment	176	3.713	.088 ^b
Income	173	2.131	.345 ^a

Note: An * denotes a significant result at the 95% confidence level. A superscript a. denotes an unreliable result when too many cells had less than 5 expected cases. A superscript b. denotes when Fisher's exact test was used instead of chi square.

There were no significant differences between the independent variables sex, marital status, education, and employment and the effort to research, and these variables are therefore not influences in tourists' efforts to research wildlife souvenir importation information. Furthermore, the differences between the remaining independent variables age group, geographic region, and income and the effort to research importation information were statistically unreliable.

The lack of significant and reliable relationships between the variables is linked to an overwhelming negative response to this query. Of the 177 tourists who responded to this question, 93.8% (n=166) indicated that they have never looked for information on importing wildlife souvenirs or products.

4.4 Summary of Main Findings

4.4.1 Purchase Behaviour

- Although the majority of tourists did not purchase wildlife souvenirs in Cuba, women, young tourists, and Canadians purchased more wildlife souvenirs than their counterparts.
- The most common reason why tourists did not purchase wildlife souvenirs is because nothing appealed to them at the time.
- Fashion (appeal and style) was an important motive for not making wildlife purchases for single, university-educated, young, and Canadian tourists, whereas, personal principles (ethical and environmental reasons) were important motives for women and Europeans.
- The majority of tourists have never asked an artisan or retailer what animal species was used to make a souvenir.

4.4.2 Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions

- While the majority of tourists claimed that learning that an endangered species was used to make a souvenir would affect their decision to purchase the item, women and Europeans were more affected by this information than their counterparts.
- The majority of tourists claim that knowing in advance if an endangered species was used to make a souvenir is important to them, yet, this knowledge is more important to Europeans than Canadians.
- The majority of tourists would not purchase a souvenir upon learning that it was made from an endangered species, however, young tourists and Canadians were more willing to still consider purchasing such items than their counterparts.
- Although most tourists believe consumers to have the most power to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade, single and middle-aged tourists were more likely to believe government and Canadians more likely to believe artisans to have significant influential power than their counterparts.
- Although the majority of tourists do not prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs, young tourists and Canadians prefer wildlife souvenirs more so than their counterparts.
- Souvenir artisans and retailers are perceived to have little integrity by the majority of tourists, yet more so for Europeans than Canadians.
- Although the majority of tourists claim to be ethical consumers, lower and middle income tourists claim to be more ethically-minded than higher income tourists.
- While the majority of tourists believe it is the responsibility of consumers to learn about wildlife trade including souvenirs, women had stronger feelings about consumer responsibility than men.

4.4.3 Environmental Impact

- The environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs is perceived to be high by the majority of tourists, yet Europeans and women perceive the impact to be greater or more detrimental than Canadians and men respectively.

4.4.4 Importation Laws

- Almost half of the tourists claim to know what species are prohibited from importation into their home countries, yet proportionally, Europeans claim to be more aware of prohibited imports than Canadians.
- While the majority of tourists do not know what the penalties are for importing prohibited species into their home countries, university-educated tourists claim to have more awareness of the legal consequences than non university-educated tourists.
- Although the majority of tourists do not know where to find wildlife importation information, married tourists claim to be more aware than single tourists.
- An overwhelming majority of tourists have never made an effort to research wildlife importation information.

5.0 Discussion

This chapter will discuss the main findings of this research to answer the four research questions outlined in chapter one that initially contributed to this investigation and sought to: (a) assess tourists' purchase behaviour with respect to wildlife souvenirs; (b) gain insight on tourists' general awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs; (c) determine tourists' perception of the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs; and (d) develop an understanding of tourists' awareness of the laws pertaining to importing wildlife products.

5.1 Purchase Behaviour

Tourists' purchase behaviour was investigated through three survey questions (Q8, 13, and 19) and the key findings of this section are discussed accordingly.

5.1.1 Wildlife Souvenir Purchasers

The majority of tourists claimed not to have purchased any wildlife souvenirs in Cuba, however, of the minority who did purchase wildlife souvenirs, significant differences were found between men and women, younger and older tourists, and Canadians and Europeans. Women were more likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs than men. This significant relationship between sex and wildlife purchases is consistent with findings of other souvenir studies that found gender differences in souvenir purchases (Anderson & Littrell, 1995; Combrink & Swanson, 2002). However, the significance of women purchasing more wildlife souvenirs than men might simply be symptomatic of women's

tendency to be the more frequent purchasers of souvenirs in general (Anderson & Littrell, 1995) and not necessarily an indication of a stronger preference for wildlife souvenirs.

With respect to age, younger tourists were more likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs than middle-aged and older tourists. Age has been found to be either influential or inconsequential in other studies on souvenir purchase behaviour (see Anderson & Littrell, 1995, 1996; Littrell, 1990). The age-related differences in this study could also be related to previous travel experience, in that, younger tourists would generally be newer to the traveling circuit and may find the novelty of ethnic wildlife items more appealing than middle-aged or older tourists, who are more likely seasoned travelers that have probably 'seen it all before' or are more wary of other factors such as potential implications. In a study by Kim and Littrell (2001) for example, tourists' previous travel experience was found to have a negative effect on purchase intentions of ethnic products, in that, the more times tourists had traveled to Mexico, the less likely they were to buy ethnic souvenirs.

Investigation into potential relationships between international tourists and souvenir behaviour, in terms of souvenir purchases and preferences, appears to be limited. In a study by Gossling et al. (2004) it was concluded that the study sample was too small to statistically determine the relationships between nationality and collecting/buying shell souvenirs in Zanzibar. Reference to a study by Wang et al. (1999) cited in Turner and Reisinger (2001) identified significant cultural differences observed among international tourist shoppers. The results of this analysis show that where international tourists' call

home does affect souvenir purchase behaviour as Canadians were more likely to make wildlife purchases in Cuba than Europeans.

5.1.2 Reasons for Not Purchasing Wildlife Souvenirs

Although there was a broad range of reasons to choose from, the number one reason why tourists did not purchase wildlife souvenirs in Cuba was because nothing appealed to them at the time. This implies that had there been a better selection of wildlife goods available, more wildlife purchases might have been made. This notion, in turn, implies that the rationale for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs for most tourists was based primarily on fashion preferences rather than personal principles. Fashion seems to have been an influential motivator for why tourists refrained from purchasing wildlife souvenirs. For example, young, Canadian, single, and university-educated tourists were all more likely to be dissuaded from purchasing wildlife souvenirs either because of a lack of appeal (and perhaps availability) or a mutual dislike for their style; not because of moral or principled objections to such items. Conversely, women and European tourists were more likely to refrain from purchasing wildlife items because of ethical and environmental principles, respectively, and not fashion-oriented motivations.

With respect to age, fashion seems to be an important element in making souvenir purchase decisions for younger tourists, but other factors might be of greater importance to middle-aged and older tourists. This is not too surprising since youth tend to be more fashion-conscious than their elders with respect to image identity-formation and determining what is considered 'cool' and 'in style' (Amos et al. 1998; Evans, 1989; Workman & Studak, 2006).

The difference in rationale for not purchasing wildlife souvenirs between Canadians and Europeans indicates a disparity in geographical (and likely cultural) values and perspectives with respect to purchasing wildlife products. Reisinger and Turner (2002a) claim cultural differences exist in perceptions, social interaction, expectations, and rules and social behaviour, but that of particular importance are the differences in cultural values. They further assert:

Values are individual attributes that contribute to the development of attitudes, perceptions, needs, and motivations of people. They provide a set of rules for behaviour and are standards of conduct and factors for resolving conflicts and decision making (p. 299 citing Bailey, 1999; Rokeach, 1973; Samovar et al., 1988; Williams, 1968).

In one study, Reisinger and Turner (2002a) found cultural differences between Asian and Australian tourist markets, and in another study, they found Japanese tourists' shopping behaviour and patterns differed from Americans, Europeans, and other Asians (Reisinger & Turner, 2002b). Major factors influencing Japanese tourists' purchasing patterns were their beliefs, values, and expectations. As such, values have been found to be useful marketing segmentation variables, useful in understanding consumers' motives and leisure and travel behaviour, and useful in explaining variations in consumer behaviour of different cultural groups (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a citing Munson, 1984; Pitts et al., 1986).

With respect to making purchase decisions regarding wildlife products in this study, Canadians appear to be more concerned about aesthetics (in terms of appeal), whereas Europeans appear to be more concerned about implications (in terms of environmental concerns). Thus, it is possible that Europeans were less willing to purchase wildlife

souvenirs due to a greater preoccupation with, or value for, environmental implications than for satisfying personal indulgences.

With respect to marital status, the presence of a spouse in a relationship seems to diminish the impact fashion has on making purchase decisions. In other words, single tourists were more likely to be deterred from purchasing wildlife souvenirs because of disliking their style. Thus, perhaps married respondents were affected by spousal influence when shopping or completing the survey. For example, if a married respondent knew his/her spouse liked the style of wildlife souvenirs or was more fashion-conscious, he/she might be more inclined to select another reason for not purchasing these items out of regard for the spouse's fondness for wildlife items or fashion acuity. Single tourists, on the other hand, would generally not have spousal preferences or influences to contend with when making purchase decisions (or completing surveys), and therefore perhaps, could exercise more freedom in expressing their own opinion without offence.

Education also seems to have an impact on non purchase behaviour. The higher the level of education, the more influential the concept of fashion is on making wildlife purchase decisions. The significant relationship between the level of education and reasons for not purchasing souvenirs in this study is consistent with a study by Mason et al. (1984) who also found differences between types of purchases and tourists' education levels. However, why a greater proportion of university-educated tourists dislike the style of wildlife souvenirs more than non university-educated tourists is still unclear. Perhaps university-educated people lead more affluent lifestyles and are more exposed to, or concerned about, fashion trends, and within their social circles, wildlife products are not

considered trendy. With respect to sex and non wildlife purchases, a traditional but contentious view of women as having a different ‘moral voice’ (Gilligan, 1982) or ethos of moral reasoning than men (Harris, 1989; Schminke & Ambrose, 1997), or as being more ethical than men (Glover et al., 2002) might help to partially explain the difference in ethical reasoning for women.

The lack of statistical significance to support legal reasons as a purchasing deterrent is interesting as it suggests that fashion preferences, both in terms of appeal and style, and ecological and moral principles are greater deterrents in wildlife purchasing decisions for tourists than the legalities of purchasing and/or transporting wildlife products across international borders. It is possible that legal implications are not a major deterrent from purchasing since a common consumer perception is that if an item is available for sale in a market, then it must be legal to buy and take home or it would not be so openly available in the first place (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Another likely explanation is that because the tourists in this study were, for the most part, unaware of the legalities of purchasing and transporting wildlife products abroad, it did not cross their minds to consider or be concerned about the potential legal risks involved.

5.1.3 Tourist and Artisan/Retailer Interaction

In a study by Littrell et al. (1994), it was found that tourists use a variety of sources before and during their travels to learn about the crafts of an area. Additionally, Anderson and Littrell (1995) found that women specifically interact with retailers and craftsman in order to learn about the souvenirs they are interested in purchasing. This

study did not find the same result. Less than 30% of the tourists in this study claimed to have made an effort at some point in their travel history to ask artisans or retailers what species a wildlife souvenir was made from, and none of the demographic characteristics had statistically significant differences. This denotes that there were no meaningful relationships between tourists' personal attributes and whether or not tourists inquired about wildlife souvenirs to artisans or retailers.

5.2 Awareness, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Wildlife Souvenirs

Tourists' general awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs was investigated through six survey questions (Q14-18 and 24) and four summary indicators (wildlife preference, artisan/retailer integrity, consumer ethics, and consumer responsibility). The key findings of this section are discussed accordingly.

5.2.1 The Impact of Endangered Species on Purchase Decisions

There were both gendered and geographical differences in how tourists' purchase decisions might be impacted by the knowledge that endangered species were used to make souvenirs. Purchase decisions for the majority of tourists would be strongly affected by the use of endangered species in products, but more so for women than men and for Europeans than Canadians. Since women are typically the more frequent purchasers of souvenirs (Anderson & Littrell, 1995), men might be less concerned with the presence of endangered species due to a general lack in souvenir purchase-interest altogether. Alternatively, women might be more concerned about the presence of endangered species in products because they are believed to be more ethical than men

and ethically-minded consumers have been found to express significant concern for environmental issues (Wheale & Hinton, 2005). However, investigating this proposition is beyond the scope of this research.

While there are studies on cultural differences in tourism and leisure preferences, shopping experiences, and purchase patterns, I could find no evidence of studies on cultural awareness/attitudes/perceptions of endangered species, at least in terms of their inclusion in consumer goods, to provide any pragmatic insight. Thus, the discovery that European purchase-decisions were more strongly affected by the presence of endangered species in souvenirs than Canadian purchase-decisions can only be speculatively attributed to differences in cultural values concerning wildlife. This finding lends itself to the insinuation that Europeans are more sensitive to issues regarding ecology and the environment than Canadians, and confirming this would require more in-depth additional research.

5.2.2 The Importance of Knowing About Endangered Species

This survey question is similar to the previous question in seeking tourists' perception of endangered species, but differs in that it tries to ascertain how important prior knowledge or enlightenment is to purchase decisions. The majority of tourists claimed that it is important to them to know if an endangered species is used to make a souvenir they are interested in buying prior to purchasing. However, knowing this information in advance was more important to Europeans than Canadians. Again, without other research to corroborate with, it is speculated that this finding is also attributable to cultural differences in concern for wildlife.

Additionally, this finding is particularly interesting because it directly challenges the result in section 5.1.3 which found that the majority of tourists have never asked a souvenir artisan or retailer what species a wildlife product is made from. Thus, while tourists claim to be conscientious consumers (in that they would want to know in advance if their actions were somehow contributing to the further endangerment of species), in reality they make little effort in actually finding out. In other words, they do not take advantage of a primary source of information about a product (the artisan or retailer) even though the outcome of such an interaction could significantly affect their purchase decisions. This is somewhat indicative of the clichéd tendency of humans to ‘say one thing but do another’. On the other hand however, it is also possible that tourists refrain from inquiring about important product details to artisans/retailers because of a lack of trust or scepticism. This issue will be discussed in a later section.

5.2.3 Willingness to Purchase an Endangered Species

In a study on souvenir buying intentions by Kim and Littrell (2001), it was pointed out that there are few studies on the effects of tourist demographics on souvenir purchase *intentions*. To amend this reality, this study tried to assess the potential relationships between demographic characteristics and purchase intentions with respect to wildlife souvenirs. Although the majority of tourists claimed they would not purchase souvenirs made from endangered species, Canadians and young tourists were more likely to still consider purchasing such items than Europeans and older tourists respectively. The willingness of young prospective consumers to actually contemplate purchasing products made from endangered wildlife implies that there is either a preoccupation for

personal indulgence or a lack of regard for potential ecological implications (or a combination of both) among young travelers. This is particularly telling since the most influential factor in the decision to *consider* buying endangered species was appeal, again linking the importance of fashion to youth identity and satisfaction.

The finding that Canadians are likewise more willing to consider purchasing endangered species, coupled with the significant geographic findings of the previous two sections, demonstrates that there is an important difference in the way Canadians and Europeans think and feel about endangered species souvenirs. Overall, Canadians appear to be less sensitive and concerned about the presence of endangered species available in tourism products than Europeans.

Akama (1996) states that “each country and/or region in the West has undergone different experiences as regards nature conservation and the appreciation of the aesthetic and ethical value of wildlife” (p 567). Significant scientific, technological, and material development has occurred across North America and Europe over the last few centuries, and to accommodate the new growth, wilderness areas were ‘subdued’ and ‘transformed’ into farms and pasture lands, urban settlements, and transportation networks. As forest lands were cleared, most wildlife vanished, particularly in Europe. Akama (1996) posits, “...as pristine nature areas in the western world dwindled, the value of the urge to conserve the few remaining wilderness areas increased proportionately” (p. 568 citing Graham, 1982; Nash, 1986). Thus, perhaps Europeans tend to be more appreciative of nature and wildlife than Canadians because they can better identify with the implications of loss, both in terms of biodiversity and natural

equilibrium, as a result of the mass overexploitation and development of their natural areas.

5.2.4 The Power to Protect Wildlife from Overexploitation

The majority of tourists perceived consumers, through their purchasing power, as having the most power to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade. However, where tourists differed was how powerful they perceived government and souvenir artisans to be in protecting wildlife. For the first time in this study, younger tourists were not in opposition with the older age groups but in between them; albeit, proportionally closer to the middle-aged group in this case. In other words, it was middle-aged tourists who were more likely to perceive government as having the most power to protect wildlife from overexploitation through trade than both younger and older tourists. The significant difference in support for government between middle-aged and older tourists indicates that there is a notable lack of faith in government as a powerful protector of wildlife among tourists over 40. This in turn suggests that there might be (or might have been) a generational shift in governmental values and principles that is (was) more agreeable to middle-aged tourists than older tourists.

Although both geographic regions recognized the responsibility of consumers in protecting wildlife, Canadians differed from Europeans in believing more of the onus is also on the producers. This suggests that Canadians have a stronger belief that the craftspeople producing souvenirs can be the most helpful to wildlife by not making wildlife items in the first place. In other words, if wildlife souvenirs are not produced at all then there would be none for tourists to buy, and therefore, no harm done to wildlife

populations in order to continually supply the market with wildlife products. Perhaps Canadians are more willing to share the responsibility (or allocate blame) with others than Europeans are, or perhaps they are simply more willing to call attention to the roles and sense of balance of supply and demand economics than Europeans.

5.2.5 Preference for Wildlife Souvenirs

The majority of tourists do not prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs, however, young tourists and Canadians were still more likely to prefer wildlife souvenirs than their counterparts. These findings are consistent with geographic and age-related findings in previous sections of this study that show Canadians and young travelers as being more attracted to wildlife souvenirs than Europeans and older tourists with respect to purchase intentions and purchases made.

5.2.6 Perceived Integrity of Artisans/Retailers

Although both geographical regions perceive souvenir artisans and retailers as having little integrity when it comes to making a sale or sharing pertinent information with customers, Europeans are less trusting of artisans and retailers than Canadians. The difference in regional perception could be due to cultural differences in retailing. Although 'seller-administered terms of sale' are predominant in Western countries, the practice of bargaining is still prevalent in many lower-income countries (Don, 2000). When negotiating parties feel disadvantaged, they may resort to lying, concealment, and/or bluffing to strengthen their position (Volkema, 1999). Thus, differences in culture can affect negotiation style and interpretation of what constitutes ethical behaviour in

retail transactions. For example, in China “retailers are considered out-group people [strangers], with whom customers are more likely to have only a one-shot relationship, so customers do not trust them and are wary of being ‘ripped-off’” (Don, 2000, p. 195). Thus, due to their close proximity to multiple nations with diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds, value systems, and social practices, perhaps Europeans are more skeptical of artisans and retailers because historical events among neighbours have generated a level of uncertainty or the need for caution.

5.2.7 Consumer Ethics

While the majority of tourists claim to be ethically-minded consumers, only income was found to influence tourists’ ethical behaviour. This study found that lower and middle-income tourists claim to be more ethical than higher-income tourists. While no studies were found to support or refute this finding, perhaps a stereotype that wealthier people believe that they can have whatever they want (whatever money can buy) regardless of the cost(s) might provide a partial explanation for the ethical difference by income level.

With many studies reporting cultural differences in consumer ethical perception and behaviour, it was somewhat surprising that this study did not find a significant difference in consumer ethics between geographic regions. Swaidan et al. (2003) claim that “culture is recognized as one of the most important variables influencing ethical decision-making” (p. 176). Furthermore, it has been noted that culture plays an important and influential role in shaping consumer ethics and cannot be generalized to other cultures (Bonsu & Zwick, 2007) because despite different cultures using similar parameters to determine ethical and moral standards, unique culture-specific elements

(characteristics) exist to influence consumers' ethical judgements (Chan et al., 1998). In support of this point, Polonsky et al. (2001) found country-specific differences in ethical orientations among Europeans, and Al-Khatib et al. (1997) found that Egyptian consumers differed in ethical attitudes from Americans with respect to market practices.

5.2.8 Perceived Consumer Responsibility

The majority of tourists believe that it is their responsibility as consumers to learn about the products they are interested in buying. However, women rated consumer responsibility higher than men indicating that the responsibility of consumers to learn about wildlife souvenirs is more important to female tourists than male tourists. Since most tourists believe consumer purchasing power wields significant control and accountability, the difference in gender might be attributable to the fact that women are typically the more frequent shoppers of souvenirs, and as such, are in a position to more readily consider the ecological and social consequences of their actions (Reynolds, 1998).

5.3 Perception of Environmental Impact

Tourists' perception of environmental impact was investigated through one survey question (Q25) and one summary indicator (environmental impact). The key findings of this section are discussed accordingly.

5.3.1 Perceived Environmental Impact of Wildlife Souvenirs

Although the majority of tourists perceive wildlife souvenirs to have a high impact on the environment, women and Europeans were more likely to perceive a high environmental impact than men and Canadians respectively. These results both concur and conflict with findings from other studies on environmental awareness or perception. In one case, nationality was found to be more influential in perceptions of environmental impacts than either education or employment (Baysan, 2001), whereas in another case, country of origin, along with age and education, were found to have more impact on perceptions than either gender or income (Paul & Brad, 1997). Thus, while the significance of geographic region on environmental perception in this study is supported by other studies, the significance of sex is not. Furthermore, this study diverged from a study by Uysal et al. (1994) who found that demographic characteristics accounted for very little variance in environmental concerns compared to trip behaviour and preferences, which were not measured for in this study.

If sex is really an important influence on tourists' environmental perception in this study, then why was it only found to be significant in the summary indicator and not in survey Q25? One plausible explanation is that there was a difference in the way men and women responded to the two inquests. Since the Likert-type scale used for the summary indicator seeks more specific detail by supplying more categories to choose from, perhaps respondents took advantage of being able to more clearly define their exact level of agreement with the environmental statements, which lead to a more variegated, and ultimately a significant, difference.

With respect to geographic region, Europeans and Canadians varied in their perception of environmental impact in both survey queries with Europeans believing the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs as being greater, or more detrimental, than Canadians. This finding is consistent with the results reported throughout this study which reveal Europeans as being generally more aware of wildlife souvenirs and the potential issues and implications involving them than Canadians.

It was somewhat surprising that education was not found to be an influential factor in environmental perception in this analysis, since higher levels of education have been linked to greater awareness of environmental problems among tourists in other studies (see Lindsey & Holmes, 2002; Lothian, 2002; Paul & Brad, 1997).

5.4 Awareness of Importation Laws

Tourists' awareness of importation laws and penalties was investigated through four survey questions (Q20-23) and the key findings of this section are discussed accordingly.

5.4.1 Awareness of Prohibited Wildlife Souvenirs

While it appears that tourists are equally as aware of prohibited wildlife souvenirs as they are unaware, the European traveling public claims to be more knowledgeable about prohibited souvenir imports than its Canadian counterpart. In other words, Europeans claim to have a better awareness of what wildlife species are not allowed to be imported into their home countries than Canadians. The repetitive disparity between the two geographic groups is likely attributable in part to cultural differences but could also be a

result of inconsistencies in educational awareness and/or publicity efforts across both regions. For example, in a study by Gossling et al. (2004), Dutch tourists reported that their government had broadcasted spots on television informing tourists about the negative effects of buying shells, and Italian tourists stated that their travel agency had specifically cautioned them against buying shells while abroad. Therefore, if Canadians are not receiving as much educational awareness about wildlife trade (souvenirs) as Europeans, then this lack of awareness could explain the difference between regions.

5.4.2 Awareness of Importation Penalties

While nearly half of the respondents believe they know what species are prohibited from importation, nearly three-quarters of them do not know what the penalties are for importing endangered species (or prohibited items) into their home countries. It is not certain why there would be such a large difference in awareness between knowing what is prohibited and what the consequences are. Perhaps, the difference is due to the type of message being conveyed in wildlife trade publicity. Wildlife trade publicity initiatives tend to enlighten people about a relatively simple message, what is and is not allowed to be imported, rather than detailing the legal consequences for involvement in illegal or prohibited activity.

Alternatively, due to the introduction of tourist souvenir exemptions in many countries, tourists are not being penalized for importing previously-restricted items, thus, awareness of the ramifications for prohibited activity could be affected by a reduction in seizures. Moreover, whereas large-scale smuggling incidences are occasionally publicized in the media, the seizures and penalties of everyday tourists rarely seem to

make the news, which also reduces the educational exposure of wildlife trade issues to the public.

5.4.3 Where to Find Importation Information

Again, the majority of tourists do not know where to find information on importing wildlife souvenirs, however, of those who claim to know where to find this information, the only meaningful difference was between married and single tourists with the former claiming to be more knowledgeable than the latter. It is possible that married couples are more competent than single individuals about where to find wildlife importation information because they share knowledge with their spouses, broadening their own scopes of awareness and possibly substantiating the old adage that ‘two minds are better than one’.

5.4.4 Effort Made to Investigate Wildlife Importation Information

An overwhelming majority (93.8%) of tourists surveyed in this study have never bothered to investigate wildlife importation information. As such, no statistically significant differences were found among the demographic characteristics in this analysis, which in turn, suggests that tourists in general do not make the effort to research wildlife importation information. This is probably because tourists have never thought about investigating this information (unaware), are not interested enough in it to bother (apathetic), or are uncertain of where to find such information (ill-equipped).

This finding again questions the threat of legal implications on tourists’ souvenir purchase intentions/decisions. One would assume if tourists were genuinely concerned

about the legal consequences of transporting wildlife products internationally that they would make more of an effort to seek this information. The irony is that although there are tourist exemptions for many wildlife items, hundred of thousands of wildlife souvenirs are confiscated annually, with or without further legal consequences (e.g. fines or prison time), and yet tourists for the most part seem unconcerned about the potential risks.

5.5 Implications

Analysis of the inferential data revealed the purchase behaviours, general awareness, attitudes, and perceptions, perception of environmental impact, and awareness of importation laws of the tourist respondents with respect to wildlife souvenirs. Survey results indicated that there are significant differences in the way tourists identify with wildlife souvenirs and that these differences are occasionally attributed to sex and age but frequently attributed to geographic region. The remaining demographic characteristics (i.e. marital status, education, employment, and income) had few meaningful differences. This next section will tie together the main findings of this study within a practical context.

5.5.1 Objections to Wildlife Souvenirs

At the outset, it must be remembered that consuming products made from wild plants and animals is not typically a ‘bad thing’. In fact, the majority of wildlife trade and consumption is legal and sustainable. It is only when trade in wildlife exploits species that are already endangered or becomes environmentally unsustainable (i.e. trading more

species than nature can reproduce or causing other ecological problems) that it usually acquires a negative image and becomes a matter of concern. People can often jump to conclusions on matters without having all or accurate information. Rumours and biased information can be exceptionally misleading and negatively influential, which helps substantiate how the adage 'don't believe everything you read' exists to remind people to be critical and cautious of the opinions and agendas of others, or at least to seek a second opinion on important issues. People can be opposed to trade in wildlife because of moral objections to the treatment, transportation, and/or killing of wildlife for economic gain. Some practices are, or are perceived to be, inhumane (e.g. Harp Seal hunt in Canada) and incense many people to boycott products or lobby for political intervention. Many tourists in this study refrained from purchasing wildlife souvenirs for ethical reasons, however, the ethical particulars are still unknown. Other oppositions to wildlife trade included environmental and legal objections; the risk to the environment or the risk to oneself for consuming such products.

Although it was not the most prominent reason, some respondents in this study did refrain from purchasing wildlife souvenirs in Cuba for legal reasons, likely because they were concerned about what would happen to them if they were caught at the border with prohibited items. However, since many respondents admitted that they do not know what species are prohibited from importation, have no idea what the penalties or consequences are for importing prohibited species into their home countries, and have never bothered to investigate this information, the real threat of legal implications on tourist purchase intentions is questionable. Nevertheless, notwithstanding the other motives, 'legal reasons' is the only cause that could have real personal repercussions for

tourists. Additionally, legal consequences are one of the only wildlife trade implications that are quantifiable in that incidences occur frequently and universally and are usually documented, analyzed, and exemplified (CBSA, 2001). Thus, despite not being the most objectionable excuse in this study, legal implications is still an important factor in wildlife trade and worth further discussion.

Consequences for smuggling and/or importing prohibited wildlife products range from confiscations or fines to prison time or death and vary country-to-country and case-to-case. Smuggling violators caught in lower-income countries are more often sentenced to prison than given fines because of a common lack of financial resources with which to pay the charges (E.W.T. Cooper¹², personal communication, November 13, 2006). On the other hand, although the potential for jail time exists in higher-income countries such as Canada, the reality is often that prison is too costly, and thus, confiscations with or without fines are the most customary punishments, unless the delinquent is a repeat offender of indictable crimes (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Regardless, the embarrassment of being treated like a criminal would also be a major source of humiliation for many tourists caught at the border with illegal items, but if they are convicted, they also suffer the effects that a criminal record has on all aspects of their lives henceforth (e.g. employment, international traveling, credit, and stigma).

When a legal interface does occur at Customs because of questionable goods, the personal reactions vary. The typical tourist response to having his/her souvenirs seized is nonchalance (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006), likely due

¹² Ernie Cooper is WWF-Canada's Director, TRAFFIC & Wildlife Trade. He was consulted for his expertise in the field of wildlife trade and provided valuable information that was otherwise unavailable in academic literature.

to a general uncertainty about particular items being brought back in the first place but a willingness to try or ‘to see what happens’ at the border. Often, these tourists have already wondered if the items they were transporting were ‘wrong’ or prohibited, and therefore, are usually less upset when the goods are confiscated (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). However, if souvenirs are purchased from a store, rather than a market, tourists tend to be more ‘surprised’, ‘indignant’, and ‘angry’ and feel like they are being ‘mistreated’ when their goods are seized (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). The elevated sensitivity to the loss of these items might be attributed to cost: The more money tourists paid for the items the more upset they are to lose them (A. White¹³, personal communication, February 16, 2007). Additionally, how much an item is liked or valued might also account for the increased frustration and outrage expressed by some owners of seized goods. In Canada for example, Customs found owners of cowboy boots made from exotic leathers to be the most volatile individuals when confronted at the border about this particular wildlife souvenir (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006).

With respect to environmental objections to wildlife trade, the majority of respondents in this study perceived wildlife souvenirs as having a significant impact on the environment. Trade in wildlife impacts the environment, but as long as populations are not being overexploited and other ecological threats are not uncontrollable (i.e. invasive alien species, spread of disease, etc.) then the impact of trade is deemed sustainable.

¹³ April White is Environment Canada’s Wildlife Education Officer - Ontario and was consulted for her expertise in wildlife trade education. She provided valuable information about wildlife trade and awareness that was otherwise unavailable in academic literature.

Thus, the tourists in this study who perceive a large environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs are possibly either very forward-thinking and perceptive of the potential implications or are overly critical and wary of them, because ironically, the academic community does not really know what the impact of wildlife souvenirs is on wildlife species. Although research has been conducted on the ecological impacts of commercial and illegal trade in certain species and in certain areas, there have not been any studies on the ecological impact of the trade in tourist wildlife souvenirs specifically.

Most interesting of all, however, was discovering that tourists' primary objection to purchasing wildlife souvenirs was not out of respect or concern for the environment, ethics, or the law, but based on personal dissatisfaction with product selection in Cuba. Therefore, had the selection of wildlife goods in Cuba been better, higher numbers of purchases might have been reported, further insinuating that when it comes to wildlife trade and tourists, it is primarily a 'me-first' (fashion-conscious) attitude.

5.5.2 Tourist Exemption Implications

Despite the lack of empirical research in the area of wildlife souvenirs, many national authorities perceive the souvenir trade in wildlife to be minimal in comparison to the larger commercial and illegal trades, in terms of the quantities involved, the economic benefits, and the environmental implications, simply because the scale of trade is perceived to be smaller (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). This is, in part, why many governments have implemented importation exemptions for certain tourist souvenirs. In situations where enforcement resources are spread too thinly, governments have had to re-evaluate their objectives and adjust their

conservation focus to acquire the maximum value at the minimum cost, or in other words, get the 'biggest bang for their buck' (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007). This has meant that many nations have had to make a decision to focus strictly on the commercial trade in wildlife, conceding that confiscating tourists' 'one-off' souvenirs is not a positive contribution to conservation or the best utilization of limited resources (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007).

Nevertheless, the wildlife souvenir trade should not be dismissed or discounted as being completely harmless or inconsequential. According to tourist-arrival data by the UNWTO (2007), and assuming all tourist purchase decisions are the same as my sample's, nearly half a million tourists (455,000) would likely have purchased wildlife souvenirs in Cuba in 2005 alone. Depletions in local wildlife populations in and around tourist areas have been observed around the world, however, the cause of these depletions cannot always be attributed to the souvenir trade alone as there can be other factors involved (TRAFFIC, 2006b). Because CITES only monitors international trade in wildlife, domestic trade, including selling to tourists, may not always be monitored and consequences not always enforced. Therefore, unless domestic legislation exists to protect local wildlife from overexploitation (and is enforced), there is no global system in place to monitor domestic trade in wildlife until a border is crossed. However, once a prohibited item reaches a border, is recognized as prohibited and seized, it is far too late for not only is the animal already dead but the profit has already been made giving those involved (e.g. hunters, poachers, smugglers) incentive to continue trading. CITES cannot create domestic legislation, it can only insist that nations do so themselves for the greater good of biodiversity and mankind. Therefore, national support and cooperation

are fundamental to the success of the Convention and the conservation of species. Little laws and consequences matter because they may extend to an attitude change over time (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006).

Since the majority of respondents seem not to know what species they can and cannot import, it is not surprising that there are hundreds of thousands (and possibly millions) of wildlife confiscations every year worldwide. In 1995, Environment Canada (the governmental agency responsible for implementing CITES in Canada) seized 211,000 wildlife items at the Vancouver airport alone, of which, 2000 (9%) were personal effects, including tourist souvenirs. Items were seized because they were known to be endangered (either as Appendix I species or Appendix II species without a permit) and their continued unmonitored trade is a threat to the survival of the species. Thus, the tourists who are transporting these prohibited species either 'don't know' (ignorant) or 'don't care' (apathetic) about the potential environmental or legal consequences of their actions. Mentioned previously, many tourists already have a suspicion that items they are transporting might be controversial but are willing to take the risk at the border to see what happens. The attitude might be typified as 'If I get away with it, great; if I don't, oh well'. This casual attitude is indicative of the 'me-first' mind-set touched upon earlier and also reflects the lack of awareness of legal consequences.

Souvenir exemptions were implemented to alleviate the strain of limited resources by reducing the need for permits and monitoring. Without these permits, however, there is no system in place to track exempted souvenir imports, making it extremely difficult to tell if the exemption rule is actually helping or hindering the trade in endangered wildlife

(E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Souvenir exemptions allow enforcement officers to focus their attention on commercial imports. With exemptions, however, there is no way to detect if importation of previously prohibited species (that are still technically endangered) by tourists is on the rise, the decline, or is the same as before the exemptions. Enforcement officers still occasionally screen baggage for restricted goods, targeting tourists via random and deliberate checks of cruises, destination flights, and border crossings, but do not confiscate items unless they absolutely have to (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007).

Regardless, exemptions mean there is the potential that certain endangered species could become seriously depleted in popular tourist areas under the radar and without legal consequence. Furthermore, it should be asked what message is being sent to international tourists – that it is okay to purchase certain endangered species (while not others) as long as it is for personal use and not for profiteering purposes? By granting permit exemptions, authorities are essentially condoning unmonitored trade in certain endangered species for the sake of the bottom line, albeit, while also trying to prevent vast overexploitation of other species. Although the environmental impact caused by wildlife souvenir purchases may be minimal in comparison to other types of trade (i.e. commercial or illegal), there are hundreds of millions of international tourists that travel annually (UNWTO, 2007), spending large sums of money on accommodation, food, transportation, entertainment, and tangible goods (e.g. souvenirs). Thus, the need for public awareness of wildlife trade is essential in promoting responsible tourist consumers and sustainable practices.

5.5.3 Importance of Awareness

Wildlife is a primary source of food, clothing, medicine, and revenue for many people and nations around the world. Selling souvenirs is an important economic resource for many residents in tourism communities, and therefore, large increases or decreases in consumer demand for products can have profound implications on local livelihoods. Moreover, in lower-income countries or regions, wild plants and animals are an obvious (and at times the only) souvenir media. Thus, tourists who purposely avoid *all* souvenirs made from wildlife on the basis that they are perceived to be environmentally harmful, ethically wrong, or legally risky, and not because they simply do not like them, are in reality, negatively impacting the livelihoods of many local residents. Again, this is because the majority of wildlife trade is legal and sustainable and an important (or only) source of income for many tourism destination inhabitants, particularly in lower-income areas.

In Gossling et al. (2004)'s study, many of the international tourists visiting Zanzibar believed that buying shells was environmentally harmful and also thought that it was illegal to import shells to their home countries. In reality, however, it was actually not prohibited to import most ornamental shells to the US or Europe, only to export them without a permit. It is because of incidences like this that it is important that tourists learn about wildlife trade; so they not only know what species are prohibited from importation but understand why they are prohibited, what the potential environmental, economic, and legal implications are, and what this means to them as potential consumers. Having this knowledge could mean the difference to a tourist's legal

freedom, a resident's quality of life, and/or a species' or ecosystem's sustainability.

Drost (1996) captured the need for environmental education best:

Educating and raising people's awareness of the physical and socio-cultural environment are fundamental to achieving sustainable development. Ultimately, people must act responsibly and regulate their own behaviour to bring about lasting change (p. 482).

Makela and Peters (2004) also claim that "consumers who are provided with information on products and services and their rights and responsibilities are likely to make more effective purchases and to resolve consumer problems" (p. 380). Thus, education seems key to affecting consumer behaviour.

Interactions between humans and wildlife (whether alive or dead) are commonplace, universal, and in many cases, a necessity. To preserve the balance of these interactions, human behaviour needs to be affected. To influence behaviour, emotions, knowledge, and value systems need to be affected (Lück, 2003). Fostering environmental awareness through education can potentially protect wildlife, increase visitor awareness and understanding, and promote more environmentally-sustainable behaviour (Orams, 1997). Additionally, fostering awareness about the economic importance of the souvenir trade to many destination inhabitants could likewise help tourists make economically-sustainable (and supportive) choices as well by eradicating the superfluous need to boycott *all* wildlife products and instead promoting the *good* (or acceptable) wildlife souvenirs and products.

5.5.4 Awareness Obstacles

Various media have been used to educate people about wildlife trade, including but not limited to: brochures; signs; posters; kiosks; displays; interpretation; and the internet. The aim of CITES, TRAFFIC, WWF, and certain other conservation organizations is not to eliminate trade in wildlife or discourage tourists from purchasing any wildlife products while abroad. Their aim is to ensure wildlife trade operates at a sustainable level by educating the public about the potential and the real implications of trade, and thereby giving people the knowledge they need to be responsible consumers. “One of the most powerful tools for addressing illegal and unsustainable wildlife trade is to persuade consumers to make informed choices when buying wildlife-based products” (TRAFFIC, 2007, para 6 quoting Xu Hongfa). Thus, the obvious questions to ask are: Are tourists informed? Are they knowledgeable about wildlife products? According to the results of this study, the majority of tourists are uninformed, with Canadians being less informed than Europeans.

Before tourist exemptions were implemented in Canada for transporting wildlife products, Environment Canada was more active in educating travelers about endangered species and wildlife trade (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007). In the past, displays and kiosks were found in some major airports, and brochures, posters, and other publications (see Appendix C) were available at some border crossings and airports (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Canadian Consular Affairs devoted a few pages to prohibited souvenirs and products in its “Bon Voyage, But...” travel publication for tourists. With the arrival of the internet, wildlife

information was posted on certain conservation and governmental websites, such as CITES, TRAFFIC, WWF, IUCN, Environment Canada, CBSA, and European Commission to name a few.

However, since the Canadian exemption amendment in the mid-nineties, emphasis shifted away from the traveler and more onto the commercial transporter. This shift caused much of the existing promotional material (aside from websites) to become outdated, and in some cases, a nuisance. For example, some brochures are still being circulated today that contain outdated pre-exemption information and some major airports want (or have had) the remaining kiosks and displays removed because they occupy valuable advertising space and cause logistical and management difficulties (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007; E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Canadian Consular Affairs reduced the amount of prohibited souvenir information in the Bon Voyage booklets over the past four years, limiting it to a small paragraph in the 2008/2009 edition. The lack of current promotional initiatives in Canada might explain why Canadian tourists are less aware and knowledgeable about wildlife trade than European tourists.

The idea that travel agents could assist in the promotional process by including educational material with tickets was sensible but never materialized because of the perceived administrative burden. Some industry businesses (e.g. hotels and tour operators) have taken initiative and started educating their guests about environmental awareness and responsible tourism. Tour leaders have the unique opportunity to interact directly with a captured audience to disseminate information, encourage questions, and

give feedback (Luck, 2003). In Cuba, for example, a domestic tour company called ‘Cubatur’ displayed posters in some of their offices encouraging tourists to avoid purchasing Polymita shell products because of their threatened status (see Appendix D). While this and other one-off efforts are certainly helpful in spreading the message about responsible consumerism, their consistency, reliability, and reach are unknown and questionable. Thus, distribution is also an issue regarding the dissemination of wildlife information to tourists (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). The lack and inconsistent support and cooperation by industry in terms of the educational message and distribution of information is also problematic because it can lead to misinterpretation and/or exaggeration of actual facts.

Furthermore, many of the brochures and posters available to the public, particularly in Canada, are hidden away in airport Customs offices or are distributed by request only. Thus, unless travelers have a need to visit the Customs office specifically, this educational material goes virtually unseen. The same could be said about the internet: Unless travelers have the inclination to research wildlife souvenirs, few tourists would actually browse the internet looking for this kind of information. Websites are still useful for posting information, but the number of ‘hits’ (visitors to a website or webpage) is often unknown making it difficult to assess utilization and effectiveness (E.W.T. Cooper, personal communication, November 13, 2006). Furthermore, navigating through websites to find relevant information on wildlife trade restrictions can be difficult and time-consuming. Therefore, all of these situations call into question the accessibility of wildlife trade information to the traveling public.

5.5.5 Awareness Responsibility

Without the desired resources to focus on the market-side of wildlife trade, TRAFFIC's current efforts are concentrated on the development of trade policies and regulations. Yet, many conservation agencies and national authorities hold consumers accountable for their actions, despite the current lack of public awareness campaigns. Drost (1996) claims that:

If inculcating sustainable behaviour through education is to be effective, it must be supported, at least in the short term, by regulations. Similarly, if regulations are to be imposed, they should be accompanied by education so that people understand and accept the rules and restrictions being imposed (p. 482).

For example, public education, in addition to a trade ban, were widely credited with reducing demand for ivory, not just supply, indicating that some reversal in consumer preferences is possible with the appropriate mix of awareness and regulation (Fischer, 2004). Thus, it is argued that while governments should be responsible for implementing regulations and enforcing consequences, it is also the consumer's responsibility to make informed decisions about the products he/she purchases and transports internationally (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007).

In order to make informed decisions, however, tourists need to be educated. On their websites, CFIA (2005) and WWF (2003) suggest consumers read labels, ask questions, and request documentation from retailers before making a purchase, but these tactics, though useful, are useless if tourists are unaware of their purpose and importance or of where to find this information. Furthermore, these actions can be futile when retailers

are ignorant or deceitful. In areas where selling tourist souvenirs is a primary (or only) source of income, retailers will often do and say whatever is necessary to make a sale, which can include deliberately withholding important information from customers and even lying to customers about the risks involved. In some instances, retailers have gone to great lengths to create artificial documents claiming an item's legal legitimacy in order to increase the comfort level of interested or hesitant consumers (A. White, personal communication, February 16, 2007). These false documents are of course meaningless and only serve to weaken the bond of trust between consumers and retailers when items are seized. Incidences such as this might partially explain why tourists are sceptical of the integrity possessed by souvenir artisans and retailers. Therefore, since it can be difficult for consumers to tell if they are being given accurate information about a product, the 'rule of thumb' when making any purchase abroad is: "When in doubt, don't buy!" (TRAFFIC, 2003; WWF, 2003, 2004, 2007a).

Public awareness is not only important for protecting wildlife, but also for protecting tourist consumers and destination inhabitants. Since wildlife trade is an important (or sole) economic resource for many people, total avoidance or boycott of all wildlife products can be extremely harmful and is unnecessary. The point of educating the public is not to ban or denigrate wildlife trade, but to advise potential consumers to be cautious about what they are buying by being prepared. Thus, education is needed to send the right message to travelers: That it is, in fact, normally acceptable to buy wildlife products at home or while abroad, as long as caution is exercised. Knowing the facts and having accurate information can help turn *tourist* consumers into *responsible* consumers.

It is not the intention of this study to suggest what promotional techniques and key messages should be publicized, but rather to insist that public awareness, in general, is necessary in provoking attitudinal and behavioural change in consumer practices. Education is an effective tool to increase awareness, however, the availability and accessibility of information are fundamental to successful communication: Messages need to reach their intended audiences to be effective. If people do not see or hear the messages conveyed or know where to find the information, then communication has failed and much effort and resources can have been wasted.

Additionally, appealing to the values of various target audiences is integral to changing behaviour. Since geographic region was found to be such an influential factor in determining tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs, it would be prudent to consider similarities and differences in cultural value systems and marketing strategies in order to successfully reach various nations and consumer groups. Finally, if consumers are being held accountable for their actions by having their wildlife items seized and/or by being fined or sentenced to prison, then it should also be the responsibility of the enforcement authorities to *effectively* educate consumers about their rights and responsibilities before the offence is committed and any damage is done.

6.0 Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to assess tourists' awareness, attitudes, and perceptions of wildlife souvenirs by exploring their purchase behaviour, general awareness, attitudes and perceptions, perception of environmental impact, and awareness of importation laws. A survey was conducted in the resort town of Varadero, Cuba in order to assess the frame of mind of international tourists while abroad. Results indicated that there were significant differences in the way tourists associate with wildlife souvenirs. While age was found to be an influential factor in several cases, it was not overly surprising to uncover generational differences in the way younger and older tourists relate to a topic or issue. Of greater interest were the multiple differences found between Canadian and European tourists.

While both geographic regions appear to be minimally insightful non-wildlife consumers overall, Canadians tend to be more insensitive and untroubled about the potential issues surrounding wildlife souvenirs than Europeans, who appear to be more sensitive and cautious. Specifically, Canadians were more likely to prefer wildlife souvenirs to other types of souvenirs, more likely to purchase wildlife souvenirs in Cuba, more likely to consider purchasing endangered species, less likely to be concerned about the presence of endangered species in products, less likely to know what souvenirs are prohibited from importation, and less likely to perceive a high environmental impact than Europeans. The reason for these differences might be attributable to educational awareness, in that the amount of exposure to educational information (in the form of

publicity) about wildlife souvenirs and trade in Europe might be greater than what is available and promoted in Canada.

For example, visitors to IFAW's (International Fund for Animal Welfare) website have the option of selecting a country (or geographic region) from which to view the website's content (the homepage www.ifaw.org automatically defaults to the United Kingdom). All of the country/region options include a section on "Fighting Illegal Trade in Wildlife" (under the 'Join Campaigns' menu), but only half of the countries/regions (i.e. United Kingdom, Germany, Netherlands, European Union, United States, China, Japan, and Southern Africa) include the "Think Twice: Don't Buy Wildlife Souvenirs" campaign, while the remaining countries/regions (i.e. Canada, France, Russia, India, Asia Pacific, and Eastern Africa) do not. Since viewership of this particular campaign is generally limited to those nationalities/regions for whom the campaign is posted, it is unclear why certain countries/regions are privy to this information and others are not under their own country's/region's content pages (Note: visitors to the site would still be able to view the campaign by selecting other countries/regions on the website's mainpage; if they were so inclined).

Additionally, different promotional *messages* may influence different public perspectives. The IFAW "Think Twice" online campaign takes more of a hard line towards wildlife souvenirs by plainly asking tourists not to buy them. Blatant imagery and subtle hints of wrong-doing and finger-pointing are evident but coddled with helpful suggestions and tips on how to become a more aware, and therefore responsible, consumer. A potential drawback with this campaign is its initial promotion to boycott all

wildlife souvenirs because of the ‘cruel’ ‘damage’ it causes, when later it is admitted that only certain species (i.e. endangered species) are at-risk due to the trade in souvenirs and other products. Other organizations such as WWF and TRAFFIC seem to use a more neutral platform from which to educate their viewers; careful not to denigrate all trade while advising caution when purchasing wildlife products abroad.

As it was mentioned in the first chapter, bias – whether personal, organizational, or otherwise – can lead to inaccurate or misleading information and perceptions, which in turn, can have other unknown but potentially harmful implications. With discrepancies in promotional awareness it is possible to see how certain nationalities or cultural groups might develop different perspectives about wildlife souvenirs based not only on the accessibility of information around them but on the meaning of the messages as well. While the majority of tourists in this study were not wildlife purchasers (at least in Cuba), their reasons for refraining indicate a split in values (i.e. personal satisfaction vs. personal principles). Thus, further exploration into cultural values of wildlife and wildlife consumption seems warranted since geographic region played such an influential role in this study. Additionally, the lack of wildlife trade awareness overall among the tourists indicates a need for public enlightenment in order to protect consumers, endangered wildlife, and destination inhabitants from potential legal, environmental, and economic consequences.

Future studies might benefit from impact assessments of the various publicity efforts implemented in various countries or regions to explore the following questions: What is being done to inform the public about wildlife trade? How have these initiatives

impacted public or consumer attitudes and behaviours? Since geographic region showed to be an influential factor in tourist awareness, attitudes, and perceptions in this study, it would be interesting to analyze and compare individual countries or cultures in Europe, Asia, Latin America, and the South Pacific in order to assess if there are any noticeable differences in the way other international tourists identify with trade in wildlife souvenirs. It would also be interesting to see if there are differences in the way people perceive wildlife products at home as opposed to on vacation.

Furthermore, it would be of utmost interest and importance to conduct localized studies on the ecological impact of souvenirs on species in order to assess the degree of threat the trade in wildlife souvenirs has on various natural environments. Additionally, conducting a study on souvenirs made from wild plants might identify similarities and/or differences in tourist association and may substantiate or challenge the findings in this study. Lastly, the value of this study could be extended to include other factors than demographic attributes, such as previous travel experience, tourism style or activity, and purchasing behaviour.

Just because there is no empirical research to determine what the environmental impact of wildlife souvenirs is does not mean ecological damage might not be occurring. A fundamental gap (and therefore a major priority for the natural scientific community) uncovered by this study is the need for empirical research on the environmental implications of the trade in wildlife souvenirs. Without this data, only assumptions can be made at the risk of unsustainable trade and irrevocable biodiversity loss.

Another priority is to increase public awareness of wildlife trade among international tourists. In order to do this effectively, research on cultural values of wildlife and consumption is needed to determine the best educational/promotional strategies for various consumer groups. Again, consumers wield considerable purchasing power, but making informed choices is not their responsibility alone. National authorities and conservation organizations must take responsibility in educating the traveling public on wildlife trade and the potential environmental, legal, and socio-economic risks involved. This means that resources need to be allocated to fund awareness campaigns that promote sustainable consumer practices in general so that potential damage is not only minimized in the interim but in the future as well. With nearly a billion tourists traveling abroad annually, and an increased demand for wildlife products and a decreased supply of wildlife globally, there is no time to waste on 'ifs', 'maybes', or assumptions. A proactive approach to sustainable wildlife (souvenir) trade promotion is preferable across all disciplines (i.e. environmental, economic, social, legal) to a reactive 'damage control' recovery or salvation crisis.

Bibliography

- Akama, J. S. (1996). Western environmental values and nature-based tourism in Kenya. [Electronic version]. *Tourism Management*, 17(8), 567-574.
- Al-Khatib, J. A., Vitell, S. J., & Rawwas, M. Y. A. (1997). Consumer ethics: A cross-cultural investigation. [Electronic version]. *European Journal of Marketing*, 31(11/12), 750-767.
- Amos, A., Currie, C., Gray, D., & Elton, R. (1998). Perceptions of fashion images from youth magazines: Does a cigarette make a difference? [Electronic version]. *Health Education Research*, 13(4), 491-501.
- Anderson, L. A., & Littrell, M. A. (1995). Souvenir-purchase behaviour of women tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(2), 328-348.
- Anderson, L. A., & Littrell, M. A. (1996). Group profiles of women as tourists and purchases of souvenirs. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 25(1), 28-57.
- Anon. (1978). Trade in wildlife trophies banned. [Electronic version]. *Environmental Policy and Law*, 4(1), 38-39.
- Australian Government Department of the Environment and Heritage. (2005). *Discussion paper on the handling of forfeited live exotic specimens seized for enforcement of Part 13A of the EPBC Act*. Retrieved November 8, 2007, from <http://www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/trade-use/invitecomment/pubs/handling-exotics.pdf>
- Babbie, E. R. (2004). *The practice of social research* (10th ed.). California: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Baillie, J. E. M., Hilton-Taylor, C., & Stuart, S. N. (2004). *2004 IUCN red list of threatened species: A global species assessment*. Retrieved January 27, 2007, from the IUCN Web Site: http://www.iucn.org/themes/ssc/red_list_2004/GSA_book/Red_List_2004_book.pdf
- Baysan, S. (2001). Perceptions of the environmental impacts of tourism: A comparative study of the attitudes of German, Russian and Turkish tourists in Kemer, Antalya. [Electronic version]. *Tourism Geographies*, 3(2), 218.
- Blundell, A. G., & Mascia, M. B. (2005). Discrepancies in reported levels of international wildlife trade. [Electronic version]. *Conservation Biology*, 19(6), 2020-2025.

- Blundell, A. G., & Mascia, M. B. (2006). Data on wildlife trade. [Electronic version]. *Conservation Biology*, 20(3), 598-599.
- Blundell, V. (1993). Aboriginal empowerment and souvenir trade in Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 64-87.
- Bonsu, S. K., & Zwick, D. (2007). Exploring consumer ethics in Ghana, West Africa. [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 31(6), 648-655.
- Bruckner, A. W. (2001). Tracking the trade in ornamental coral reef organisms: The importance of CITES and its limitations. [Electronic version]. *Aquarium Sciences and Conservation*, 3(1-3), 79-94.
- Canadian Border Services Agency [CBSA]. (2001). *CITES memorandum D19-7-1: Guidelines and general information*. Retrieved January 19, 2007, from <http://www.cbsa-asfc.gc.ca/E/pub/cm/d19-7-1/README.html>
- Canadian Food Inspection Agency [CFIA]. (2005). *What can I bring into Canada?* Retrieved January 19, 2007, from <http://www.inspection.gc.ca/english/corpaffr/publications/canada/canadae.shtml>
- Canadian Wildlife Service [CWS]. (2005). *CWS publication: Introduction*. Retrieved February 15, 2007, from http://www.cws-scf.ec.gc.ca/publications/wappa/rpts/2001/index_e.cfm
- Chan, A., Wong, S., & Leung, P. (1998). Ethical beliefs of Chinese consumers in Hong Kong. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17, 1163–1170.
- CIA. (2006). *The world factbook*. Retrieved January 19, 2007, from <https://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/cu.html>
- CITES. (n.d.a). *Species database*. Retrieved February 10, 2007, from <http://www.cites.org/eng/resources/species.html>
- CITES. (n.d.b). *What is CITES?* Retrieved February 10, 2007, from <http://www.cites.org/eng/disc/what.shtml>
- CITES Secretariat. (2005). Explaining Resolution Conf. 9.10 (Rev. CoP13) – Disposal of illegally traded, confiscated and accumulated specimens. [Electronic version]. *CITES World*, (16), 4.
- Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(3), 371-386.
- Cohen, E. (1993a). The heterogeneization of a tourist art. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 138-163.

- Cohen, E. (1993b). Introduction: Investigating tourist arts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 1-8.
- Combrink, T., & Swanson, K. (2000). Souvenir choice and gender: An evaluation of domestic souvenir choice attributes of tourists in the four corners region of the southwest. *2000 Travel and Tourism Research Association Annual Conference Proceedings*, 378-383.
- Cooper, E. W. T., & Chalifour, N. (2004). *CITES, eh? A review of Canada's implementation of CITES under WAPPRIITA*. Retrieved January 15, 2007, from the WWF Canada Web Site:
<http://www.wwf.ca/Documents/ForestsAndTrade/TRAFFIC/CITSEhReport.pdf>
- Cooper, E. W. T. (2006). Personal Communication on November 13, 2006.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Don, Y. L. (2000). Retail bargaining behaviour of American and Chinese customers. [Electronic version]. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(1/2), 190-206.
- Drost, A. (1996). Developing sustainable tourism for world heritage sites. [Electronic version]. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 479-492.
- Environment Canada. (2005a). *About CITES: Appendices*. Retrieved January 30, 2007, from http://www.cites.ec.gc.ca/eng/sct2/sct2_1_e.cfm
- Environment Canada. (2005b). *WAPPRIITA*. Retrieved January 30, 2007, from http://www.cites.ec.gc.ca/eng/sct4/index_e.cfm
- European Commission. (2007). *Wildlife trade in the European Union*. Retrieved February 2, 2007, from <http://www.eu-wildlifetrade.org/html/en/topics.asp>
- Evans, M. (1989). Consumer behaviour towards fashion. [Electronic version]. *European Journal of Marketing*, 23(7), 7-16.
- The Field Museum. (2002). *Rapid biological inventories: Cuba*. Retrieved February 7, 2007, from <http://fm2.fieldmuseum.org/rbi/results.asp>
- Fischer, C. (2004). The complex interactions of markets for endangered species products. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 48(2), 926-953.
- Gibbons, J. W., Scott, D. E., Ryan, T. J., Buhlmann, K. A., Tuberville, T. D., & Metts, B. S., et al. (2000). The global decline of reptiles, deja-vu amphibians. [Electronic version]. *BioScience*, 50(8), 653-666.

- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Glover, S. H., Bumpus, M. A., Sharp, G. F., & Munchus, G. A. (2002). Gender differences in ethical discussion making. *Women in Management Review*, 17(5), 217-227.
- Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of Popular Culture*, 20(3), 135-146.
- Gossling, S., Kunkel, T., Schumacher, K., & Zilger, M. (2004). Use of molluscs, fish, and other marine taxa by tourism in Zanzibar, Tanzania. [Electronic version]. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 13(14), 2623-2639.
- Graburn, N. H. H. (Ed.). (1976). *Ethnic and tourist arts: Cultural expressions from the fourth world*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Graburn, N. H. H. (1977). Tourism: The sacred journey. In V. L. Smith (Ed.), *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism* (pp. 17-31). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Graburn, N. H. H. (1984). The evolution of tourist arts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(3), 393-419.
- Green, E. P., & Hendry, H. (1999). Is CITES an effective tool for monitoring trade in corals? [Electronic version]. *Coral Reefs*, 18(4), 403-407.
- Grey, M., Blais, A., & Vincent, A. C. J. (2005). Magnitude and trends of marine fish curio imports to the USA. [Electronic version]. *Oryx*, 39(4), 413-420.
- Harriot, V. J. (2003). Can corals be harvested sustainably? [Electronic version]. *Ambio*, 32(2), 130-133.
- Harris, J. (1989). Ethical values and decision processes of male and female business students. *Journal of Education for Business*, 64, 234-238.
- Hillery, M., Nancarrow, B., Griffin, G., & Syme, G. (2001). Tourist perception of environmental impact. [Electronic version]. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 853-867.
- Hugo, R. (2000). The wildlife trade: Poacher or gamekeeper? [Electronic version]. *The UNESCO Courier*, (July/August). Retrieved February 10, 2007, from http://www.unesco.org/courier/2000_07/uk/planet.htm
- The Humane Society of the United States. (2007a). *Convention on international trade in endangered species*. Retrieved January 31, 2007, from

http://www.hsus.org/about_us/humane_society_international_hsi/international_policy/treaties/convention_on_international_trade_in_endangered_species/

- The Humane Society of the United States. (2007b). *FAQ about CITES*. Retrieved January 31, 2007, from http://www.hsus.org/about_us/humane_society_international_hsi/international_policy/treaties/convention_on_international_trade_in_endangered_species/faqs_about_cites.html
- IFAW. (2005). *Endangered species and wildlife souvenir FAQ*. Retrieved January 22, 2007, from <http://www.ifaw.org/ifaw/general/default.aspx?oid=177797>
- IUCN. (2006a). *Expert database search*. Retrieved January 29, 2007, from <http://www.iucnredlist.org/search/search-expert.php>
- IUCN. (2006b). *The IUCN SCC red list programme*. Retrieved January 27, 2007, from <http://www.iucnredlist.org/info/programme>
- IUCN. (2006c). *Summary statistics for globally threatened species*. Retrieved January 27, 2007, from <http://www.iucnredlist.org/info/stats>
- Jamieson, S. (2004). Likert scales: How to ab(use) them. [Electronic version]. *Medical Education*, 38, 1217-1218.
- Kent, W. E., Shock, P. J., & Snow, R. E. (1983). Shopping: Tourism's unsung hero(in). *Journal of Travel Research*, 21(4), 2-4.
- Kim, S., & Littrell, M. A. (1999). Predicting souvenir purchase intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38, 153-162.
- Kim, S., & Littrell, M. A. (2001). Souvenir buying intentions for self versus others. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 638-657.
- Lindsey, G., & Holmes, A. (2002). Tourist support for marine protection in Nha Trang, Vietnam. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 45(4), 461.
- Littrell, M. A. (1990). Symbolic significance of textile crafts for tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(2), 228-245.
- Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L. F., & Brown, P. J. (1993). What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20, 197-215.
- Littrell, M. A., Baizerman, S., Kean, R., Gahring, S., Niemeyer, S., Reilly, R., & Stout, J. (1994). Souvenirs and tourism styles. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(1), 3-11.

- Lothian, A. (2002). Australian attitudes towards the environment. [Electronic version]. *Australian Journal of Environmental Management*, 9(1), 45-61.
- Love, L. L., & Sheldon, P. S. (1998). Souvenirs: Messengers of meaning. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 25, 170-175.
- Lück, M. (2003). Education on marine mammal tours as agent for conservation—but do tourists want to be educated? [Electronic version]. *Ocean and Coastal Management*, 46(9-10), 943-956.
- Makela, C. J., & Peters, S. (2004). Consumer education: creating consumer awareness among adolescents in Botswana. [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 28(4), 379-387
- Mason, J. B., & Mayer, M. (1984). *Modern Retailing*. Plano, TX. Business Publications.
- Missios, P. C. (2004). Wildlife trade and endangered species protection. [Electronic version]. *Australian Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*, 48(4), 613-627.
- Notar, B. E. (2006). Authenticity anxiety and counterfeit confidence. *Modern China*, 32(1), 64-98.
- Orams, M. B. (1997). The effectiveness of environmental education: Can we turn tourists into "greenies"? [Electronic version]. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(4), 295-306.
- Paul, H., & Brad, O. H. (1997). Ecotourism: A guide for marketers. [Electronic version]. *European Business Review*, 97(5), 231-236.
- Pearl, M. C. (2004). Wildlife trade: Threat to global health. [Electronic version]. *Ecohealth*, 1(2), 111-112.
- Pennington-Gray, L., Reisinger, Y., Kim, J. E., & Thapa, B. (2005). Do US tour operators' brochures educate the tourist on culturally responsible behaviours? A case study for Kenya. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(3), 265-284.
- Polonsky, M. J., Brito, P. Q., Pinto, J., & Higgs-Kleyn, N. (2001). Consumer ethics in the European Union: A comparison of northern and southern views. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 31(2), 117-130.
- Priskin, J. (2003). Tourist perceptions of degradation caused by coastal nature-based recreation. [Electronic version]. *Environmental Management*, 32(2), 189-204.

- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002a). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts, part1. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(3), 295-315.
- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002b). The determination of shopping satisfaction of Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast compared. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(2), 167-176.
- Reynolds, J. (1998). Methodological problems of intercultural comparisons of retail environments. [Electronic version]. *GeoJournal*, 45(4), 245-254.
- Ripple, W. J., & Beschta, R. L. (2004). Wolves and the ecology of fear: Can predation risk structure ecosystems? [Electronic version]. *BioScience*, 54(8), 755-766.
- Salm, R. V. (1983). Coral reefs of the western Indian Ocean: A threatened heritage. *Ambio*, 12(6), 349-353.
- Salvadori, C. (1981). Zanzibar: What is left of its wildlife? *Swara*, 8, 11-13.
- Schminke, M., & Ambrose, M. L. (1997). Asymmetric perceptions of ethical frameworks of men and women in business and non-business settings. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16, 719-729.
- Sullivan, M. P. (2007). *Cuba: U.S. restrictions on travel and remittances*. [Electronic version]. CRS Report for Congress RL31139: Washington DC.
- Swaidan, Z., Vitell, S. J., & Rawwas, M. Y. A. (2003). Consumer ethics: Determinants of ethical beliefs of African Americans. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46(2), 175-186.
- Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P. E. (2004). A structural model for souvenir consumption, travel activities, and tourist demographics. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42, 372-380.
- Tena, G. (2000). Cuba defends the turtle shell trade. [Electronic version]. *The UNESCO Courier*, (July/August). Retrieved February 10, 2007, from http://www.unesco.org/courier/2000_07/uk/planet3.htm
- Totaro, E. A., & Simeone, A. (2001). Environmental and cultural tourism as a model of an economic sustainable activity: Sensibility and participation of Sannio University students. [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 2(3), 238.
- Townend, J. (2002). *Practical Statistics for Environmental and Biological Scientists*. England: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

- TRAFFIC. (2006a). *About TRAFFIC*. Retrieved November 25, 2007, from <http://www.traffic.org/about/abt.htm>
- TRAFFIC. (2006z). *Our Work*. Retrieved November 25, 2007, from <http://www.traffic.org/work/work.htm>
- TRAFFIC. (2006b). *What is wildlife trade?* Retrieved November 25, 2007, from <http://www.traffic.org/wildlife/wildlife.htm>
- U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. (2006). *Buyer beware*. Retrieved January 19, 2007, from <http://www.fws.gov/southeast/law/buyerbw.htm>
- Turner, L. W., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(1), 15-27.
- UNWTO. (2007). *Tourism highlights*. Retrieved April 4, 2008, from <http://unwto.org/facts/menu.html>
- Uysal, M., Jurowski, C., Noe, F. P., & McDonald, C. D. (1994). Environmental attitude by trip and visitor characteristics: US virgin islands national park. *Tourism Management*, 15(4), 284-294.
- Volkema, R. J. (1999). Ethicality in negotiations: An analysis of perceptual similarities and differences between Brazil and the United States. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Research*, 45(1), 59-67.
- Wells, S. M. (1981). International trade in ornamental corals and shells. *Proceedings of the Fourth International Coral Reef Symposium, Manila, 1*, 323-330.
- Wells, S. M., & Alcalá, A. C. (1987). Collecting of corals and shells. In B. Salvat (Ed.), *Human impacts on coral reefs: Facts and recommendations* (pp. 13-27). French Polynesia: Antenne Museum E.P.H.E.
- Wells, S. M., & Barzdo, J. G. (1991). International trade in marine species: Is CITES a useful control mechanism? *Coastal Management*, 19(1), 135-154.
- Wells, S. M. (1989). Impacts of the precious shell harvest and trade: Conservation of rare or fragile resources. In J. Caddy (Ed.), *Marine invertebrate fisheries: Their assessment and management* (pp. 443-454). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Wheale, P., & Hinton, D. (2005). Ethical consumers in search of markets. [Electronic version]. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 16, 302-315.
- White, A. (2007). Personal Communication on February 12, 2007.

- WildAid. (n.d.a). *Endangered and trafficked species guide*. Retrieved April 30, 2007, from <http://www.wildaid.org/endangeredspecies/index.asp>
- Wood, E., & Wells, S. M. (1988). *The marine curio trade: Conservation issues*. Ross-on-Wye: Marine Conservation Society.
- Workman, J. E., & Studak, C. M. (2006). Fashion consumers and fashion problem recognition style. [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 30(1), 40-51.
- WWF. (2003). *Buyer beware Caribbean*. Retrieved November 25, 2007, from http://www.worldwildlife.org/trade/pubs/caribbean_buyer_beware.pdf
- WWF. (2004). *Buyer beware*. Retrieved November 25, 2007, from <http://www.worldwildlife.org/trade/pubs/FinalGeneralBuyerBeware.pdf>
- WWF. (2007a). *Buyer beware PSA*. Retrieved November 25, 2007, from http://www.worldwildlife.org/trade/pubs/buyer_beware_psa1.pdf
- WWF. (2007b). *Species fact sheet: Illegal and unsustainable wildlife trade*. Retrieved May 3, 2007, from http://assets.panda.org/downloads/wildlife_trade_factsheet2006.pdf
- WWF. (2007c). *Problems: Unsustainable and illegal wildlife trade*. Retrieved January 19, 2007, from http://www.panda.org/about_wwf/what_we_do/species/problems/illegal_trade/index.cfm
- WWF. (2007d). *Wildlife trade*. Retrieved January 19, 2007, from <http://www.worldwildlife.org/trade/index.cfm>
- Yi-Ming, L., Zenxiang, G., Xinhai, L., Sung, W., & Niemela, J. (2000). Illegal wildlife trade in the Himalayan region of China. [Electronic version]. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 9, 901-918.
- Yu, H., & Littrell, M. A. (2003). Product and process orientations to tourism shopping. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(2), 140-150.

Appendix A: Various Wildlife Souvenir Publications and Advertisements

1. WWF/TRAFFIC – “Buyer Beware” PSA



Bring home
not memories,
trouble.

Souvenirs are great. But some items you might buy have harmed endangered species. And, they may be illegal to bring home. Beware of products made with turtle shell, ivory, coral, and some furs and reptile skins.

When in doubt, don't buy!

For a list of products to avoid, visit www.worldwildlife.org/buyer beware

 **TRAFFIC**
NORTH AMERICA









Photo: Sarah Cava-Water

<http://www.worldwildlife.org/buyer beware/>

2. WWF/TRAFFIC and U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service – “Buyer Beware Caribbean”

WATCH LIST

Prohibited imports include


	
	
	
	

Welcome to the Caribbean!

When shopping during your Caribbean trip, be aware that what you buy could affect the very environment you've come to enjoy. Although many wildlife and plant products you see for sale come from sustainably managed populations, you may need permits to take them out of the country or carry them into other countries. If a product is made from endangered or illegally taken wildlife or plants, it could be confiscated and even earn you a fine. Buyer beware — read on for tips on what to avoid, and where to find the rules you need to know before making purchases.

A region of remarkable beauty, the Caribbean is home to six of the world's seven sea turtle species and 14 percent of the world's coral reefs. Nearly one-third of the plants and animals in the Caribbean islands are found nowhere else in the world. Consequently, many Caribbean countries protect their native wildlife under both national laws and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES). This comprehensive wildlife treaty, signed by some 160 nations, monitors and regulates international trade in wildlife and wildlife products, and helps to ensure sustainable trade.

Please support the conservation efforts of Caribbean nations. Learn the facts and ask questions before you buy any wildlife or plant product. By making informed choices, you can also avoid incurring fines, having your purchases confiscated upon departure from a Caribbean country or reentry to your home country, or introducing an invasive species in your home country. If you have questions about a purchase, contact local authorities and/or the CITES Management Authority office. Check the Web sites of the U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service (www.fws.gov), World Wildlife Fund (www.wwf.org/buyer beware), or CITES (www.cites.org).



Stuffed green turtle from Mexico

REMEMBER — WHEN IN DOUBT, DON'T BUY!



Ask

- ✓ What is this product made of?
- ✓ Where did this product come from?
- ✓ Do I need any special documents or permits to take this item home?

Questions about a purchase? Contact local authorities and/or the CITES Management Authority office, or check these resources for the latest information:

www.le.fws.gov
www.wwf.org/buyer beware
www.cites.org

TRAFFIC
— NORTH AMERICA —

TRAFFIC North America
 c/o World Wildlife Fund
 1250 24th Street, NW
 Washington, DC 20037
 Tel: 202-293-4800
 Fax: 202-775-8257
www.traffic.org

U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service
 U.S. Department of the Interior
 Washington, DC 20240
 1-800-344-3453
www.fws.gov
<http://permits.fws.gov>

Printed in 2003
Cover photo: Howard O'Leary/WWF



Buyer Beware! Learn about Trade in these Species



Logan Reed for Wildlife World

Sea Turtles International trade in all sea turtle products is prohibited, and most Caribbean countries ban domestic sale, but poaching and commercial use remain serious threats. Please do not buy any items made of sea turtle, such as tortoiseshell items (jewelry, hairpins, etc.) or leather goods (wallets, belts, etc.). Overcollection has contributed to the decline of these turtles, and now all six species found in the region are endangered.

Corals Many Caribbean countries have laws protecting coral reefs. Dried coral sold in stores as souvenirs, jewelry, and aquarium decorations may require permits or be banned from export.



Tatiana Lorenz/Andrew Stoddart

Shells Many countries now regulate collection and export of queen conch and other shells. Populations of queen conch in most areas of the Caribbean have declined due to intensive fishing for their meat and collection for their rare pearls and their shells, which are sold whole or made into carvings or jewelry.



Camille/Steve Trevisky

Reptiles Reptiles are traded as pets. Their parts, particularly their skins, are used for leather products such as shoes, wallets, handbags, and watchbands. Many products are made from reptiles from sustainably harvested populations, but some species in trade are protected and may be subject to export restrictions.

Birds Parrots make engaging pets, but trade in these birds requires permits. Also be aware that all birds face quarantine when you take them home. Products containing the feathers of exotic and migratory birds may be off limits under international and national laws.



Viktor Novak/Parrots/parrots/TRAFFIC

Insects You can find mounted butterflies, moths, and other insects for sale in the Caribbean, and you may need permits to bring these items home.



Blue morpho butterfly/Carla/TRAFFIC

Plants Plants, such as orchids, cacti, and cycads, may be subject to national and international conservation laws as well as strict pest regulation. Many countries inspect imported plants and require documents certifying that they are pest- and disease-free. Before you collect seeds or buy live plants to bring home, remember that species introduced into new places can become invasive, crowding out and endangering native plants.



Wendell/Steve/TRAFFIC

Caviar If you're on a cruise or visit a duty-free shop, you may have an opportunity to buy caviar. All sturgeon species are protected, and trade in sturgeon meat and caviar is regulated worldwide. Without a CITES permit, you may only bring home 250 grams (about 8.5 ounces) or less of most types of caviar per person per trip.

Clip this card and keep it with you. 

Special photos by Bob & Bev E. Fleming; WWF/TRAFFIC; WWF/Steve Fleming; Bob/TRAFFIC; Howard O'Leary; Andrew Stoddart; Michael DeGroot; Linda M. McMillan

Other Species other wildlife and wildlife products can also be found for sale in the Caribbean. Among these are live monkeys, which are almost universally protected from trade, and products made from spotted cats, such as jaguars and ocelots, whose skins are prohibited in trade.



David Gray/WWF

BUYER BEWARE CARD
Carry this when you travel!

WATCH LIST

- ✓ all sea turtle products
- ✓ certain leather products, including some made from caiman, crocodiles, lizards, and snakes
- ✓ certain live birds, including many parrots, macaws, cockatoos, and finches
- ✓ some wild bird feathers, mounted birds, skins, and some skin products
- ✓ live monkeys
- ✓ spotted cat skin products
- ✓ some corals and coral products
- ✓ certain orchids, cacti, and cycads

<http://www.worldwildlife.org/buyer beware/>

3. IFAW – “Think Twice” Brochure

Think twice before you buy souvenirs

How to have a wildlife friendly holiday

- Don't take part in activities which cause cruelty to animals or which feed poaching – for example having your photograph taken with chained wild animals, trophy hunting, taking rides on sick, overworked horses, donkeys or camels, or visiting circuses or bullfights.
- Do not buy any live animals to bring home. The capture and transport of reptiles, birds and amphibians – many of them endangered – to supply the live pet trade results in 90 per cent of the animals dying. Many more die within their first year in captivity due to owners' lack of knowledge about how to care to their special needs.
- In restaurants, don't eat meat which you suspect comes from endangered species. Such meat is part of the large international bushmeat trade, which is pushing many species, including chimpanzees, gorillas and forest elephants dangerously close to extinction. Animals used are generally killed in extremely cruel and inhumane conditions, and some such meat has also been linked to the spread of serious diseases such as HIV, Ebola and SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome).
- While dining or snorkelling do not stand on, touch, or remove corals or shells. Corals provide critical food and habitat for sea life, are extremely sensitive, and can take decades to recover – if at all. Do support restaurants and reserves which work to preserve endangered species and their habitats and take part in non-consumptive activities such as nature walks and photographic safaris.

What you can do

On holiday:
If you think that you have seen or been offered something made from an endangered species, inform the local police, your hotel management, tour operator and the local tourist board.

Instead, buy souvenirs such as locally made handicrafts of non-animal products that benefit the local community or spend your money on projects that work to conserve habitat and protect endangered species, such as national parks and animal sanctuaries.

At home:
If you think that you have seen or been offered an endangered species product in the UK, contact your local police or (in London) the Metropolitan Police's Wildlife Crime Unit on 020 7230 3441 (www.met.police.uk/wildlife)

Tell your friends and family about the dangers of buying products made from endangered species in other countries.

If you would like more copies of this leaflet or to get involved in IFAW's work, please write to us at 87-90 Abchurch Lane, London EC4N 3DF.

IFAW works to improve the welfare of wild and domestic animals throughout the world by reducing commercial exploitation of animals, protecting wildlife habitats and assisting animals in distress. IFAW seeks to motivate the public to prevent cruelty to animals and to promote animal welfare and conservation policies that advance the well-being of both animals and people.

WHAT ARE YOU REALLY BRINGING BACK WITH YOU?

Help protect endangered species. Think twice before you buy souvenirs.

A deadly trade

What does your holiday have to do with some of the world's rarest animals?

Very little, you may think.

Yet up to 20 per cent of the world's animal and plant species could die out by 2030 – partly because of rampant poaching to meet the demand for tourist trinkets.

In the past 12 months alone, UK Customs have seized many thousands of illegal items made from endangered species packed in tourists' luggage.

Many people are shocked to find out that their holiday memento is actually illegal – especially as these products are often openly sold in supermarkets, hotels and on beaches in other countries.

However, people bringing such items home could face a maximum jail term of up to seven years and an unlimited fine.

So Think Twice before buying your souvenirs. The decisions you make could help ensure that some of the world's most endangered species are still with us long after the end of the holiday season.

If we don't buy, they won't die!

Protecting endangered species worldwide

The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) is an international agreement between more than 165 governments. It aims to protect endangered species of wild plants and animals from over-exploitation by international trade.

Species on CITES Appendix I are seriously threatened with extinction, and have the highest level of protection. Any commercial trade in these species or their parts is prohibited. Among more than 500 species listed on Appendix I are most populations of elephants (ivory), tigers (skins, bones) and turtles (tortoiseshell).

More than 30,000 species are on Appendix II. These species, including seahorses, hard corals and coihars are not believed to be currently threatened with extinction – but could become so. Appendix II aims to only allow international trade in such species where it does not harm the species or individual populations. Export permits are required in order to bring products made from such species back from abroad.

Wildlife souvenirs and the law

Do not buy any items made from Appendix I listed animals, such as:

- Sea turtle shell (tortoiseshell) which may be turned into jewellery, hair combs or sunglasses frames.
- Shaktoshooh skins, which are made from the fur of the very rare Tibetan antelope.
- Skins of big cats such as leopard, tiger or cheetah.
- Traditional medicines which you suspect may contain derivatives of species such as tiger, leopard or rhino.
- Carved ivory items (ornaments, chopsticks, name seals etc). It is illegal to bring new carved ivory into the UK from any country except Zimbabwe – and in this case only with an export permit. Raw (uncarved) ivory is prohibited.

The following may only be bought with the proper permit:

- Any items made from animals on Appendix II, such as hard corals, Queen conch shells, or the skins of many reptile species.
- Caviar (the eggs of the endangered sturgeon) over the weight of 250g.
- Many furs, skins, seeds, butterflies, sea horses, birds' eggs and stuffed animals are completely illegal; others may require permits. Always check.
- Live animals or birds, even if not endangered, require health certificates and must go through quarantine.

For more detailed information on prohibited and controlled products, please see www.ifaw.org or www.cites.org

Remember: it is often hard to tell the difference between endangered and non-endangered species once they have been processed into souvenirs. And whether the final article is legal or not, the production of such items causes suffering to individual animals and reduces wild populations.

Please fix stamp here

Campaigns Department
International Fund for Animal Welfare
87-90 Abchurch Lane
London EC4N 3DF
UK

Please send me more information on IFAW's wildlife trade campaign

I am over 18 (please tick)

Name:

Address:

Signature:

Tel. No:

Email Address:

©2008 IFAW. All rights reserved. IFAW is a registered charity in the UK. If you do not wish to receive more of our news or if you wish to opt out of our other e-mail correspondence, please tick the box []

<http://www.ifaw.org/ifaw/general/default.aspx?oid=177673>


4. IFAW – “Think Twice” Posters (Page 1)



WHAT ARE YOU REALLY BRINGING BACK WITH YOU?

**Help protect endangered species.
Think twice before you buy souvenirs.**






**DON'T
BRING
HIM
HOME
WITH
YOU.**

**Purchasing souvenirs
made from animals
promotes poaching
and is often illegal.**


**Help protect
endangered species.
Think twice before
you buy souvenirs.**

 **IFAW**
INTERNATIONAL FUND FOR ANIMAL WELFARE
www.ifaw.org

<http://www.ifaw.org/ifaw/general/default.aspx?oid=177673>

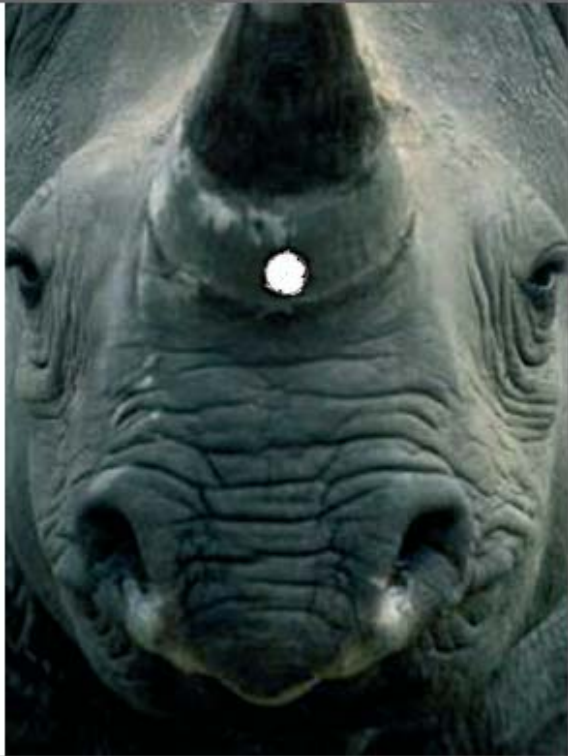
5. WildAid – “When the Buying Stops, the Killing Can Too” Brochure (Selected Parts)

BLACK RHINO




Since 1970 black rhino numbers in the wild declined by 96%.
From 65,000 to around 3,600.

They are poached
because of demand
for their horns.




TIGER



At the turn of the last century
there were 100,000 tigers.
Today it is estimated
that fewer than 3,000
remain in the wild.

Every part of the tiger
is in demand, from its bones
to its magnificent skin.



5. Continued... WildAid – When the Buying Stops... Brochure (Selected Parts)



<http://www.wildaid.org/index.asp?CID=3&PID=45>

6. TRAFFIC/WWF/Ogilvy – Wildlife Awareness Poster - China



<http://www.traffic.org/campaigns/>

7. TRAFFIC/WWF/IUCN – “Are You Committing a Crime? Think Before You Buy”
 Brochure – India (Page 1)

Shahtoosh Shawls: These shawls are tainted with the blood of Chiru, a highly endangered antelope. Three to five Chirus are slaughtered to obtain the wool for one shawl.

Skins, bones, derivatives and products fashioned from them: All trade in skins, bones, claws etc. of Leopard, Tiger and other endangered species, and derivatives such as bear bile and musk pods is banned.



Medicinal plants and orchids: International trade in 29 species of orchids, timber species and medicinal plants in the raw form such as logs, whole plant, crude drugs, oil extract and resinoid is prohibited under the EXIM policy. Only value-added products such as medicines derived from a cultivated variety of specified species may be allowed for export.

Collection or sale of plants or derivatives of Scheduled Species such as Kuthi (*Saundersia costus*), Red Vanda, Blue Vanda, Ladies Slipper Orchid, Pitcher Plant and Bealomes Cycad is prohibited under the Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972.

HOW CAN YOU HELP?

- Do not buy illegal wildlife products. Also discourage your friends and family from doing so.
- If you come across any information on illegal wildlife trade, you may please contact the following:
 - Local forest or police officials.
 - Customs at airports, seaports and other international transit points.
 - Regional offices of the Wildlife Crime Control Bureau at:
 - New Delhi - 011-2338 4556
 - Mumbai - 022-2682 8184
 - Kolkata - 033-2287 8698
 - Chennai - 044-2491 6747
 - TRAFFIC India - 011-4150 4786

For further information contact:
 TRAFFIC India
 WWF-India Secretariat
 172-B Lodi Estate, New Delhi - 110003
 Tel: + 91-11-41504786, Email: traffindia@wwfindia.net
 Websites: www.traffic.org, www.wwfindia.org

Photo credit:
 Cover Page: © TRAFFIC/Carolee, TRAFFIC/India, WWF/Carolee/WWF
 Inside Page: © TRAFFIC/India, WWF/India
 Text: © Carolee/WWF

TRAFFIC India carries out research and provides analysis, support and encouragement to efforts aimed to ensure that wildlife trade is not a threat to the conservation of nature in India.

TRAFFIC
THE WILDLIFE TRADE MONITORING NETWORK

Are you committing a CRIME?
Think before you buy






7. Continued... TRAFFIC/WWF/IUCN India Brochure (Page 2)

Can't resist that **Shahbush shawl** or those **Ivory bangles**? Think twice before buying that exquisite **Coral showpiece!** Illegal wildlife trade threatens the survival of many species. You might be violating the law and also endangering wildlife.

Most of the trade in wild animals, plants and their derivatives is illegal in India under the Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972 which covers over 1800 species. Under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), trade in over 830 species of wildlife is banned internationally while trade in over 33,000 species is strictly regulated.

DON'T BUY TROUBLE!
When you buy or acquire an illegal wildlife product or souvenir, you may actually be buying trouble for yourselves.

Hunting of a protected species of wildlife or possession of and trade in them or their derivatives is illegal and severely punishable under the law. Wildlife products made from endangered species bought outside India would require permits for their import to India. Your souvenirs could be confiscated on your return and you could face strict legal action.

BUYERS BEWARE!
WHEN IN DOUBT-DON'T BUY. Ignorance of law is not an excuse. Given below are some of the most widely traded illegal wildlife products.

Marine products: Reef building Corals, Organ-pipe Corals, Black Corals, Fire Corals and Sea Fans are some of the highly endangered marine species offered on sale in our coastal regions and islands. Many endangered species of molluscs such as Nautilus, Horse's Hoof and Horned Helmet may also be offered.

Live birds: All trade in wild Indian bird species is prohibited. Species on offer may include parakeets, falcons, Hill Myna, Great horned Owl, and munias. For every bird that reaches its final destination, several die en route.

Reptile skins: Trade in skins and other products of protected species of reptiles such as Marsh and Salt Water Crocodiles, Yellow Monitor Lizard, Cobra and Rock Python is banned. Handbags, belts, wallets and other products made of these reptile skins may cost you much more than you bargained for.



<http://www.traffic.org/campaigns/>

Appendix B: Survey Instrument



Please read this first!

The term "wildlife", used in this questionnaire, refers to any wild animals, such as corals, shells, mammals, reptiles, fish, birds, and insects

1

Please answer the following questions by either putting an "X" in the circle that applies to you or filling in the blank with your answer.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age (in years): _____
3. Marital Status: Married Single Other _____
4. Employment Status: Employed Unemployed Other _____
5. Highest Level of Education Completed
 - High school diploma
 - Technical / trade diploma or certification
 - Undergraduate degree
 - Graduate degree (Masters, PhD)
 - Other _____
6. In your country, which of the following best describes your personal income level?
 - Lower third Middle third Upper third
7. What is your country of residence? _____
8. Have you purchased any souvenirs made from wildlife in Cuba?
 - Yes No (Go to question 13)
9. What kind of wildlife souvenirs did you purchase?
 - Jewellery (e.g. necklace, bracelet, ring, earrings)
 - Clothing / accessories (e.g. hat, purse, wallet, footwear, belt)
 - Craft / ornament / carving
 - Food
 - Live pet
 - Other _____
10. What natural materials are your wildlife souvenirs made of? (Select and answer, as best you can, all that apply)

<u>Material</u>	<u>Animal or Species</u>	<u>Number of items</u>
<input type="radio"/> Animal skin →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Teeth / bone →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Coral →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Shell →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Fur →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Feathers →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Whole body →	_____	_____
<input type="radio"/> Other _____		

11. Approximately how much did you pay in total for your wildlife souvenirs (in Cuban pesos)?

12. Why did you purchase these wildlife souvenirs?

(Go to question 14)

13. Why didn't you purchase souvenirs made from wildlife? (Select all that apply)

- Nothing appealed to me
- Cost too much
- Don't like the look or style
- Environmental reasons
- Ethical reasons
- Religious reasons
- Legal reasons
- Other _____

14. Which of the following physical characteristics do you like most about wildlife souvenirs?
(Select all that apply)

- Colour
- Style / design
- Material
- Workmanship / craftsmanship
- Function
- Size
- Portability
- Other _____

15. Which of the following best describes your overall perception of wildlife souvenirs? (Select one)

- Unique
- Rare
- Exotic
- Prestigious
- Authentic
- Natural
- Other _____

16. If you were aware that an endangered species was used to make a souvenir, how would that affect your decision to purchase the item?

- Very strongly
- Strongly
- Not strongly
- Not at all

17. How important is it to you to know if a souvenir that you are interested in purchasing is made from an endangered species?
- Very important
 - Important
 - Not very important
 - Not at all important
18. Would you ever purchase a souvenir if you were aware that it came from an endangered species?
- Yes
 - No
 - Maybe, depends on: (Select all that apply)
 - Cost
 - Who is shopping with me
 - How much I like it
 - Other_____
19. Have you ever asked a retailer or artisan what animal species a wildlife souvenir is made from?
- Yes No Can't remember
20. Do you know what wildlife souvenirs are not allowed to be imported into your country?
- Yes No Somewhat
21. Do you know what the penalties are for importing souvenirs made from endangered species into your country?
- Yes No Somewhat
22. Do you know where to find information about importing wildlife souvenirs into your country?
- Yes No
23. Have you ever researched information about importing wildlife souvenirs?
- Yes No
24. Who do you think has the most power in ensuring wildlife is not being overexploited through trade?
- Consumers (through their purchasing power)
 - Retailers (selling products)
 - Artisans (making products)
 - Government
 - Conservation organizations (e.g. World Wildlife Fund)
 - Other_____
25. How much impact do you think wildlife souvenirs have on the environment?
- High impact
 - Low impact
 - No impact


A Reminder!

The term "wildlife" refers to any wild animals, such as corals, shells, mammals, fish, reptiles, birds, and insects

26. Please put an "X" in the circle that best indicates how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about wildlife souvenirs.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) Wildlife souvenirs generally appeal to me.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b) I like the 'look' of wildlife souvenirs.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c) I look for wildlife souvenirs when I shop.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d) I prefer wildlife souvenirs to other kinds of souvenirs.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e) I would pay more for wildlife souvenirs than for other souvenirs.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f) Wildlife souvenirs should <u>not</u> be available for sale.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g) I think retailers and artisans are only concerned about making a sale.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h) I would believe what the retailer or artisan tells me about a wildlife souvenir.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i) The type of animal that a souvenir is made from would influence my decision to purchase it.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j) I do <u>not</u> need to know if I am buying an endangered species.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k) I would <u>not</u> buy a souvenir if I knew it was made from an endangered species.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l) I think the sale of wildlife souvenirs impacts the environment.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
m) I believe wildlife purchases put animal species at risk of extinction.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
n) It is the consumer's responsibility to know what wildlife souvenirs are legal and illegal to bring home.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
o) Learning about wildlife souvenirs is important for all tourist consumers.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Thank you for your participation. Enjoy the rest of your vacation!

Travelling out of Canada?
If you bring back endangered species (allys or by-products) without the necessary permits you risk losing your purchase, and may be subject to prosecution.
When in doubt, don't!

 Medicines Médicaments	 Furs Peaux	 Elephant Ivory Ivoire d'éléphant
 Live Birds Oiseaux vivants	 Wild Orchids & Cacti Orchidées ou cactus sauvages	 Coral and Conch Corail et coquille
 Crocodiles Crocodyles	 Marine Turtles Tortues de mer	 Scaleskins Peaux de serpent

Vous voyagez hors du Canada?
Rappelez-vous que l'animal ou la plante qui appartient à une espèce menacée - ou encore le produit qui en est tiré - ne peut être rapporté sans les permis nécessaires. Si vous enfreignez cette règle, vous risquez de perdre votre achat ou de faire l'objet d'une poursuite judiciaire.
En cas de doute, ne l'achetez pas!

 Environnement Canada / Environment Canada   

Photo by Jennifer Woronuk

Appendix D: Cubatur – Polymita Awareness Poster (Cuban tour operator office)

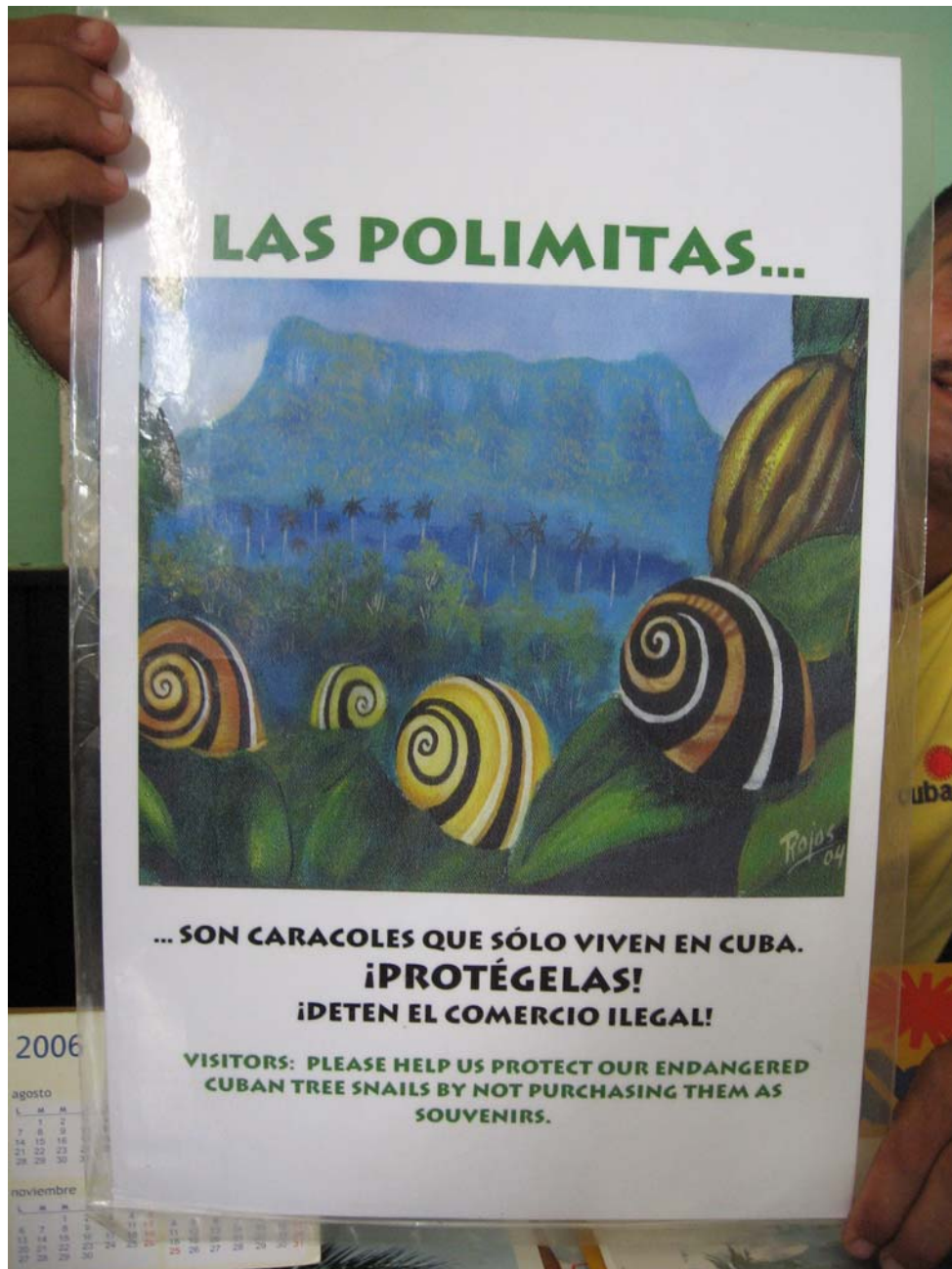


Photo by Jennifer Woronuk