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Outfitting Adventure Tourism: Hunting in South Africa (1890–1939)

Abstract. This paper is an historical contribution to adventure tourism scholarship. The novel contribution is to provide an historical perspective on the organization and outfitting of the products and equipment required for the pursuit of one niche in adventure tourism. The specific focus is the period 1890 to 1939 when South Africa was promoted as a destination for hunter 'sportsmen' and an investigation of the associated clothing, equipment and services required for sportsmen hunters in Africa. The research uses archival sources, most importantly specialized guidebooks produced for British colonial hunters. During the study period the mainly English participants in the adventure activity of hunting in colonial South Africa required an array of different products and services. The supply chains for these products and services were differentiated with many products manufactured abroad and imported for sale in South Africa. Examples were equipment such as specialized clothing, guns and rifles, medical products, and cameras all of which were essential items for hunters. The major equipment produced locally was the wagons which were used as the means of transport for many hunter adventurers into the African interior.

Keywords: adventure tourism, hunting, outfitting, clothing, equipment, supply-chains, South Africa

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1. Introduction

Over a decade ago Walsh and Tucker (2010) examined tourism 'things' and highlighted the material culture commonly associated with contemporary tourism. This is well-illustrated by the use and performance of the backpack in backpacking tourism. It is argued that on their extended trips backpackers depend on special

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equipment to assist them in their travels. Of the range of special equipment the backpack, synonymous with this form of tourism, is the most significant. For many analysts the activity of backpacking tourism has close linkages with adventure travel (Richards & Wilson, 2006). Overall, it has been pointed out that adventure tourism creates several opportunities for the making of an associated material culture as part of that tourism experience (Ryan, 2010). In turn, this gives rise to the growth of a supply chain of adventure tourism clothing and equipment which is available for purchase by participants as well as non-participants (Buckley, 2003).

Cater (2005) argues that the dressing-up and equipment required for adventure tourism activities is a core part of its 'performative nature' as often there is a requirement that participants wear suitable attire for the experience. For example, the wearing — often compulsory — of lifejackets assists participants to get into the roles as adventurers, albeit in some cases it is not always strictly essential. It is against this backdrop that the aim in this paper is to reflect on adventure tourism past and examine the essential associated clothing, equipment and services required for sportsmen hunters in Africa. During the late 19th century and early 20th Southern Africa was promoted as a destination for hunters who were engaged in the niche of 'consumptive wildlife tourism' which involves the killing of wild animals (Tremblay, 2001; Lovelock, 2008; Rizzolo, 2023). This 'sport' was most especially marketed to hunters in Britain where there existed a long-established tradition of the shooting of game on landed estates particularly in Scotland (Durie, 1998, 2008, 2013, 2017). By the late 19th century the British tradition of hunting as sport was internationalized first to Scandinavia, then spread out and diffusing throughout much of the British colonial world (Silanpää, 2002, 2008; Green, 2021; Jones, 2024).

The novel contribution made by this paper is documenting through historical source material the early outfitting of hunters in colonial Africa for clothing, equipment and services. The aim is to provide an initial insight into the under-explored setting of colonial South Africa. The period under investigation is from 1890 to 1939. The reason for this specific period being demarcated for analysis is that for the destination of colonial South Africa it represents the highpoint of promotional activities for the 'sport' of hunting tourism (Rogerson, 2025). The Union of South Africa was formed in 1910 as the result of the amalgamation of the two British colonies of the Cape and Natal with the two Boer Republics of the Transvaal and Orange Free State. Although the focus is on hunting taking place in the territory of South Africa, it must be understood that in the early decades of the 20th century the destination which was promoted as 'South Africa' in tourism guidebooks did not correspond precisely with the geo-political entity of the Union of South Africa. Indeed, what was styled as 'South Africa' also embraced the attractions both of Por-

tuguese-controlled Mozambique, the tourism products in the British-controlled territory of Rhodesia and those of the Bechuanaland territory (Rogerson, 2024).

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The next section situates the study as a contribution to the varied literature concerning adventure tourism. Following a brief discussion on methodology and sources the results section turns to the sportsmen hunters, their activities, clothing, equipment and services.

2. Literature Review

The domain of adventure tourism brings together travel, outdoor recreation, and sport (Xie & Schneider, 2004). Unquestionably, the economy of adventure tourism represents one of the most rapidly expanding segments of contemporary international tourism (Cheng et al., 2018; Sand & Gross, 2019; Giddy, 2020; Nepal, 2020; Makunyi, 2023; Pomfret et al., 2025). Its growth is inseparable from the provision of "much sought after escapes as well as ecological, cultural and economic benefits to destinations" (Janowski et al., 2021, p. 1). For Buckley (2012) any form of tourism that makes tourists experience a sense of thrill and uncertainty during their travels can be associated with adventure tourism. This said, many scholars express concern that the concept of adventure tourism still lacks clarity (Rantala et al., 2018; Rantala et al., 2025). For example, Janowski et al. (2021, p. 1) critiques the 'undefined scope' of adventure tourism and maintains that it "remains an abstract, complex and often incomprehensible phenomenon with dissenting definitions".

2.1. Definitional Debates

The contested definition of the boundaries of adventure tourism goes back over three decades. In one of the first attempts to delineate the scope of the field Michael Hall (1992, p. 141) defined adventure tourism as "a broad spectrum of outdoor touristic activities, often commercialized and involving an interaction with the natural environment away from the participants' home range and containing elements of risk". Some early scholars positioned adventure tourism as part of a wider category of 'ACE tourism', which brought together adventure tourism, cultural tourism and ecotourism (Fennell & Dowling, 2003). Others sought to merge adventure tourism into the categorization 'NEAT', which encompasses nature, eco- and adventure tourism (Buckley, 2000). In another early contribution, Lawton and Weaver (2000) viewed adventure tourism as usually (but not exclusively) associated with natural environments and distinguished by three essential characteristics, an

element of risk, a certain amount of skill by participants, and often high levels of physical exertion. Typical adventure tourism activities, therefore, might encompass hunting, mountain-climbing white-water rafting, skydiving, wilderness hiking, sea-kayaking, caving or orienteering.

In one of the earliest scholarly books published on the topic, adventure tourism was defined more expansively as travel and leisure activities undertaken in the hope that they will produce a rewarding adventure experience (Buckley, 2006a). Pomfret (2006) offered a distinction between the activities of adventure tourism that are land-, water- and air-based. Among the most prominent land-based activities are abseiling, mountaineering, hunting, orienteering, skiing and snowboarding. Water-based activities include kayaking, scuba diving, surfing, white water rafting, and windsurfing. Within the category of air-based activities would be ballooning, bungee jumping, gliding, micro-lighting, and skydiving. Beyond these activities Buckley (2006a) includes a discussion of several others including sailing, off-road safaris, ice-climbing and river journeys. From the foregoing it is evidenced that the boundaries of adventure tourism remain imprecise. Nevertheless, broadly speaking, adventure travel can be distinguished into two sub-categories: (1) destination-driven, in which tourists are interested in the landscape or culture of somewhere unusual, remote or exotic; and (2) activity-driven, which requires travelers to have a certain level of fitness and experience.

By the early 2000s it was evident that adventure tourism was emerging and consolidating as a distinctive, albeit complex field of academic endeavour. Xie and Schneider (2004) asserted that the 'experiential engagement' with mountains, lakes, deserts or wilderness areas made adventure tourism a separate field for academic enquiry. Likewise, Hudson (2003, p. 8) stated that "adventure tourism is increasingly recognized as a discipline in its own right". A distinction was drawn often between two different sub-categories of adventure tourism. Extreme or hard adventure tourism attracts 'danger rangers' and involves strenuous physical exertion with potential risk to life and limb. By contrast, the second category of 'soft adventure tourism' was aimed at 'non-adrenaline junkies and their families' (Shephard & Evans, 2005). These divides in the literature have been retained and modified over the years (Giddy, 2016a, 2016b; McKay, 2017; Rantala et al., 2018; Giddy, 2020).

The most recent conceptualizations of adventure tourism tend to be framed around three dichotomies, namely, 'hard' vs. 'soft', 'commercial' vs 'original', and, 'home vs 'away'. Rantala et al. (2025) contend whilst such differentiations are relevant, new research directions have emerged which centre increasingly on more relational and reciprocal forms of adventure tourism. Indeed, this view aligns with the observation offered by Pomfret et al. (2023, p. 1) that the "landscape of adventure research is changing". In the post COVID-19 environment it has been argued

that the "adventure travel sector has the opportunity for turning its attention away from haphazard development to one that repositions itself as a major partner in contributing to sustainable and mindful travel" (Nepal, 2020, p. 647).

2.2. Scholarship Directions and Adventure Tourism Past

Although international scholarship on adventure tourism dates back several decades, since 2000 it has burgeoned in volume as well as widened in geographical scope (Hall, 1992; Swarbrooke et al., 2003; Buckley, 2006a, 2006b, 2011; Taylor et al., 2013; Cheng, 2018; Cheng et al., 2018; Giddy, 2020; Gross & Sand, 2020; Buckley, 2021; Deb et al., 2023; Kumar et al., 2024; Pomfret et al., 2025). Unquestionably, the burst of academic interest in adventure tourism is a function of the exponential growth in this sector. Along with much of the world, sub-Saharan Africa has recorded a considerable rise in the importance of adventure tourism (Giddy, 2021). In response, across sub-Saharan Africa much research interest has centred on the challenges and potential of adventure tourism for destination development (McKay, 2014; Giddy, 2016a, 2016b, McKay, 2017; Giddy, 2018; Giddy & Webb, 2018; McKay, 2020; Drummond et al., 2022). Although the largest amount of literature concerns South Africa, many studies are pursued on adventure tourism occurring in other African countries (Giddy, 2021; Magwaza & Kajongwe, 2021; Gitau et al., 2023; Makunyi, 2023).

Whilst most international literature on adventure tourism is contemporary in focus there exist several useful contributions which have probed aspects of the history of adventure tourism and of its specific niches. In tracing the development of adventure tourism past, Rantala et al. (2018, p. 540) recognize that its earliest manifestation developed "from an activity of some highly adventurous travellers". Varley and Beames (2025) stress that some of the first narratives of adventure were framed around a masculinist and colonial discourse that emerged around personal growth in outdoor education and recreation. Hunting, masculinity and the frontier are prominent themes in North American historical writings (Green, 2021). According to Jones (2024, p. 261) during the age of Empire the 'sport' of hunting represented "an idyllic terrain of masculinity". For the British leisured classes hunting was an established base of recreation and offered an arena for the performance of 'manly acts' (Durie, 1998; Silanpää, 2002, 2008). Hunting could be styled variously as "a vector of imperial masculine journey" (Jones, 2024, p. 260) and "a potent display of imperial masculinity, conflated through the lens of 'victor and vanquished' (Jones, 2024, p. 262). In colonial Africa, the activity of hunting in the early decades of the 20th century was essentially therefore a 'performance of dominance'; both dominance of nature and dominance in society (Cejas, 2007,

p. 124). Especially for the upper classes of imperial Britain, Africa and its wildlife was considered a natural resource just waiting to be subjugated and that the predatory slaughter of animals was a form of adventure (Beinart, 1990).

Within a wide-ranging overview Cater (2025) traces the origins of adventure tourism and affirms the sector has a long ancestry. Emphasis is given to its evolution in polar and mountainous exploration. Further insights into the historical evolution of mountaineering are presented by Beedie (2015), Musa and Sarker (2019) and on South Africa by Rogerson and Rogerson (2024a, 2024b). The opening up of the Canadian Rockies to exploration by mountaineers was an outcome of the completion in 1885 of the Canadian Pacific Railway (Williams, 2005). The social history of the development of recreational mountain climbing in New Zealand is recorded from the 19th century by Langton (1996). Davidson (2002) shows that the early mountaineering in New Zealand during the late 19th and early 20th centuries was a reflection of Victorian values in relation to the landscape and was combined with a pioneering spirit alongside a growing sense of a distinctive colonial character. Huggins (2021) recovers the beginnings of the sport of rock climbing in the English Lake District, the region where rock climbing initially separated from the sport of mountaineering in the 1880s. Robinson (2007) tracks the early development of the niche sport of ski mountaineering in the Rocky Mountains of Canada during the early 20th century. Drummond et al. (2022) trace the appearance of skydiving as a tourism niche in the economy of Mafikeng-Mmabatho during the apartheid years of 'independent' Bophuthatswana, one of South Africa's pariah Bantustans. In New Zealand the long history of Queenstown, which is often described as the 'world capital' of adventure tourism, is presented by Brown (1997). Besides the commercialization of adventure in mountainous environments the historical growth of adventure tourism is observed in marine environments with the activity of sea angling one example (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2024c; Cater, 2025). Uncovering the niche of inland trout fishing has attracted the attention of historical geographers in South Africa (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2024d).

2.3. Adventure Tourism, Clothing and Equipment

As alluded to earlier, one highly distinguishing facet of the modern adventure tourism industry is that it exhibits strong associations with the clothing, fashion and entertainment industries (Buckley, 2003). It has been pointed out that adventure is 'fashionable' and that whilst adventure tourism may have grown from outdoor recreation "both have now become inseparable from the clothing, fashion and entertainment sector" (Buckley, 2003, p. 133). Adventure tourism is viewed as one part of the marketing chain for the sale of clothing and other accessories to fashion-

conscious urban consumers. Cater and Cloke (2007) isolate both the performativity involved in many kinds of adventure tourism and the complexities of its practices. Cater (2005) demonstrates how an extended consumer goods sector has been spawned by adventure tourism activities. The consumer goods economy has grown as costumes and equipment are part of the participant 'experience' of adventure tourism. Surfing provides one excellent example of an adventure sports activity which is associated with consumer products and equipment. Surfer clothing and equipment manufacturers are part of modern fashion apparel with one prominent example that of the marketing of surf clothing such as branded Billabong T-shirts.

Beyond the surfing example, parallels exist with consumer products being linked to mountain biking, rock climbing, white-water rafting, skiing, snowboarding and several other niches of outdoor adventure tourism. It is observed that snowboarding is used to sell winter street clothing and rock-climbing applied to market a range of lifestyle consumer goods (Buckley, 2003). As is evident, costumes and clothing become an important aspect of 'being there' in adventure tourism. In adventure tourism such outfits are often worn as badges of pride seeking to put on display the individual's adventurous spirit. Dressing in safari clothing — the safari suit — is for many tourists an essential part of the experience and performance of undertaking the modern African wildlife safari (Middleton, 2004). Historically, Buckley (2003) observes also that the hunting and fishing industries stimulated their own clothing styles albeit "these have not penetrated mass urban streetwear markets to the same degree as modern adventure-style clothing" (Buckley, 2003, p. 130).

3. Methodology

The research for this study was undertaken using different approaches. At the beginning a literature search was done of international debates around adventure tourism in order to research the varied dimensions of this fast-surging sector of the global tourism industry. It was revealed that one distinctive aspect of contemporary adventure tourism is that in enacting its performance by participants there are distinguishing features of clothing and equipment which link to different consumer sectors. However, as is demonstrated in the above discussion, most current scholarship and debates relates to present-day issues despite an acknowledgement in Buckley's (2003) work of the imprint of the past. Relevant historical studies are scarce.

The second stage in the research process concerned the collection and application of primary documentary source materials which were obtained from ar-

chives. It has been pointed out that archival research encompasses a broad sweep of activities used to investigate documents and textual material which is the core of historical documentary sources (Ventresca & Mohr, 2017). Amongst the advantages of archival documents created at some point in the relatively distant past are to provide access and insight that might not otherwise be possible to the organizations, individuals and events of earlier periods. This research utilizes primary documentary sources secured from the collections at the two depots of the South African National Library in Cape Town and Pretoria. At the depots of the National Library in South Africa an exploration was undertaken of the collections of material and travel guides which were produced in Britain for travellers to South Africa and often available on the ocean steamships that transported tourists and sportsmen on their voyage from Southampton in England to Cape Town in South Africa.

Of special importance was guidebooks which were directed at the travelling sportsmen hunters (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892). Use is made also of the important Brown's guide which was produced annually between 1893 and 1910 for the use of 'tourists, sportsmen, invalids and settlers'. The historian Mackenzie (2005) views Brown's guide as exemplary of British guide books which were produced in the 19th and 20th centuries as "imperial guides", part of empires of travel. Such guidebooks strengthened their connections with the imperial enterprise "by publishing advertisements of all manner of enterprises" (Mackenzie, 2005, p. 21). Indeed, the annual Brown's guide and other similar gazetteers produced in the 1890s contain an extensive range of advertisements which give information about the products and suppliers linked to the hunting economy. The target audience of these colonial guidebooks for 'sportsmen' were hunters who could "come and experience the still wild nature of South Africa while trying to slay the mighty lion of Africa" (van Wyk, 2013, p. 53).

In addition to these sources emanating from Britain, further useful material was secured through examination of the guidebooks and promotional material produced in the 1920s and 1930s by the South African Railways and Harbours. For a period of thirty years following the establishment in 1910 of the Union of South Africa, Pirie (2011, p. 73) observes that the country's railways agency "was the arch promoter of overseas tourism to South Africa".

4. Results

The findings are organized into two uneven sub-sections of discussion. The first provides the context of the transition which occurred from the mass destruction of wildlife to the introduction of a regime of controlled hunting, the bedrock for the economy of hunting tourism. The second section turns to describe and examine the outfitting recommendations for clothing, equipment and services that were associated with and organized for hunters and their activities in South Africa (Figure 1).

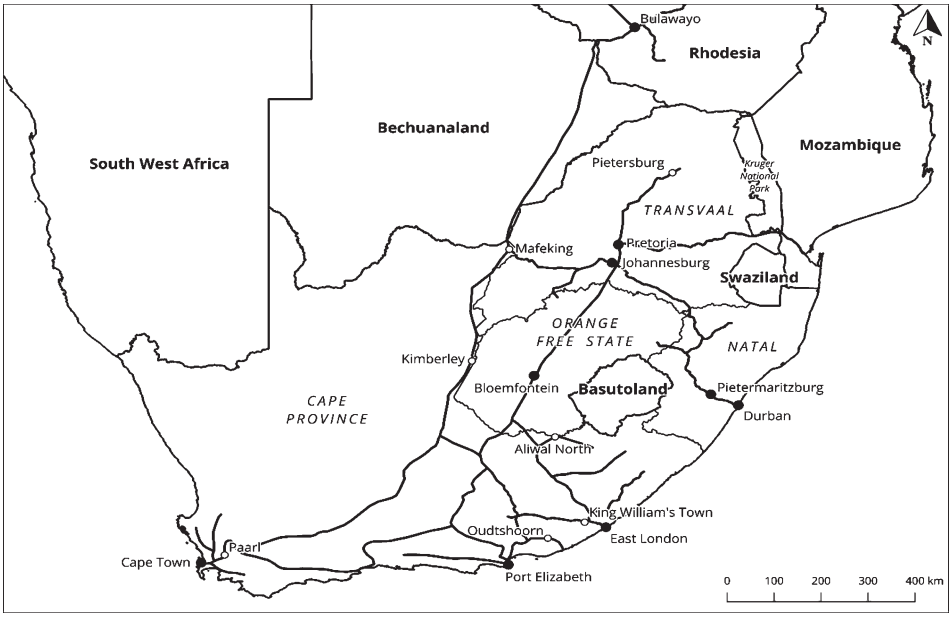

Figure 1. Location of places mentioned in the text
Source: Author

4.1. From Wildlife Destruction to Controlled Hunting

In its 1901 edition of Brown's guide for settlers, tourists and sportsmen it was highlighted that "Cape Colony, a century ago was a wild and little known country… It abounded with game and carnivorous animals" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 79). The first three decades of the nineteenth century saw no major changes. It was recorded by Beinart (1990, p. 163) that "in the 1830s the plains of southern Africa were still teeming with a rich variety of wild animals" albeit "they were not to remain so for long". During the latter half of the 19th century the activities of imperial hunters and settlers resulted in the slaughter of wildlife on a massive scale. The

entry for Brown's guide on 'The Game of South Africa' attributed the destruction of wildlife to "over-greedy hunters, many of whom are quite satisfied if they can fill their wagons with horns and skins, and care not one jot for the extinction of a species" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 234). The mass of these hunters hailed from colonial Britain where for the upper classes "the vogue of hunting art and African trophies influenced interior decoration; hunting and its attendant symbols shaped masculinity and male preserves especially in wealthier households" (Beinart, 1990, p. 165). Overall, the history of the annihilation of wildlife in South(ern) Africa is best captured in the following description from the 1893 Brown's guide in which it was observed as follows:

> When first discovered by Europeans the South African continent swarmed with game in number and variety never equalled elsewhere. From one end of the land to the other the names given by the early settlers to mountain, river and plain attest the presence in those days of a host of noble and beautiful fauna, most of which have wholly disappeared from their former resorts. Lions were common even on the shores of Table Bay… Antelopes of which there were over twenty varieties roamed in millions over the central plains, accompanied by vast herds of quagga and zebra. The wanton destruction of two centuries has worked fearful havoc among these beautiful creatures and now many districts are almost destitute of animal life of any sort (Brown, 1893, p. 76).

The destruction of wildlife populations was most evident in the Cape Colony, the first region of European settlement. By the late 19th century "the depredations of colonial hunters in the African Cape had led to massive reductions in the populations of plains antelope and elephant" (Adams, 2009, p. 128). With the advance of the population frontier into the South African interior there occurred the corresponding drastic reduction of wildlife numbers. For the early 1890s therefore sportsmen were advised by Brown's guide that "only in the north of the Transvaal and the unhealthy districts of the north-east can any of the nobler South African fauna be seen" (Brown, 1893, p. 76).

One response to this slaughter of wildlife was the introduction of certain conservation measures to protect the remaining wildlife populations initially through the establishment of close seasons and of license requirements for hunters. In Southern Africa, as Adams (2009, p. 127) points out, the histories of "sport or recreational hunting and conservation are closely intertwined". For the Cape Colony game regulations were enacted from 1886 with similar regulations following in the three other provinces that would amalgamate with it to become the Union of South Africa in 1910 (Beinart, 1990). With the introduction of regulations to control and 'preserve the hunt' the foundation was laid for Southern Africa to be promoted as

a destination for consumptive wildlife tourism (Rogerson, 2025). This promotional activity occurred most intensively during the period from 1890 to 1939. The typical hunter 'sportsmen' and their kill is illustrated by Figure 2.

Figure 2. Sport hunters in Southern Africa
Source: South African Railways (1912)

Essentially three options existed for the organization and method of hunting for sportsman travellers in the early 1900s (Figure 2). The choices between these options often depended on issues of cost, taste, experience and the extent to which hunters were willing to 'rough out'. The first, most costly and comfortable option required "to bring one's own luxuries, canned vegetables, liquor, tobacco, and the entire camp equipment; to hire a white hunter, who will, of course, act as general guide and transport master. One or two bullock or mule wagons with drivers, leaders, etc, must also be hired, as well as two, three or more shooting horses, ac-

cording to the size of the party together with native groom and native cook, waiter and general servant. In this case the outfitter will supply all servants and their rations, all horse feed and odds and ends of outfit and he will take all risks of loss of animals or gear… This would be equipment for a party of two, and would ensure a trip under the very best auspice" (South African Railways, 1912, p. 85 and 87).

A second option would involve dropping the use of wheeled transport and instead hiring horses "say three for a party of two, a native groom, interpreter and waiter, and about fifty carriers or porters" (South African Railways, 1912, p.87). This would reduce costs and for a party of two by up to 100 pounds per month. The cheapest option would be simply to walk and not to use wagons or horses at all. In this case the "camp equipment, tents, folding beds, tables, chairs, &c., is reduced as much as possible, and only a native cook, interpreter, one or two servants, and about thirty carriers are taken" (South African Railways, 1912, pp. 87–88). All provisions for such trips would be purchased in the local area. Overall, it was recommended to hunters as follows: "It is hard but healthy work to be always on foot, as such an equipment would necessitate, but just as good sport can be had as with the costlier outfit" (South African Railways, 1912, p. 88). This said, the last option was available mainly for sportsmen who travelled to Rhodesia (South African Railways, 1912; South African Railways and Harbours, 1924). By the 1890s decade, for nearly all South Africa the larger game were confined to remote areas such "as to render hunting on foot almost a sport of the past" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, ii). This point was reiterated in later promotional material produced during the 1920s for hunters that "travelling on foot is unusual in South Africa" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924, p. 41).

4.2. Outfitting Hunters

At the outset a strong recommendation made in the guidebooks for British sports hunters travelling to South Africa was to secure *locally* their essential requirements for clothing, equipment and services rather than to bring them in from the home country. The standard guidebook produced for sportsmen going to South Africa provided the following advice on outfitting:

> As a general rule the average traveller or hunter bound for a trip into the Interior of Africa always leaves England encumbered with a vast amount of unnecessary baggage and "knick-knacks", most of which he is ultimately obliged to leave at some of the frontier towns as he gradually advances Northwards and discovers their utter worthlessness. A practical sportsman wants an outfit suitable for wear and tear and not for show, carrying with him not a single article that he is unable to find a use for, solidity

and completeness of equipment being as imperative as lightness of freight. He cannot be too forcibly reminded that the 'roads' he will traverse are hardly in keeping with those to which he is accustomed in England, and if his wagon is too heavily loaded with unnecessaries, the more difficulties will he have to contend with, and, in consequence, the less successful will the trip prove (Nicolls and Eglington, 1892, p. 1).

Figure 3. Advertisement for organisers of hunting expeditions
Source: Nicolls and Eglington (1892)

The essential advice given to hunters therefore was to take advantage of specialist outfitters in South Africa for their purchases of necessary clothing, equipment and other services. Such specialist outfitters were represented at multiple locations. As illustrated on Figure 3 several outfitters advertised their services in the guidebooks. The message 'to buy local' was repeated in Brown's guides with recom-

mendations to use outfit suppliers based in Mafeking, Kimberley and Pretoria. For example, the 1901 guidebook stated that in these towns "nearly everything can be purchased at reasonable prices, and advice may be obtained from the numerous up-country traders, some of whom make the fitting out of hunting expeditions a special part of their business" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 235). Much of the clothing and equipment supplied for hunters, however, was produced in England. This said, the recommendation was given that: "Articles may be rather cheaper in England, but unless the purchaser is thoroughly well acquainted with the requirements of the country, he is apt to buy a good deal of unnecessary lumber" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 235). Sportsmen hunters were encouraged at all times to purchase, if possible, quality first-class products many of which "if used with ordinary care, will generally fetch a good price in the country at the termination of a trip" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 2).

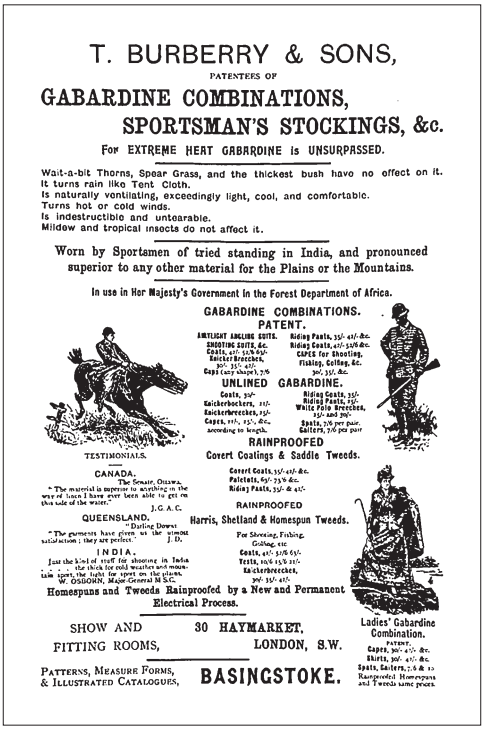

Figure 4. Advertising clothing for hunters
Source: Nicolls and Eglington (1892)

The recommended clothing for hunters was of a very specific character in order to withstand the often harsh African bush environment. One guide recommended

"two or three pairs of well made loose riding breeches, of a material strong enough to withstand the assaults of the numerous varieties of thorns which everywhere flourish so profusely" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 1). Although buckskin was strong it was deemed "almost unbearable in the hot weather" (p. 1). The guidebook made a strong endorsement that "For lightness, combined with great strength, nothing has been found to equal the material known as Gabardine, manufactured by Burberry" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 2). Figure 4 shows the range of attire offered in the 1890s. The range of products offered by this English clothing concern were marketed as appropriate for shooting in thick bush and endorsed as in use by "Her Majesty's Government in the Forest Department of Africa" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892). Brown's guidebooks offered similar advice to its readers of the essential clothing outfit for sportsmen hunters. It described the need for "flannel shirts, mole-skin jackets and breeches or shooting suits made of the material known as 'Gabardine'; thick stockings and socks; leather gaiters; soft felt hat" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 236). Further suggestions included, *inter alia*, "two pairs of shooting boots, well nailed; two pairs of half-Wellingtons and some warm strong gloves. A waterproof ground sheet is a *sine qua non* and it is as well to have four good blankets" (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 236). Over 20 years later these same recommendations were repeated in promotional material issued to encourage international hunters to undertake wild game shooting in South Africa (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924). During the 1920s the only amendments and additions were as follows: "The best head-gear is a helmet or double terai hat. The waistcoat should be provided with a spine-pad for the protection of the kidneys. When stalking, knee-caps are both a convenience and comfort" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924, p. 47).

An array of different kinds of equipment was required to support the hunter sportsmen. It was made clear that amongst the most important was the transport wagon. In 1893 it was recorded that: "The comfort of an expedition into the Interior depends in a great measure on the acquisition of sound tent wagons as well as even-pulling oxen to draw them" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 5). The manufacture of wagons for hunters was distinctive as it was locally South African produced as contrasted with the other imported equipment used by hunters. Nevertheless, the need to seek quality local expertise and producers for wagons was again reinforced. Hunters were cautioned to avoid "being imposed upon with some highly-painted but useless green wood conveyance, the intended purchaser should unreservedly place himself in the hands of some well-known and respectable firm capable of understanding exactly his requirements" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 5). Recommended local firms for wagons were based in Kimberley and Mafeking "all of whom bear an excellent reputation, and appear to have given an excellent satisfac-

tion in this respect" (Nicolls and Eglington, 1892, p. 5). One of these recommended wagon outfitters was Messrs. James Lawrence and Co. based in Kimberley, a basing point for the organization of hunting expeditions into interior Bechuanaland as well as Rhodesia (see Figure 5).

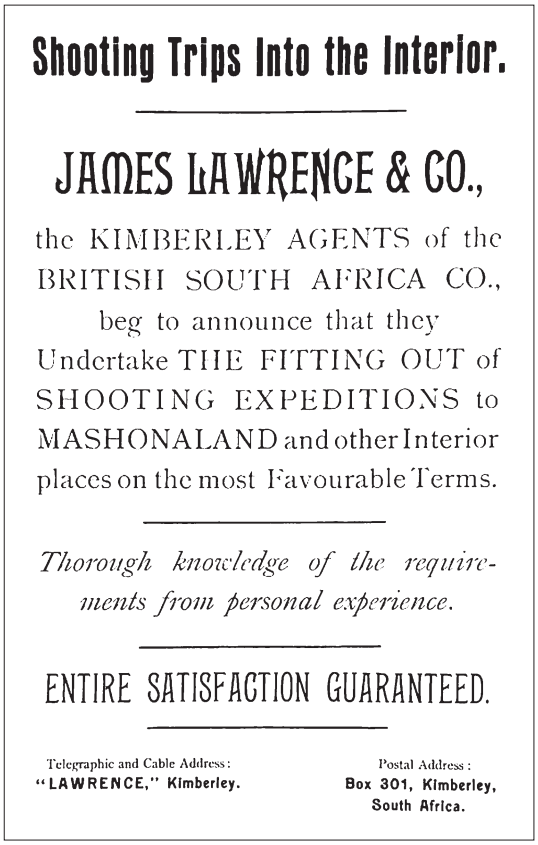

Figure 5. Recommended wagon outfitters
Source: Nicolls and Eglington (1892)

The actual production of wagons was geographically concentrated mainly in the Cape Province and Natal. Hunters were advised that "the best markets for new wagons are Cape Town, the Paarl, Oudtshoorn, King William's Town, Aliwal North, Bloemfontein, Kimberley and Pietermaritzburg" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924, p. 31). Good second-hand wagons could be procured, however, from several centres in the north of South Africa including Mafeking, the basing point for hunter tourists heading into Bechuanaland. In terms of the wagon structure the suggestion was offered that beyond "the ordinary furniture of a tent wagon, some

strong netted or 'holdalls' attached to the rib inside will be found most serviceable, as also a bag made out of a wet ox hide and suspended underneath the bed planks for the purpose of carrying pots, pans etc., while a cover of the same substance will prevent the canvas of the fore part of the tent from being torn apart from thorn-bushes" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 5). In addition to the wagon itself, hunters needed to procure spans of oxen. The recommendation was made for the purchase of 18 trained draught oxen and "if possible 'salted' ie recovered from lung distemper and averaging four to seven years of age" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 5). Horses and a good saddle were further essentials in the organization of hunting parties. Overall, the supply and sourcing of wagons, oxen and horses for the transport of hunters represented another exclusively local South African supply chain.

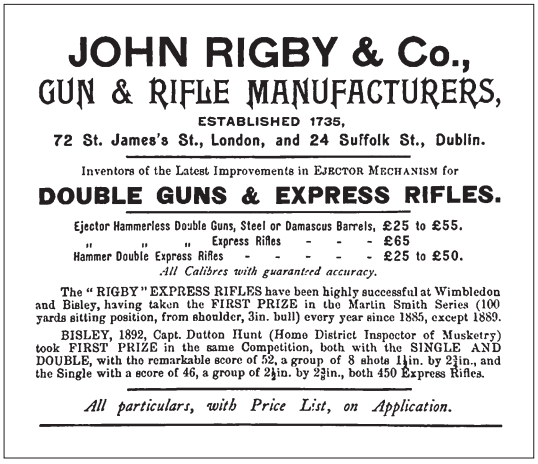

Figure 6. Advertisement of rifle equipment supplier
Source: Brown (1893)

The guidebooks for sportsmen give extensive attention and advice about the most appropriate guns and rifles that might be used. Several suppliers of rifle equipment marketed their products to these colonial hunter sportsmen (see Figure 6). Often the choice of gun depended on the nature and size of game that was targeted with different equipment appropriate for the shooting of game birds, as opposed to large antelopes, elephants or carnivores such as lion. The Brown's guide recommended for the heaviest game "a pair of double No. 8 rifles, weighing 14 to 15 lbs. each and burning 12 to 14 drams of powder with a hardened bullet" whereas express rifles were preferred for the hunting of smaller game (Brown & Brown, 1901, p. 88). The leading makers and suppliers of such equipment were based invariably either in England or Ireland (see Figure 5). By the 1920s it is significant that whilst

the promotional literature for South Africa as a destination for shooting game devoted considerable attention to equipment issues, no discussion and recommendations were offered concerning guns (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924). Indeed, the material dealing with equipment covered primarily issues of comfort at the camp site. The following advice was on offer:

> Sportsmen should not encumber themselves with any camp equipment which is not absolutely necessary, and it is quite wonderful what a little one can be comfortable with on the veld. In most of the big towns shops will be found which cater for hunting parties and the advice of those experienced persons should be taken on the matter. While not hankering after drawing-room furniture on trek there are a few items that add greatly to the comfort of the physical man and which do not take much space and are not heavy. A folding deck chair for each man will be found a great comfort after a day in the saddle and can hardly be called a luxury. Folding stools must be added, and although a folding table may sound sybaritic, it is easily lashed to the side of the wagon, and will be duly appreciated by anyone who has experienced the misery of constantly eating doubled up with the plate on his knees (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924, pp. 36–37).

Beyond these comforts for the campsite, hunters required other equipment to support their activities. Medical supplies (especially quinine as a preventative for malaria), a good camera, and the services of a good taxidermist for the "proper preservation of trophies" were all usually essential items (Nicolls and Eglington, 1892, p. 6). As illustrated by Figure 7 once again it was mostly England-based suppliers of such services which advertised their availability and advantages.

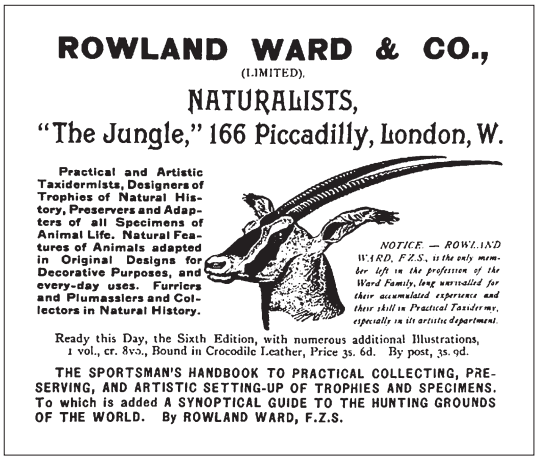

Figure 7. Advertisement for London-based taxidermist
Source: Brown and Brown (1901)

The final 'supply' item required for the organisation of hunting expeditions was that of local labour. Although on the costliest expeditions a white hunter might be locally engaged, for most hunting trips nearly all human support was obtained through recruiting local 'natives' (South African Railways, 1912). Hiring of local 'native' labour for expeditions was for them to act variously in the roles of servant and cook, attendance to and driving of oxen, and to function in the capacity of guides. The various guidebooks which targeted sports hunters offered advice on the issues and challenges around labour recruitment. For example, during the 1890s further to the acquisition of a sound wagon the hunters' guidebooks stressed the importance of obtaining the services of "an efficient and sober driver" but with the caution that often was "a difficult individual to find amongst, perhaps, the most drunken crew in the world" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 6). Potential hunters were advised that provided "the man so engaged has a good reputation, and can be relied upon, the inexperienced will do well to leave all questions as to distances and places to outspan (ie camp) to him" (Nicolls & Eglington, 1892, p. 6). The Brown's guide of 1893 elaborated that the driver was one of two further "'boys', as the natives are invariably called, which are required to look after the oxen" (Brown, 1893, p. 86). This message was repeated over 30 years later in the promotional material prepared by South African Railways and Harbours (1924) and designed to promote South Africa in the 1920s as a destination for hunters. Other wagon boy recommendations included the advice "to take one more boy to see to the cooking, beds etc" and that "any others that may be required are best picked up en route, as they know the country and can serve as guides" (Brown, 1893, p. 87). Specific details were given for the 'rations for natives' which should include one pound of mieliemeal, one pound of meat, one ounce of coffee, two ounces of sugar and half an ounce of salt per day (South African Railways and Harbours, 1924).

5. Conclusion

This analysis extends what Janowksi et al. (2021, p. 1) refer to as the "highly diverse research foci" contained within adventure tourism scholarship. One current theme of interest surrounds the performativity in many forms of adventure tourism and of the associated consumer goods sector which has been triggered around such activities. Historical insight is given in this period-specific study on these contemporary debates. The novel contribution is in providing an historical perspective on the organization of the products and equipment which were necessary for the pursuit of one particular niche in adventure tourism. The study covers almost five

decades beginning in the 1890s and closing at the time of the outbreak of World War 2. This period was the heyday for the promotion of South Africa as a hunting destination and at a time when the activity of consumptive wildlife tourism was being promoted also in other parts of the British Empire (Rogerson, 2025).

An array of specialized guidebooks were produced — initially in Britain and later in South Africa — for the advice of these colonial 'sportsmen' hunters. The mining of this archival documentation provided the methodological base and source material for this investigation which strengthens our understanding of the economic and cultural foundations of early adventure tourism. In a comparative international perspective our findings align with those recorded in other settler-colonial societies that the 'sport' of hunting in colonial South Africa constituted "an idyllic terrain" for the performance of masculinity (cf Jones, 2024). Our results revealed that the cohort of mainly English participants engaged in the 'manly' adventure activity of hunting in colonial South Africa required a wide range of different products and services. Specific focus in this investigation was upon understanding the supply chains for hunters and their expeditions. An interplay was exposed between imported and locally produced articles and use of local labour.

It was evidenced that the hunters used local outfitters and suppliers in South Africa for the sourcing of the majority of required products. The supply chains of these products and services were differentiated with many products manufactured in Britain and imported for sale in South Africa. Examples given were equipment such as specialized clothing, guns and rifles, medical products, and cameras all of which were essential items for hunters in colonial Africa. The most significant equipment produced in South Africa was the wagons which were constructed locally as the vital means of transport for hunter adventurers into the African interior. In addition to these wagons, other goods that necessarily were sourced locally included the oxen to pull the carts and horses which often were used in the shooting of game. Finally, it was disclosed that the colonial adventurer hunters demanded a supply of local 'native' labour for both assistance with wagon travel, as well as in the roles of servants, cooks, porters, and guides. The everyday world and conditions of these marginalized 'native' labourers remains to be documented and is a limitation of the source material used in this study. Nevertheless, as a whole, this analysis of early hunting in the under-explored context of colonial South Africa demonstrates the value of applying an historical lens to explore what Walsh and Tucker (2010) describe as 'tourism things' which are associated with the performance of adventure tourism, past and present.

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Credit Authorship Contribution Statement

CR & JR: conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, visualization, writing — original draft, review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None.

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Wyposażenie turystyki przygodowej: polowania na obszarze południowej Afryki w latach 1890–1939

Streszczenie. Artykuł stanowi wkład w badania nad historią turystyki przygodowej. Nowatorskim elementem jest przedstawienie perspektywy historycznej dotyczącej organizacji i wyposażenia w produkty oraz sprzęt niezbędny do uprawiania jednego z niszowych rodzajów turystyki przygodowej. Szczególnym obszarem zainteresowania jest obszar południowej Afryki w latach 1890–1939, kiedy był on promowany jako destynacja dla myśliwych. Przedmiotem badań jest odzież, sprzęt i usługi potrzebne myśliwym w Afryce. Badanie opiera się na źródłach archiwalnych, w tym przede wszystkim na specjalistycznych przewodnikach opracowywanych dla brytyjskich myśliwych. W badanym okresie uczestnicy tej formy aktywności przygodowej — głównie Anglicy polujący na terytoriach kolonialnych w południowej Afryce — potrzebowali szerokiego wachlarza różnych produktów i usług. Łańcuchy dostaw były zróżnicowane: wiele produktów wytwarzano za granicą i importowano w celu sprzedaży w południowej Afryce. Przykładami takiego wyposażenia były m.in. specjalistyczna odzież, broń palna i karabiny, produkty medyczne oraz aparaty fotograficzne — wszystkie te rzeczy stanowiły niezbędne elementy ekwipunku myśliwego. Głównym sprzętem wytwarzanym lokalnie były wozy, konstruowane na miejscu i stanowiące podstawowy środek transportu wielu myśliwych — poszukiwaczy przygód udających się w głąb afrykańskiego lądu.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka przygodowa, polowania, wyposażenie, odzież, sprzęt, łańcuchy dostaw, południowa Afryka