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Understanding the influence of non-wealth factors in determining bushmeat consumption: results from four West African countries

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Abstract

The meat of wild animals (bushmeat) is consumed extensively in many tropical regions. Over the past few decades bushmeat consumption has greatly increased, threatening the survival of some hunted species and the supply of animal protein to countless numbers of people. Understanding patterns of bushmeat consumption is thus vital to ensure the sustainable use of this resource. Although the economic drivers of bushmeat consumption have been well studied, non-wealth correlates have been poorly considered. Here, we analyse how variables such as age and gender may influence bushmeat consumption in four West African countries, within the Guinean forests (Togo and Nigeria) and Sahel (Burkina Faso and Niger). We interviewed a total of 2,453 persons (1,253 urban, 1,200 in rural areas) to determine frequency of consumption of bushmeat as well as the main species eaten. We found significant differences in bushmeat consumption between rural and urban areas in all four countries. In particular, the proportion of persons not consuming any bushmeat was highest in urban areas. Gender differences in bushmeat consumption were not generally important but young people consistently avoided eating bushmeat, especially in Togo and Nigeria, and in urban areas. The complicated interplay between tradition and evolution of social systems (especially the trends towards westernization) may explain the different perceptions that people may have towards consuming bushmeat in the four studied countries. In addition, we found considerable variation in types of bushmeat eaten, with antelopes and large rodents eaten by the great majority of interviewees, but bats, monkeys, and snakes being avoided, especially in urban settlements.

Key words: Age; gender; Togo; Burkina Faso; Nigeria; Niger; wildlife; species eaten; frequency.

1. Introduction

Terrestrial wild vertebrates are central to the nutritional wellbeing of many rural people, particularly those inhabiting the world's tropical regions (Fa et al., 2002; Golden et al., 2011). This reliance on wild meat is as much a consequence of the lack of alternative domestic meat resources (Mainka & Trivedi 2002; Nasi et al. 2008), as much as it is an attribute of centuries-old cultural traditions (Milner-Gulland et al., 2003). However, although wild animals have been hunted for millennia, their consumption has greatly increased over the past few decades (Maxwell et al. 2016). In West and Central Africa, commercial hunting, especially to supply large urban centres, has risen dramatically, largely driven by a human population growth of 2–3% per year (Nasi et al., 2011). Such intensification of demand for bushmeat will have fatal consequences for many species but particularly large-bodied and slow-growing species if extraction exceeds their replacement rate (Wilkie et al., 2001). Indeed, the decline of some species as a consequence of bushmeat extraction has already been documented for tortoises (Luiselli, 2003) and antelopes (Fischer and Linsenmair, 2001; Grande-Vega et al., 2016; Hema et al., 2017). As a consequence, loss of wildlife may threaten the food security of many marginalized forest foragers, and farmer-forager communities that are isolated from markets and depend on bushmeat as their primary protein source (Eves and Ruggiero, 2001).

Few studies have centred on understanding why people eat bushmeat. Knowing what motivates people to eat bushmeat can help in developing politically acceptable ways to manage wildlife hunting and trading with the aim of halting unsustainable exploitation. Bushmeat may be eaten because it is cheaper or there are no alternatives available in the market place (Apaza et al., 2002; Wilkie and Godoy, 2001), because consumers prefer the taste of wildlife (Chardonnet et al., 1995; Trefon and de Maret, 1999) or to add variety to

the diet and for special social events and occasions (Njiforti, 1996). Despite this variety of possible reasons that may motivate buyers to eat bushmeat, most studies have focused on the socioeconomic background of consumers as the main reason underpinning their choice (e.g. Wilkie and Godoy, 2001; Brashares et al., 2011). Findings show that wealthier households consume more bushmeat in settlements nearer urban areas, but the opposite pattern is typical of more isolated settlements (Brashares et al., 2011). Price and income have significant roles in determining the level of consumption of bushmeat, fish, chicken, and beef (Apaza et al., 2002; Wilkie and Godoy, 2001; Wilkie et al., 2005). Nonetheless, as Brashares et al. (2011) has indicated, household wealth is only weakly linked to wildlife consumption, and thus such a lack of a strong correlation could be explained by the undisclosed importance of other factors. Few investigations have focused on how bushmeat consumption may be affected by non-wealth factors such as age, gender and geographical setting (Hema et al., 2017; Luiselli et al., 2017).

Most published studies reporting amounts of bushmeat consumed and preferences have been based on data gathered within households (see Brashares et al. 2011). These have been useful in determining possible socioeconomic characteristics of a community that may be linked to bushmeat consumption patterns, but are generally costly in terms of time and resources. Moreover, because households can include residents of different ages and literacy - attributes generally linked to contrasting lifestyles and points of view including the perception towards bushmeat consumption (Luiselli et al., 2017) - household surveys are less suitable for exploring the influence of non-wealth factors. In this paper, we use face-to-face interviews to examine the possible links between bushmeat consumption frequency and types eaten relative to the age and gender of consumers as well as the influence of the settlement type, ecological and country setting where they live.

We focus on a large sample of inhabitants of four West African countries found in Sahelian and Guinean forests environments.

2. Methods

2.1. Study sites

We interviewed a total of 2,453 individuals (1,253 urban, 1,200 in rural areas) from 27 separate human settlements in Nigeria, Togo, Burkina Faso and Niger (Fig. 1). Study localities in Nigeria and Togo were located within the Guinean Forests of West Africa (GFWA) region; swamp forest and moist rainforest vegetation zones in southern Nigeria (Niger Delta Environmental Survey, 1998; Oates et al., 2004) and in the deciduous moist forest zone of southwestern Togo (Ern, 1979). Sites in Burkina Faso and Niger were found within the Sahel, in Sudanian and Sahel Acacia savannahs (Thiombiano and Kampmann, 2010).

2.2. Interviews

To obtain information on bushmeat use, we conducted face-to-face interviews using a standardized questionnaire. All data were gathered during 2012-2016. We selected interviewees at marketplaces, roadsides, canteens, restaurants, hairdressing salons, food shops, and other gathering places. We stopped the first person encountered after a given time period (in minutes); the time interval randomly generated by a Random Number Generator. Local scientists (VO, NA, GP, DS, WG, EAE and other students) applied all interviews. All interviewees were informed of the aims of the project and their consent was obtained before proceeding. All interviews were conducted in the local language.

We interviewed persons in urban areas (Ouagadougou, Niamey, Lomé, Benin City, Port Harcourt and Calabar, all cities with more than 500,000 residents) as well as in smaller rural settlements (500 to 40,000 inhabitants). We recorded the interviewees' gender (male or female) and age (≤ 25 years, 26-50 years, ≥ 51 years) but not their names (St. John, 2010; Nuno et al., 2014; Luiselli et al., 2017). To avoid non-independence of the data, we never interviewed two persons of the same family or those living in the same house, even if they were not relatives (see also Hema et al., 2017, for similar procedure).

Interviewees were asked the following two main questions: (1) Do you like eating bushmeat? (2) If yes, how often do you eat bushmeat? Interviewees would then be asked if they ate bushmeat frequently (at least once a week), rarely (about once per month or less) or never. Persons who answered that they consumed bushmeat only occasionally were then asked whether they selected the type of animal orwhether they would just buy/eat whatever kind of bushmeat was available.

2.3. Statistical analyses

We employed Generalized Linear Models (GLZs) to determine the relationship between bushmeat consumption frequency and site (rural versus urban), gender (male/female) and age classes (three categories) (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). The codes for the variables used in the GLZs are given in Appendix 1. In the model, the response "never eat bushmeat" was the dependent variable (i.e. consumption data were converted into a binary variable, 1 = eat (often or rarely) and 0= never eat bushmeat) and the identity of the link function and a normal distribution of error were used (McCullagh and Nelder, 1989). Three age categories were used for all analyses: persons aged less than 25, aged less than 50, and aged 51 years or more. In the GLZ models, a stepwise forward regression

procedure was used to test the statistical significance of each variable in turn, and variables were excluded when they did not correlate significantly with the dependent variable (Wald test $P > 0.05$).

To explore deviance and hierarchical partitioning, the selected variables were analyzed in order to determine the comparative influence of each variable (Borcard et al., 1992). The decomposition of the variation into subsets of explanatory variables was carried out by means of a partial regression analysis (Legendre and Legendre, 1998).

Frequency differences between groups of interviewed people were analyzed using the χ^2 test, for comparing both differences among frequently-eating, rarely-eating and non-eating bushmeat respondents, and for determining differences in terms of type of bushmeat eaten. The statistical software PASW 11.0 was used for all analyses, and alpha was set at 5%.

3. Results

3.1. General patterns

A summary of the data gathered for this study is shown in Table 1, the raw dataset is given in Appendix 2. In general terms, bushmeat was consumed more often by rural than urban interviewees in all countries (Fig. 2). An average total of 70.3 ± 15.7% of rural respondents answered that they ate bushmeat (either eaten rarely or often) in contrast to only 42.8 ± 19.0% of urban interviewees. In all countries more rural than urban respondents ate bushmeat; 1.59 times more in Niger, 1.26 times more in Nigeria, 0.46 times in Togo and 0.14 times in Burkina Faso.

A general GLZ model using data from all countries pooled and type of bushmeat eaten as the dependent variable showed that, the probability of eating ungulates or birds

was significantly affected by gender or age of the respondents respectively, while the eating of monkeys, bats, carnivores, crocodiles, snakes and turtles was influenced by the age of the respondents and their urban/rural location (Table 2).

Significant differences in responses between interviewees in Guinean forests and the Sahel region appeared. Age classes, followed by urban/rural location, accounted for the strongest pure effect in the Sahelian localities with gender explaining only a very small proportion of the variance (Fig. 3). Within the Guinean forest localities, urban/rural location was the predominant effect, age had a lesser relevance in terms of the explained variance, but gender had almost no effect (Fig. 3).

We found a significant effect of distance (in km) of the interviewee to the nearest urban area; the probability of never-eating bushmeat increased in Sahelian countries, but not in Guinean forest region countries (for Sahel: GLZ estimate = 6.56, standard error = 1.34, Wald = 24.0, $P < 0.0001$; for age classes: estimate = -7.62, standard error = 2.32, Wald = 10.79, $P < 0.001$; for Guinean forests: in all cases $P > 0.165$).

3.2. Country effects

Our GLZ model revealed that effect of country on bushmeat consumed were relatively minor (Table 2). Nonetheless, country had a statistical effect on the consumption of primates, with people from the Guinean Forests countries being more likely to eat monkeys than those in the Sahel (Table 2). Thus, apart from primates, there were no other statistical differences found between Guinean forest and Sahelian country sites in terms of the probability of consuming other types of bushmeat.

Overall, there were no significant differences between countries (in all cases, at least $P > 0.225$ at χ^2 test) in the proportion of respondents who declared that they never

193 ate bushmeat (Table 3) as well as in those that declared frequently eating bushmeat (Table
194 4). However, there were clear confounding effects of age, gender and urban/rural location
195 on the pure effect of the country (see below). Overall, patterns for the frequency of 'often-
196 eaten-bushmeat' responses were more consistent among countries than in the 'never-
197 eating-bushmeat' answers (Table 4).

198 In Togo, there was a significant effect of age in urban and rural areas; the frequency
199 of respondents never-eating bushmeat declined significantly with age in both locations
200 (Table 3). No effect of gender was found, but the differences between rural and urban
201 areas depended on the strength of the frequency decreases of never-eating-bushmeat
202 respondents in these two locations, i.e. rural and urban people in Togo tended to respond
203 similarly. In Nigeria (Table 3), there was no effect of age in urban areas (people do not eat
204 bushmeat in general) but in rural areas (only young people did not eat bushmeat). In
205 addition, there was a significant effect of gender in urban areas, with women avoiding
206 eating bushmeat more than men. The overall differences between rural and urban areas
207 were significant for both gender and age (Tables 3 and 4). In Burkina Faso, there was a
208 significant effect of age in urban areas (more young people did not eat bushmeat) but not
209 for rural areas, where people do generally eat bushmeat independent of their age (Tables 3
210 and 4). In Niger, there was only a significant effect of age, with more young people
211 responding that they would never eat bushmeat compared to older people, in both urban
212 and rural locations (Table 3).

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3.3. Age effects

Our GLZ model revealed that the age of the interviewees affected the probability of consuming primates, bats, carnivores, crocodiles, snakes and chelonians, in all cases older people were more likely to consume these animals than younger people (Table 2).

Overall, age had a significantly stronger effect on the likelihood of consuming bushmeat in the Sahelian region compared to the Guinean forest region (Fig. 3). Nonetheless, the tendency was the same in both regions: young people tended to never or very rarely consume bushmeat significantly more than people of >25 years age ($P < 0.001$ at χ^2 test).

3.4. Gender effects

Overall, gender effects were negligible in both Sahelian and Guinean forests regions, and contributed little to the hierarchical variance partitioning in the interview dataset (Figure 3). Nonetheless, some effects of gender were detected in the attitude of consuming a few types of bushmeat as well as in a few local contexts. Indeed, although most people ate ungulates and rodents, there were significant effects of gender on the consumption of these animals, with men being more likely to eat them than women (Table 2). In addition, females tended to avoid eating bushmeat more frequently than males in some countries such as Nigeria. However, this was not a pure gender effect, as it was mediated by age and rural/urban condition in a rather complicated way (Tables 3 and 4). Overall, the 'often-eating-bushmeat' response was especially linked to men in either Guinean forests (e.g.Togo) or Sahel (e.g. Burkina Faso) regions.

3.5. Rural versus urban

Whether living in rural or urban locations determined the outcome of the interviewees' answers in the Guinean forest region but not in the Sahelian region (Fig. 3). In other words, attitude towards bushmeat of people from Sahelian regions was similar in both rural and urban locations, whereas in the Guinean forest region there were differences between locations. In addition, in terms of frequency of never-eating bushmeat people, statistical differences between rural versus urban conditions were much higher ($P < 0.001$ at χ^2 test) than those occurring between countries (see above). Whether a person lived in an urban or rural location affected the probability of consuming bushmeat much more than their country of residence.

A total of 41.9% of urban and 67.3% of rural respondents stated they consumed bushmeat (Fig. 4); this difference being significant ($\chi^2 = 231.9$, df = 2, $P < 0.0001$). According to the different response categories, most interviewees in rural areas mentioned they frequently ate bushmeat ($\chi^2 = 7.3$, df = 2, $P < 0.05$), but in urban areas most said they never ate bushmeat ($\chi^2 = 193.4$, df = 2, $P < 0.0001$).

Overall, ungulates and rodents were eaten by almost all respondents in either rural or urban areas, but carnivores, monkeys and snakes were eaten rarely (differences significant at $P < 0.00001$ compared to ungulates and rodents, χ^2 test), and mainly in rural areas (Fig. 5). Contingency table analysis showed that there were no significant differences between urban and rural areas in terms of frequency of respondents eating the various bushmeat types ($\chi^2 = 14.48$, df = 8, $P = 0.0699$). However, our GLZ model revealed that primates, bats, carnivores, crocodiles, snakes and chelonians were significantly more likely to be eaten by rural than by urban people, with the highest estimates being for monkeys

and bats (Table 2); it was unlikely that people from urban areas, in any of the surveyed countries, ate monkeys and bats.

Differences between urban and rural areas were also strongly mediated by the effects of age and gender (Tables 3 and 4). Overall, there were significant differences in both gender and age between rural and urban areas.

4. Discussion

Previous studies have suggested that bushmeat was universally preferred "due to its superior taste" (King, 1994) and thus African communities therefore preferred and thus primarily ate bushmeat. These statements were not based on empirical evidence until a study reporting on two-choice taste tests showed that consumers in Gabon had only a weak preference for bushmeat and only rural consumers consistently preferred bushmeat over alternatives (Schenck et al., 2006). This result is particularly important given that it manifests that even though basic desires such as hunger and the need for nourishment can influence food choice, availability and cultural norms also affect these. Thus, it is not simply taste that is driving demand for bushmeat, but that price or other culturally mediated factors such as familiarity, tradition, and prestige play a role.

The use of face-to-face interviews for assessing bushmeat consumption has been used in some studies e.g. in a recent one in Liberia by Ordaz-Németh et al. (2017). Like in our study, Ordaz-Németh et al. (2017) did not test for any potential bias in responses by interviewees not responding truthfully. In both studies, hunting is not illegal per se and we did not mention explicitly any particular species in the interview form, but instead used open questions so that the interviewee could respond without any prompting e.g. by naming protected species.

Our analyses indicate a very clear and significant difference in bushmeat consumption among rural and urban peoples in all countries. This effect appeared in 7 out of 7 models, in all four of the investigated countries. This difference has been demonstrated in a number of other studies in the African continent (e.g. in the Democratic Republic of Congo, see Van Vliet et al., 2014) and in Madagascar (Jenkins et al., 2011). This contrast between rural and urban dwellers is largely explained by the availability of bushmeat versus alternative protein sources. Rural dwellers are usually restricted in terms of the availability and accessibility of domestic meats but in a much better position to option these resources from the wild. By contrast, urban dwellers have greater access to alternative proteins (Apaza et al., 2002). Nonetheless, cultural complications also explain the preference of non-bushmeat proteins by urban people (see Luiselli et al., 2017 and below).

Our analyses clearly showed that age was important in most countries; the pure effect of age was significant in 5 out of 7 models, in Nigeria, Togo and Niger. Younger interviewees generally ate less bushmeat than older persons. That young people ate less bushmeat can in part be due to a growing 'westernization' of the lifestyles, especially among the middle classes. These sector of the community often do not see it as 'socially acceptable' to consume bushmeat, since this is perceived by them as a sign of 'being very local' (i.e. not culturally advanced). In contrast the eating of 'fast foods' (hamburgers, pizza, kebab, etc.) is now the favourite 'social diet' of young people. This pattern is especially evident in urban Nigeria and Togo (our unpublished observations), where young interviewees not only declared that they would not eat bushmeat, but even commented that eating bushmeat was not acceptable because it produces a loss of personal prestige within their circle of friends. In this regard, it was particularly interesting that, among the

312 rarely-eating bushmeat urban people, a sample of 7 young (<25 years) persons from Togo
313 and 15 from Nigeria declared that they would never eat bushmeat in public, but that very
314 occasionally they do during private family events, and only when they visit their rural
315 relatives. Thus, among the respondents who declared that they rarely ate bushmeat, many
316 would only consume bushmeat for special occasions. We suggest that in urban areas the
317 lower consumption of bushmeat is not because of lack of access, but that it responds to a
318 more culturally-driven avoidance in response to the changing socio-economic context.

319 By contrast to the effects of age we observed in our study, the pure effect of
320 gender was only apparent in 1 out of 7 models. In terms of mixed factors, 'Gender X
321 Rural/Urban' were significant in 4/7 models and 'Age X Rural/Urban' were significant in 5/7
322 models, whereas 'Gender X Age' in 2/7 models. From these results, we conclude that
323 rural/urban and age are much more important than gender in determining the probability
324 for a person to consume bushmeat. The non-effect of gender is probably related to the
325 enhanced equal rights of women and men in West African societies (especially in Nigeria),
326 with young generations being much more equal in terms of gender and lifestyle (see
327 Gender Equality Index database by the African Development Bank, available at
328 www.afdb.org). Thus, since young men and women typically share a similar life-style
329 (especially in urban areas), even their food preferences tend to be very similar.

330 Since, in all countries, and in urban areas in particular, most of the young
331 respondents stated they never ate bushmeat, this would suggest that bushmeat
332 consumption has been substantially decreasing among the new generations of West
333 Africans, independently on their local culture, religion, ethnicity and level of human
334 development. In Nigeria, where the level of human development (average wealth and
335 scholarization standards) are clearly higher than in the other countries (the country being

the 22th economy of the world; World Bank, 2016), only older people in rural areas (age > 51 years) answered that they consumed bushmeat more regularly (Table 2).

Although our study is the first to cover a broad spectrum of situations, it is important to note that bushmeat trade analysis are much easier to undertake in the Guinean forests region (such as Ivory Coast, Ghana, Nigeria; e.g. see Fa et al., 2002a, 2002b, 2006) than in Sahel. This difference is related to the fact that in the Sahel region there are no open bushmeat markets and people here may be more reluctant to answer interviewers openly because of social norms (Hema et al., 2017, but see Lindsey et al. 2013). This is also possibly linked to the fact that forest can occur close to urban areas in the Guinean Forest region (e.g., Niger Delta forests surrounding Port Harcourt), whereas the same is not true in the Sahel where all the forested or mature savannah sites (from which most of the bushmeat trade does originate) are situated far from larger urban centres (our unpublished observations). Therefore, 'hub' markets (Akani et al., 2015) are more likely to be found nearby large cities in the forest zone than in the savannah zone. In conclusion, we argue that the cultural drivers of wildlife use are crucial to take into account when seeking long-term sustainability solutions of wildlife resource extraction (e.g., Luiselli et al., 2017).

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443 Table 1. Synopsis of the interview raw data collected during the present surveys in the four studied countries.

	Urban			Total urban	**Rural**			Total rural
	Often eaten	Rarely eaten	Never eaten		Often eaten	Rarely eaten	Never eaten	
Burkina Faso								
Males (< 25 yr)	0	0	7	7	4	2	2	8
Males (< 50 yr)	7	69	43	119	66	24	7	97
Males (> 51)	7	12	1	20	17	9	3	29
Females (< 25 yr)	2	1	10	13	1	1	21	23
Females (< 50 yr)	6	52	30	88	17	21	33	71
Females (> 51)	1	8	6	15	9	5	3	17
TOTAL SAMPLE	23	142	97	262	114	62	69	245
Niger								
Males (< 25 yr)	2	2	56	60	20	11	45	76
Males (< 50 yr)	4	6	32	42	30	20	39	89
Males (> 51)	5	6	22	33	33	9	37	79
Females (< 25 yr)	1	0	46	47	14	9	44	67
Females (< 50 yr)	4	7	39	50	24	11	30	65
Females (> 51)	7	7	26	40	22	10	31	63
TOTAL SAMPLE	23	28	221	272	143	70	226	439
Togo								
Males (< 25 yr)	11	9	33	53	14	8	21	43
Males (< 50 yr)	12	16	15	43	33	24	2	59
Males (> 51)	14	12	5	31	24	7	1	32
Females (< 25 yr)	0	11	41	52	4	16	26	46
Females (< 50 yr)	7	17	23	47	14	7	4	25
Females (> 51)	16	11	11	38	16	2	2	20
TOTAL SAMPLE	60	76	128	264	105	64	56	225
Nigeria								
Males (< 25 yr)	7	14	56	77	17	31	11	59
Males (< 50 yr)	12	23	44	79	21	23	8	52
Males (> 51)	16	31	39	86	22	41	5	68

Females (< 25 yr)	3	6	62	71	13	43	14	70
Females (< 50 yr)	7	12	46	65	9	11	2	22
Females (> 51)	19	23	35	77	14	5	1	20
TOTAL SAMPLE	64	109	282	455	96	154	41	291
GRAND TOTAL	170	355	728	1253	458	350	392	1200

444 Table 2. Results of the Generalized Linear Model on the probability of eating bushmeat by type of
445 animals by country, urban/rural locality, age, sex and gender (female/male). Intercepts are included
446 in all models, and the explained deviance (in %) is also shown. Negative estimates for gender
447 means a preponderance of male respondents. Positive estimates for age indicate a preponderance
448 of older age classes respondents.

Variable	Estimate	St. error	Wald	P
Ungulates				
Intercept	211.71	72.41	8.55	0.003
Gender	-1.68	0.82	4.18	0.041
Explained deviance (%)	90.20			
Rodents				
Intercept	295.85	202.43	2.14	0.144
Gender	-5.14	2.29	5.02	0.025
Explained deviance (%)	88.08			
Monkeys				
Intercept	-2079.08	431.87	23.17	0.000001
Country	5.93	2.99	3.92	0.048
Urban/Rural	-31.26	4.89	40.89	0.000001
Age	14.92	2.99	24.85	0.000001
Explained deviance (%)	34.07			
Bats				
Intercept	-1596.00	376.76	17.94	0.000023
Urban/Rural	-29.26	6.03	23.54	0.000001
Age	16.13	3.69	19.08	0.000013
Explained deviance (%)	45.79			
Carnivores				
Intercept	-1408.96	335.10	17.68	0.000026
Urban/Rural	-17.45	5.36	10.58	0.0011
Age	14.22	3.28	18.74	0.000015
Explained deviance (%)	55.90			
Birds				

Intercept	-837.82	493.40	2.88	0.089
Age	7.33	3.42	4.60	0.032
Explained deviance (%)	88.74			
Crocodiles				
Intercept	-1439.25	453.05	10.09	0.0015
Urban/Rural	-22.29	5.13	18.89	0.000014
Age	15.28	3.14	23.68	0.000001
Explained deviance (%)	46.41			
Snakes				
Intercept	-1330.51	345.56	14.82	0.000118
Urban/Rural	-20.61	5.53	13.87	0.000195
Age	13.41	3.39	15.66	0.000076
Explained deviance (%)	55.05			
Turtles				
Intercept	-853.91	296.62	8.29	0.0039
Urban/Rural	-15.25	4.75	10.31	0.0013
Age	9.156	2.9079	9.91504	0.001639
Explained deviance (%)	64.03			

Table 3. Summary of the results of contingency tables on the frequencies of the never-eating bushmeat respondents by country. In this table, 'towards' would indicate the direction of the significant effect. For instance, if in a given area, there was a significantly higher number od 'never-eating-bushmeat' respondents for young people (< 25 years age), this is highlighted in the table with 'towards young'.

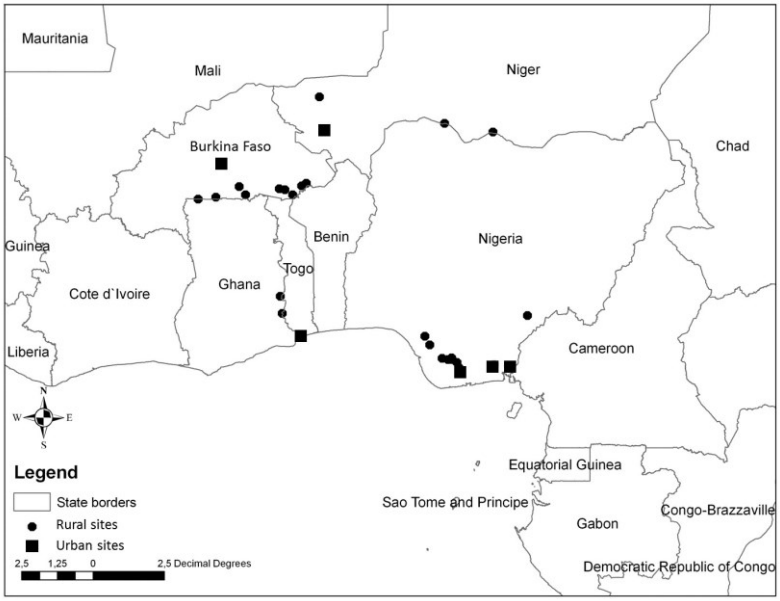
	Differences between gender in rural	Differences between gender in urban	Differences by age in rural	Differences by age in urban	Differences between urban and rural by gender	Differences between urban and rural by age
Togo	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P < 0.01 (towards young)	P < 0.01 (towards young)	P = n.s.	P = n.s.
Nigeria	P = n.s.	P < 0.05 (towards men)	P < 0.01 (towards old people)	P = n.s.	P < 0.01 (due to men in urban areas)	P < 0.05 (due to age in rural areas)
Burkina Faso	P < 0.01 (towards men)	P < 0.05 (towards women)	P = n.s.	P < 0.05 (towards young)	P < 0.0001 (due to opposite signs of differences)	P < 0.05 (due to consistent trends of age: young do not eat bushmeat)
Niger	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P < 0.05 (towards young)	P < 0.05 (towards young)	P = n.s.	P = n.s.

456 Table 4. Summary of the results of contingency tables on the frequencies of the often-eating bushmeat respondents by country. In this table,
457 'towards' would indicate the direction of the significant effect. For instance, if in a given area, there was a significantly higher number od 'never-
458 eating-bushmeat' respondents for young people (< 25 years age), this is highlighted in the table with 'towards young'.

	Differences between gender in rural	Differences between gender in urban	Differences by age in rural	Differences by age in urban	Differences between urban and rural by gender	Differences between urban and rural by age
Togo	P < 0.05 (towards men)	P < 0.05 (towards men)	P < 0.05 (towards young)	P < 0.01 (towards young)	P = n.s.	P = n.s.
Nigeria	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P < 0.01 (towards young)	P = n.s.	P < 0.05 (due to young people responses negative effect)
Burkina Faso	P < 0.001 (towards men)	P < 0.001 (towards men)	P = n.s.	P < 0.0001 (towards young)	P < 0.05 (due to men)	P < 0.05 (due to young people responses negative effect)
Niger	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P = n.s.	P < 0.05 (towards young)	P = n.s.	P = n.s.

459 Figure 1. Map of West Africa showing the study sites where interviews were carried out

460



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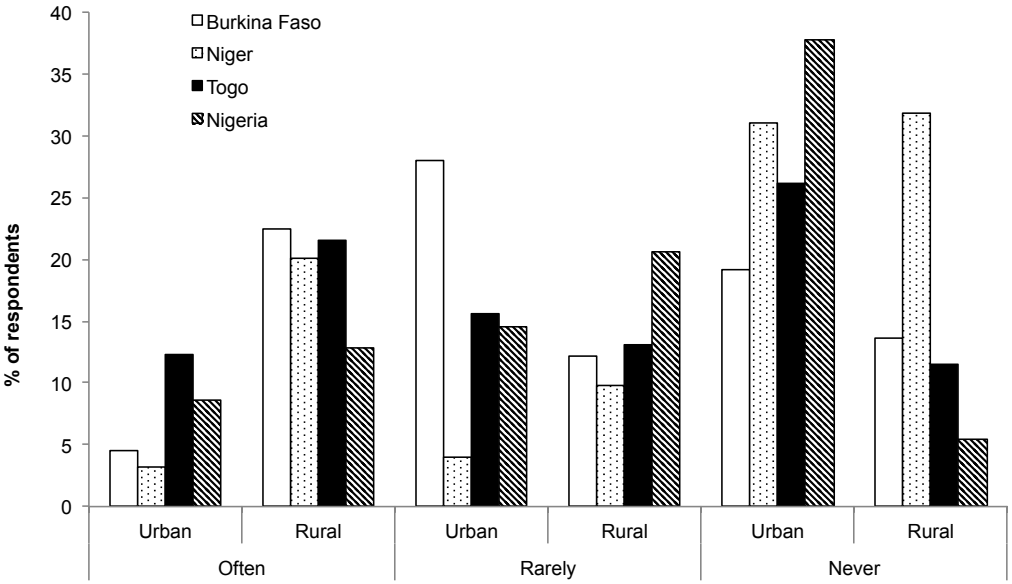
463 Figure 2. Percent interviewees responding whether bushmeat was eaten often, rarely or never in
464 urban and rural settlements in the four countries studied in West Africa.

465



466 Figure 3. Relative importance of predictors (pure effect), as determined by hierarchical variation
467 partitioning, for the model considering all the interviewees' responses as dependent variable, for
468 the Sahel countries (upper graphic) and for the Guinean forests countries (lower graphic). Spatial =
469 urban/rural.

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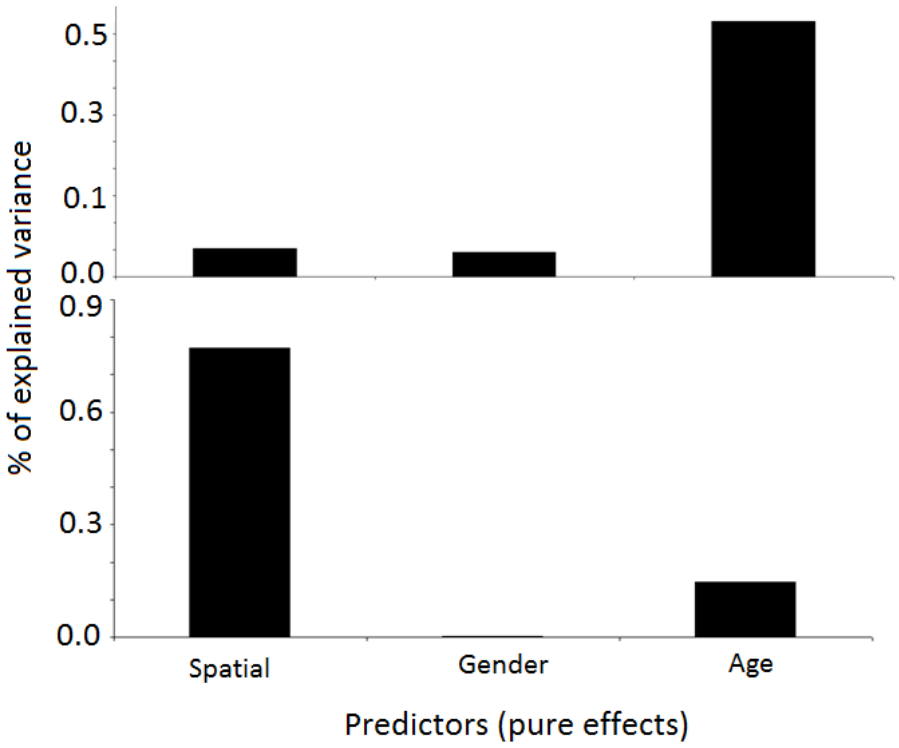
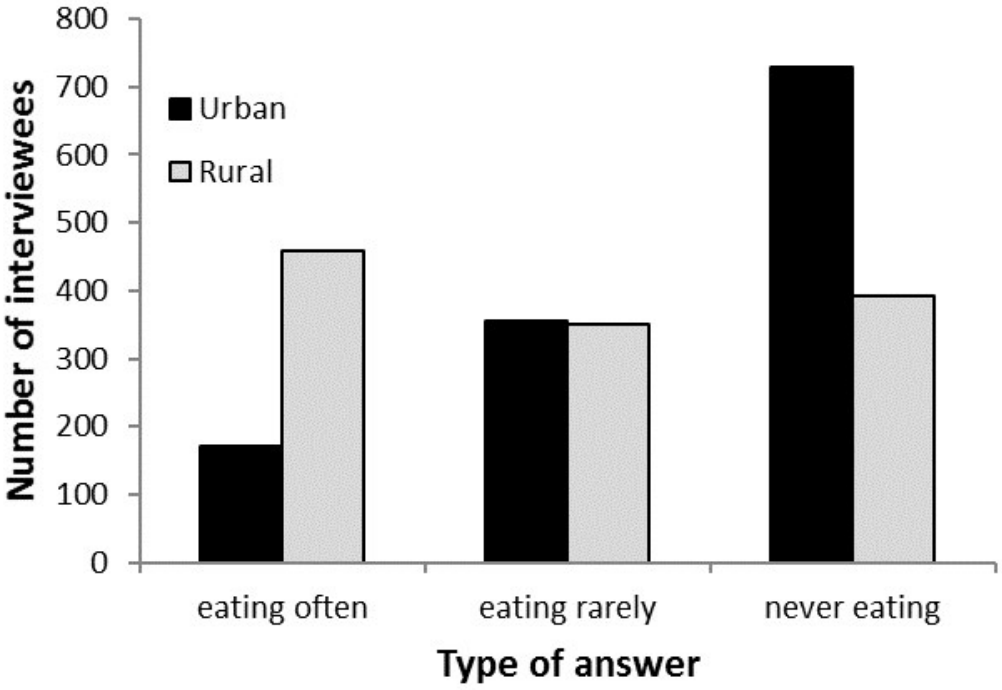


473 Figure 4. Distribution of the various types of answer by respondents in urban versus rural areas in
474 the four studied countries of West Africa as for whether they would eat bushmeat often, rarely or
475 never. All data from the different countries were pooled for this graphic

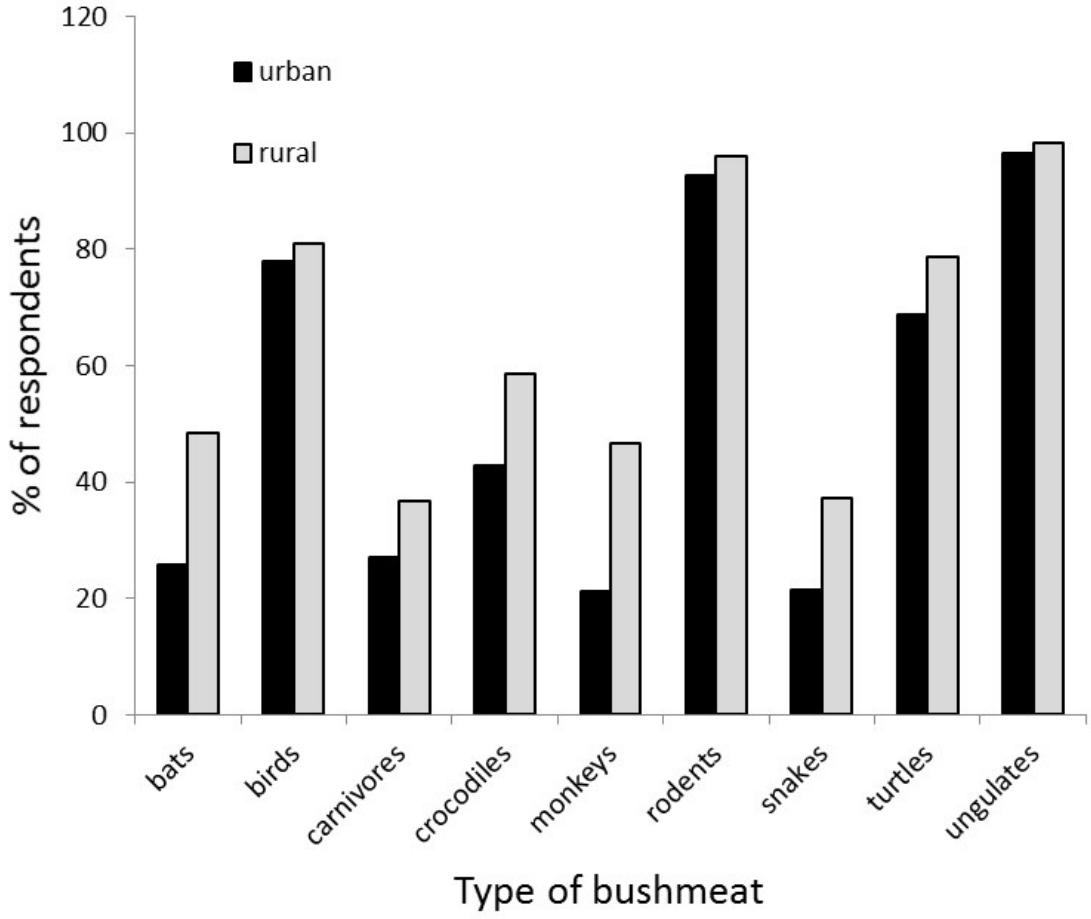
476

477



478 Figure 5. Distribution of the various types of answer by respondents in urban versus rural areas in
479 the four studied countries of West Africa as for the type of consumed bushmeat is concerned. All
480 data from the different countries were pooled for this graphic

481



482

483 Appendix 1. Codes for the variables used in the Generalized Linear Models (GLZs).

Country	Class	Locality	Cod Loc	Cod age	Cod sex	Never eat bushmeat
Burkina Faso	Males (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	1	7
Burkina Faso	Males (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	1	43
Burkina Faso	Males (> 51)	urban	1	a	1	1
Burkina Faso	Females (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	0	10
Burkina Faso	Females (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	0	30
Burkina Faso	Females (> 51)	urban	1	a	0	6
Burkina Faso	Males (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	1	2
Burkina Faso	Males (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	1	7
Burkina Faso	Males (> 51)	rural	0	a	1	3
Burkina Faso	Females (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	0	21
Burkina Faso	Females (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	0	33
Burkina Faso	Females (> 51)	rural	0	a	0	3
Nigeria	Males (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	1	77
Nigeria	Males (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	1	79
Nigeria	Males (> 51)	urban	1	a	1	86
Nigeria	Females (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	0	71
Nigeria	Females (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	0	65
Nigeria	Females (> 51)	urban	1	a	0	77
Nigeria	Males (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	1	59
Nigeria	Males (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	1	52
Nigeria	Males (> 51)	rural	0	a	1	68
Nigeria	Females (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	0	70
Nigeria	Females (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	0	22
Nigeria	Females (> 51)	rural	0	a	0	20
Niger	Males (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	1	4
Niger	Males (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	1	4
Niger	Males (> 51)	urban	1	a	1	7
Niger	Females (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	0	1
Niger	Females (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	0	9
Niger	Females (> 51)	urban	1	a	0	6
Niger	Males (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	1	6
Niger	Males (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	1	5
Niger	Males (> 51)	rural	0	a	1	9
Niger	Females (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	0	3
Niger	Females (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	0	7
Niger	Females (> 51)	rural	0	a	0	9
Togo	Males (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	1	33
Togo	Males (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	1	15
Togo	Males (> 51)	urban	1	a	1	5
Togo	Females (< 25 yr)	urban	1	g	0	41
Togo	Females (< 50 yr)	urban	1	m	0	23
Togo	Females (> 51)	urban	1	a	0	11
Togo	Males (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	1	21
Togo	Males (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	1	2
Togo	Males (> 51)	rural	0	a	1	1
Togo	Females (< 25 yr)	rural	0	g	0	26
Togo	Females (< 50 yr)	rural	0	m	0	4
Togo	Females (> 51)	rural	0	a	0	2

484

485

486 Appendix 2. Summary of the raw data on the types of eaten bushmeat by people in the investigated countries.

		Males (< 25 yr)	Males (< 50 yr)	Males (> 51)	Females (< 25 yr)	Females (< 50 yr)	Females (> 51)	Total interviewees
Nigeria		21	35	47	9	19	42	173
	ungulates	21	34	45	9	19	40	
	rodents	21	31	41	9	19	39	
Urban	monkeys	2	7	11	0	3	6	
	bats	3	7	8	1	3	11	
	carnivores	2	10	15	0	2	5	
	birds	15	26	33	5	15	28	
	crocodiles	8	15	27	1	5	9	
	snakes	1	3	5	0	0	3	
	turtles	16	22	26	6	14	32	
Nigeria		48	44	63	56	20	19	250
	ungulates	48	43	61	56	20	19	
	rodents	48	41	55	56	18	19	
Rural	monkeys	6	23	31	3	3	11	
	bats	7	17	22	7	5	13	
	carnivores	9	14	20	21	6	11	
	birds	39	40	55	45	17	17	
	crocodiles	23	21	38	32	9	17	
	snakes	2	8	19	4	6	9	
	turtles	44	33	51	36	16	19	
Togo		20	28	26	11	23	27	136
	ungulates	19	26	25	11	22	25	
	rodents	13	23	24	11	22	23	
Urban	monkeys	4	6	6	0	1	4	
	bats	4	9	6	0	1	3	
	carnivores	8	6	6	0	2	8	
	birds	15	21	21	10	17	23	
	crocodiles	3	18	8	3	6	11	
	snakes	2	4	4	0	1	6	

	turtles	9	16	16	5	15	24	
Togo		22	57	31	20	21	18	169
	ungulates	22	54	31	20	21	18	
	rodents	22	49	31	20	21	18	
Rural	monkeys	14	25	25	2	11	15	
	bats	13	27	27	0	8	17	
	carnivores	3	11	21	1	6	16	
	birds	16	24	31	17	19	18	
	crocodiles	13	26	28	3	8	14	
	snakes	11	22	20	1	6	11	
	turtles	14	41	27	16	17	16	
Niger		4	10	11	1	11	14	51
	ungulates	4	9	11	1	11	14	
	rodents	4	10	11	1	11	14	
Urban	monkeys	0	1	4	0	4	7	
	bats	0	2	3	0	5	11	
	carnivores	0	1	4	0	8	7	
	birds	4	8	9	0	10	12	
	crocodiles	1	6	6	0	7	8	
	snakes	1	4	6	0	7	5	
	turtles	3	8	9	0	10	9	
Niger		31	50	41	23	35	32	213
	ungulates	30	48	41	22	35	32	
	rodents	29	48	41	23	35	32	
Rural	monkeys	8	21	26	16	20	25	
	bats	12	33	27	14	20	27	
	carnivores	8	19	17	11	16	22	
	birds	21	41	37	18	31	31	
	crocodiles	9	28	33	13	28	28	
	snakes	8	21	27	9	18	25	
	turtles	23	33	38	16	28	30	

487