Evidencing the sports tourism interrelationship: a case study approach

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Evidencing the Sports Tourism Interrelationship: 
A Case Study Approach

by

Martin R Reeves

Doctoral Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements 
for the award of

Doctor of Philosophy of Loughborough University

October 1999

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Sport and tourism have received considerable attention in the research literature, but until recently as separate spheres of activity. However, an international review of sports-tourism literature conducted by Jackson and Glyptis (1992) revealed much evidence of a significant interrelationship, and identified the need for more empirical work. This research contributes to the more detailed and systematic quantification of the significance of sport as a tourism generator, which cannot be effectively established from existing tourism statistics, and towards the more effective analysis of the volume of sports-related tourism, and associated behaviour. The research provides a number of detailed primary case studies of what are now increasingly typical, yet under-researched, styles of sports-related tourism behaviour.

The first study focuses on research with Butlins Holiday Worlds and provides evidence of sports-related tourism behaviour in a traditional holiday setting. Activity holidays represent another growing area of sports-related tourism. Twr-Y-Felin is one of the largest outdoor activity holiday organisations in Wales, in terms of volume and diversity of courses offered. This second case study reviews the holiday motivations, activity styles, holiday patterns etc. of a large sample of sports activity holiday takers. Analysis of the 1994 World Athletics Cup, the third case study, provides significant data on sports spectator behaviour, including the significance of the event in generating tourist trips, associated activity whilst travelling for sports spectating, distances travelled, length of stay, spending patterns etc. The final case study focuses on the most dedicated and committed of sports tourists; those representing their Country in international sport. A detailed case study of international athletes examines the generation of tourism through elite level sports participation, competition and training.

The thesis proposes that sports-related tourism behaviour can be conceived as a continuum from, at one extreme, incidental and sporadic sports activity whilst on holiday, to tourism behaviour driven exclusively by the needs of, and interest in particular sports activities. This research has synthesised the findings from the four case studies and draws overall conclusions regarding sports tourism behaviour. In attempting to more clearly conceptualise this field and broaden understanding, this work highlights the various behavioural types and also identifies where other research contributions can be made.
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Sport and tourism have received considerable attention in the research literature, but until recently as separate spheres of activity. However, an international review of sports-tourism literature conducted by Jackson and Glyptis (1992) revealed much evidence of a significant interrelationship, and identified the need for more empirical work. This research contributes to the more detailed and systematic quantification of the significance of sport as a tourism generator, which cannot be effectively established from existing tourism statistics, and towards the more effective analysis of the volume and value of sports-related tourism. The research provides a number of detailed primary case studies of what are now increasingly typical, yet under-researched, styles of sports-related tourism behaviour.

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Our knowledge can only be finite, while our ignorance must necessarily be infinite.

Sir Karl Popper (1902-1994)

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As always a research project like this is a team effort, but ultimately I am responsible for the content, and must defend it on that basis.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction
1.1 Rationale for the Study
1.2 Definition of Terms
1.3 Components of the Sports Tourism Interrelationship
1.4 Specific Aims and Objectives of the Research
1.5 The Research Framework
1.0: Introduction

This introductory chapter outlines the rationale for studying the interrelationship between sport and tourism. The terms (which are often conceptually problematic) used throughout the study are then defined, followed by a description of the various component parts of the sports tourism interface, which together constitute this contemporary phenomenon. The series of factors which have been put forward to explain the emergence of this interrelationship, and areas of continued development are explained. The importance of producing more empirically generated behavioural profiles of these emerging sports tourist types, is then emphasised. The aims and objectives of this research are then highlighted and finally, the research framework containing the four empirical case studies is described.

1.1: Rationale for the Study

The two areas of sport and tourism as major social phenomena have developed dramatically over the past twenty years, both in terms of demand and supply. This has been led most notably by commercial operators seizing market opportunities to add value to, and differentiate, their increasingly standard tourism product offers through the addition of various sporting opportunities. Despite the fact that the existence of the sporting dimension within the tourism industry has been established for some considerable time, the concept of the sports tourism product remains at the early introduction phase of its product life cycle. This may at least partly explain why there is a distinct lack of integrated policy making, administration and organisational knowledge. This is outside the remit of this current research, but has been the focus of recent work by Bull & Weed (1998). In many cases, the linkages have yet to be fully recognised, although the sports tourism interrelationship is becoming more consciously developed, with the interaction increasingly recognised as integrated and symbiotic. Such 'symbiosis' has been referred to by Standeven and Tomlinson (1994: 3) as a "deep-rooted and long term interdependency, where interests are served by the protection and promotion not just of themselves but of each other".

It is not simply that sport develops tourism and thereby produces an ever increasing range of valued visitor experiences, for tourism can also enhance opportunities in sport. An excellent example of sport generating tourism activity is the staging of a sports event, whereby the event itself may form an incidental or main purpose of the trip for the individual or group concerned. Such developments must be viewed in a balanced way, however. Standeven & Tomlinson (1994: 8) for example assert that:
It would be easy to exaggerate this aspect of the sports tourism relationship, for there is much more to the tourist experience than sport or physical activity, but many forms of sport facility are now dependent upon the visitor rather than just the local user and significant forms of tourist development are not just sports-related but sports-specific.

Tourism in the active development of sport may be exemplified by the participation in a chosen activity by holiday makers whilst engaged in tourism more broadly, with such participation not constituting a reason for the holiday choice. It has been observed that for many, holidays are the only time when recreational sports participation takes place. It is in this area of the interrelationship that potential sports development opportunities have been identified (Glyptis & Jackson, 1993). In terms of both participation volumes (and therefore social significance), and economic significance, the interrelationships between sport and tourism are worthy of greater empirical investigation and analysis. The two phenomena therefore appear to be inextricably linked and as globalisation advances, particularly through technological developments, new and exciting possibilities will emerge for enhancing the tourism experience, through sporting and physical activity (and spectating). The two leisure sectors of sport and tourism are participated in by large numbers of people from different socio-economic backgrounds, in different settings both at home and abroad, and in addition have significant economic implications.

It is apparent from the reviews undertaken, that despite some significant work done on particular aspects of sports-related tourism (eg. that on mega and hallmark events), the overall context in which sports tourism has to be understood, is relatively poorly served by the available literature. Recent work from America, of Attle, 1997; Gibson & Yiannakis, 1997 and Gibson et al, 1998 has attempted to address this. While this area therefore, is increasingly attractive to researchers, detailed empirical studies, designed specifically to assist in better understanding and quantifying the field, are still much needed. There also remains a need for more behavioural studies that can better detail the significance of this type of tourism to the individual, and its linkage with 'home' leisure behaviour. The initial review here supported De Knop's (1990) observation that there has been insufficient study into the scope and nature of the interrelationships thus far identified between sport and tourism. It is necessary, he suggested, "to have an insight into the motives and interests of different categories of participant".

Research literature concerning the motivations and subsequent behaviour of tourists is relatively well developed, with particular emphasis on the vacation decision-making process (Chapter Two: 1). Although there remains little direct evidence on the extent to which sports activity generally, or specific sports activities, contribute to the
holiday/destination decision, even less emphasis has been placed on the reasons for patterns of activity whilst on holiday. The motivations for, and patterns of, sports activity whilst on holiday (which for many people is their only experience of such activities during the year), and the opportunities that these patterns offer, is a significant but untapped field in both leisure and tourism-oriented studies.

The focus of this research is on the demand structure (and associated consumer behaviour characteristics) for the new forms of sports tourism products. In addition to the examination of the tourism motivation literature, it is vital to understand the socio-psychological foundation (or rationale) from individual, and group participation, in sport and physical activity (Chapter Two: II). The participation profiles for both sport and tourism individually are now relatively well catalogued. However, except for a few sporadic analyses, what has been rarely researched, and as a result remains poorly recognised by the respective agencies responsible for sport and tourism, is the increasing significance of sports tourism. Better understanding of this, in terms of demand profiles and behavioural characteristics could provide improved servicing (in volume and value terms) of this increasing demand.

It becomes evident that there are a series of interrelated factors which may be attributable for an individual choosing a certain type of activity, and more importantly for continuing (or ceasing) such participation. These factors have been demonstrated in the literature (see eg. Roberts, 1992; Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992) to be categorised as either individual or structural, and affected by the existence of constraints. The key issue to have emerged, is the role sport plays within an individual's constructed lifestyle, and this varies according to activity type, level of performance, role of significant others, psychological 'make-up', philosophical outlook and so on. In short, many similarities can be observed between sports motivation and tourism motivation. Firstly, it is dynamic, complex and multi-dimensional, and secondly, that the activity (whether it be tourism or sport) often acts a vehicle for escapism, and frequently allows the individual to consume outside the 'normal' pattern of everyday life. The level of understanding of behavioural patterns in both sport and tourism separately has advanced greatly, and the gap now is in our understanding of individual's consumption of the hybrid, sports tourism.

The present research then, attempts to build on this recognition, by developing empirical studies to further demonstrate its significance, and explain some of the different motivations and behavioural patterns now evident within the sports tourism
interrelationship. Overall the study aims to foster clearer understanding of this growing sub-sector of tourism behaviour.

1.2: Definition of Terms

Questions of definition are inherently problematic for both sport and tourism. Both terms have historically attracted a variety of definitions, varying in scope and perspective. For the purpose of this study, it was decided that definitions needed to be adopted which were both wide ranging and widely accepted. As a consequence, the definition of sport to be adopted throughout, is that proposed by the European Sport For All Charter (Council of Europe, 1992: 1).

Sport means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation aims at improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships, or obtaining results in competition at all levels.

This definition embraces not only formal sporting activities, such as team games, but also non-competitive forms of recreational activity, such as walking, swimming and cycling, which are vital in studying the interrelationship between sport and tourism. With respect to a working definition for tourism, which itself has methodological ramifications, that put forward by the British Tourist Authority (1981) and utilised by the Tourism Society has been adopted.

The temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during the stay at these destinations. It includes movement for all purposes as well as day visits or excursions.

The research literature in the tourism studies field is yet to produce a co-ordinated and integrated picture, particularly regarding definition and conceptualisation of the key terms and principles involved with the many sub-areas that comprise tourism and the tourism industry. Therefore, one is left with a variety of definitions, which serve differing purposes and most of which are not operational, in the sense that they are unable to provide a foundation for data collection and analysis. The example of 'activity holidays' and the array of activity-types this covers, is one case in point. This is absolutely fundamental if sound comparisons are to be made across all areas of the tourism industry, including this relatively new and growing market segment of sports tourism.
The development of understanding in terms of the links between sport and tourism has benefited from the working definition provided by De Knop (1998: 14).

Sport tourism comprises all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way, that depends upon travel\(^1\), and where the aim is to improve physical fitness and mental well-being, form social relationships, or obtain results in competition at all levels.

This is clearly based upon the definition of sport provided by the Council for Europe, with the element of tourism added. Other attempts have been made to define aspects of sports tourism (see eg. Hall, 1994; Gibson et al, 1998; Tourism Sport International Council, 1996), but they are often narrow in scope, and do not embrace the multi-faceted nature of this form of tourism, as effectively as De Knop.

### 1.3: Components of the Sports Tourism Interrelationship

Redmond (1991: 108) provides a review of the key areas in which the interrelationship between sport and tourism has intensified in recent years:

- the development of sports-oriented holidays;
- the development of specialist sport-tourism resorts;
- the increasing incidence of sports-themed visitor attractions;
- the high profile and tourism generating potential of international sports events and festivals;
- the development of sports-related ancillary facilities at tourist destinations;
- the emergence of sports-tourism employment;
- the increasing recognition in the leisure literature of the growing importance of this particular sector.

Developments of the type described, have seen the establishment of many sports facilities dependent upon the visitor rather than exclusively the local user and, in addition, several forms of tourist development are increasingly dependent on resident use for viability. A number of tourist facilities have also emerged which are not merely sports-related (which facilitate participation in a range of sporting activities for a range of abilities) but sports-specific (which facilitate a single sport, primarily for more competent performers, such as golf-course developments). It is, however the consumption, rather than production issues which are concentrated upon in this current

\(^1\) Travel is interpreted within this particular definition as involving a distance of at least 25 miles (10 km) one way.
research, and the demand for sports-related tourism products, such as those described, is reviewed in Chapter Two: III. The literature on sports-related tourism, until recently, had focused almost exclusively on supply, rather than patterns (and reasons) for increased levels of demand. The requirements in the process of evidencing the sports tourism interrelationship, and the resulting consumption, are two-fold. Firstly, to establish the exact nature of the sports dimension within the tourism experience and the reasons for involvement in such activity. Secondly, the profiling of behaviour during all stages of consumption (namely pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase).

The typological accounts used extensively within mainstream tourism studies (see eg. Plog, 1988, and the recent use of VALS assessment techniques by Moutinho, 1992), are often based on socio-psychological parameters, and would be a useful addition to successfully evidencing the interrelationship. Patterns need to be established as to whether this behaviour follows trends indicative of sport and tourism participation separately; which factors it is contingent upon; and finally, the different behavioural types which may be identified.

On a world-wide scale, the World Tourism Organisation recognised as early as 1985 that "new values in the exercise of tourism are reflected in organised recreation and the new products that have emerged, such as active holidays and special interest tourism". Chapter Two: Section IV outlines the development of the activity holiday market within the context of these new forms of tourism consumption. This market is broad and diverse and has been overtly developed in numerous countries, particularly those in Scandinavia and North America, as an integral and significant element in their tourism portfolio. In fact, various countries have attempted to quantify the number of their own nationals choosing activity holidays and/or the number of incoming tourists on activity holidays. However, due to the inconsistent research protocols adopted, the statistics for the different countries cannot be compared directly.

Once again however, the crucial challenge is to evidence the way(s) in which the sports tourism interrelationship manifests itself, and to begin to compare the behavioural characteristics of individuals undertaking different types of activity holiday, at different times and in different contexts. Critically, the role activity holidays play in an individual's lifestyle need to be assessed. The academic literature has tended to concentrate on the provision of this sub-sector within the tourism industry, while the commercial consumer research has tended to produce general profiles across the entire market.
Another sub-sector of the tourism industry, event-based tourism, has grown significantly in recent years, as both demand and commercial suppliers have developed. However, the behavioural elements of sports tourism consumption have only very recently been included within the research framework for event-based tourism studies. The literature available covers all aspects of the process from planning through to evaluation, particularly of large scale events (see inter alia Getz, 1989; Hall, 1994a; and Roche, 1992) and particularly in terms of the economic impact of large scale sports events and their associated tourism (see Burgan & Mules, 1992; Ritchie, 1990). Chapter Two: Section V reviews the literature on event-based tourism. Apart from studies on the economic impact of major sports events, there is data available on the economic impact of sport and tourism as separate contributors to national and local economies. To date, this area of study has been dominated by the phenomenon of mega or hallmark events, with less emphasis placed on the still significant role of small and medium size events, which are more ubiquitous.

The proliferation of these various components of the sports tourism interrelationship means that evidence is required to measure these new forms of consumer demand. There are few statistical sources which adequately allow assessment of the overall volume and value of this growth sector of the leisure industry. Chapter Three examines what is known through the use of secondary data analysis of both sport and tourism sources. Some commercial market assessments of this hybrid sector have recently been produced (see eg. Leisure Consultants, 1992; Mintel, 1996), but Collins and Jackson's (1999: 172) observation remains valid.

What we have to acknowledge is that there are very few reliable sources of data which are sufficiently precise to allow an accurate overall view of the volume and economic significance of sports tourism. This is a further indication of the inability of tourism statistics to accurately profile the behaviour of tourists, which has long been noted.

Despite the dearth of readily accessible supporting statistics, it is now more widely recognised that tourism demand is becoming more activity-oriented and that this in turn, has been fuelled by the tourism industry supply response. Concerning other elements of this topic area where progress of understanding has been made, in 1992 the Commission of the European Communities for the first time considered sports-related tourism to have an important and significant influence on contemporary tourism flows. In terms of academic and industry assessment, Jackson and Glyptis (1992) provided one of the first reviews of participation in both sport and tourism. Using data from various sources, they observed that whilst the future prospects for both sport and
tourism individually were encouraging, there were significant growth prospects for sports-related tourism.

1.4: Specific Aims and Objectives of the Research

The fundamental aim of this research will be to examine the links between the two sectors of sport and tourism, and the contemporary significance of these links to leisure participation. The ultimate intention is that the research will enhance understanding of the emerging interrelationships between sport and tourism and provide evidence on the exact nature of this synergy, and particularly the behavioural profiles of various sports tourism types.

Due to this area of research having been rarely examined, the nature of the methodological approach is primarily exploratory and inductive. Chapter Four describes the nature of the methodological paradigm adopted within the research and the use of case studies. The research will not have a series of stated hypotheses at the onset, but rather a series of possible outcomes, which will be explored through empirical research.

To meet the broad aims of the research the following specific objectives have been set:

i) to examine the volume, range and significance of sports-related tourism;
ii) to examine the relationships between individual's sports-related tourism activity, and their prior (and post) sports participation;
iii) to evaluate the characteristic profile and sports activity profile of those individuals participating in sport through tourism activity and those involved in tourism through sport;
iv) to examine the nature of spectating as a component of sports tourism activity, particularly behavioural patterns, and related sports participation.

1.5: The Research Framework

It has been proposed that sports-related tourism and other segments of the tourism industry where sport and tourism interrelate are currently of a significant scale and will develop further. Where it exists, industry-related literature on sports tourism has emerged predominantly from North America and tends to follow one of two patterns. Firstly, mapping the area in the form of small scale, sports-specific holiday case study approaches and secondly, the literature tends to provide an overview or summary of the
area, often on a very broad scale. It is suggested throughout this study, that what is really needed at present is a combination of these approaches, with case studies of various scales used to reinforce the broader principles now increasingly being recognised. This project attempts this through empirical work, which focuses on a series of case studies examining what are becoming increasingly typical forms of sports tourism provision and experience.

One case study considers the tourist behaviour patterns associated with holidays taken at 'resort' destinations in the UK. Work at Loughborough University (McCoy, 1991) had evidenced the increased importance being placed on the use of sport within Butlins Holiday Worlds. This case study, outlined in Chapter Five, was conducted in light of major investment by the Rank Organisation (owners of Butlins) on the re-development of their holiday camps, particularly the accommodation stock, and the large investment in sport and leisure facilities.

Relevant to this study, the organisation also provides a winter entertainment and activities programme including a number of well attended off-peak 'sports festivals'. This case study, including management and consumer research, provides evidence, not only of consumer behaviour at these holiday centres, but of the economic value generated through sports-related tourism and the increasing interest of large commercial operators. It is indicative of a trend towards otherwise general tourism products increasingly including sport as part of the package offered. In terms of behavioural data, the study also focuses on the activity styles of visitors from a variety of backgrounds at such centres. This case focuses on the importance (or otherwise) of the availability of sport and recreation in the consumer decision-making process.

The second of the case studies focuses on the growing activity holiday market. Twr-Y-Felin is one of the largest outdoor activity holiday organisations in Wales, in terms of volume and diversity of courses offered. The company organises management development courses, children's activity holidays and courses for groups and individuals of all standards, who wish to participate, and/or gain the relevant coaching/leadership qualifications, in a range of sports. This case study (Chapter Six) represents, in its own right, a significant scale research project into the holiday motivations, activity styles, and general holiday patterns of a large sample of sports activity holiday makers. Of particular interest is a review of the participation 'history' of these sports tourists and how home area leisure activity patterns relate to tourism behaviour.
The World Athletics Cup, the largest international athletics meeting outside of the major Championships, was staged at Crystal Palace over three days in September 1994. With both the Great Britain mens and ladies teams having qualified from the Europa Cup (staged also in the UK, in Birmingham), this event had generated substantial media coverage. This interest was reflected in aggregate attendances of over 30,000. This third case study (Chapter Seven) provides detailed data on sports tourism spectator behaviour, the significance of the event in generating tourist trips, associated activity whilst travelling for sports spectating, distances travelled, length of stay, spending patterns and so on.

A fourth case study examines the generation of tourism through elite level sports participation, competition and training (see Chapter Eight). This case represents a detailed study of a group of 18 athletes who have all represented Great Britain at junior, intermediate and senior levels in track and field athletics, and is one of the first to look in more detail at the sports tourism behaviour of the committed semi-professional (increasingly professional) sports participant.

In the wider context of sports tourism research more generally, this individual study can be supplemented and compared with those examining other sports types. For the purposes of this study, the research into athletics provides sufficient data on the significance of travel generated by contemporary sports involvement at an elite level. The initial results of the study have already been published (Jackson and Reeves, 1997), but are analysed here in detail alongside the other sports tourism types sampled during the research. It is clear that there is increasing significance of sports travel (both domestic and international) of individuals and teams, from recreational standard to elite level performance.

The ultimate aim of the research project is to provide an original contribution to the more detailed and systematic quantification of the significance of sport as a tourism generator, and towards the more effective analysis of the volume and value of sports-related tourism, including behavioural patterns. This is seen as valuable, particularly as sports tourism is now evolving as a sub-sector of increasing significance, as tourism styles change to become more activity oriented. Conclusions emanating from the research, links with the literature reviewed, and linkages of theoretical importance between the cases are developed in Chapter Nine, along with the detailed examination of the proposed sports tourism continuum and typology. An original contribution attempted here, through the empirical case studies, has been to provide a framework in which the identified sports tourism interrelationship can be reviewed and better
understood. The framework attempts to highlight in depth a range of sports tourist and sports tourism types. This also attempts to both further delineate and provide greater understanding of this relatively uncharted leisure sub-field.

In proposing that the sports-related tourism sector can be conceived as a continuum, from incidental and sporadic sports activity whilst on holiday, to tourism behaviour driven exclusively by the needs of, and interest in, particular sports activities, the work also attempts to more clearly conceptualise this field. Applications of this study and areas of further research are outlined in Chapter Ten.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Conceptualising and Contextualising Tourism
2.4 Rationale for Participation in Sport
2.9 Sports-Related Tourism
2.13 The Activity Holiday Market
2.19 Event-Based Tourism
Conceptualising and Contextualising Tourism

2.0: Introduction

This section seeks to conceptualise and contextualise the field of study in which this tourism sub-sector, 'sports tourism' is located. This is achieved by a review and analysis of the tourism literature in two broad areas. Firstly, the work which has examined the definition and categorisation of the tourism industry. Secondly, the area of consumer behaviour in tourism, which is sub-divided into those studies examining the motivation of tourists, and the development of typologies; and then the recent emergence of the literature related to the pre-purchase phase and travel decision-making process. With the emphasis on the human consumption of sports tourism as the focus for this research, Section II outlines the rationale for participation in sport and physical activity. The various dimensions pertaining to sports tourism, which are related directly to the four case studies chosen, are covered in Sections III, IV and V of this literature review chapter.

2.1: Definition and Categorisation of the Tourism Industry

Tourism as an industry has emerged in relatively recent times and indeed international mass tourism is a product of the last 30 years. It is not the aim here to chart the development of the tourism industry, but to highlight the information gaps within our understanding of tourism, some of which are attributable to its youthfulness. Pearce and Butler (1992: 10), for example, suggest that tourism is still in the embryonic stages of study within most disciplines and it has "yet to be accepted as a discipline or field of study, in its own right". A widely held view is that tourism constitutes a significant area of study, but currently lacks a substantial level of theoretical underpinning (see eg. Cohen, 1992 and Smith, 1989).

The subject area is inherently problematic, with conceptual weakness and still no real agreement over definitions of tourism, or what comprises the tourism industry. These problems are compounded by the diverse nature of the industry and the disparate characteristics of its component parts. Smith (1989: 30) argues that in certain situations, having precise operational definitions of tourism may not pose problems, but "it is a serious shortcoming when one is involved with questions such as measuring the magnitude of tourism as an industry". (In this study, this issue is addressed in Chapter Three).
Dann and Cohen (1991) consider tourism as a field of study dominated by two broad types of research, either a large number of specific empirical case studies, whose full theoretical implications are often not fully spelled out, or a body of theoretical writings whose empirical basis is often meagre. This leaves a situation in which two extremes of generality and specificity are observed. As a consequence, Dann and Cohen (1991: 157) contend that, "further efforts should be directed in the first instance to fill up this gap between abstract theory and empirical research". As tourism takes place in a wide ranging geographical, ecological, economic, social, cultural and political context, so the specific studies of tourism must be fully explained. The impact studies which have been conducted, particularly for event-based tourism (Section V), reflect the importance of providing such contextual parameters.

Pearce and Butler (1991: 42) have proposed a series of both practical and theoretical reasons why a precise definition of tourism is required. It is necessary, they suggest, so that the phenomenon can be systematically examined; for statistical reasons and for ease of comparative measurement; for legislative and administrative purposes; and for industry-related reasons. The final reason relates specifically to the supply side of the tourism industry, and its response to fluctuating levels of demand. These issues of supply although an important aspect of sports-related tourism and activity holidays, will not be focused on within this research, which instead concerns itself with the consumption of sports tourism (and demand related issues).

In order to arrive at an operational definition of tourism, Leiper (1990) suggested grouping the possible definitions into economic, technical and holistic categories. A differentiation must certainly be made between conceptual and technical definitions. The former seek to provide a notional framework and broad context in which to identify the primary characteristics of the phenomenon. The latter, however, tend to evolve through a combination of experience and time, and reflect the dynamic and multi-faceted nature of the phenomenon.

Pearce (1993) suggests that the first conceptualisation of tourism was formulated by Hunziker and Krapf (1967), and was that adopted by the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST).

Tourism is the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and study of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not concerned with any earning activity. ( Pearce, 1993: 25)
Shaw & Williams (1994: 16) outline the development of tourism definition and conceptualisation, noting that "it is significant that some of the earliest sustained attempts to identify the tourist came not from academics but from official organisations interested in monitoring the growth of international tourism".

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO), formerly the International Union of Official Travel Organisations (IUOTO), for example, has defined tourism for their purposes with a similar emphasis on economic activity. They consider a visitor to be "any person visiting a country (or region), other than that in which he has his usual place of residence, for any reason other than for following an occupation remunerated from within the country (region) visited" (WTO, 1992). A later definition by Ogilvie (1993) simply considered tourists to be individuals temporarily away from home, who spent money derived from their area of permanent residence.

The definitions put forward by the WTO (ibid) have now been extended into a comprehensive classification, relating types of travellers with both the nature and purpose of the journey. According to this classification system, the visitor is subdivided into two categories. Firstly, as a tourist who is considered to be a visitor making at least one overnight stay in a country or region, and staying for at least 24 hours. Secondly, as an excursionist who is defined as a visitor that does not make an overnight stay (for example day trippers and people on cruises).

Within the empirical case studies detailed later, the research design has been formulated in such a way as to consider those individuals engaged in day trips, as well as travel involving an overnight stay, as a defining characteristic of the tourist. Smith (1989: 22), whilst stating that there is clearly no consensus on a comprehensive definition of the various types of travellers, tourists and excursionists, offers a classification system of travellers synthesised from different authors (Table 2.1).
### Table 2.1: Classification of Travellers

#### I. Travellers relevant to the tourism industry

A. Tourists (trips lasting for more than 24 hours)
   1. International
      (a) Intercontinental
      (b) Intracontinental
   2. Domestic
      (a) Interregional
      (b) Intraregional

B. Excursionists (trips lasting less than 24 hours)
   1. International
   2. Domestic
   3. Passengers and crews of airlines and cruise ships for a few hours in a port of call, or who spend the night aboard the cruise ship and visit the port of call only during the day

#### II. Travellers not relevant to the tourism industry

A. Business-related
   1. Commuters
   2. Migrant workers and those searching for work
   3. Refugees
   4. Military personnel
   5. Crews of airlines and commercial ships (sometimes included as a type of excursionist)

B. Students travelling to an educational institution (study trips are often considered as part of tourism, but not boarding schools)

Source: Smith (1989)

It should be noted that the area of business-related tourism, perhaps obscurely included within this framework as 'travel not relevant to the tourism industry', is now generally recognised to be a significant element of tourism demand and is certainly a potentially significant market segment for sports tourism. The important factor within the research design for the four case studies here is the inclusion of sport as an 'incidental' part of the tourism experience, as well as for the 'main purpose' of the trip. Hence, business-related tourists could conceivably be included within the samples chosen.

The development of tourism as a concept has, according to Burkart and Medlik (1992), reached a point at which several primary characteristics can be clearly identified. Tourism arises from a movement of people to, and their stay in, various destinations. They suggest that there are two main elements in all tourism; firstly, the journey to the destination and, secondly, the stay, including activities at the destination. This latter point is particularly important when considering sports-related tourism and participation in a range of activities undertaken whilst on holiday.
The journey and the stay occur outside the normal place of residence and work, so that tourism gives rise to activities which are distinct from those of residents and working populations of the places, through which tourists travel, and in which they stay. This has vital implications when considering, for example, the myriad of benefits and impacts associated with event-based tourism (see Section V). The movement to destinations is therefore, of a temporary, short-term character, with an intention to return within a few days, weeks or months. Destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment remunerated from within the places visited.

Within the very broad framework outlined above, tourism may be subject to various interpretations, which may suit many purposes and situations, whether they be political, social, economic or environmental. The most effective way in which tourism, as a study area, can be understood is to provide a coherent framework of analysis, encompassing the distinct aspects of tourism and tourist behaviour (and related consumption patterns). This point has been taken up by Smith (1989), who has isolated three aspects of tourism which require more refined definition and conceptualisation. Firstly, the purpose of the visit tends to express a particular motivation for travel and highlights the importance of the enjoyment (or otherwise) of the tourism experience. Secondly, the time element must involve the minimum and maximum period in terms of length of stay away from home, or in terms of length of stay at a particular destination. Thirdly, the particular situation in which the tourism is taking place will lead to a categorisation of tourism, and perhaps also importantly, activities which are not considered to constitute tourism.

Iso-Ahola (1983: 47) has delimited tourism within the activity component per se, and has defined such recreational travel as:

A generic term or a general rubric which includes different forms of travel, such as vacation and weekend travel. More formally it is defined as an activity performed in the process of travelling to, from and at a given destination, during a period of time subjectively designated as unobligated, free, or leisure. The main goal of which is perceived and set to be recreation.

The inherent difficulties in conceptualising the tourism field, were analysed notably by Cohen (1979), who suggested that because the field of study is so complex and heterogeneous, it is pointless attempting to find the definitive, singular theoretical approach. There is equally no point searching for the singular all-embracing conceptualisation of the tourist, but rather:
A pluralistic and even eclectic research strategy is advocated. The many different empirical problems can be tackled by utilising a wide range of concepts and research instruments...The most fruitful work will be accomplished by skillful blending of different approaches for the elucidation of specific problems. (Cohen, 1979: 31)

The task therefore is to move towards a coherent and empirically based analytical and theoretical framework in which the many different dimensions of the tourism industry may be effectively studied. This is attempted within the current framework of case studies, generating a volume of empirical data on four different, yet inter-related, aspects of sports tourism behaviour. An evaluation of the positive and negative impacts of tourism cannot result without valid and reliable definitions, and this is a further, extremely strong rationale, for examining this particular area. The data and information generated by the tourism industry is vital to academic disciplines as well as the management decision-making process. Both rely heavily on operational definitions and concepts, at the very least in order to efficiently delimit the field of enquiry. It may be desirable to produce an all-embracing definition of tourism and the tourist, but in practice, tourists represent a heterogeneous, not an homogenous group, exhibiting different personalities, demographic characteristics, activities and behaviour patterns. It is this diversity of behaviour and the associated patterns of consumption that are now examined.

2.2: Consumer Behaviour in Tourism

The key concept here is that of consumer behaviour, with the focus on the individual patterns of consumption within a complex external environment. This field, which has recently been expanded upon in its application to tourism (see eg. Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999), has multiple facets to its enquiry. The most salient and pertinent feature of the present research lies in the broad framework (or categorisation) of consumer behaviour. Engel et al (1995) have defined consumer behaviour as, "those activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions". Immediately it can be observed that the evaluation of individuals' decisions to undertake a certain form of tourism (including sports-related tourism); the profiling of the actual activities undertaken whilst away from their usual place of residence; and finally, the repeating (or not) of this tourist experience, can all be effectively understood within this context. This is further clarified by an understanding of the various stages of the consumption process, which according to Solomon (1996), can be categorised as pre-purchase; purchase (or consumption) and post-purchase.
Identifying the significance of the consumption element of tourism, Powell (cited in Moutinho, 1987: 36) has put forward a definition, which concentrates on the consumer dimension.

Tourism is both an industry and a response to a social need......its product includes all the elements that combine to form the tourism consumer's experiences and exists to service his needs and expectations.

The area of consumer behaviour in tourism is troublesome due to the nature of the tourism purchasing system and the product itself, but has been researched by a number of analysts, (see eg. Goodall, 1988; Moutinho, 1987). Within this proposed framework, various types of academic enquiry have been undertaken. For example, the decision-making process is an integral part of the pre-purchase phase; motivation and the role of reference groups are critical during the purchase phase; and learning and attitude formation are located primarily within the post-purchase phase. Although it is not within the parameters of this research to provide an in-depth, critical review of all these areas (both current research and extant literature), it must provide a necessary frame of reference for the remainder of the literature review and empirical case studies. In essence, the importance of consumption within an individual's holistic and constructed identity, and subsequent lifestyle, is focused on.

2.2.1: Tourism Motivation Studies

The rationale for including an analysis of individual and group differences is based upon the fact that the interrelationships between sport and tourism exist at an individual level, within this particular field of activity, whilst still occurring within a highly complex social, economic and political context. By enhancing our understanding of the reasons why people choose certain types of holiday, and engage in different forms of tourism, the motivation for such sub-sectors of the industry can more readily be understood. Motivation, as noted earlier, is an integral part of the consumption process, and although witnessed predominantly within the middle phase of the framework proposed by Solomon (op cit), can and does have a significant impact at all stages, and hence is central to our understanding.

Although many authors have proposed models to help us understand travel and tourism motivation, and the behavioural dimensions of tourism, the studies of Cohen, 1979 & 1983; Krippendorf, 1987 and Plog, 1974 & 1987; are central to this work. This potentially assists us in understanding the true nature of the interrelationships between sport and tourism. Yet, to date, there has been little previous examination of the motivations and expectations of 'sports tourists' specifically. As such, the
remainder of this section focuses on the literature informing questions into this field of enquiry.

There are many practical reasons why understanding tourist motivation and the associated decision-making process is fundamental, but there are epistemological difficulties inherent in their empirical study. The concepts of push factors, and pull factors appear central to an understanding of this field of literature. Dann (1977) stressed the importance of push factors in determining the need for the travel experience, while the pull factors tend to affect the destination and/or product choice. The destination pull, in response to motivational push, reflects the dynamic relationship between the desire and intention of an individual to travel and the inherent attraction of the targeted destination and/or product. Behaviour within this context is that which may not be readily sanctioned, or feasible, within the established home environment. Indeed the examination of whether sporting activities are undertaken only whilst an individual is engaged in a holiday or travel experience or routine, and not continued once the individual has returned home, may be conceived as a further area for enquiry within this framework.

In general however, there has been little or no coherent understanding between the plethora of studies centred on tourism motivation, and this has been alluded to by Jafari (1987). Researchers working in the tourism field, have focused on varying combinations of factors in an attempt to explain motivation to travel. Thomas (1964), for example, listed 18 reasons for travel, Gray (1970) put forward the dual motivation analysis of 'wanderlust' and 'sunlust', and Lundberg (1972) described a network of 20 factors explaining tourist motivation. Crompton (1979) suggested nine different primary travel motives, whilst warning that "to expect motivation to account for a large variance in tourist behaviour is probably asking too much since there may be other inter-related forces operating". These other forces have been identified as both economic and social, as well as psychological. So the picture is not a clear one. This has led Witt and Wright (1990) to argue for the need to develop multi-variate models in order to more effectively understand tourist motivation, as the existing uni-variate models appear inappropriate, or at least simplistic.

McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) developed a classification system of the various travel motivators gleaned from the existing tourism motivation literature, and they summarised what they conceived as the dominant motivating factors for travel and tourism (see Table 2.2).
Table 2.2: Classification of Travel Motivators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Cultural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>activities</td>
<td>others lifestyles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport and recreation</td>
<td>music and dance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>health and fitness</td>
<td>folklore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well-being</td>
<td>art</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-personal</td>
<td>Status and prestige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet new people</td>
<td>hobbies and interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visit friends and relatives</td>
<td>personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spiritual pilgrimage</td>
<td>ego enhancement/recognition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: McIntosh & Goeldner (1986)

Pearce (1993: 114) outlines a blueprint for tourist motivation in which it is conceptualised as a part of, rather than the entirety of, tourist demand. In summary, he suggests that tourist motivation is "discretionary, episodic, future oriented, dynamic, socially influenced and evolving". This clearly portrays a rapidly changing, diverse and disparate picture of tourist motivation. Cohen (1983), in revealing the importance of formulating tourist motivation in which the issue of ownership is central, suggested three factors: the principle of parsimony; the principle of reflexivity; and the principle of ethnocentrism. These principles, in aggregate, generate the need for an "elegant, efficient and usable tourist motivation theory" (Cohen, 1983: 20). Pearce (op cit), in direct contrast to the ideas put forward by Cohen (ibid), proposes that any theory must be robust in terms of its universal acceptance, and its validity and reliability, as a predicting tool. A sound theory for tourist motivation must, he suggests, communicate effectively and be readily understood by all potential stakeholders.

The major question asked of theoretical approaches, therefore, is whether or not the data generated should have predictive value, or rather value in obtaining what may be considered a post-hoc and primarily descriptive account of travel and tourist motivation. The point which is fundamental here, is that the indices used for data collection, whether they be considered predictive or merely descriptive, must be common, otherwise no comparative analysis can confidently be made. The theoretical framework proposed for research in this field must therefore be sufficiently flexible and adaptable to incorporate individual changes across the life-span and, in addition, should be able to consider the effects and influences of broad cultural forces on tourist behaviour. A rigid and uncompromising analytical framework would not, it appears, be appropriate for tourism as an area of study.
The study of motivation in tourism is still arguably at a relatively immature phase of development, despite the widespread acceptance of its importance as an essential concept, at least partially responsible for the different patterns of tourist demand. However, the concept of motivation in the context of travel is not easy to map out or to comprehend. After careful examination of the theories and models developed in this area, a number of common elements can be identified:

- travel and tourism is inherently 'need-related' and this is manifest in a motivational 'push' towards travel and action of particular types;
- motivation is grounded in both psychological and sociological norms, attitudes, culture, values and perceptions, thus resulting in 'person-specific' motivational forms;
- motivation can result in positive take-up and continuation of tourist activity, but it can also be responsible for non-repeat demand (and cessation of tourism);
- the image of tourism products and destinations is crucial, as it will influence motivation and affect the type of travel undertaken.

The final point, related to motivation studies encompasses the issue of authenticity of the tourist experience (see eg. Boorstin, 1964; MacCannel, 1976), and describes intra-individual processes such as host-tourist interaction and stereotypical images (see eg. Doxey, 1975). This aspect has been addressed in the specific literature on sports-related tourism (see Section III), and particularly within the work of Standeven & Tomlinson (1994), and more recently De Knop & Standeven (1998). The tension occasionally evident between residents and visitors over the use of community facilities, is a good example of this. The authenticity debate, however, is more developed within the event-based tourism literature reviewed in Section V, in which the events are placed within the social and cultural context.

The approaches to travel motivation outlined, attempt to identify differences among tourists in terms of personality attributes, skills and abilities, and are particularly directed to the life history (and hence lifestyle) of the person, rather than the workings of the cognitive processes. Pearce and Stringer (1991: 142) suggest that such approaches have two direct applications to tourism studies. Firstly, the establishment of links between one personality type and set of skills (such as sensation seeking), and the relation of this to levels of participation in sport, recreation and tourism-based activities. The second application lies in the construction of motivation and psychographic profiles for the purposes of market research.
2.2.2: Tourist Typologies

The typologies evident within the field of tourism motivation studies may be categorised as either behavioural, or functional. The former are best illustrated by the notion of 'wanderlust', or the curiosity to experience the strange and unfamiliar, and can be applied particularly to the increasing market segment of adventure-based tourism. The work of Gray (op cit) previously reviewed, provided an early example of typologies related to novelty of experience. The latter category, which examines the tourist role or function, includes studies such as that by Dann and Cohen (1991), in which the tourist behaviour of individuals are aggregated to produce a broad typology of behavioural characteristics. In his early studies, Cohen (1983) focused on the competing demands of tourists for novelty and familiar experiences. His typology recognised four types of tourist; the 'mass tourist'; the 'individual mass tourist'; the 'explorer' and finally, the 'drifter'.

The pyschographic research of Plog (1987) was used to examine motivations as well as attitudes and expectations of tourism products and destinations. His theory was developed in a commercial setting, initially working with airline business clients, and was primarily concerned with the apparent difference between flyers and non-flyers. He produced the notions of 'psychocentric' (self inhibited, nervous and non-adventurous people) and 'allocentric' (variety seeking, adventurous, confident people) types.

According to Mazanec (1995), the construction of traveller typologies is not a new undertaking in tourism research or in marketing research. The Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTTRA), for example, has covered this issue extensively, while academic social science approaches to tourism research (see eg. Pearce, 1982; Cohen, 1988 and Dann, et al., 1988) have repeatedly made reference to these typological concerns. Mazanec (1995: 138) argues in this respect that:

Market segmentation research in tourism denies the existence of a unique, all-encompassing and universally satisfying traveller typology, and the simple-minded approaches to segmentation exclusively relying on demographics or socio-economic criteria are becoming obsolete.

He suggests that future research should be concentrated on the methodology of neurocomputing, in which more sophisticated pyschographic typologies (involving motives, values and lifestyles or benefit and activities) can be constructed. This would clearly have a positive effect on the profiling of emerging sub-sectors within the
tourism industry, such as sports tourism, in which little psychographic work has been previously conducted.

The tourist typology studies outlined are problematic in the sense that they are static and based on fairly limited data. To assume that tourists remain within one particular category, or as one type over time, can clearly be criticised. The work of Pearce (1982), taking a biographical and longitudinal approach, seeks to address this criticism of models being somewhat static. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) developed a tourist motivation framework for theme parks and the tourist attractions sector, which was labelled the 'travel career tapestry'. This was a five-fold hierarchical system which ranked tourists' post hoc motivational descriptions of their holidays. The authors argued that people have a distinct pattern or career in their tourist behaviour and change levels during their life cycle. A dynamic dimension is thus introduced, apparently lacking in other approaches.

There seems to be therefore, a multitude of approaches and several weaknesses in much of the tourism motivation research so far undertaken, and each new era of research appears to highlight weaknesses in earlier attempts, whilst building on our understanding. Nevertheless, typological approaches do remain useful, and according to Shaw & Williams (1994: 75):

- they highlight the broad diversity of tourists in terms of the patterns of demand and consumption;
- they provide an insight into the motivations of tourists and their behaviour;
- they produce a platform from which to explore the relationships between tourist consumption and the socio-cultural fabric of destination areas.

2.2.3: The Travel Decision-Making Process

Goodhall (1988) has simplified the study of holiday choice by focusing on two interrelated questions; firstly, the reasons why holiday makers initially demand holidays and secondly, the types of holiday they demand (and thus the activities they pursue). Such questions are clearly relevant to the study of sub-sectors of tourism, such as sports-related tourism. The first question encompasses much of what has previously been discussed within the field of tourism motivation studies.

Moutinho (1987: 16) suggests that there are two prevailing views with respect to tourist motivation. The first stresses the need for balance and harmony, which considers the consumer to be more comfortable with the expected. The second
maintains that the unexpected is satisfying and the "individual will seek complexity, not sameness" (ibid). This has been directly related to the development of 'opportunity set' models, which have been widely applied to the dynamic process of holiday choice (Goodall et al., 1988; Moutinho, 1987 and Woodside & Sherrell, 1977). One such model describes this particular process in terms of the interrelationship between the various opportunity sets identified.

The 'total opportunity set' is defined as all the conceivable holidays available to the consumer. But as consumers do not have a complete awareness of all such opportunities, then a 'perceived opportunity set', is introduced. Those holidays which are financially feasible constitute a sub-category, labelled as the 'attainable opportunity set', but as this may in some cases be considerable, these can be reduced to a 'consideration set' (located wholly within the 'perceived set'). The constraints to access suggest that a 'realisable opportunity set' must be introduced. For an individual to make an informed choice, an 'effective choice set' must be identified, and adopting indicators and weighted criteria, the consumer determines a 'decision set'.

**Figure 2.1: Holiday-Makers Opportunity Sets**

As most holiday decisions are made jointly within a family setting, the work of Cozena & Davis (1981) and Jenkins (1978) is relevant, focusing on the modified goals caused by the joint decision-making process, while Raaij and Francken (1984) described a series of weighted factors which were identified as determining the vacation sequence.
The studying of tourist behaviour has largely been focused on two emergent themes; firstly, general tourist activities; and secondly, more detailed analysis based on tourist time budgets (see eg. Cooper, 1981). The former category includes the wealth of published material which generates lists of tourist activities, based on basic questionnaire survey designs. For example Greenwood et al. (1988), in a study of the importance of activities to holiday makers in Cornwall, listed activities and attributed value labels in terms of perceived importance.

Those activities identified in these studies vary over time and space, and hence the time-budget approach allows an insight into such variations in behaviour. Rao et al. (1992), highlighted the work of Bonnet as an example of time-budget analysis, relating it to life rhythms within the family setting in France. In a study of holiday makers in Australian resorts, Pearce (1982) found that there was a significant increase in self-initiated activities after the first four or five days of the holiday, taken in areas offering a structured programme of activities. Spatial examinations of tourist activities have, however, received relatively scant attention in the literature thus far. Cooper's work (op cit), centred on a time-space budget analysis of a sample of tourists on Jersey, is a rare exemplar of this type of research.

An activity classification system developed by Taylor, cited in Rao et al. (1992), and shown in Table 2.2, attempted to link tourist with types of activities, and was adopted within the research framework of Rao et al. (ibid).

Table 2.3: Activity Classification System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Touring Trip</td>
<td>By car, bus or train for scenic and/or cultural reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A City Trip</td>
<td>For shopping, strolling around, museum visiting etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An Outdoors Trip</td>
<td>For activities such as camping, hunting, fishing, hiking or rafting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Resort Trip</td>
<td>For a wide variety of recreational activities, amenities and facilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Cruise</td>
<td>On board activities and port of calls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Theme Park/ Special Event Trip</td>
<td>World Fairs and Sports Events.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Taylor, cited in Rao et al. (1992)
They examined the activity patterns of American travellers, based on home interviews with 9,000 respondents. Their definition of a trip involved the respondent having to travel over 100 miles, spending at least one night away from home, and to have used commercial accommodation and/or transportation. (This definition is a further alternative to those previously outlined). The respondents were invited to indicate how important the various activities were in the decision-making process for each category of trip. The classification system is highly relevant to the empirical case studies, especially the categories of, 'resort trip', 'outdoors trip' and 'special event trip', which correspond to Southcoast World, Twr-Y-Felin, and World Athletics Cup respectively. The 'touring trip' and 'city trip' categories may conceivably be applied to the final case study of elite British athletes, to classify their tourism activity, particularly during competition abroad.

The study by Rao et al (op cit), is effective in addressing (if not solving) the definition and conceptualisation problems of tourism studies, previously described. More importantly, it is unusual in its concerted attempt to link activities undertaken by various tourist types, whilst engaged in various forms of tourism, with the decision-making process, and holiday satisfaction. This research design is important within this current empirical research.

In addition to its academic importance, this type of study has numerous applications to the industry. Such market-based information can give a company a strategic competitive advantage. Schmoll (1995) has suggested the use the following indicators as an effective framework for market segmentation of tourists:

- socio-demographic indicators, including age, education and occupation;
- travel behaviour indicators, including the purpose and reason for vacation travel;
- travel motivation (and decision) indicators, including 'push' and 'pull' factors.

The rationale for vacation travel has been developed within the work of Iso-Ahola, 1984 and Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987. In these studies, the need for escape and the seeking of personal rewards are paramount to the decision to travel. Leisure travel or recreational travel was defined therefore, in terms of these escaping and seeking dimensions. Iso-Ahola (1983: 48) has advocated a dialectical view of recreational travel, whereby it is a process of perpetual interplay between two forces; to avoid one's daily environment and to seek novelty and other psychological rewards.

The point is that we can say very little about individual travel behaviour on the basis of such typical sociological variables as income. Disposable income may for example impose a ceiling on recreational travel for certain individuals.
The intrinsic motivation-optimal arousal theory formulated by Iso-Ahola (1980) has been extrapolated from his leisure motivation work. The basic thrust of this was to move away from culturally supplied explanations of motives, with stereotypical responses, and to move towards the understanding of intrinsic motivation within the framework of the need for 'optimal arousal'. Iso-Ahola's work clearly develops a leisure-based perspective on tourist motivation, with the key for managers and practitioners being to facilitate feelings of self determination and competence in leisure/tourism settings. Hamilton-Smith (1987: 343) has also attempted to integrate traditional leisure theory into the study of tourism and remarks that:

It is almost self-evident that there is an important interrelationship between occupation and holiday-taking, yet all too little tourism research has explored the relationship between tourism behaviour and home behaviour, of which class and occupation are central determinants.

It has been interesting to analyse how these factors can be seen to influence sports tourism behaviour. Lounsbury and Polik (1992: 114) reported on a study based upon the 'Leisure Motivation Scale' adopted by Beard and Ragheb (1983), in an attempt to measure 'expressed needs' prior to vacation and 'fulfilled needs' post-vacation. The study by Lounsbury and Polik (ibid), was related to social, intellectual, competence mastery and stimulus avoidance domains. They concluded that traditional research has attempted to reduce the number of variables required to study and understand a phenomenon, and so "it is pleasing to see that vacation satisfaction is interpretable in terms of such a small number of constructs", as opposed to the larger number of individual outcomes found by Lounsbury and Hoopes (1985). These studies may be used to effectively link the examination within the empirical cases of the importance of participation in sporting activities to the holiday enjoyment, and post-vacation continuation of the activities, and their role in future holiday decision-making processes. Furthermore, similar issues of adherence (and drop-out) and fidelity patterns within individual sports participation are outlined in Section II.

2.3: Summary

Cohen (1979: 31) has argued that important concepts proposed by researchers within the field of tourism, although not always systematically developed, can be usefully elaborated upon. It is proposed that the studies detailed here provide a sound basis for an understanding of tourist motivation, associated consumer behaviour and activity profiles. Cohen (ibid) concludes that:
Further elaboration and empirical testing of existing conceptual frameworks, would serve the development of this field better than the constant proliferation of ever new approaches.

As tourism is clearly a complex process, or rather a combination of more specific processes, there is an acute need to recognise that the snap-shot picture taken within the research framework is only one stage within a continuous process and can therefore only be analysed and understood within the context of that particular process. The need for longitudinal studies within this field of tourism studies represents a gap in the theoretical underpinning, and highlights the need to understand the true dynamism of the industry, as well as the rapidly changing consumer expectations, behaviour and activities.

The role of tourism motivation analysis is to examine the importance of psychological factors and processes in generating tourism and to better understand the choices, preferences and requirements of visitors. It is suggested that the primary task of tourist motivation theories and perspectives is to provide a fuller picture of tourist needs and a reservoir of ideas for researchers to use in specific studies of satisfaction, decision-making and applied marketing. In addition, it is fundamental that the range of tourist motivations and expectations are understood in a cumulative rather than piecemeal fashion. The achievement of this, which until very recently has been neglected, will aid the process of constructing individual profiles and hence lifestyle evaluations. These are necessary for different individuals, undertaking different types of activity at different stages of their life stage. It is in this respect, that this remains one of the principal aims of this research.

Having, in summary, conceptualised and contextualised this particular field of enquiry, the next section examines the rationale for participation in sport. The reasons for choosing to take part in sport by individuals, and the differences observed across individual types, sports, and the influence of groups will be identified. The key point that will be emphasised is lifestyle, and the role of consumption of sport and tourism products as an increasingly important element within this process.
Rationale for Participation in Sport

2.4: Introduction

The previous section has critically evaluated the literature available in the area of consumer behaviour in tourism, particularly tourism motivation; tourism typologies, and the tourism decision-making process. The phenomenon of sports-related tourism, encompassing the distinct relationship between sport and tourism, also necessarily requires further analysis of the motivations and rationale for participation in sport and physical activity. The importance of this to individual lifestyle will be addressed, and this section concentrates on the social-psychological rationales provided for such consumption and human involvement. Such a perspective has dominated the sports motivation literature, and most closely mirrors that body of literature which attempts to explain reasons for individual engagement in tourism activity (Section I). This focus on motivation, does necessarily encompass elements of all three phases of the consumer behaviour process (Solomon, 1990). The sociological, physiological and philosophical perspectives on reasons for participation in sport and physical activity are also reviewed, particularly where links may be established with the existing tourism studies literature. The section concludes with an examination of sports development, the sports development continuum, and its relevance to this current study.

2.5: Motivation for Sports Participation

The importance of the motivational dimension for participation in sport has been the subject of increasing interest, reflecting the proliferation of psychological studies examining sport and exercise related issues. This has been addressed by Roberts (1992: v), in one of the first dedicated texts on sports motivation, integrating research papers from Europe and North America.

Achievement behavior and motivation in sport have been the subject of much debate in both academic and coaching circles. Given this long history of concern, one would expect that motivation in sport has been thoroughly studied. But the systematic study of motivation processes in sport and, more recently in exercise has only in the last 20 years received significant and sustained attention by those scholars specializing in sport and exercise sciences.

Within the diverse, and often disparate nature of papers examining the phenomenon of motivation impacting on sport, Weinberg and Gould (1995) have put forward three general orientations for understanding motivation in sport (these parallel those proposed for personality and sport by the same authors):
• trait-centred;
• situation-centred;
• interactional.

These are considered to be applicable to both theoretical and applied understanding of motivation in sport settings. This effectively summarises the generic areas of research interest evident over the past twenty years. The first orientation, namely trait-centered approaches, suggests that motivation is a function of an individual's characteristics. These may include individual interests, needs, goals, and their personality constitution. Considerable work has been carried out more generally in the field of the social-psychology of leisure (see eg. Neulinger, 1985; Mannel & Kleiber, 1997) in which the concept of needs and wants has been central. The second general orientation (situation-centred approaches) proposes that motivation is primarily determined by the context (or situation). The factors to be considered here may include the type and level of sporting activity, attitude of coaches, parents, and significant others. The third orientation is a combined approach, whereby the interaction of both the participant and situation is considered to determine the level and nature of the motivation. Such an interactional view has been mirrored by the work of Roberts (1992) in which he puts forward a 'Dynamic Process Model' of motivation in sport and exercise, which conceptualises the integrated and multi-faceted nature of the phenomenon.

The fundamental reasons for individuals' participation in sport have been covered extensively in the literature (see eg. Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Numerous studies have been undertaken examining motivations for playing a particular sport. These have variously focused on different age groups, different sports and gender. For example, Gord & Petchikoff (1988), in their study of major motives for youth participation in sport programmes, established the following factors, ranked in order of priority by the individuals:

• improvement of skill level;
• having fun;
• being with friends;
• experiencing thrills/excitement;
• achieving success;
• developing fitness.

A similar study was conducted by Wankel & Krenel (1985) which produced similar ranked motives. An earlier study by Wankel (1980) on this age cohort, sought to distinguish those factors which resulted in an initial participation in their chosen
activity, from those which were responsible for continued involvement (fidelity). This is an extremely relevant area for the current research, and particularly within the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin studies, in which post-participation patterns are examined. The results from the study, conducted by Wankel (1980) are outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Factors for Initial and Continued Participation in Youth Sport Programmes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INITIALLY JOINING</th>
<th>CONTINUING INVOLVEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Programme enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight loss</td>
<td>Organisation-leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness</td>
<td>Activity type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self challenge</td>
<td>Social factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel better/sense of well-being</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A study of college soccer and hockey players by Csikszentmihalyi (1977) requested a cohort to rank a series of pre-determined motivation factors, related to reasons for participation in their chosen sport. The following were the top eight ranked motives:

- competition: measuring self against others;
- the development of personal skills;
- friendship and companionship;
- the activity itself;
- the enjoyment of the experience/use of skills;
- measuring self against own ideals;
- prestige/reward/glamour;
- emotional release.

It can be observed that this list includes both intrinsic and extrinsic motives, and the distinction between these two are discussed later in this section. In a study of former elite figure skaters, which again has significance for the current research (and especially the case study of elite British track and field athletes), Scanlon et al. (1989) found through an inductive interview method, that four factors (in order of priority) were identified by the participants:

- social and life opportunities;
perceived competence;
- social recognition of competence;
- the act/skill of skating itself.

The social factor has been evident in numerous studies into motivations for sporting participation, irrespective of sport type, level of skill, and a range of other personal characteristics (including age and gender). Certainly the issue of competence, both perceived and realised, is central to the existing psychological studies of sports participants, and this will also be discussed later in this section.

For elite performers, the desire or ambition to win is frequently cited as the primary motive, and with the increased level of professionalisation of sport, their jobs and livelihood may be dependent upon this. The intensity of travel associated with a cohort of elite athletes (Chapter Eight) evidences the desire through a total commitment to training, preparation and ultimately competition, at both domestic and international levels. The academic research (see eg. Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992) tends to confirm that such elite performers have high levels of task orientation and ego-orientation, a desire to win, and win well.

Differences are also found to exist in terms of the level of achievement behaviour (desire to achieve) according to the different levels of performer. For example, Roberts (1992) found that elite performers have greater levels of desire to win and achieve than novices, although little work has been undertaken to ascertain perceived differences at the intermediate performance level. Novice performers, or beginners, tend to participate for more social reasons. Differences may also be observed in terms of achievement motivation. Successful elite performers are found to be high in both task and ego behaviour, whereas novice performers (or those who are unsuccessful) tend to be low in both task and ego orientation.

In terms of sport-specific studies, Robinson (1992) has developed a 'Model of Enduring Risk Recreation Involvement', which has concluded that there are two primary motivational dispositions involved in the determination of people being attracted to, and remaining committed to, risk recreational activities. Firstly, the need for stimulation (optimal arousal), which has links to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1957) and secondly, the need for autonomy (self-determination). According to Mannel & Kleiber (1997), this study provides an example of "a specific model which demonstrates the importance of incorporating motivation explanations into a larger social psychological framework". This work expands upon the variables isolated previously by Csikszentmihalyi (1977) and Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura (1985).
More recent work by Stein et al (1995) has attempted to link such reasons for participation in risk recreation with these identified elements of flow and optimal arousal.

The literature tends to categorise the personal set of reasons for participation as either intrinsic or extrinsic. The former, sometimes also referred to as 'internal' motives, emanate from 'within' the individual, and tend to be based on mastery (ie. achievement and accomplishment of tasks). Vallerd et al (1988) have done extensive work on the importance of intrinsic motives applied to the sports context. Extrinsic motives arise from primarily 'external' sources and are based upon the outcomes of sport (ie. winning, receiving prizes). Table 2.5 shows examples of these two forms of motivations for participation in sport.

### Table 2.5 : Opposing Motives for Participation in Sport?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTRINSIC</th>
<th>EXTRINSIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Social Approval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health/Well-being</td>
<td>Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Pleasure Principle</td>
<td>Winning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing one's ability is one of the main reasons cited for participation in sport, and can in part be explained by the Competence Motivation Theory (Harter, 1978). This theory posits that people seek competence by engaging in mastery attempts (ie. learning and demonstrating sport skills), and if successful, these experiences result in feelings of efficacy (confidence) and positive affect (satisfaction), which in turn may lead to continued, or repeat participation. The seeking of competence through sport can be linked to either achievement in the sense of winning, or, as is most likely the case, achievement of set goals or defined tasks.

The Achievement Goal Theory (Roberts, 1992) suggests that if the orientation of an individual towards a goal or task is understood, then it will aid understanding of the set of motives for their sports participation. Motives for competence can be explained by individuals who are task oriented in their goal achievement, and motives for task-oriented people are based upon attempts to improve personal performance (ie. to better themselves) and concern themselves with the quality of their performance.
A further, very strong motive for playing sport is a sense of affiliation, ie. the need to belong to a team, group, club or society in general. This can be linked in basic terms to the Hierarchy of Needs, proposed by Maslow (op cit), and the leisure-specific work of Iso-Ahola (1982). Various social psychological theories have been put forward as an explanation of affiliation in sport (see eg. Carron & Hausenblaus, 1998). This current research focuses on the individual level, rather than on interaction with others, but nevertheless, this 'team' element remains important in terms of the social and companionship element evident in both participation and spectating patterns. The theory of Group Cohesion, for example (Carron, 1992; Carron & Bull, 1990) identifies two main reasons that are common to all teams and groups, irrespective of skill level, or type of sport. Firstly, the theory claims that individuals desire involvement in a team for predominantly social reasons, and the subsequent satisfaction and pleasure derived from that social interaction. This has clearly identifiable links with the travelling or 'touring' of sports teams, at all levels of participation. Secondly, individuals are motivated to play in the team for task reasons, ie. enjoyment of working with other members of that team, in common pursuit of the task completion.

The 'pleasure principle' is a term which has been developed to encompass all reasons provided by an individual in description of the positive affective experiences induced by participation in their chosen sport(s). This is exemplified by the playing of sport for the enjoyment, pleasure and satisfaction that it can bring, or the excitement and thrill which arises from the very challenge and action of sports participation. There can of course be physiological explanations provided for such feelings of pleasure, in terms of the endorphin release associated with certain levels of exercise, and an enhanced sense of physical and psychological well-being (see eg. Sonstroem, 1984; Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989; Williams 1994).

A philosophical rationale may also be forwarded, in that an individual's desire for pleasure is a reflection of his/her desire for a 'good life' (Kretchmarr, 1994). Sport philosophers have recently concerned themselves with providing adequate explanations for individuals' participation in sport. It has been suggested that this pursuit for the good life is an essential ingredient. This can be described as a set of experiences, which constitute a lifestyle regarded as desirable, and based on people's beliefs and values. These values can exist on two levels. Firstly, moral values including personality traits and human motives, such as honesty, affection and conscientiousness. Secondly, non-moral values, such as the desire for wealth, knowledge and health. Sport may be conceived by the individual within this framework as one important and necessary element of this type of lifestyle.
An alternative philosophical view is that sport mirrors what is happening in contemporary society (which coincidentally is the central premise on which the Functionalist sociological perspective of sport and society is based. See eg. Coakley, 1996). The philosophical view is based on the three principles of survivalism, individualism and rationalism. The survival instinct, for example, may be explained by individuals' use of sport to seek a 'psychological fix' or catharsis, as a means of escaping from everyday life. This sense of escapism is an important element within the tourism motivation literature (see eg. Iso Ahola, 1989; Plog, 1986 and Stringer, 1990) which has been reviewed in Section I, and also the recent life stage analysis work of Gibson et al (1997), reviewed in Section III.

There are a set of motives for people participating in sport which are centred upon the quest for health, fitness and general well-being (both psychological and physiological). These may include weight control, physical appearance, and generally maintaining the body in a good physical state in order to maximise the life experience. The Health Belief Model (Becker et al, 1977; Read & Osborn, 1980; Slenker et al, 1984) provides a psychological rationale for participation, and suggests that an individual's compliance (or non-compliance) with a health behaviour change is dependent upon that individual's perception of their vulnerability to a disorder. This may be most closely related (on an individual level) to a cost-benefit analysis (or risk assessment). If compliance, and hence take-up and continuation of a given sport is perceived by the individual to reduce the risk of vulnerability, then it will be seen as a desirable life change decision. This has implications, it would seem, for the observed move towards more active forms of tourism involvement (Section III & IV).

Self Efficacy Theory (see eg. Bandura, 1989; Bandura & Cervane, 1986; Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992) attempts to explain why people are motivated to play sport in terms of their self-confidence. This is conceived of as an incidental process whereby a positive experience leads to increased self-confidence, and in turn increased participation in that initial activity. The outcome is increased self-esteem, confidence and a developed sense of well-being. The reverse situation may also occur, with negative experiences, manifested in a lack of self confidence. This is coterminous to the constraints literature, reviewed later in this section. The established 'drop-out' of post-school teenagers is a prominent exemplar of this situation.

For some individuals, winning provides the primary motive for participation. Achievement Goal Theory (see eg. Duda, 1993; Hachr & Nicholls, 1980; Nicholls, 1984) may explain this particular motive, in which a person who exhibits an ego-oriented outlook in life will tend to transfer this rationale to their participation in sport.
The goal or motive for such individuals is to maintain a favourable perception of their ability, ie. winning is associated with high ability and minimising the probability of demonstrating low ability and attainment. Such ego-centred behaviour is not considered in the literature as particularly desirable for beginners or novices in sport, because a focus based totally on outcomes (and winning) is unlikely to consistently produce a positive result, and hence the fear of failure becomes a pertinent issue. This was referred to extensively within the work of De Knop (1990, 1992) in his examination of sports tourism behaviour types, in which the fear of looking 'stupid' in front of others, was considered to be a primary motive for non-participation, or cessation of activities whilst on holiday.

The existence of rewards is a further motive for participation in sport, and may be categorised as either tangible, or non-tangible. Furthermore, they may be directly related to the issue of intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation (discussed previously). Tangible rewards are quantifiable in nature, such as medals, trophies and prize monies, whereas the non-tangible ones are subjective, and less quantifiable, such as praise, encouragement, satisfaction and feelings of accomplishment.

The Locus of Control Theory (see Roberts, 1992) attempts to explain why certain individuals may be motivated to seek rewards. It believes that personal control over reinforcement outcomes (situations where rewards may be gained) influences individuals' motivation for participation in sport. Hence, individuals have a greater desire to be in charge and control their own lives (self-determination). As a function of this, they desire to control the rewards that come to them through sport. If the dominant perception is one of control, then the locus of control is said to be more internal, intensive and ultimately satisfying. The control of the pain, pleasure, the 'buzz' and thrill may be closely associated with the feelings outlined by those individuals engaged in potentially dangerous outdoor adventure activities. The perceived level of competence in a given activity, and its link to boredom and anxiety thresholds had been examined in the sport setting by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), and is closely related to the risk recreation research of Robinson (op cit).

The importance of status in sports participation is a relatively under-researched area. The work of Bordieu (1986) in highlighting the role of cultural capital in sport partly explains the potential inequalities which exist. This has significance for the discussion of constraints within sport, and barriers to participation for certain segments of the population (Section 2.6). The Achievemnt Motivation Theory (see eg. Duda, 1986; Duda & Nicholls, 1989; Gill, 1986) claims that people are born with differing levels of need to achieve and be successful in all arenas of life. The link to social acceptance,
kudos, and a sense of belonging are clear. The praise from fellow competitors, coaches, family and friends becomes a powerful motivator for continued participation in chosen sporting activity. Socially-oriented individuals will therefore participate in order to gain approval, affiliation, to impress existing friends and to make new ones. The concepts of a social status and a social approval motive should be considered as distinct entities, as the former sees success as being an end in itself, while the latter, views such success as a means to an identified end, namely acceptance from significant others.

As people differ in their motivation to participate as a function of skill level, they also vary across different sport types. Differences can be observed therefore, between traditional and non-traditional (emerging) sports, and between individual and team sports. Non-traditional sport forms, such as snow boarding and mountain biking, tend to be extreme in nature, and hence elicit motives towards gratification of individual desires and pleasures (eg. thrill seeking). This allows individuals' access, creativity and a freedom of expression, often manifested in the development of a distinct sports sub-culture. Traditional sport involvement, however, tends to elicit motives based upon competition, success and achievement. Not surprisingly, team sports elicit more social affiliation motives, as compared to individual sports which can be identified more completely with personal and interpersonal sources of gratification, such as to beat others and to succeed (Widmeyer et al., 1992).

Reasons for participation in sport and exercise have been shown to vary as a function of a person's chronological age (see eg. Biddle, 1992). In children and the young adult cohort, a consistent set of motives for sport tend to emerge, with importance varying as a direct function of the individual (enjoyment, challenge, appearance). As age increases, it has been evidenced that reasons for sports and exercise participation become increasingly centered on an individual's health and well-being issues, with a subsequent decline in perceived importance attached to participation for improvement of ability, skills and competence. The challenge of the sport in general, tends to decline with age. (The evidence from empirical work undertaken by Gibson (1998), outlined in Section III, suggests that the sports tourists, she profiled, remained active well into retirement). In more exercise-based activities, a shift is observed towards increased social motives to meet people. The data from a number of sports surveys (see Chapter Three) includes participation in the most popular activities in the UK by age cohorts, and provides empirical evidence to support or refute these patterns.

The main differences in reasons provided by both men and women for sports participation appears to be the type of competitiveness that is focused upon (Gill,
1994). In sport, for example, males have been shown to participate primarily for interpersonal purposes, with the main focus being to compete against others and win. According to Gill (ibid), females tend to participate in sport for intrapersonal reasons, which may include factors such as playing for personal gains and personal improvement. This is more performance-oriented and dependent upon the perceived quality of the competition. In purely exercise terms, Biddle (op cit) is convinced that the reasons provided by men and women as to why they participate are virtually identical. They tend to be health-based, specifically relating to personal appearance. Males tend to have a 'fixation' with size, stature and body schema, while females tend to be concerned more commonly with weight loss.

Whilst a considerable body of literature exists which examines the inequalities which prevail in sporting opportunities for various individuals affiliated to certain ethnic cultures (see eg. Carrington, 1997; Jarvie, 1995), little research has concentrated on the differences in motivations as a function of ethnicity and cultural background. Sport may be seen to provide an arena in which ethnic identity and group solidarity may be achieved through participation.

There is also limited research available on motivations for people with disabilities in sports participation, although the reasons provided are considered similar to the able-bodied (see eg. Thompson, 1995). This is certainly the case for those people participating at an elite level. Some work has been undertaken examining the motivation of individuals with spinal injuries for sport as part of their rehabilitation process (see eg. De Pauw & Gavron, 1995). The problems inherent in barriers and constraints to participation for this group further complicate the picture in terms of providing suitable and fulfilling opportunities.

Many of the recent surveys (see Chapter Three) undertaken on sports participation use socio-economic class as a variable important to sports participation. There is limited research examining the link between socio-economic class, and motivation for sports participation. The literature tends to concentrate on barriers to participation for those in the lower echelons, and stereotypes associated with those in the higher echelons, with more disposable income. Coakley (op cit) in describing the various sociological explanations provided for this, suggests that some sports are viewed as arenas possessing distinct class boundaries, eg. polo; some have seemingly no class boundaries, eg. athletics; whilst other sports are seen to provide the opportunity to improve the lives of the lower classes, eg. boxing.
In summary, it can be said that individuals' motivations for participation in their chosen sport are often multiple and interrelated, and not singular. There are competing motives for an individual's desired involvement. People have both shared (common) motives as well as unique ones. Finally, that these motives (in what ever form they take) are not static and fixed, but rather are dynamic and change over time and are only understood within the context in which the involvement (either existing or latent) takes place. This once again focuses on the centrality of the concept of lifestyle and life stage. The rationale for an individual choosing to take part in sport varies according to a whole range of personal, psychological, and sociological factors, and decisions are made within a complex external environment. This suggests quite strongly therefore, the need to understand sports tourism participation (and spectating) on both an individual and societal level.

2.6: Constraints and Barriers to Participation in Sport

There is now a substantial body of literature which seeks to examine the constraints to participation in leisure more generally (see eg. Henderson et al, 1988; Jackson et al, 1992; Kay & Jackson, 1989), and sport/physical exercise more specifically (see eg. Davies, 1995). In general terms, these constraints have been observed to fall into one of three categories: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. These categories mirror the work of Gill (op cit) on gender and participation patterns in sport and exercise. The first category has links with the self-efficacy literature previously reviewed. The second category may include the social dimensions which are frequently cited as positive motives for initial and continued participation, and involves the difficulties inherent in finding someone to engage in your chosen activity with. This is a core issue evidenced within the Southcoast World case study (Chapter Five). The final category is based on structural constraints and includes lack of time, money and access to activities and facilities. The work of Jackson (1988) has focused on the concept of 'structural constraints', whereby the access to leisure and the manifest quality of the experience is dependent upon the context in which individuals find themselves. In short, the type, level, amount and intensity of the activity undertaken is contingent upon the perceived quality and removal of barriers to participation. These themes are central to the Twr-Y-Felin case, and will be examined further in Chapter Six.

A further distinction is made in the literature between 'antecedent' and 'intervening' constraints. The former may prevent the initial interest in participation, whilst the latter may be responsible for preventing people from following up, and sustaining interest in their desired activities.
In the context of broader opportunities, sports-related tourism can 'apparently' offer new and broader choices for the consumer (as discussed in Section III), but Standeven & De Knop (1999) remain convinced that inequality still exists in terms of demand for such 'new' tourism products. Gibson (1998) and Gibson & Yiannakis (1994) pose the question as to whether, in fact, the recent emergence of this new form of active sports tourism has helped to remove some of the barriers to participation, such as gender, age and class, or has merely exacerbated them. Shaw & Williams (1994: 55) attempt to be more specific as to those groups who do not have equality of access when they assert that, "the picture that emerges is one of variable access, with constraints being related to socio-economic, gender, life-cycle, racial and cultural features". There has been a considerable amount of work undertaken on such groupings identified as 'suffering' from constraint in sport and leisure. McGuire (1984) for example examined constraints for advanced adulthood, or the elderly cohorts within the population; while Willits & Willits (1986) have studied constraints within adolescent leisure patterns. Deem (1990), Green et al. (1991) and Henderson (1990), have all researched the various constraints evident for women and access to a range of fulfilling leisure opportunities.

The consumer behaviour framework outlined in Section I facilitates understanding of problems associated with non take-up of sports opportunities as well as drop-out. Participation in sport (and tourism) for some individuals is a very important, fulfilling and defining dimension of their identity and lifestyle. For a significant number of others however, the existence of certain constraints means that participation in sport (and tourism) is a problematic or insignificant aspect of their individual and group lifestyle.

2.7: Sports Development: Definition and Conceptualisation

This section so far has concentrated on the rationale for the consumption of sport and physical activity. It is important also, to highlight the facilitation of such (potential) opportunities, and the need to overcome the identified barriers to participation. There are a multitude of providers located throughout the public, private and voluntary sectors within the UK sports context. The harnessing of sporting opportunities, particularly for targetted groups, areas and sports has been subsumed within the parameters of the burgeoning sports development movement. This area has significant ramifications for the future development of sports-related tourism opportunities, as well as those in mainstream sport.

Rationale for inclusion of this area of policy, practice and professional knowledge is based on the traditional premise (first put forward by Glyptis, 1981 and latterly adopted
by De Knop, 1990 and Redmond, 1993) that the reciprocal process of sport in the
development of tourism, has, as its obverse, tourism in the development of sport.
These themes have emerged once again in the recent work of De Knop & Standeven
(1998) who themselves devote considerable time to the role of sports development in
harnessing post-holiday sports participation opportunities.

The area of sports development has received a great deal of attention over recent years.
This has tended to concentrate on the policy issues surrounding Local Authority and
National Governing Body of Sport investment and, until very recently, had not been
matched by a theoretical body of knowledge. The essence of sports development,
according to Eady (1994) is 'affecting positive change', and as such any research
conducted does tend to be action-oriented. The recent research, does however attempt
to contextualise this action within an appropriate political, economic and social context
(eg. Pitchford & Brivio, 1996).

It is not the intention of this section to outline in detail the various types and styles of
sports development which have emerged in the UK over the past decade. Rather, the
aim is to evaluate the nature and scope of this field of activity, and its relevance and
importance to sports related tourism, particularly from the consumer's perspective.

This study, has already attempted to tackle the issue surrounding the definition and
conceptualisation of both sport and tourism. The term 'sports development' itself has
generated a number of definitions and categorisations. The Sports Council (1990: 3)
have defined it as:

A process by which interest and desire to take part may be created in
those who are currently indifferent to the message of sport; or by which
those not now taking part, but well disposed, may be provided with
appropriate opportunities to do so; or by which those currently taking
part may be enabled to do with meaningful frequency and greater
satisfaction, thus enabling participants at all levels to achieve their full
potential.

Collins (1992: 10) has provided an alternative definition, suggesting that sports
development is:

A process whereby effective opportunities, processes, systems and
structures are set up to enable and encourage people in all or particular
groups and areas to take part in sport for recreation, or to improve their
performance to whatever level they desire.

A more simplified definition has been suggested by Eady (op cit) in the context of
sporting structures and opportunities, in which sports development is conceived as,"the promotion and implementation of positive change". In essence therefore,
sports development is viewed as a process in which change is attempted both at an individual and organisational level. "Sports development is about not just providing the opportunity but active persuasion of people to experiment with or to access that opportunity". The process is clearly a catalytic one, and according to Eady (ibid) has the following defining characteristics:

- it is pro-active, interventionist and concerned with the promotion of changes in behaviour of provider and participant;
- it normally involves targeted work with specific groups, or sports;
- it is based upon the premise that equal opportunity requires unequal effort, demanding more resource allocation to those identified as in greater recreational need;
- it involves partnership;
- it involves the promotion of sports networks;
- it should be flexible; meeting the needs of all sections of the sporting community, and within budget;
- it treats participation in sport and recreation as a valid end in itself, not a means to other ends.

According to the Sports Council (ibid), the effective delivery of sports development is concerned with offering clients both the opportunity to take part, and the structures to allow them to improve their performance at all levels. This interface between the theoretical underpinning (as it exists) and the practical development of sports opportunities is manifested in the presentation of the 'Sports Development Continuum' (Table 2.6).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1: Foundation</th>
<th>Stage 2: Participation</th>
<th>Stage 3: Performance</th>
<th>Stage 4: Excellence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The acquisition of basic skills e.g. body literacy, hand/eye coordination, spatial awareness etc.</td>
<td>Taking part in defined activities for recreational purposes</td>
<td>The process (or even desire) of getting better at a particular activity</td>
<td>Achievement of a standard according to absolute criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Parents</td>
<td>-Parents</td>
<td>-Parents</td>
<td>-National GBs of Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Play schemes</td>
<td>-Schoools</td>
<td>-Schools</td>
<td>-Local Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Primary Schools</td>
<td>-Local Authority</td>
<td>-Local Authority</td>
<td>-Sports Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Secondary Schools</td>
<td>-Local Clubs</td>
<td>-Local Clubs</td>
<td>-British Olympic Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Local Authority</td>
<td>-Local Sports Councils</td>
<td>-Area/Regional GB</td>
<td>-Sports Aid Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth/uniformed groups</td>
<td>-Private Sector</td>
<td>-Sports Council</td>
<td>-National Coaching Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Private Sector</td>
<td>-Sports Aid</td>
<td>-National</td>
<td>Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Council</td>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two ways in which this continuum may be diagrammatically represented. The first, (and most frequently seen) is the pyramid structure, in which the question posed is, does the breadth of the base determine the height of the peak, or the height of the peak determine the breadth of the base. Figure 2.2 shows the traditional continuum, which had been highlighted within the National Demonstration Project for sports development undertaken by McDonald & Tungatt (1991).

**Figure 2.2: The Sports Development Continuum: A Diagrammatic Representation**

![Diagram of the Sports Development Continuum](image)
This model conceptualises potential involvement in sport as a progression (up the continuum) through four distinct phases, or stages. The initial stage being 'foundation' and the final echelon, being the elite level of participation, labelled as 'excellence'. This continuum may be conceived in a more sophisticated way (Figure 2.3), in which participation is viewed as a 'holding ground' linked to the continuum, and the element of fluidity, as opposed to rigidity, is introduced into the model. This conceptualisation allows for movement between the various stages, both up and down the proposed continuum, allowing for the notion of a flexible and dynamic lifestyle, changing according to individual and societal circumstances.

Figure 2.3: The Sports Development Continuum: 

Holding Ground

A further model has been proposed by Eady (op cit) in which the element of decision-making is introduced. This can be usefully compared to the 'Filters Model' proposed by Rodgers (1978), in which a series of social, economic, physical and political factors are incorporated as barriers to current and future (or latent) demand for participation in sport (Section 2.2). This notion relates closely to the work on 'Opportunity Set Models' by Moutinho (1987), which is reviewed in Section I. Some considerable light can be shed on the reasons for participation in sport and exercise, by isolating the motives for non-participation. The difference appears to be in the individual's competitive orientation (simply how competitive they are). People who play sport tend to exhibit higher levels of competitive orientation than those who do not (see eg. Balague & Roberts, 1989; Gill & Dexter, 1988; Vealey, 1986).
2.8: Summary

The rationale for individual participation in sporting activity has been examined, primarily within a social-psychological frame of reference. This section has concentrated on the motivation studies within the field of sport and physical activity, evaluating the variety of reasons/motives provided by participants for both engagement and continuation in their chosen activity. There is some literature (see eg. Reynolds et al., 1996) on the influence of learning, perception and the role of significant others on sports behaviour patterns. These are often sports-specific, and the unique characteristics of the activity chosen, frequently mask any useful generalisation to a population.

The ways in which differences are observed between individuals, the sports type, and the context have also been examined. Any discussion as to the evaluation of reasons why individuals (and groups) engage in a range of activities, must also include the appreciation of the negativity perceived by a host of individuals, and their access to sporting opportunities. The constraints literature, although well developed, has only been alluded to in order to reflect this balance. There is no reason to presume that sports tourism will be exempt from the kinds of inequalities in demand and access, observed across many other types of sport and tourism, for many different groups. The relevance of sports development to the study, as one method of enhancing access and to maximize sporting opportunities and consumption for a range of individuals and groups, has been described.

The context of both tourism and sport engagement have now been established, albeit separately. The following sections of this chapter, examine the various dimensions of sports-related tourism as a recently developed sub-sector of tourism. The literature covering the generic area of sports-related tourism; activity holidays, predominantly in the UK context; and finally, event-based tourism will be critically reviewed. The ways in which each section is related to one or more of the case studies, is also highlighted.
Sports-Related Tourism

2.9: Introduction

Having attempted to understand the concept of tourism; the rationale for participation in sport (and physical activity) and the context in which this takes place, this section examines the tourism industry sub-sector, sports-related tourism. As a relatively recent development, the emerging critical mass of literature and research is reviewed under two main headings. Firstly, the background to the emergence of this sub-sector. Secondly, the nature and level of its demand, and the consumption process.

The problems associated with a definition of sports-related tourism have been dealt with previously (Chapter One), and mirror those inherent in both the tourism and sport domains individually. This section reviews those studies to date which have examined the interrelationship between sport and tourism, or have thrown light on sports-related tourism in looking at elements of the industry where sport and tourism are inter-linked. It also critically analyses the opportunities which exist for the future development of this particular sub-sector of the modern tourism industry.

2.10: Rationale for the Emergence of Sports-Related Tourism

Standeven (1992: 6) suggests a range of influences and trends which have together intensified the interrelationship between sport and tourism, from its early sporadic inter-linkage (Chapter One). From analysis of these proposed trends, some general factors for the growth of modern tourism and travel may be isolated, including:

- an increasing holiday entitlement;
- a rising affluence, increasing personal disposable income;
- wider access to faster and more convenient forms of travel;
- specific to Europe, the single market opening up international borders and increasing traffic between member states.

According to Standeven (ibid) a number of further factors are specific to the development of the sports-related tourism market and, in part, explain the more active styles of tourism which are increasingly prominent in the contemporary tourism industry:
a growing individual awareness of the benefits of an active lifestyle and a general concern with the quality of life;
• an increasing consciousness about environmental issues and a desire to be closer to nature;
• the development of satellite TV and other new products giving sport (particularly at an elite level) a higher profile and hence making it more accessible and more readily consumable.

The first international review of literature on the subject conducted by Jackson and Glyptis (1992) (see Chapter One), concluded that the gaps and weaknesses in the existing research and literature on sports-related tourism point to a number of areas worthy of more in-depth examination. The extent, nature and value of sport in tourism generation and development, is an area which focuses primarily on the use of sports events and facilities to attract people from outside the region. Recent studies from North America have been addressing such issues (see eg. Baade, 1996; Chema, 1996) although the emphasis is placed largely on the economic implications inherent in the development of tourism and the associated business activity. It is only very recently, that research is beginning to focus on the behavioural aspect of travel to participate (and spectate) at events (see eg. Burca et al, 1996 and Green & Chalip, 1998).

The potential of tourism and tourist facilities to contribute to the development of sports participation, represents the other side of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, and in the main highlights the participation in sport by individuals whilst engaged in some form of travel or tourism. Jackson and Glyptis (1992: 8) identify some of the positive benefits for sport which could accrue from the supply and continued development of the sports-oriented tourism infrastructure, and suggest that "there would appear to be a significant sports development opportunity to convert that brief holiday flirtation with sport into regular participation".

In looking at this complex and multi-faceted interrelationship, Standeven and Tomlinson (1994: 15) have developed the areas previously identified by Jackson and Glyptis (op cit) and describe the primary opportunities as being:

• the development of sport and tourism for economic benefits;
• the development of sport and tourism for social benefits;
• the generation of tourism through sport - particularly using sport as a means of spreading the tourism pound more widely;
• the use of holidays as an introduction to sport and to sustain interest thereafter.
2.11: The Demand for Sports-Related Tourism

De Knop (1990) suggests that the importance of sport and active recreation to tourism, can be supported by examining a number of interrelated factors. In an attempt to provide clarity to this field of study and to support these claims, he formulates a framework for the analysis of existing and latent demand for sports-related tourism activity. De Knop has identified three kinds of interrelationship between sport and tourism (see Figure 2.4).

*Figure 2.4: The Interrelationship Between Sport and Tourism*

![Figure 2.4: The Interrelationship Between Sport and Tourism](image)

In examination of Sector 1, ie. holidays with a certain sport content, De Knop (ibid) identifies three different types of sports holiday. The first of these is what has been referred to as the 'pure sports holiday'. Skiing provides the most obvious example of this form of holiday. The widespread use of spas and health resorts would also be included within this category (see eg. Spivack, 1998).

The partial take-up of organised sport opportunities provided, constitutes the second main type of sports holiday (Sector 2). Butlins and the other major holiday centres in the UK represent an obvious example of this type of holiday, with the emphasis placed upon the human resource as well as the availability of facilities. The Center Parcs concept represents another similar opportunity. 'Sport for All' programmes whilst on holiday are another example of a recently developed initiative, highlighted by De Knop (1990: 15) when he remarked that "a few years ago, commercial
companies were organising beach games as part of their marketing strategy. We can now notice that almost every tourist resort has taken over and developed recreation programmes to attract tourists". The final type which has been identified involves individual sporting activity (Sector 3). According to De Knop (ibid), the fear of making a fool of oneself is still central to non-participation in more organised programmes. The motivation literature reviewed in Section II, in an attempt to provide a rationale for participation (and non-participation) in sport, includes various references to the importance of self-confidence and self-efficacy, in which competence in front of others is a crucial part of the leisure experience. This 'fear factor' is not experienced so acutely with participation in unorganised spontaneous games of eg. volleyball on the beach, or a game of boules in the campground.

Attempts have been made to categorise the demand for sports tourism (see eg. De Knop and Standeven, 1998; Tourism Sport International Council, 1996). These are included in Appendix One. Gibson (1998) suggests that 'active' sports tourism can be categorised on three levels; attending sports events (for participation and/or spectating); choosing a holiday to participate in sport, and visiting other sports attractions.

Hall (1992) further sub-divides the active sports tourist into two types. Firstly, the 'Activity Participant' who engages in sport related travel as a form of leisure. Secondly, 'Hobbyist' who is an amateur player who travels in order to compete in their chosen sports. Gibson (ibid) referring to the US context specifically, suggests that active sports tourism comprises mainly of individuals who travel to participate in golf, skiing and tennis in particular, although other sports such as fishing, mountain biking and scuba diving are also extremely popular. Many of these classifications are somewhat arbitrary and confusing in their application, but nevertheless do attempt to delimit this field of enquiry.

De Knop (1990) includes an analysis of the type, and indeed scope of sports-related tourism based upon the work of Glyptis (1981), who developed five broad categories of demand for sports tourism (see Table 2.7).
Table 2.7: Categories of Demand for Sports-Related Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Demand</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Sports training</td>
<td>For advantage of climate and/or facilities and usually undertaken at the elite level of sports performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Specialist or general activity</td>
<td>Provided in the main by the commercial sector and activity holidays aimed at higher socio-economic groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Upmarket sports holidays</td>
<td>Which include shooting, hunting, game fishing and golf with luxury accommodation and ancillary services and facilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) General holidays with sports</td>
<td>These are usually organised on a club or resort basis. The sports opportunities available often involve family-wide participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Spectator events</td>
<td>These involve individual and group travel on national and international levels with events ranging from football matches to the Olympic Games.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Glyptis (1981)

This categorisation of sports-related tourism is extremely useful in placing into context the four empirical case studies, generated in this study, whilst providing a sound justification for their choice. The only category within the classification of demand not wholly represented or reflected within the case study framework, is the 'upmarket sports holidays'. The category of demand labelled 'general holiday with sports content', is a theme developed within the first of the empirical case studies at Southcoast Holiday World (Chapter Five). De Knop (op cit) points to the continued popularity of such 'Club' holidays, (using Club Mediterranee as an example), as another indicator of the success of this market. The success of 'Center Parcs' complexes in mainland Europe, and more recently in the UK setting, and the recent development of the conceptually similar 'Oasis Holiday Villages', further endorse this point. In fact, it appears that one of the greatest growth markets for future tourism demand is for informal packages for activity-oriented short breaks, such as those available at Center Parcs, Oasis and Butlins Holiday Worlds, as well as for longer holidays at purpose-developed 'sun-belt' destinations, such as those offered by Club Mediterranee.

Purpose-built sports and leisure-oriented holiday villages now provide considerable opportunities for holiday sports participation. It can be seen that the considerable
success of this model has stimulated many of the traditional holiday camps, particularly in the UK (Butlins, Haven, Warner and Pontins), to invest substantial amounts in development and re-development of their leisure and sports facilities. The improved provision has naturally induced greater consumer expectations, for example tourists now presume that ancillary facilities and services, such as sport and leisure provision, are offered as an integral part of their holiday experience. The use of sport within the traditional UK holiday camp sector has also undergone considerable transition within the last decade. Weed (1996: 8) notes that:

In a continued drive for custom, and in adapting themselves to the modern domestic tourism market, many traditional British Holiday Camps are installing a wide range of sport and leisure facilities. Many of these facilities, by the very nature of the holiday camp market will lay dormant for a large proportion of the year. There is, therefore great potential for this spare capacity to be filled by the local resident market at off-peak times.

The second case study, conducted at Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre in West Wales, involves the sampling of individuals participating in commercial sector activity holiday programmes, while the category of 'spectator events' is investigated through the individual and group travel generated by the World Athletics Cup at Crystal Palace, which represents the third case study.

The category of 'sports training', in which the advantages afforded by destinations with favourable climates is one of the key characteristics, is reflected in the final case study of elite British athletes. De Knop (op cit) highlights sports training as one further developing, yet already highly significant segment of the market, increasingly exploited by tour operators. Club La Santa in Lanzarote provides a good example of this. De Knop does not, however, include the sports tour within this category, ie. the organised movement of a number of sports participants in a group. This clearly offers vast tourism development opportunities, which again, are receiving increasing attention from a range of specialist tour operators.

The issue of team travel to participate in sport, is a further important element in profiling the sports tourist. Green & Chalip (op cit), for example, studied the participant's (not spectator's) motives for travelling to the United States for a women's flag football tournament. They were particularly interested in the behavioural, rather than economic aspects of this sports-related tourism, and the link to identity, group cohesion and the formation of sub-cultures. They found that although playing the sport was an important element in attracting and maintaining participation, the women sought more than merely this opportunity to 'play football'. They also sought,
according to Green & Chalip (ibid), "an extended occasion, and an encapsulated space to be football players." The authors made an explicit link here to the work on 'escaping' and 'seeking' leisure travel by Iso Ahola (1989), and furthermore, the importance attached by the participants to this form of sports-related travel as a means of escapism and identity formation. This, once again confirms the validity and importance of the constraints research (in Section II) and suggests (albeit only for one specific case study), an area in which this form of travel may alleviate some of the inequalities evident within mainstream sport opportunities. This may be achieved by placing emphasis increasingly on the social and inter-personal motivations for participation in sport, and less on the competitive orientation (as discussed in Section II).

This section has concentrated on the categorisation of demand for sports-related tourism. In addition to this broad framework, there is a need to develop profiles of the individual patterns of demand for such products. The work of Attle (1996), Gibson (1994 & 1997) and Gibson & Yiannakis (1997) has been central to the increased recognition of the importance of developing profiles and examining behavioural characteristics of 'sports tourists'. Gibson & Yiannakis (1994) conducted an investigative study of New England residents (sample size of 1277) as to their recent vacation patterns. They found that within this sample, 57.8% of men and 44.8% of women responded that they liked to keep physically active and engage in their favourite sporting activity whilst on holiday. Of this number, over two thirds were college educated. This provided the initial elements of a profile of 'active sports tourists'.

This evidence was supported by the empirical work of Attle (1996), in which 800 Connecticut residents were questioned as to their most recent vacation. Over one quarter (n=223) had indeed engaged in some form of active sports tourism; with 61% being male and 39% female. Details were also requested within the questionnaire on earnings and previous education. The results showed that over 25% of the active sports tourists identified, earned over $66 000 per annum, and over half were college educated, with a further 30% having obtained a Masters Degree or higher. Based on these results, Gibson et al (1997) suggested that a series of characteristics could define the active sports tourist.
Table 2.8: Characteristics of the Active Sports Tourist

- More likely to be male
- Affluent individuals
- College educated
- Willing to travel long distances to participate in their favourite sport
- Likely to engage in active sports tourism well into retirement
- Tend to engage in repeat activity, i.e. not a 'one-off' vacation

Source: Gibson et al (1997)

The consumer profile which has been presented must be recognised as constructed within the American context, which has some marked cultural differences to the UK model, used within this research. However, there are remarkable similarities between this profile and the ones generated by Mintel (1995) on activity holiday makers, which are detailed in Section IV.

The currency of this type of work is the link between defining characteristics of these types of tourist, and their lifestyles. The frequently made assertion that sports-related tourism is a dramatically growing (and emerging) segment may suggest increased opportunities and access to sporting participation (and spectating) at a variety of levels. The disparities however between certain groups in society, as described in Section II, cannot be ignored, and questions need to be critically addressed as to the emancipatory potential of sports-related tourism as a vehicle for widening access to sport (and for that matter tourism). For example, Gibson (1998:165) notes that the positive role of active sports tourism in 'democratisation' should not be overestimated:

The profile of the typical sports tourist as relatively affluent and educated (and more likely to be male) suggests that active sports tourism has not become democratized to the extent that the pervasiveness of sports tourism in recent years might indicate.

The picture is not a completely pessimistic one however, as Gibson (ibid) does predict that, "it is likely that life chance in terms of economic access interact with lifestyles and influence the probability that an individual will have the desire and self-confidence to choose a sports related vacation."

Gibson et al (1998) have attempted to construct active sports tourist profiles, and to evaluate the dynamic characteristics over various life stages. Unsurprisingly, they
found a negative relationship between sport tourism and age, with participation in active sport tourism showing a tendency to decline for both men and women in the older age cohorts. The peak for both men and women was found to be early adulthood (17-39). The onset of what they labelled 'middle adulthood' (40-59), resulted in a marked decline for men, but a relatively stable profile for women. A conclusion was made as to the links between general patterns of participation in sport, age and gender, when Gibson (ibid) says that, despite access to sport and physical activity being more equal, "social class, in terms of income and education level, continues to limit opportunities and choices for participation in certain types of sport tourism."

The importance of such variables as access to specialised equipment and facilities, acquisition of certain skills/competency levels, and levels of discretionary income, is examined within the Twr-Y-Felin case study (Chapter Six). Gibson et al (ibid) consider these variables to act as potential 'filters' to participation, particularly for the most popular active sports of golf, tennis and skiing. Gibson et al (1998: 60) conclude that:

By adopting a life-span perspective it is possible to demonstrate that while active sport tourists tend to be relatively homogenous in terms of such characteristics as class, health status and level of education, they also differ in some significant ways (eg. number of travel companions, socio-psychological needs).

While it was acknowledged in Chapter One that not all categories of sports tourism could be examined in the present research, an example of a key demand type (or specific sport where a tourism element is relatively common), not covered by the four empirical case studies, is golf. In this sport, such holiday provision is often of a high quality and is aimed at the higher socio-economic groups. It is an important exemplar, not least because of the profile of the golf sports tourists and issues of elitism, sexism and racism which have traditionally dogged the sport. Priestly (1995), for example, has used golf tourism a case study to illustrate some of the challenges facing sports tourism, particularly in terms of equality of access.

The National Golf Foundation (NGF) in 1988 defined golf tourism as "any trip that has originated from a golfer's permanent home and involves at least one overnight stay". According to the NGF (ibid) golf is a significant generator of tourism revenues. It was estimated that, 'travel golfers' in North America annually spend $1 billion on green fees and playing privileges, $4.6 billion for resort, hotel and motel accommodation, and $3.2 billion annually on travel while participating in a golf trip. Although not the same volume, recent work by Lowing et al (1998) suggests
significant economic importance attached to the UK golfing holiday market. According to Fogelman (1992), the 'travelling golfer', can be categorised into four primary groups, based on the type of trip (see Table 2.9).

**Table 2.9 Classification of Golf Travellers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal Golf Vacationers:</td>
<td>This group represents the large section of retired and semi-retired golfers who primarily stay at seasonal residences that are rented or owned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusive Golf Vacationers:</td>
<td>These go to golf resorts or destinations recognised as golfing havens and undertake an intensive playing vacation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Travellers:</td>
<td>This particular market segment are seen to travel primarily for general leisure purposes but will include golf as an activity whilst on holiday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Travellers:</td>
<td>The playing of golf in the spare time for people attending trade shows, meetings etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fogelman (1992)

This classification system proposed by Fogelman (ibid) reflects a type of continuum, ranging from the dedicated and committed golf player whose travel is primarily to play golf, through to the tourist who plays golf incidentally as one activity during their holiday. This type of 'incidental' demand is related to the activity of 'leisure travellers', which according to Schmidt (1990), involves, "socialising with friends and family as the primary motivation for leisure travellers to golf". This classification also acknowledges the importance of business travel in this sports-specific profile, and highlights the weaknesses of typologies which omit business tourism (see Section I). This type of demand includes the use of golf to conduct business with current and potential clients. The demand for holidays in which the main purpose, or significant motivation for the trip, is to spectate at golf championships is not covered within this classification. The expansion of the professional golf tour in Scandinavia, the Pacific Rim, as well as the already established European and American tours, would suggest a significant potential demand for such travel (as evidenced by the growth of commercial sports tour companies and sports-specific holidays), and indeed for an inflation in elite sports tourism, which is examined through a case study of another sport in this research, international athletics (see Chapter Eight).
It has been over the past twenty years in particular that golf tourism has boomed, with a proliferation of golf course developments and dedicated golf tourism resorts, of the type described by Redmond (ibid). According to Fogelman (op cit), this growth can be attributable to a number of factors including:

- favourable demographics, with older golfers tending to take more golf trips, stay longer and have higher annual expenditures on golf trips;
- an increase in short business/pleasure trips that may include the playing of golf;
- the growth of meetings and conventions with added demand for related services such as golf course provision;
- marketing efforts to improve public awareness of golf vacation opportunities.

Fogelman has proposed a series of market strategies in order to maximise opportunities for each of the travelling golfer segments previously identified. He found that most golf courses simply do not conduct research to identify their markets, and indeed many of them are unaware of the potential of their facility to attract travelling golfers and their families. He suggests that three distinct types of golf development are prevalent in the existing market:

- golf courses with destination resort appeal, where golf is a major focus and on-site accommodation and related tourist services are made available;
- golf courses that operate on a stand alone basis in an area that offers a diverse range of hotel accommodation. These types of course often operate as a daily fee, semi-private or private facilities that allow public play;
- golf courses designed to offer convenient lodging or related tourist facilities and services.

The importance of golf tourism, within the United States context is highlighted by Fogelman (1992: 18).

Golf tourism is a large and growing industry. Golf tourism is important to the golf courses that promote public play, hotels, resorts and campgrounds that accommodate travelling golfers, airlines and car rental agencies, tour operators and tourism agencies.
As a sports-specific case study, golf tourism is indicative and representative of other sports which impact on tourism profiles, on both domestic and international levels. There are a number of other studies (see eg. Dignam, 1990; Roehl et al., 1993; and Tabata, 1992) which have produced typological frameworks within which attempts are made to understand the socio-psychological factors responsible for participation in specific forms of sports tourism.

Another highly significant sport sector, in terms of both volume and value, is winter sports. This market has recently been examined by Mintel (1998), and found that a significant level of latent demand was exhibited within certain age cohorts and socio-economic groupings. The core market established within this consumer research was the 'pre-family' stage and those under 34 years of age; with the popularity of skiing as a type of holiday declining rapidly after 45 years of age. The findings from this market research are examined in more detail in Chapter Three.
2.12: Summary

Those studies which have been undertaken tend to be disparate in coverage, and overall the area still remains very much under-researched. De Knop (1990: 36) highlights the insufficient research to date, into the scope and nature of the interrelationships thus far identified between sport and tourism. In particular, he notes that "it is necessary to have an insight into the motives and interests of different categories of participant."

Advocacy for this type of research is supported elsewhere. Redmond (1991: 118), for example, remarks that "no international analysis of the tourism industry can properly ignore the contributing factor of sport". In support of this, he notes that the interrelationships between sport and tourism which have been considered have substantial employment possibilities and that "sports tourism is a vast and growing enterprise whose significance is not yet matched in the related literature on tourism or sport". Padfield (1995: 36) reinforces this, by suggesting that:

Collaborative research on all aspects of the sport-tourism link can only contribute positively to the future development of both sectors. In addition, the exchange of development advice between agencies can help ensure that sports facilities are built to the correct specification, or that the provision is appropriate to the tourist industry in a particular area.

While the field has at least now been identified as a significant sub-element of tourism, it has not yet been scrutinised in any great detail. There is a clear need for a number of detailed studies both to chart the field more substantially and scrutinise its component parts. There are an increasing number of studies being undertaken on destination-specific issues (see eg. Battisti & Favretto, 1997 and Van de Broek, 1997) which both examine the role of sports tourism in the development of Slovenia. The work of Attle (op cit), Gibson & Yiannakis (op cit) and Gibson (op cit) has added much needed empirical value to the area of individual consumption of sports-related tourism.

Having outlined the context of sports-related tourism, the remaining two sections of this Chapter examine specific areas in which the interrelationship between sport and tourism is manifest. The demand for activity holidays is reviewed within the analytical framework established. Finally, event-based tourism is critically analysed,
as an area in which the generation of increased tourism flows, through the provision of sports events, produces a range of increasingly significant impacts.
The Activity Holiday Market

2.13: Introduction

Activity holidays are generally seen as a distinct sub-sector of tourism, but may be conceived to be part of the wider sports tourism market, which in turn is a sub-sector of special interest tourism. Because of its longer historical development, the specific area of activity holidays has received considerably more attention in the literature than sports-related tourism in general.

This section will examine: firstly, the reasons for the development of this form of tourism; secondly, the inherent problems of its definition, conceptualisation and categorisation; and thirdly, its demand characteristics. The section concludes with a brief evaluation of the current market context for activity holidays.

2.14: The Development of the Activity Holiday Market

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1985: 10) charted the changing nature of the activity holiday market as a distinct sub-sector of tourism.

Gaining in importance are participation in outdoor activities, awareness of ecological problems, educational advances, aesthetic judgment and improvement of self and society. The search for these new values in the exercise of tourism is reflected in organised recreation and the new products that have emerged, such as active holidays and special interest tourism.

Weiler & Hall (1992: 2), who have carried out work primarily on special interest tourism, have argued that "the growing sophistication of travellers, resulting in part from demographic, economic and technological changes in society, has contributed to the blossoming of special interest tourism as a major component of modern tourism". It is within this framework that the emergence of more active forms of tourism, including activity holidays, are to be understood, at both domestic and international levels.

The demand structures for tourism are dynamic and the present socio-demographic profile of the population and the accompanying social changes, according to Martin & Mason (1990: 31), have produced "ever greater variety in tourist types, needs and patterns". Krippendorf (1987) has remarked that these fundamental changes in the
tourism market are occurring within a framework of new patterns of tourist consumption. Weiler and Hall (op cit) suggest that the emergence of 'satisfaction' as the principal criterion for the selection of a holiday, has led to a distinct market shift towards 'active holidays'. The importance of novelty as one such example of the search for satisfying holiday experiences, has been taken up by Tabata (1989: 70), who remarks that "the special interest traveller wants to experience something new, whether it is history, food, sports, customs or the outdoors". Tabata reported that in a comprehensive survey of travel agents across the United States, over a one year period, a total of 15% of bookings involved some form of special interest travel. One agent highlighted in the report, remarked that "people are tired of doing the same old thing and are interested in action-packed trips such as hiking, biking and rafting" (Tabata, ibid). This search for a more adventurous, active and fulfilling type of holiday experience has been categorised by Read (1980: 202) as 'REAL' travel, in which the acronym relates to a form of tourism demand offering a rewarding, enriching, adventurous and learning experience.

Weiler and Hall (1992: 6) have suggested a basis on which the special interest market can be segmented. This framework is not based solely on level of motivation; the psychographic profile of participants; or the various individual indicators (including sex, age and socio economic groupings), but also on the nature and scope of the interest they are pursuing whilst on holiday.

2.15: Definition and Categorisation

Leisure Consultants (1993: 62) have commented that at present, despite the proliferation of activity holidays throughout the UK and abroad, there remains "no established definition of a special interest or activity holiday". This issue of definition is dealt with by Algar (1988: 52) who proposes a dual definition. The first is narrow in scope, whilst the second has wider parameters. The former definition includes those holidays which offer vigorous action, above what might be perceived as normal levels of energy output, and involve at least a moderate degree of risk taking. The latter embraces the concept of physical exertion, but of a lower intensity, with an added tendency towards "fine motor co-ordination", and a more overt "cognitive emphasis". Arts-related activities in the form of for example, painting and sculpture would be included within this definition of types of activity holiday, and clearly only some of these are embraced within sports tourism. In order to delimit this particular market, the current study is only concerned with the sport and physical activity types of holiday.
Some level of cognitive (or mental) activity has also been incorporated into the key criteria outlined by Leisure Consultants (op cit), within their differentiation of types of activity holidays from other forms of tourism. They suggest that an activity holiday must:

- involve physical and/or mental activity;
- constitute the main purpose of the holiday;
- be carried out on an organised basis.

The need for the activity to constitute the 'main purpose' of the visit is similar to the criteria adopted by the British Tourist Authority (BTA) and the English Tourist Board (ETB) (1996), and was reflected also within the work of Smith and Jenner (1990: 58), who suggested that "an activity holiday may be defined as one for which the main purpose is pursuit of a sport or sports". Of interest in this particular definition is the clear emphasis on sport and physical activity, as opposed to more passive or indeed cognitive activities, included elsewhere, and this is perhaps too limited.

In a report by the BTA and the ETB (1992) on activities by the British on holiday in Britain, a differentiation is made between active sports and less active leisure pursuits. A further distinction is made between activities as the 'main purpose' of the holiday and activities as 'one part' of the holiday experience. A similar report commissioned by the Scottish Tourist Board, in 1993, examined the activities undertaken by British tourists whilst on holiday in Scotland in 1991, and adopted the same criteria (see Table 2.9).

**Table 2.9: Activity Holiday Criteria**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Descriptor of the Activity Holiday Involvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>A comprehensive range of leisure activities as part of a holiday, but not necessarily its main purpose, including active sports of minority appeal, visits to heritage and other attractions and less active leisure pursuits of broader appeal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
<td>A comprehensive range of active sports pursued as part of a holiday but not necessarily its purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.</td>
<td>The same active sports (as in B) as the main purpose of a holiday. Such holidays are termed, 'activity holidays'.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: BTA/ETB (1992)
The WTO (1985: 3), whilst recognising the generally confused and inconsistent approaches to the categorisation of 'activity holidays', defined the term as:

Holidays during which a person engages in a cultural, artisan or leisure activity or sport with a view to fulfilling himself and developing his personality.

More recently, commercial market analysts Mintel (1995) have defined an activity holiday maker as an individual "who seeks and uses holidays as an existing leisure pursuit, or to try and develop new activities and interests". The WTO (op cit) focuses on the organisation of the sports and recreation element, rather than a concern for transport or accommodation details, as the differentiating ingredient within this relatively new type of tourism package. Such organisation, they suggest, can "enrich the tourism experience by allowing greater integration with the place visited and fuller involvement in the social and cultural life of the holiday destination". The WTO's (1985: 17) categorisation process for activity holidays remains one of the most comprehensive, although clearly alternative typologies are possible (see Table 2.10).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Categories</th>
<th>Activities Included</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td>Cinema, photography and fairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>Educational study, conferences and self-education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Visiting family and friends, attending events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical</td>
<td>Handicrafts, DIY and gardening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Sports.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Activity Holiday Market

**Chapter Two (IV)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Categories</th>
<th>Activities Included</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sea and Sand</td>
<td>Yachting and fishing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winter and Mountain Sports</td>
<td>Hang gliding, skiing and skating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature and Green tourism</td>
<td>Archaeology, riding holidays and nature trails.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Life and Encounters</td>
<td>Range of sports, health farms and hot air ballooning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture, Art and Handicrafts</td>
<td>Summer schools and summer activity camps for children.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WTO (1985)

This must be recognised as an arbitrary classification, in that it is not based upon any empirical findings, and as such cannot be quantified to any extent. It is by no means exhaustive, nor mutually exclusive as an activity holiday typology. The problems of context and the arbitrary decisions made on inclusion (and exclusion) of activity types have also been observed within the attempts made to categorise sports tourism more generally (see Section III).

#### 2.16: The Demand for Activity Holidays

According to Smith and Jenner (op cit), the demand for activity holidays is considered to fall into two distinct groups; packaged trips and independent travel. The latter type is in direct contrast to the categorisation of activity holidays provided by Leisure Consultants (op cit), in which to be 'carried out on an organised basis' was determined to be one of the defining characteristics. In volume terms, Leisure Consultants (1992) have estimated that 3 million activity holidays are taken abroad by Britons every year, which they estimate generates around £2 billion. Ogilvie & Dickinson (1992) had predicted that by 1995 people at European destinations would be spending an average £500-£600 and long haul tourists spending between £1500 and £2000 on activity holidays. This level of demand on a European level, according to Smith and Jenner (1990: 78), can be valued by the estimate that 10% of all holidays taken in Europe are built around a specific activity or sport. (Estimates of volume of
business generated within the activity holiday market by UK residents are examined in more detail in Chapter Three).

A rapidly increasing number of consumers take part in sports activities on holiday in Europe and a significant proportion of them choose their holiday specifically with an activity in mind, which may be their hobby at home, a regular holiday activity, or a sport entirely new to them.

Smith & Jenner (1990: 79)

The high levels of demand observed within this sector of the tourism industry are attributable to a range of factors. The link between the demand for a tourism product and consumer behaviour (particularly the decision-making process), has been outlined in Section I of this chapter. Consumers with finite levels of both disposable money and time, implies that the increasing demand for a given product results in a corresponding decline in the demand for an associated product. Ogilvie and Dickinson (1992: 24) illustrate this when they remark that "no longer does the prospect of a Mediterranean beach holiday satisfy travel needs; the element of personal challenge is needed". The demise of the traditional holiday product and the resultant increased demand for more active pursuits has been further emphasised by Collins and Jackson (1995: 28):

Not only are sports-oriented holidays attractive for their activity content, but their development comes at a time when sun/beach holidays are beginning to lose some of their appeal.

This changing demand structure for activity holidays, has been placed into context by Ogilvie and Dickinson (op cit) when they comment that "although the traditional beach holiday in warm climates will always remain a powerful force in the holiday trade, for an increasing proportion of the market, this is no longer enough". The transition currently taking place, in terms of consumers' attitudes and perceptions, subsequently translated within the holiday decision-making process, has been summarised by Mintel (1995: 10).

Over recent years there has been a marked change of attitude in terms of holidays taken with sun, sand and sea holidays becoming less attractive, and more consumers are opting for holidays with special interests and activities.

The traditional holiday, characterised by Mintel (ibid), as 'sun, sand and sea', has therefore increasingly lost its appeal, and subsequently alternative forms of tourism have been demanded. The seeking of more active holidays by individuals, is
obviously central to this current research, and particularly the role of sporting activities within the holiday decision-making process. The evidence suggesting that the tourism 'population' is becoming more active, must be understood within the context of the general sports participation figures, presented in Chapter Three. The apparent increase in volume (and value) of participation in sport, is not necessarily shared across all segments of the population.

In an attempt to meet this volatile and transitory demand structure, the tourism industry supplies a constantly changing portfolio of products. Consumer expectations, and associated behaviour patterns, related to the growing market of activity holidays, are referred to by Frew (1989: 20).

Today's sophisticated travellers no longer want to spend their time sunbathing by the side of five star hotel pools, or whittling away their wealth in glitzy shopping malls. People want to 'experience' a holiday, whether it be learning to milk cows on a farm or rafting down white-water rapids, or crossing Kakadu in light aircraft.

Algar's (1988: 54) review of activity holidays, makes particular reference to the market for adult activity residential holiday programmes, in which he states that, "for a growing number of us, sport and physical activity is playing an ever increasing role in holidays. The days when time on the beach could consume the majority of foreign holidays have long gone". This proliferation in the demand for, and consumption of, activity holidays and programmes, Algar (ibid) suggests is at least partially explained by rising standards of living, increases in disposable income, and the wider availability of sports facilities.

Mintel (1995), consider that the two most important determinants of activity holiday participation are age and socio-economic groupings. McKie (1994) studied activity holiday patterns in Scotland. He found that the consumer profile was evenly split between male and female; relatively young; less likely to have dependent children; and drawn from socio-economic group ABC1. The reports by Mintel (op cit) and Smith & Jenner (1990) both highlight that the various indicators regarding this particular segment of the market, and suggest that it is relatively recession-proof, primarily due to the fact that the appeal of such activity holidays is found to be towards the higher socio-economic groupings. These findings had previously been identified by Hay (1987), who noted that the higher the social class of the respondent the more likely that the person would be to take an active leisure daytrip.
Notwithstanding the earlier observations regarding the inclusion of non-sports interests within the activity holiday sub-set, Leisure Consultants (op cit) highlight that sports participation is the most popular purpose for an activity holiday, accounting for around half of all such trips undertaken. Of relevance to later parts of this study, it was also recognised that people who go on activity holidays are significantly different from other holiday makers, and in general, they are likely to be young, male and from ABC1 socio-economic groups. This mirrors the active sports tourist profile put forward by Gibson et al (1997). Ogilvie and Dickinson (op cit), suggest that activity holiday travellers are usually aged between 22 and 45 (but mainly 30-35) with demand equal between the sexes. The participant is invariably a professional, owner occupier, with a higher education and tends to fall into socio-economic groups A and B, which again supports the characteristic profile of Gibson et al (ibid).

Mintel (1995) found that activity holidays tend to be taken by 15-34 year olds and those in the ABC1 social categories due, they suggest, to young adults' ability to take part in energetic sports/activities, with higher disposable income and desire to take many and varied holidays. Mintel (ibid) have outlined a summary profile for activity holiday makers related to type of activity undertaken:

- mountaineering/rock climbing/fell walking/rambling holiday makers tend to be male, aged 15-34 from ABC1 socio-economic groups;
- multi-activity holidays are mainly taken by 15-24 year olds from ABC1 in the 'pre-family stage';
- sailing/wind surfing/canoeing holidays and swimming/diving/water skiing holidays have a male bias, with mainly 15-34 year olds, from ABC1.

The consumer research framework adopted by Mintel (ibid), including definitions of the various groups identified (see Table 2.11), is worthy of analysis, not least because of the importance of the family in the holiday decision-making process; participation in activities whilst on holiday; and finally, continuation of chosen activities at home. These issues are investigated throughout the four empirical case studies.
Table 2.11: Holiday 1995: Mintel Consumer Research Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-family</td>
<td>those aged under 35 who are not parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>those aged 15-54 with at least one child aged under 15 still at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty Nesters</td>
<td>no family/empty nesters aged 35-55 with no children (aged under 15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-family</td>
<td>post family/retired those aged over 55 and not working.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mintel (1996)

The activity holiday market exhibits trends and characteristics different to the tourism industry in general, and these have been described previously. The sector is also influenced (both positively and negatively), by factors which impact on an industry-wide level. The population employment trends are an example of such common factors. Leisure Consultants (op cit) have calculated that 90% of employees, within the UK now have an annual holiday entitlement of 4 weeks and over, and this is forecast to rise to 6 weeks fully paid annual holiday by the year 2000.

In addition to the aggregate employment trends highlighted, and the relationship with disposable leisure time, a further important trend to be recognised, is the changing nature of employment itself. For example, Smith and Jenner (op cit) remarked on the fact that work is now generally less physically strenuous as a result of increased automation, mechanisation and computerisation. This is a factor also highlighted by Holloway (1992: 39).

Work for many people today involves desk-bound jobs and mental, rather than physical tasks. These people may seek much more strenuous activities while on holiday, rather than simply lying on a beach.

In a report examining the activity holiday market in the UK, the ETB (1992) made reference to the importance of an increased awareness of the role of fitness and an active lifestyle for an individual's health and well-being. They reported on a trend towards healthier living and a greater participation in a wider range of sports, exercise
and active recreation. Leisure Consultants (1992) also identified that activity holiday makers differ in their motivations from other groups. The factors given by the respondents as the main determinants within the holiday decision-making process included 'comfort' and 'security'. The emphasis on personal attributes enhanced by involvement in such holidays, was further evidenced by the importance attached to the development of their 'individual capabilities'. In addition to this, those individuals choosing activity holidays placed significant weighting on the 'environment', and on the contribution that the holiday can make to 'personal health' and 'well-being'. Mintel (ibid) have reported that the environmentally friendly activities such as walking and cycling are becoming increasingly important within the activity holiday market. The emerging Sustrans cycle network in the UK, funded largely by Millennium grants, facilitating activity-based tourism in the future, is a current example of the development of this.

Examination of the demand characteristics of the activity holiday market has portrayed a rapidly changing picture, particularly with regards to the consumption patterns of this sub-sector of the tourism industry, and the associated decision-making processes. The result of these identified trends is that factors such as the range of sports facilities available at a venue and, in addition, the availability of specialist coaching and specialist activity programmes, are increasingly important both to the potential tourist in the decision-making process, and to the suppliers of tourism products in terms of profitability and maintaining market share.

2.17: The Contemporary Context

Leisure Consultants (op cit) forecast that by the beginning of the next Millennium, over 30% of holidays taken by British people will be activity-based. This forecast is supported by Mintel (op cit):

Future trends for the activity holiday market appear to be strong and activity holidays are expected to increase their share of the overall holiday market over the next few years.

Mintel (ibid) have forecast that by the year 2002, the number of children in the 5-14 year age cohort will increase by 10% and the over 45 age cohort by 20%. The relevance of increasing numbers among the younger cohorts was emphasised, over a decade ago by the WTO (1985: 9):

The most recent and important development has been in the sector of leisure activities for children and young people, which has and will continue to have considerable consequences for social life and tourism.
The multiplier effect of transferring lessons (to winter sports resorts, the seaside and the outdoors) and the teaching and growing popularity of sailing, skiing and certain other sports, will be increasingly felt.

Mintel (op cit) highlight the following important demographic factors in the changing demand for activity holidays:

- an increase in the number of families looking for a holiday which suits a wider variety of family members' needs and expectations;
- an increase in the number of people living; as well as holidaying alone and looking for added social and personal benefits;
- an increase in the number of 'empty nesters' who are affluent and attracted to trying new activities which they missed out on in their youth.

Mintel suggest that although there is considerable scope for growth in the activity holiday market, this development lies primarily outside the traditional and established area of educational and hobby courses. Activity holidays represent a segment of the tourism market that is continuing to grow in importance and value, and has considerable domestic and international potential. So much difficulty, however, has arisen with respect to data collection and analysis to date. Better bases for comparability are now vital (and these issues are discussed throughout Chapter Three), in order that valid generalisations on the economic and social significance of the activity holiday market, can be made. The exact scope and indeed size of this sub-sector of the tourism market, has not been adequately quantified, although estimates (see eg. Mintel, 1996; Leisure Consultants, 1992) seem to point towards a growing market segment, with vast potential. This growing demand, it has been identified, must be met by quality activity holiday provision, both in the UK and abroad, if this sub-sector of the tourism industry is to develop as predicted.

2.18: Summary

The activity holiday market has received considerable attention recently, particularly in terms of the secondary data sources which are available (see Chapter Three). As such, this provides an excellent context, not only for the empirical case study, examining the activity holiday market at Twr-Y-Felin, Pembrokeshire (Chapter Six), but also for the other three case studies, in terms of indices such as 'main purpose of trip' and 'activities undertaken whilst on holiday', so central to the study of the interrelationship between sport and tourism.
Event-Based Tourism

2.19: Introduction

Event-based tourism provides an 'arena' in which the interrelationships between sport and tourism can be observed. Literature in this area has been primarily concerned with the benefits and impacts of staging events. The consumption and behavioural side is less well developed than that examining the impacts on destinations, and this will be examined, having attempted to define the field. The economic, socio-cultural and political context in which events take place is also outlined.

The multi-faceted nature of this form of tourism and, until recently, the lack of research was summarised by Cousineau (1991: 1):

Whether festivals and events are good medicine for the soul; a glue that galvanises communities together or a tourist attraction that generates all sorts of economic benefits, the fact remains that very little research documents this phenomenon. Anthropologists and historians have made some efforts, but leisure sciences have not yet found festivals and events as a fertile ground for research.

It is important before focusing on the issues centred on the definition of events, to locate them within the broader context of event tourism. This can be achieved most effectively by examining the event tourism typology (see Figure 2.4) provided by Getz (1991).

Figure 2.4: An Event Tourism Typology

Source: Getz (1991)
Within this proposed typology, differentiation is made between attractions (ambient and permanent), and events. The World Athletics Cup Case Study (Chapter Seven) provides an example from the typology of a sporting event of regional (and national) significance. This section does not aim to develop the notion of this typological account, but rather to use it as a coherent framework in which to examine events, of this type, as generators of tourism.

2.20: Definition and Conceptualisation

The inherent problems of definition and conceptualisation, which have affected the more general field of sports-related tourism are also evident here. Getz (1997:61) does provide a specific definition of sport (event) tourism, as a "rapidly emerging globally competitive form of special interest tourism". In defining this type of tourism, he contends that two perspectives must be taken into account: the consumer and the destination. Sport (event) tourism therefore is considered by Getz (ibid) to be, "travel for the purpose of participating in or viewing a sport event." This does not really tackle the actual characteristics of events, in terms of their size, purpose or form, but nevertheless does focus thought on the dual dimension of consumption and supply.

Limited work has been undertaken on charting the behavioural aspects of spectators attending sports events, the bulk of which has concentrated on those individuals following sports teams on a regular, rather than one-off basis. Furthermore, many of these individuals would not be defined as tourists, with their spectating behaviour happening in close proximity of their permanent place of residence. More traditionally, the symbolic and associated emotional and social functions of sport spectating have been the focus of the research (see eg. Dunning, 1973; Elias, 1971; Guttman, 197; Sloan, 1979). The existing empirical work on spectating (sports fans) concentrates on the emotional responses to the sport experience. Most famously, Sloan et al (1976) coined the phrase, "basking in reflected glory", to illustrate the vicarious dimension of consumption through spectating. Burca et al (1996) conducted a survey of nearly 500 spectators attending a series of major games in Gaelic Football and Hurling. They examined not only the motivating structure of the individual, but also the motivating forces based on their commitment judged against a series of loyalty criteria. They accepted that various motives became important during this type of spectating, which were responsible for different forms of behaviour, and state that:
Inevitably in such a complex area of buyer behaviour, a variety of overlapping views of what it is the consumer buys are debated. However, these disciplines (sociology, psychology, anthropology) highlight a number of ways in which spectators interact and form relationships with sport along a continuum which views sport as a physical product and, in addition a service which makes available a product.

Burca et al (1996:111)

More studies are needed on the behavioural aspects of spectating at events, and the research identified above, although aiming to apply the findings to new ways of marketing these sports, nevertheless provides an interesting frame of reference for examination of spectator behaviour at one-off sports events. However this key challenge regarding definition and conceptualisation of such events, also needs to be addressed, since for a long time there appeared problems regarding definition and delineating the field.

Research in this area has increased substantially (eg. a recent international conference in Sheffield on 'Sport in the City', included ten separate papers on various dimensions of sporting events in the urban context). The precise scale of events is significant, and definitions can be divided into two categories, both, in the main, viewing events on a relatively large scale. The first category is 'hallmark events', sometimes referred to as 'mega events', and the second is that of 'special events or festivals'.

The literature on 'hallmark events' has been dominated by the work of Hall (see inter alia 1990, 1994 & 1994a), who has defined them as "major fairs, festivals, expositions and cultural and sporting events, which are held on either a regular or one-off basis". Hall (1994: 4) recognises however that the area is "fraught with definition, methodological and theoretical problems which reflect the many research directions that exist within the study of tourism". This issue was highlighted earlier by Getz (1991: 41):

The definition of mega events will always remain subjective and rather inconsequential. It is really more a question of the relative significance of an event, rather than any particular measure of events.

Ritchie (1984: 2), however, has provided an alternative definition of hallmark events as "major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short
and or long term". It is this latter definition which better encompasses the tourism element which is the focus of one of the key case studies in this research.

Special events or festivals, have also been a focus within the research of Getz (see inter alia 1987 & 1991). Getz (1991: 15) defines a special event as:

A unique form of tourism attraction, ranging in scale from mega events such as Olympic Games and World Fairs, through to community festivals, to programmes of events at parks and facilities.

Immediately the distinction can be made between these two sets of definitions. Hallmark or mega events are those which are very large scale, whereas special events or festivals may take place on a varying scale. Medium-sized events, such as the World Athletics Cup, as one of the empirical case studies, may be included within the latter category. This current research focuses attention here largely because, out of the two types, it is the smaller scale of event which has to date generally received less research attention.

In order therefore to produce a coherent framework in which to review the literature in this field, the elements which are common to the sets of definitions, need to be isolated. The frequency of events has been viewed as either a unique one-off occurrence, or a recurring part of a programme or calendar. The second common factor across the various definitions provided, is the assumption (either implicitly or explicitly) that the event has some form of tourism significance. The events are staged as a means towards attaining broader goals, and even in cases where tourism traditionally has not been planned as a primary goal within the festival or event, it is still often considered to be an important factor in the advertising, promotion and packaging of that event. Hall's (op cit) definition of hallmark events includes the provision for the host community to secure a higher profile or prominence in the tourism marketplace.

2.21: The Benefits and Impacts of Events

The need for events, irrespective of scale, to be differentiated within a geographical area from the established and permanent tourism facilities and attractions, is an important factor in accurately measuring the associated impacts and benefits. The attributes of special events and festivals have been highlighted by Getz (1989: 65), and he suggests that it is these defining elements which help:
Elevate them (the special events or festivals) above the commonplace, and make them unique leisure and cultural experiences, powerful travel motivators and facilitators of community pride and development.

Getz (1997) has produced a list of potential benefits and goals of sport event tourism (Table 2.12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Repeat visits by sports teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>Positive attractiveness of area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Permanent events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Use of existing community facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Enhanced community support for sport and tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Getz (1997)

It is in this respect, that benefits afforded to the visitor or tourist by being involved in an event of this type, can be achieved. The impacts and associated benefits of staging events are difficult to isolate and measure adequately. Ritchie (op cit), however, has described the impacts produced by event-based tourism to be predominantly economic, socio-cultural or political. The importance attached to the economic impacts resulting from staging events, particularly mega events, has been relatively widely documented (see eg. Mules & Faulkner, 1996). A series of very recent studies (see eg. Dobson, 1998; Gratton, 1998; Ingerson, 1998; Shibli & Gratton, 1998 and Wood et al., 1998), have examined the economic impact (and significance) of major sports events on both a domestic and international level. Essex & Chalkley (1997) carried out an extensive study of the effects of all Olympic Games on host cities from 1896 to 1996, and evaluated the potential impacts of the Olympics in 2000 on Sydney. For this nemesis of mega events, they commented that, "what began as a festival of sport has grown into an unusually conspicuous element in urban global competition, and for its host cities, a unique opportunity to attract publicity, bring in investment and modernise their infrastructure and images." On this final point, there
has been considerable disagreement. Whitson & Macintosh (1996), for example, have
provided a critical perspective as to the benefits attracted to host cities of such
hallmark events.

Hall (op cit) suggests that impacts should be considered on two levels. Firstly, the
immediate or short term tourism impact, including local expenditure, and an enhanced
awareness of the host city or region. Secondly, the importance of those benefits which
are developed over a longer period of time, and categorised as the 'remaining
legacies'. These longer term benefits include: large scale public expenditure; the
construction of facilities and infrastructure; and the re-development of inner-city,
urban areas.

Although several of the leading analysts have identified these types of impact, the
issue of long term benefit through the establishment of a legacy of staging events, has
also been challenged. Getz (1987: 130) remarks that "there has been too much
unsubstantiated imputation of long term benefits to host communities, especially with
regard to so called legacies". He comments that more data is required, because at
present, assessments of the main impacts (and benefits) appear to be largely
unsubstantiated, and the state of the art in economic impact studies is rather weak.
"An over emphasis on multipliers and inappropriate use of them have given rise to
exaggerated and unreliable claims for macro event impacts" (ibid). Crompton (1995)
and Frechtling (1994) have also voiced concern as to the misapplication of economic,
impact studies, and the subsequent over exaggeration in claims of economic success
resulting from sports events within the US context. The work of Wang & Irwin
(1993), however, seems to illustrate the potential efficacy of economic impact studies
for smaller scale, local events. Furthermore, Irwin (1998) has attempted to integrate
analysis of the event induced expenditure of participants at Collegiate Championship
events in the US, with their associated travel behaviour. This latter dimension follows
a similar pattern to the work of Burca et al. (op cit), and Green & Chalip (op cit).

An argument presented when considering the direct and indirect expenditure
associated with event-based tourism, is of additionality versus substitution and
involves the relationship between visitor and local expenditure. Getz (ibid), for
example, has suggested that all types of spending are important to the community's
economy, but expenditure by tourists in hotels, retail outlets and restaurants/bars has a
much wider economic impact than money spent at the event site itself, because the
expenditure is paid directly into the host economy. Train (1994: 65) in an impact
study of the Europa Athletics Cup in Birmingham, supported these claims by
proposing a clear additionality effect of staging such medium size events. He suggests that, "events that can motivate visitors to spend longer periods at an event, perhaps staying overnight, provide the greatest economic benefits". Burgan & Mules (1992) however, support the substitution argument, suggesting that this expenditure must be carefully accounted for because it may have occurred within the region on other activities. The recent work of Shibli & Gratton (1998) has focused on the economic impact of two major sports events. The first was the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) Grand Prix held in Sheffield (June 1997), and the second was the European Junior Swimming Championships held in Glasgow (July-August 1997).

These events had been chosen by the researchers as both cities had been nominated as 'National Cities of Sport', and also because they had access to information from the organisers on associated costs of staging the events. Through self-completion questionnaires (n=1417 for Sheffield and n=279 for Glasgow), empirical data was generated on expenditure by visitors to the event as well as governing bodies, sponsors and the media. Total spend in Sheffield attributable to the event was calculated to be over £175,000, and over £250,000 for Glasgow. The expenditure categories used, and the research protocol more generally have similarities with the World Athletics Cup case study (Chapter Seven). Shibli & Gratton (ibid) recognised that sports events of this type can be classified as either 'spectator-driven' or 'competitor driven' with respect to their economic impact.

Within this study, spending patterns of day visitors were compared with overnight stays. For the Sheffield event, the total expenditure per day visitor was calculated to be £9.02, while the total expenditure per overnight visitor was £41.64. This supports the comments made by Train (ibid) in his Birmingham study as to the importance of extending the visitors stay wherever possible.

Shibli & Gratton (1998; 498) concluded by stating that, "there is considerable economic and political logic to compare the additional resources flowing into a city as a result of an event, with resources used to generate such inflows." Despite the income which has been evidenced to arise form staging such events, the planners and organisers clearly need to be realistic in their pre-event predictions, and post-event evaluation.

In terms of balancing these potential benefits (economic and social), Hall (1994b) has called for a more widespread use of cost-benefit analysis techniques. He provides the example of Melbourne, and its unsuccessful bid for the 1996 Olympic Games as a
model of good practice. Here, the bid package included a comprehensive social and environmental impact assessment. Getz (op cit) does not suggest that elaborate and expensive cost-benefit methods should be employed wholesale, but rather "a relatively simple approach is needed in answering key questions associated with the event, including return on investment; number of tourist trips motivated by the event; and monetary impact". The alternative measures for assessing the economic impact of events are summarised in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13: Measures of Event Tourism Economic Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Activity</th>
<th>Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Return on investment</td>
<td>Traditional profit and loss statements. Measures of direct job creation. Numbers of tourists in attendance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of tourist trips motivated by the event</td>
<td>Utilise random surveys to evaluate the relative importance of the event as a trip motivation. Determine the extent to which the event increased the length of stay and expenditure in the community (incremental measures).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monetary impact</td>
<td>Calculate incremental visitor expenditure. Spending by residents should not be included as it is likely that this expenditure would have occurred within the community regardless of hosting the event.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Getz (1991)

Delpy & Li (1998: 230) have reviewed over 50 economic impact studies, and they conclude that:

As the awareness and interest in sport tourism as an economic catalyst increases, so do the number of related economic impact studies...nevertheless due to the complexity of economic impact research, the broad scope of sport tourism and the involvement of numerous variables, many such previous studies were flawed in design, resulting in fallacious conclusions pertaining to the amount of economic impact brought to the community.
The authors highlight scope, efficiency, accuracy and verifiability of events, as the key variables to be considered within all types of economic impact studies on sports events. Scope represents the sample of the study, and Delpy & Li (ibid) urge caution when including those individuals who attend the events, but not as the primary purpose of the visit. They refer to these individuals as either 'time switchers' or 'casual'. Obviously the exclusion of such individuals will have the effect of reducing the final expenditure volume. The importance of selecting the most appropriate data collection and analysis technique is considered paramount by Delpy & Li (ibid), and Turco (1995) has undertaken a detailed assessment of various primary and secondary research techniques for measuring the impact of a sporting event. Certainly Getz (op cit) has called for the proliferation of such impact studies, for a number of reasons, not least because this would aid comparison. This, in turn, would allow more meaningful and reliable (estimated) figures to be established as benchmarks, for similar sporting events.

According to Getz (ibid), the socio-cultural impacts of events have often been ignored, or not given as much emphasis within the literature, and this observation appears to be accurate. In terms of urban areas creating the infrastructure for such events, Page (1990) suggested that the London Docklands was one of the largest and most impressive urban re-development schemes in Western Europe, but debateably notes that very little examination had been made of the role of tourism, leisure and sport within this scheme, in comparison to the attention placed upon the economic, social and political influences of regeneration there. According to Page (1990: 10), "these service-related industries may also contribute to the urban regeneration process while visitors and local residents alike may benefit from the sports facilities associated with new developments". The example of the London Arena showed that the development of a major sports facility tended to pay very little attention to basic issues, such as access, with an emphasis instead on the locational advantages and financial incentives of building within the Docklands Enterprise Zone. Stevens and Morgan (1998: 503), in an examination of the use of sport as a means of further developing the tourism potential of Cardiff, comment that:

Whilst the contribution of coastal and countryside sporting activities (golf, riding, sailing) have been fully established into tourism policy and strategy for over 20 years, the same has not been true of urban sport, sports competition, spectator sport, or indeed sporting events.

Selwood and Jones (1991) reported on the hosting of the Americas Cup in Freemantle, Australia in 1990, and the negative impacts either directly or indirectly
attributable to the staging of this particular sporting event. The involuntary displacement of some sections of the local population into alternative accommodation outside of the centre, and the compulsory purchasing of properties by the Local Authorities were highlighted as having significant socio-cultural impacts. These issues were examined within the study of Hall et al., 1998, in which three sports venues in Melbourne, Australia are focused upon. Day (1988) provides examples of the ways in which events can impact negatively upon the social and cultural foundations of the host city or region. He suggests that many of these impacts are economic in origin, and relate to the inflated rent charges made on both commercial and domestic properties, as a direct result of hosting an event. Such charges, he reported, are increased prior to the event and often remain at the inflated levels immediately following it. A further impact identified over a longer period of time was the upheaval of existing and established social networks, particularly in terms of permanent involuntary migration.

Hall (op cit) provides a balance to these negative impacts of events, by outlining some of the social benefits of staging hallmark events including:

- increased cultural understanding;
- employment;
- the provision of social services;
- improved community identity.

Roche (1992: 585) has provided a link between the socio-cultural impacts which have been highlighted and the political process, and proposed the need to develop an understanding of the range of contexts in which events are likely to be staged. These contexts, he argues, have shifted from macro-level post-industrial or post-national shifts, to micro level urban politics, and tourism strategy formulation. It is within this final shift towards more local control of tourism initiatives that he urges tourism organisations to think not only in terms of mega events, but to realise the importance and significance of smaller, local and regional events. The key advantage of local and regional scale events over larger events, as far as Hall (1989) is concerned, is the fact that they are more disposed to be offering an authentic and indigenous experience. It seems evident that these smaller scale events, with their positive attributes, are more within the scope of many cities.

This assertion of the political significance of events has been supported by subsequent work undertaken by Roche (1994), which has examined mega events within the urban
context, using Sheffield as a case study. Hall (1989: 219) considers that hallmark events are essentially political, with image building central to the entire process.

Hallmark events are not the result of a rational decision-making process. Decisions affecting the hosting and the nature of hallmark events grow out of a political process. The process involves the values of actors (individuals, interest groups and organisations) in a struggle for power.

Research examining the role of mega events within this micro and macro political context is, according to Hall (ibid), relatively scarce. Roche (1994: 4), however, suggested that "in recent years, this situation has begun to change, and indeed it has now become common in tourism and event research to acknowledge that events and tourism are political phenomena". Hall (op cit) has outlined a number of politically specific reasons for the development of event tourism. The commitment by the Government in the UK to use tourism as a tool for economic development has been put forward as a main reason for event-based tourism initiatives. The second factor includes financial support from Government (both locally and nationally), in the form of grants, sponsorship and other co-operative campaigns for sports and culture, of which a programme of events and festivals are an integral part. The final reason highlighted is the use of image creation/enhancement by events to attract inward investment.

Hall (1994a) has highlighted the importance of a bidding process for the staging of large scale sporting events, and the role this plays in the city marketing effort. The observed increase in tourism flow resulting from events has been reported to produce secondary benefits, including the development of a sporting image for a city. Sheffield and Manchester in the UK are two good examples of cities which have packaged their sporting, cultural and indeed industrial heritage, to gain a competitive advantage over other cities. In addition, recent work by Sumray and Glad (1998), has examined the role of the bidding process for sports events within the city of London. Emery (1998) has suggested that the process of bidding to host major sports events (even accepting the reported benefits of the eventual hosting), is not always such a sound strategic investment. Elsewhere, a recent study by Sack and Johnson (1996) has examined the decision-making process to bring the Volvo International Tennis Tournament to New Haven, Connecticut in 1989. Here, the staging of the event was considered as part of the urban regeneration of the region, as in Sheffield.
As others have done, Redmond (op cit) highlights the phenomenon of multi-sport festivals and world championships, such as the Olympic Games and single-sport championships, such as the Football World Cup, as examples of the capacity of single sport spectacular events to draw in huge numbers of visitors. Many would not have otherwise visited the host country and the economic impact associated with this is therefore significant. The ongoing tourism impact is also seen to be beneficial. Canada is put forward as having made an "unmatched international investment in games festivals, contributing to its unique status" (ibid), but no detailed reference is made to the associated costs and benefits of hosting such mega events. Whitson & Macintosh (1993a & 1993b) examined in some detail the history of Canada's hosting (and bids to host) major international sporting events, primarily from the perspective of the country having far reaching economic and ideological ambitions.

The attempts to use sports events on this international level, have been mirrored on a smaller, regional and city scale. For example, the work of Bramwell and Rawding (1994) has introduced a framework of urban regeneration within five old industrial cities in England, in which the increasing use of public-private sector partnerships, and the trend towards corporate city marketing (and image building), are highlighted. The bidding for (and staging of) events are outlined as important parts of the marketing process of industrial cities. Bramwell (1996, 1997) adopted Sheffield (and especially the World Student Games, 1991), as a case study to examine event-based tourism, within a sustainable development framework. He suggests that all bidding for and staging of events should be evaluated against the three community development criteria of economic efficiency, social equality and environmental integrity. Bramwell (1996: 27) concluded that:

> The city has made a very large-scale and rapid investment, with this representing a positive and dramatic bid to respond to fundamental changes in the global economy, which are affecting all European industrial cities. It is much to early too make a full assessment of exactly how sustainable and successful Sheffield's approach will be in the long term.

In summary, Getz (1991) has identified the following reasons why cities, such as these would consider staging an event:

- to attract people to the area and to spread tourist demand more widely throughout the area;
- to attract people outside the main season;
- to create media attention and raise the profile of the area;
• to add animation and life to existing facilities;
• to encourage repeat visits;
• to assist regeneration.

The staging of events is predominantly concerned with the allocation of resources, with the decisions to host events being considered as inherently political. As with Roche (op cit), Hall (ibid) remarks therefore that political influence, within the context of event-based tourism should not be ignored because, "following a hallmark event, some places will never be the same again, physically, economically, socially and perhaps most importantly of all, politically".

2.22: Summary

The importance of event-based tourism to the host region, and to visitors, has been highlighted. In comparison with the emphasis on mega events, the role of medium-sized events was relatively neglected within the literature, prior to the conducting of the empirical fieldwork on event-based tourism for this current research. The recent emergence of studies which have analysed what are referred to as 'major' sports events (see eg. Dobson's 1998 analysis of the economic significance of the Soccer World Cup in France, and Gratton's 1998 comparative study of six World and European Championships), has added considerably to this field of study. The impacts and benefits associated with large scale events, are reflected in events such as the World Athletics Cup (Chapter Seven).

The primary gap in the existing literature lies clearly with an insufficient number of empirical studies on event-based tourism, and the consequent lack of data on eg. the role of such sports spectating provision on tourism generation, and economic and social regeneration. More acutely, there still remains a need to understand more fully the behavioural aspects of sports spectating.

The literature which has been reviewed in this section, evidences significant recent interest in the evaluation of events, using a range of social and economic indicators. The empirical case study of the World Athletics Cup, as a topical example of a medium-sized sports event within an urban context, does not aim primarily to add further to this specific aspect of the research literature. Instead, the case sought to investigate the behavioural characteristics of the individuals attending the event. The existing literature, although increasingly suggesting an array of methods for assessing the impact of such events, often ignores the 'value' of spectating at events (as the vital
ingredient of the tourism experience), and the role of event-based tourism within the wider tourism (and sporting) profile of the individual. It is this aspect of event-based tourism, that the Chapter Seven case study focuses upon and attempts have been made to at least partially address this 'gap' in the sports tourism knowledge-base.
## CHAPTER THREE
### SECONDARY DATA ANALYSIS

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3.0: Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the existing data sets on sports participation and tourism in the UK. This served as necessary background, both in terms of providing information on the existing level of knowledge in this field, and in supplementing background knowledge gained from published work. It has been particularly useful in assisting with the identification of the particular fields for detailed study in this research, and the methods to be adopted.

The aims of the reviewed surveys are outlined, and the most significant results and conclusions are discussed. The surveys are critically examined in terms of, for example, the questions asked and the inclusion or exclusion of specific categories on sport and active pursuits. Some limited trend analysis has also been possible. This secondary analysis of both tourism and sports participation data in the UK, predominantly uses national tourist organisation surveys, and Government sources (including the General Household Survey). In addition, several commercial sources have been accessed and reviewed.

3.1: Definition and Development of Secondary Data Analysis

There have been numerous attempts to define exactly what is meant by secondary data analysis, and wherein exactly lies its value, and some consensus has been achieved. Hakim (1986: 1), who has written extensively on the role of secondary data analysis, specifically within the social sciences, has provided a conceptual definition. He considers it to be:

Further analysis of an existing dataset, which presents interpretations, conclusions or knowledge additional to, or different from, those presented in the first report on the inquiry as a whole and its main results. Secondary analysis can be used as an adjunct to new research, either in the initial stages of research development, or as a complement to new research.

There are multiple sources of secondary data available, and decisions must be made by the researcher as to what level of data is required. This is directly related to availability of time, resources and statistical techniques. Stewart (1984: 90) has listed three general sources of secondary data. Firstly, experts and authorities, which would include other eminent researchers working in the field, as well as trade and professional organisations. Secondly, recorded data and records, which is a general category containing surveys generated by organisations across all sectors on a regular basis. It must be noted that this particular source of secondary data, although
extensive, does pose the problem of gaining access. Thirdly, commercial information services have been recognised as including reports produced by organisations, whose core business is the generation of surveys.

3.2: The Benefits and Limitations of Secondary Data Analysis

The various advantages of using secondary data analysis within a research design framework, have been categorised by Hyman (1972: 25) as being: practical; social; and theoretical in nature. The most significant benefits are the practical ones, which relate to resources, particularly time and cost. In general terms, it is much less expensive to use secondary data than it is to set up and run a primary research investigation, and this is true even where there are costs associated with obtaining the secondary data. Kiecolt & Nathan (1985:57) summarise this by confirming that "secondary research requires less money, less time and fewer personnel and is therefore attractive in terms of economic fluctuations, when the funds available for research are limited or uncertain". The use of this form of analysis can also remove the often prohibiting factor of a researcher gaining, and then sustaining, access within an organisation in order to collect primary data.

Secondary data analysis can add to the stock of knowledge, particularly in terms of expanding the types and number of observations or variables covered. The data generated from secondary analysis can also be compared with existing data, in order to examine differences or trends. It may also be of use therefore in determining whether new information is representative (or not) of a population.

As with any method, in order to optimise the benefits, there is a need to avoid the negative aspects, referred to by Kiecolt & Nathan (1985: 22) as "obstacles and pitfalls". Many of these limitations, according to Kiecolt & Nathan (ibid) are "intrinsic to the survey method, while others are unique to the field of secondary analysis". A major problem of data availability may be encountered, with researchers having trouble locating exactly the data they require. Alternatively, the data required may not be made available for the researcher to analyse.

Sample size, sampling design and response rate for a survey are also of particular concern to a secondary analyst. It is likely that difficulties of integrating data as well as the non-comparability and inflexibility of concepts, definitions and classifications may be encountered, which has been referred to as the 'entity problem'. Errors made in the original surveys are often no longer visible and hence it becomes impossible to accurately differentiate interviewing, coding and keyboard mistakes. In addition to
this, the methods protocol and research design may not have been sufficiently documented, and so the secondary analyst cannot accurately appraise data collection errors. Poor documentation is more normally associated with small scale research projects in archives, as opposed to the large scale government publications.

Data is often collected with a specific purpose in mind, which itself may produce deliberate or unintentional bias, and so such sources should be treated with the same caution as applied to data emanating from any primary research design. The definitions used for categories and measures of phenomenon may not necessarily be appropriate for the research purpose in hand. The data points are usually aggregated and this again may hide data references of specific use for the study being undertaken. By definition, secondary data sources are 'old' data and this should be recognised in any subsequent analysis.

The lack of operationalisation of variables is a further problem often encountered by secondary researchers, which in turn produces issues of reliability in measurement, and hence the validity of results. Kiecolt & Nathan (ibid) also point to a criticism placed on secondary analysis of lacking creativity by an over reliance on widely circulated and used data sources, or alternatively questions are formulated solely because a particular data set is available. This convenience must not be allowed to dictate the research, quite simply because this is not the same process as generating hypotheses based on one's knowledge of available data. The theoretical orientations and primary research questions need, therefore, to be a guiding force rather than simply a by-product of the research.

3.3: Evaluation of Secondary Data Sources

The evaluation of secondary data should be the same as that adopted for primary data, and so questions concerning the source(s) of the data; measures used; the time of data collection; and the appropriateness of analyses and conclusions, should be raised as a matter of routine evaluation. Stewart (op cit) has provided a categorisation of the evaluation procedure (see Table 3.1).
Table 3.1: Criteria for the Evaluation of Secondary Data Procedure

What was the purpose of the study and why was the information collected?

Who was responsible for collecting the information? What qualification, resources, and potential biases are represented in the conduct of the study?

What information was actually collected? How were units and concepts defined? How direct were the measures used? How complete was the information?

When was the information collected? Is the information still current or have events made the information obsolete? Were there specific events occurring at the time the data were collected that may have produced the particular results obtained?

How was the information obtained? What was the methodology employed in obtaining the data?

How consistent is the information obtained from one source with information available from other sources?

Source: Stewart (1994)

3.4: Statistical Measurement within the Tourism Industry

It is relevant before reviewing the identified secondary data sources, to consider the various reasons why statistical measurement in tourism is necessary. Pearce and Butler (1992: 80) provide three main reasons for such measurement. Firstly, the need to evaluate the magnitude and significance of tourism to a given tourist destination, whereby data can quantify the role and contribution of tourism to the economy and to society. Secondly, statistical measurement is essential for the planning and development of the physical infrastructure for tourism, and hence the volume and characteristics of the tourist movement, have to be determined quantitatively. Thirdly, statistics are required for the marketing and promotion functions, based on the actual and latent demand for markets and their characteristics. Pearce and Butler (1992: 82) have emphasised that for all of these purposes listed, "statistics of tourism provide a quantitative framework in which various aspects of tourism are measured and can be seen as magnitudes, which can be subjected to further analysis".
Many authors have analysed the efficiency (or otherwise) of tourism data analysis (see eg. Pearce, 1988; Smith, 1989). Smith (1989: 23) has suggested two fundamental requirements for the measurement of domestic tourism types. Firstly, to obtain the volume, value and characteristics of tourism of the population of the country, and obtaining the same information related to individual destinations within the country. Traditionally, accommodation records have been the most common source for this data, but complete reliance on this source is not secure because they only concentrate on specified types of accommodation, and as a consequence, only part of the tourism flow is collected. Secondly, Smith (ibid) has identified a need for adequate information on the profile and behaviour of tourists. It is in this respect, and in gaining information on the volume and value of this sub-category of tourists, that such datasets have direct relevance and applicability to the sports-related tourism field.

The principal statistics of tourism may therefore be divided into three main methods of collection assessments. Firstly, volume, which in simple terms counts arrivals, visits and stays. Secondly, expenditure assessments, which measure spending at destinations and on the journey. Finally, analysis of tourist characteristics, which seek to provide information on the behaviour of tourists.

The basic volume statistics for tourism, in terms of numbers, length of stay etc. may be collected in three main ways:

- by enumeration at the point of arrival and departure;
- from accommodation records;
- by special surveys of tourists at the destination or in their homes.

The first method consists of simply counting tourists at the point of entry to, or exit from, the destination. This type of method can also quite accurately provide information on length of stay, mode of transport, group sizes etc. The second method consists of tracking the volume of tourists through registration at accommodation. This data is periodically recorded at a central bureau. This method presents practical problems in terms of calculating expenditure not related to the accommodation sector, and this has been referred to by Pearce and Butler (1992: 81).

Because of its nature tourism does not lend itself to easy measurement. In their movement and in their stay at destinations tourists can sometimes be readily distinguished from other travellers and from the resident and working populations of the areas through which they travel and in which they stay, but often they cannot.
The third method relates most closely to eliciting behavioural data from tourists, and this can be achieved through special surveys of a population via questionnaires, focus groups and interviews; usually at home or after the event. The total volume of trips or visits and nights have to be divided into market segments. This division can be made on the basis of, for example: purpose of visit; place of origin; tourist profile characteristics; and behaviour patterns, in order to provide meaningful information particularly for marketing and development purposes, but also (as here) for more fundamental research goals. The profile and behaviour characteristics of tourists are provided by such information as newspaper readership; attitudes and impressions prior to and post the tourism experience; how and when holidays are taken; and finally, the determinants of the holiday decision-making process.

The principal profile indices of tourists are sex, age, occupation and income. The behavioural characteristics include: time of visit; whether travelling alone or in groups; independent or inclusive tour; type of accommodation; means of transport used; total holiday expenditure; and the activities at the destination. The last area of information, on the nature and intensity of activities undertaken, according to Butler (op cit), is often neglected, and so he suggests it would be a welcome and useful addition.

The need for uniformity and comparability in the statistics of tourism is generally recognised, but various problems do remain, which have been described by inter alia Smith (1989: 30).

Most statistics of tourism are estimates of varying degrees of accuracy and reliability, which are compiled continuously or at intervals. For most purposes only broad indications of the order of magnitude are required rather than exact quantities and, as there is a degree of stability in some of the variables in tourism, periodical rather than continuous surveys are often adequate.

The weaknesses of such statistical measurement within the tourism industry have been receiving increasing attention by various international organisations. There is now an international agreement on the term 'visitor' (as discussed in Chapter Two: Section I), which has been endorsed by the United Nations Statistical Commission. The Tourism Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has, as recently as 1995, established a uniform research framework for national holiday surveys.
3.5: Secondary Data Sources in the UK Tourism Industry

In destination surveys the object is to establish the volume, value and characteristics of visitor traffic, to individual destinations within a country. A destination survey may consist of two related parts: an accommodation survey, and a visitor survey. These surveys were first conducted in 1989, and jointly sponsored by the National Tourist Boards of the UK. The aim of the first destination surveys was two-fold: firstly, to provide measurement of tourism in terms of both volume and usage; secondly, to collect details of the trips taken, and of the people taking them.

Annually, a number of surveys are conducted in order to elicit data and information on travel and tourism trends both in the UK and abroad. The National Tourist Boards of England, Scotland and Wales, and the British Tourist Authority (BTA) are involved in the majority of these surveys. The 'UK Tourism Survey' (published in the form of the UK Tourist Statistics) and the 'British National Travel Survey' (formerly known as the British Travel Survey Yearly) are the two primary sources of information on domestic holiday taking in the UK, while the 'International Passenger Survey' (under the remit of the Department for Culture, Media and Sport) seeks equivalent data for the international market. The 'Overseas Visitor Survey' is also conducted jointly by these agencies, mainly in an attempt to gain information on reasons for tourists deciding to visit, or not visit, England (and more particularly London). This information supplements that emanating from the 'International Passenger Survey'. Since 1970, the BTA/ETB have carried out a 'Holiday Intentions Survey in the UK', but this was discontinued in 1991.

In addition to these annual surveys, the National Tourist Boards and BTA often in collaboration with commercial market research companies, produce special reports, primarily based upon the data from the main surveys. A good example of this is 'Holiday Motivations'. The commercial sector is also regularly involved in conducting consumer-based surveys, and this chapter reviews examples of reports, including 'Holidays in the UK', from Mintel, and the 'Leisure Destination Survey', produced on a regular basis by Applied Leisure Marketing.

The following sub-sections review the most pertinent secondary sources relevant to the present research, identifying where possible their strengths and weaknesses, and key points of concern for the design and implementation of empirical work in this study. The emphasis has not been on determining trends, which would have proved problematic due to the inherent discrepancies in indices used, sample sizes and structure, and other methodological parameters.
3.5.1: BTA/ETB Surveys

*UK Tourism Statistics* (All tourism in the UK) reviews, for example, the purpose of trip categories, although these are very general and include: holiday; visiting friends and relatives; business; and other. Other information sought includes:

- type of accommodation used;
- mode of transport;
- organisation of trip;
- type of location;
- duration of trip;
- socio-economic groupings and demographic characteristics.

This survey, although generating a great deal of information on these important tourism indices, does not provide any data directly relevant to the area of activities undertaken on holiday, or sports related tourism.

*BTA Digest Of Tourist Statistics*: eg. No 21, 1997, has twelve sections, but only six have any relevance to the current research. As such, these have been reviewed:

- The International Passenger Survey;
- Overseas Visitor Survey;
- British National Travel Survey;
- British Holiday Intentions Survey;
- Forecasts of Tourism by British Residents;
- Tourism in the UK by UK Residents.

*The International Passenger Survey* (IPS), was started in 1964 and is now under the auspices of the Department for Culture, Media and Sport. It seeks to elicit data on the main purpose for trip making, and expenditure by main purpose. The broad categories given are:

- business;
- visiting friends and relatives;
- miscellaneous;
- all visits.

Despite its location within the Government Department responsible for sport, this survey does not pose any questions specifically related to sporting activities
undertaken on holiday. It must be assumed that any responses are included within the broad category labelled 'miscellaneous'.

*The Overseas Visitor Survey* is a BTA/ETB survey of a sample of 2,500 respondents and seeks to gain information over and above that available in the IPS. It mainly attempts to understand the relative importance placed on a series of stipulated factors integral to the holiday decision-making process. Of the factors stated, there is no reference to sport or related activities or pursuits, although arts and entertainment; heritage; countryside and sightseeing, are categorised. In 1992 (the last reported survey), a sample of 2,744 was taken and included 47 primarily closed questions in the questionnaire. The respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point semantic differentiation scale, the importance of 11 factors influential in their decision to come for a holiday in Britain. Some of the primary findings included that 81% of the sample said that 'heritage, countryside and opportunities for sightseeing' were 'important' or 'very important'. The other major findings to have emerged from this report included that the majority of holiday visits to Britain are repeat visits (61%), and 69% of these said that it was their previous experience in Britain which drew them for a return visit.

*The British National Travel Survey* (BNTS) was formerly known as the British Travel Survey Yearly (from 1985-1988) and it is the annual survey of holidays (4 nights or more) taken by the British. It categorises these holidays into two types: package and independent (which is extremely difficult to quantify). The BNTS includes no category for activities, or more generally on behavioural characteristics of the tourist, within the survey design, and this is therefore of only limited help in identifying sports tourists. The survey does however contain the following parameters:

- 'holiday travel only', and not travel for other purposes;
- restricted to holidays of four nights or more away from place of residence;
- holidays taken are divided into main holidays and additional holidays;
- covers domestic and international holidays;
- establishes the proportion of people over sixteen who have taken a holiday, the number of holidays taken and the destinations of those holidays;
- basic profile information including age, sex, socio-economic group and place of residence of holiday maker;
- a range of data is collected on the holiday itself, including duration, method of transport, accommodation used, and average cost of the holiday.
The British Holiday Intentions survey has been conducted in some form since 1970 and for its latest survey, a sample of 2035 adults were interviewed. The survey is very much based on the enumeration of visits and the volume of tourist and tourism activity, as opposed to behavioural aspects, which are so important to the current research. The survey contains data on the following five areas:

- intention to take a long holiday in the year;
- destination of intended holidays;
- destination of intended holidays by social groupings;
- number of long holidays intended;
- bookings made at commercial accommodation.

A Report on Forecasts of Tourism by British Residents (1985-1995) by the ETB, includes a section on trends and purposes of tourism, but the categories once again, are general. For example they include holidays; business/conference tourism; and 'other purposes'. It is the latter category which would presumably include sport and recreation activities and facilities, and subsequent activity profiles of the tourist, but as the data is aggregated, it is not possible to identify the sub-elements.

The remainder of this sub-section reviews other surveys (not included within the Digest of Tourism Statistics) but produced by the BTA/ETB, and having varying levels of relevance and applicability to this current research.

Tourism In The UK: eg. 7th Edition, 1991 is one of a series of key reports. It represents a market sector overview and examines:

- the industry structure;
- consumer profile, including visits to the UK by purpose of visit (Holiday; Business; VFR; Miscellaneous; All Purposes) and listed the Top 20 visitor attractions;
- market size and trends;
- recent developments;
- future prospects;
- company profiles.

UK Tourism & Travel (eg. 3rd Edition, 1993) represents another key report on market review and industry trends and forecasts. This includes a section on 'leisure travel', but did not contain specific categories of activities. (A similar up-dated report, produced by Key Note is reviewed on p102).
The *Holiday Tourism in the UK* (BTA/ETB) (eg. 1996) survey had amongst its aims to generate data on the range of activities pursued as the main purpose of the holiday, and potentially generates more specific data capable of differentiating sports tourists. However, two non-specific categories were provided: 'no particular activity' and 'any activity'. These were viewed firstly across all holiday trips; secondly, short holidays (1-3 nights); and finally long holidays (4+ nights). It became clear from the results, that the majority of people questioned did not have a particular activity in mind as the main purpose of their holiday. If however the activities pursued on holiday as a main purpose (as well as if the activities were incidental to the holiday choice) are examined, a rather different picture emerges. The list of activities given totalled 25 and included: watching any sport /sporting event; field study; hobby and special interest. In terms of most popular activities, for the main purpose of the holiday, and across all kinds of holiday trip, the two most popular categories of activity stated were:

- hiking/hill-walking/rambling and orienteering;
- swimming.

In terms of most popular activities for the main purpose of the holiday, the top three activities across all trip types were:

- swimming;
- hiking/ hill-walking/ rambling and orienteering;
- visiting 'heritage sites' (churches, monuments and castles).

The relevance of these figures is that they can be compared directly to the sports participation data (although caution must be taken over the differing methods of data collection and analysis) which is reviewed in Section 3.6. The data generated from this tourism survey, on activities undertaken, closely supports the evidence of the sports participation surveys, with respect to the overwhelming popularity of the two activities of swimming and walking (in its many forms). In addition to this, evidence from previous 'Holiday Tourism in the UK' reports, suggest that the popularity of these activities has been constant over a long period of time, with no significant increase (or decrease).

*Holiday Motivations Survey* (BTA/ETB) was a special report produced from figures for the BTS Yearly, 1995. In order to understand more about the decision-making process of holiday takers, a special analysis of four questions from this particular survey was made, which included a section on reasons for not taking a holiday. This
area of non holiday-taking is often neglected when considering the consumer decision-making process, particularly within the family unit, and is of particular significance when activity-based holidays are concerned. The first section of the survey sought to ascertain reasons why respondents were taking certain holidays in the UK rather than abroad.

### Table 3.2: Holiday Motivation Survey: Reasons for Taking Holidays in the UK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Reason</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>All Reasons</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peaceful</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of Travel</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outdoor Sports</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: BTA/ETB (1995)

There are a number of issues which arise from this table. The main point relates to the perceived low importance of outdoor sports as the main reason for taking a holiday in the UK. This was considered to be less of a motivator than the basic factors of travel and accommodation. Respondents were then asked to give reasons for taking a holiday abroad rather than in the UK, and a similar pattern emerged.

### Table 3.3: Holiday Motivation Survey: Reasons for Taking Holidays Abroad

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Reason</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>All Reasons</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different People</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outdoor Activities</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: BTA/ETB (1995)

The problem of definition is again highlighted in this particular survey, because the terms 'outdoor sports' and 'outdoor activities', seem to be used interchangeably. This
makes the comparison of data extremely problematic, not just between different surveys, but also among data sets within the same survey.

A later *Holiday Motivations Survey* by BTA/ETB (1996) was based on an adult sample of 1035 and looked at how UK holidays were perceived by the consumer, as compared to holidays abroad. One of the most significant findings was that 9% of the sample mentioned 'sports activities available', as a positive factor for taking a holiday in the UK, as opposed to a holiday taken abroad. When the reverse question was posed, it is of interest to note that the report found that 11% mentioned 'sports activities available' as a factor for holidays abroad being perceived as better than domestic holidays.

3.5.2: Commercial Market Research Surveys

The surveys and reports highlighted in this section suggest that a growing market in contemporary domestic and international tourism is holidays involving some form of activity as a main purpose of the visit, and this is observed to be the case for both short-breaks and longer holidays. There still exists, however, some confusion about specific volume data, primarily because the questionnaires are not designed to probe for details on activities undertaken whilst on holiday.

The *Leisure Destination Survey* produced by Applied Leisure Marketing was entitled 'The Motivation and Behaviour of British Leisure Visitors in the UK' and was conducted in May 1987. Despite the dated nature of this survey, it is useful again in illustrating both the inherent problems of definition and categorisation within surveys of this type, and the infrequency of surveys examining this area of the short-break holiday market, with the next in-depth survey covering these areas being conducted ten years later (see UK Day Visits Survey). The 1987 survey was presented in three volumes:

1) Holiday/Short Breaks;
2) Day trips from Home;
3) Destination Market.

Volume One (Holiday and Short Breaks) had sections on leisure shopping, eating/drinking out and visiting attractions, but nothing specifically on activities or sport. Volume Two (Day trips from Home) had a section on activities and attractions, with four broad categories being adopted (see Table 3.4).
Table 3.4: Leisure Destination Survey 1987: Activities and Attractions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visitor Attraction</th>
<th>% visited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture (museums, art galleries etc.)</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature (zoos and national parks etc.)</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun (theme parks, leisure pools with flumes)</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Recreation (indoor sports centres and marinas)</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Certain activities were observed to have relatively low participation levels, for example 'playing in a sporting event' 6% (the total sample was 1104), while 'watching a sporting event' had a participation level of 12%. Volume Three (Destination Market) had considerable amounts of data on the short break market and explored the nature of this market.

Research entitled *UK Day Visit Survey* (Countryside Recreation Network, 1996) covered the following areas of leisure day trips:

- the characteristics of people making leisure day visits;
- the characteristics of leisure day visits from home;
- the characteristics of leisure day visits from holiday destinations;
- the scale, purpose and value of day visits (which is of particular relevance to this research).

During 1994, over 7,000 individuals were interviewed for this survey, in England, Scotland and Wales, which yielded information about nearly 24,000 leisure day visits, over 300 one-off business visits and over 1,000 visits from holiday bases (the last information set being of particular relevance to this current research). The survey was published in June 1996 and recorded information about all round trips or outings made to and from peoples' homes in Great Britain, ie. England, Scotland and Wales, for a range of activities, which are listed in Table 3.5.

This is a rare example of a survey, conducted on a national level, which includes a description of the activity indices used within the study design, and is particularly useful in examining the differentiation made between some of the 'passive' forms of recreation (eg. swimming in the sea, and walking the dog) and the more 'active' sports, participated both indoors and outdoors.
Table 3.5: Activities and their Descriptors.

1. To go for a walk, hill walk or ramble (including walking the dog, but not walking to work or to the shops)
2. To go cycling or mountain biking
3. To go swimming at a swimming pool or leisure centre
4. To play indoor sports at a sports centre, leisure centre or club
5. To take part in sport or active pursuits in the countryside (i.e. not a particular activity - e.g. fishing, sailing, horse riding)
6. To play other sports outdoors at a sports centre, sports ground, stadium or club
7. To watch sport (not on TV)
8. To pursue a hobby or special interest (e.g. bird watching, photography, field or nature studies)
9. To play informal sport/children's games or sunbathe/relax outdoors (e.g. kicking a ball about, frisbee, sit around or in the car)
10. To go to a leisure attraction or place of interest (e.g. theme park, museum or art gallery)
11. For entertainment (e.g. cinema, bingo, concert, ballet)
12. To go shopping (not including weekly shopping, or for everyday household items)
13. To eat or drink out at a cafe, restaurant, wine bar or pub
14. To go for a drive, sightseeing and/or picnic, or to go pleasure boating
15. To go to the beach/sunbathing/paddling/swimming in the sea
16. To visit friends or relatives in their home (i.e. not going out with friends/relatives)

Source: Countryside Recreation Network (1996)

The most popular activities undertaken during leisure day trips, as the main purpose of the trip, are shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Day Visits from Home: by main purpose, 1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Purpose of Visit</th>
<th>% of Visits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit Friends</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat/Drink</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shop</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobbies</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor Sport</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Sport</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving/sightseeing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Countryside Recreation Network (1996)

The activities which are potentially sports-related have been highlighted and again this survey evidences primarily the importance of the two activities of walking and
swimming, as providing the main purpose for the leisure day trip. The popularity of both indoor and outdoor sports participation, was not a result reflected as much in the national tourism surveys, reviewed in the previous section. The category for 'watching sports', was cited by less than 1% of the sample, as constituting the main purpose of the trip (this can be compared to the figure of 12% reported within the Leisure Destination Survey in 1987, although the total sample was considerably smaller). This has implications for the results emanating from the World Athletics Cup Case Study (Chapter Seven). The impact of medium-sized sports events on generating tourism is destination and time-specific, although there can be no disputing their value in offering a spectator opportunity for residents, day visitors, and tourist alike. The small percentage observed within this survey may be attributable to the timing of the survey, and indeed it does not include individuals who take the opportunity of visiting a sports event whilst on a day trip, but not as the main purpose of their trip. Furthermore, the emphasis of this particular survey upon the rural, as opposed to urban environment, would naturally exclude many sports events opportunities.

A series of conclusions were made within this report on the purpose of leisure day visits from home and the characteristics of visit-takers, which are of relevance to the empirical case studies (particularly Twr-Y-Felin):

- young people are more likely to take part in active pursuits, while older people favour more leisurely pastimes;
- except for swimming, men are more likely to take part in sport, to watch sport or go out for a meal or drink, whilst women are more likely to go leisure shopping, visit a tourist or leisure attraction, go swimming and go out for some form of entertainment;
- people in the ABC1 social classes are more likely to take part in sporting activities, particularly outdoor sport, while people in the C2DE groups are more likely to participate in more casual activities such as informal sport and children's games, leisure shopping, and visiting friends and relatives;
- people with children are more likely to go cycling/mountain biking and swimming; and
- people with cars are more likely to take part in sport, including going swimming, to go for a drive, visit tourist attractions and visit the seaside.

It is important to note that within this survey, in addition to examining the types of activities undertaken as main purpose of leisure trip from home, the same indices were used for those leisure day trips taken from the holiday base. This is obviously
highly significant to the present study. The main purposes of visits from individuals' holiday bases, is shown in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7: Day Visits from Holiday Base: by main purpose, 1994**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Purpose of Visit</th>
<th>% of Visits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Driving/sightseeing</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat/Drink</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Shop</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit Friends</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor Sport</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Sport</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling/mountain biking</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Countryside Recreation Network (1996)

In making comparisons therefore, between the visits from holiday bases (Table 3.8), and visits from home bases also evidenced within this survey (Table 3.7), with the exception of walking, more active pursuits (which are of relevance to this current research) were much less likely to constitute the reason for making visits from holiday bases. If the figures for the various sporting activities are combined, then it becomes the third most popular reason for visits from home bases. However, if a similar aggregation is made for the visits from holiday bases, then sporting activities become only the seventh most popular reason for making leisure day trips.

The Key Note Market and Review 1998 report: *Short Break Holidays* (2nd Edition) is the latest industry review of the short break holiday market in the UK, concentrating on the volume and related expenditure on short breaks. However, it includes no specific breakdown on the types of activities undertaken whilst away and all of the categories were general including: holiday; business; VFR; and 'other', as the reasons for taking the short break (defined as less than 3 days away from the home area).

The Key Note Market and Review 1997 report: *UK Travel and Tourism: (6th Edition)* is only of relevance to the current study in the references it makes to the holiday decision-making process. In association with Gallup, this report questioned British holiday makers as to the factors they perceived as important in the decision to take a holiday. These were then analysed by sex, age, social class and region. Of the 14 factors listed across each variable, there was no mention of sporting activities.
Holiday 1995 was a special report produced by Mintel and follows previous ones conducted in 1991 and 1993. The report included the following sections:

- market factors, including the availability and affordability of leisure time;
- the holiday market;
- holidays in Britain;
- holidays abroad.

According to the results, special interests and activities pursued as a main part of a holiday, account for around 20% of all holiday trips in Britain and 25% of all holiday trip expenditure in Britain. This will be sustained throughout the second half of the nineties, valuing the activity holiday market at £2.6 billion in 1995. These figures accord well with earlier estimates from other analysts see eg. Leisure Consultants (1992) and Ogilvie & Dickinson (1992), which were reviewed in Chapter Two: Section IV.

In order that this commissioned research found all the necessary information on the special interest holiday market, the following question was asked:

Thinking about special interest or activity holidays lasting for 5 or more nights, where the activity is the main purpose of the holiday rather than a secondary activity, which of these types of activity holiday have you ever taken?

Special interest holidays are clearly a growing niche market and have been taken, according to Mintel (1995), by 38% of adults at some time in the past. In general terms, 11% were special interest holidays and 8% were multi-activity holidays. The most popular of the activities are walking, rambling and climbing holidays, which again supports the data produced from the other surveys reviewed in this section. The category of walking and rambling was the most popular activity in 1992, with some 3.8 million holiday trips taken. In order to better quantify the potential interest and therefore latent demand, the following question was asked: 'Which types of activity holiday would you be interested in participating in?' Nineteen categories were given and these included: ball sports; visiting health farms; and education or study groups. A further category of 'none/not interested' in special interest holidays returned a rate of 62%, although only 35% of the sample claimed to have no potential interest in taking a special interest/activity holiday. The most significant findings to have emerged from the latest Mintel (1995) report on the UK activity holiday market have been summarised in Table 3.8.
Table 3.8: The UK Activity Holiday Market by Value (1994)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Expenditure (£m)</th>
<th>% Total Exp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hiking/walking rambling/orienteering</td>
<td>613.3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>613.3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing/yachting/boating/canoeing/wind surfing</td>
<td>262.9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor boat cruising</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing-sea angling</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing-course or game</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse riding/pony trekking</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golfing</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water skiing/power boating</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountaineering/rock climbing/abseiling/caving/potholing</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snow Skiing</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shooting/stalking/hunting</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other activity</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-activity package</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,366</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mintel (1995)

These results are dominated by the top three activity types, which account for two thirds of the activity holiday market by value. However, problems of definition must be taken into account with varying parameters used for 'walking' and 'swimming', for example. Often these types of activity are recreational in nature. The case of walking includes a continuum of intensity from walking to other activities, through to fell walking, and the organised sport of orienteering. These problems of definition and subsequent measurement of sporting activities are discussed in Section 3.6.

In terms of holiday expenditure, golf is estimated by Mintel (ibid) to be worth £87.6 million (representing 4% of total expenditure on UK activity holidays). In recent years, studies have been conducted into the volume of the golfing holiday market (see eg. Lowing & Eilegard, 1998). They found that the total expenditure on the market (including golf equipment and merchandise) has continued to increase over the last decade. This growth, they assert, is still concentrated within the higher socio-economic groupings.

Another popular activity which appears on the list is snow skiing, which according to Mintel (ibid), has an estimated expenditure worth £26.3 million (1% of total UK activity holiday expenditure). Liston (1996) has undertaken a review of the UK ski
holiday market, while Richardson & Walsh (1996) examined the winter sports market (in volume terms only) in Finland, Norway and Sweden.

The snowsports market is worthy of further detailed investigation, not least because the most recent report from Mintel (1998) concentrates not only on indicators of economic value, but more importantly for this current research, on the value attributed by the consumers (and potential consumers) to such holidays.

3.5.3: The Snowsports Market

Mintel (ibid) found that only one in seven adults has previously been on a skiing holiday, and over half of the adult population were not at all interested in pursuing one in the future. However the picture was not completely negative, with a significant level of latent demand exhibited within certain age and socio-economic groupings. The core market established within this consumer research was the 'pre-family stage' and those under 34 years of age; with the popularity of skiing as a type of holiday, declining rapidly after 45 years of age. The overall skiing market has increased (in value terms) by 20% during the period 1991/2 to 1997/8 with the cost of the average holiday taken increasing by 22% to £400 over the same period of time.

The research commissioned by Mintel in May 1998 was based on a sample of over 2000 adults (over 15 years of age) and the aim was to examine the interest in, and likelihood of going skiing, and prevailing positive and negative attitudes towards skiing holidays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.9: Attitudes to Taking a Skiing Holiday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>By Skiers: Potential Skiers &amp; Non-Skiers</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skiers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been before and go every year</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been before and will definitely go again</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been before and might go again</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been before and will not go again</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Potential Skiers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been but have plans to go</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been but would consider one</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-Skiers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been and have no intention of going</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't Know</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mintel (1998)
From Table 3.9, it is evident that although over half of the respondents have never taken a skiing holiday, and have no intention of doing so in the future, one quarter may be labeled as 'potential skiers'. This has ramifications for marketing by the main tour operators, as well as resort development. Certain patterns emerge when the three identified groups of 'non skiers'; 'potential skiers' and 'skiers' are cross tabulated with the variables of age and socio-economic status (Table 3.10).

Table 3.10: Identified Groups by Age and Socio-Economic Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Skiers</th>
<th>Potential Skiers</th>
<th>Non-Skiers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mintel (1998)

Males, therefore, are more highly represented within the skiers and potential skier groups. Skiers are evenly distributed across the various age cohorts, although potential skiers tend to be younger. Within the older cohorts (with 35 seeming to be the threshold), the majority tended to be non-skiers, which may be attributable to the physical nature of the sport, and/or family commitments. This mirrors the literature on the relationship between age and diminishing participation in sport reviewed in Chapter Two: II, and the GHS (1996) data, reviewed in section 3.6. The significantly higher proportion of skiers falling within the top socio-economic groupings seems to support the perception held that skiing represents an 'upmarket' and relatively expensive holiday, certainly when compared directly to other packaged foreign holidays, or traditional domestic holidays (see Southcoast World: Chapter Five).
The relationship between the three groups and lifestage (using the Mintel consumer profile categories: p 45), shows that those individuals within the 'pre-family' lifestage (25%) had a much greater propensity for choosing a skiing holiday, than for example, those in the 'family' lifestage (16%). These findings support the literature on motivation in sport, and constraints to participation (Chapter Two: II).

The second section of the research sought to elicit attitudinal responses to skiing holidays taken, and to examine in more detail the behavioural and motivational dimensions of this type of holiday, which is a vital dimension of this current research. Respondents (2047) were asked the straightforward question, 'which, if any, of these statements about skiing holidays do you agree with?'. These attitudinal assessments are represented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Attitudes to Skiing Holidays

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fun with a group of friends</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too expensive</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great for families</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resort offering other non-snow activities</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resort offering other snow activities</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It's not a good idea to go with children</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'd be interested in taking day/short break to go skiing</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist equipment/clothing needed puts me off</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'd like to go skiing with people of my own age</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apres-ski and other facilities are as important as the skiing itself</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to try dry slope skiing before/after a skiing holiday</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't Know</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mintel (1998)

Although nearly one third of the respondents within Mintel's survey considered that it would be fun to go with friends, this escalated to more than 70% for 15-19 year olds, and over 60% of 20-24 year olds. For most questions, skiing was perceived as much more enjoyable as a holiday with a group, which caters also for the variety of abilities and levels of competence at the sport. In terms of product development, there was a significant number of the lower age cohorts who wished to see the availability of other snow sports at the resorts, which highlights the growing popularity, and associated culture of snow-boarding. Within the sample, 15% felt that the need for specialist equipment and clothing (the latter needing to be functional as well as fashionable, certainly among the younger cohorts) was a detrimental factor, and is in
line with the work undertaken within this research on activity holidays taken at Twr-Y-Felin, Pembrokeshire (Chapter Six).

3.6: Secondary Data Sources for Sports Participation in the UK

The initial focus of this chapter has been on the secondary data sources within the UK tourism industry, followed by an evaluation of the recent activity holiday and sports-specific holiday surveys. It is now important to outline the main comparative sources available for sports participation within the UK. This is beneficial in order to enable examination of the mechanisms by which the survey data is collected, analysed and presented. Comparability within this industry sector of the methods and protocols adopted can then be more effectively assessed. The General Household Survey (GHS) will be used to highlight some of these issues regarding data collection and interpretation.

Some problems identified with sports-related statistics include the fragmentation of sources, and the lack of standardisation of terms, even basic ones, such as 'participation', 'sport' and 'adult'. Many of the sources used refer to differing time periods and are drawn from different sample populations. An example of this is that the GHS rates of participation for specific sports are drawn from a stratified sample of households, whereas sports-specific surveys are usually based exclusively on participants in those sports, and as such provide estimates of participation which often differ from those given in the GHS. The problems of comparability of data, mirroring those of the tourism-related surveys, are evident.

3.6.1: The General Household Survey (GHS)

The questions on sport and leisure activities used in the most recent GHS (1996) have been in the same format for three year intervals since 1987. It is useful therefore, to trace the trends in participation identified over this time period. Within the GHS, the two measures of participation used in the survey are four week participation rates, and annual participation rates. The former generated data on the number of respondents 16 years of age or older, who took part in an activity in the four weeks before the interview. The latter looked at the participation pattern of the same group of respondents who took part in an activity in the 12 months before interview. These annual rates are invariably found to be higher than the four week rate. In 1996, this was once again the case, with walking and swimming dominating the activity profile. In the GHS, sporting activity by children, although considered to be important in assessing total demand for sport and leisure facilities is not covered. In addition, the
survey excludes the use of facilities by people on holiday from outside Britain, although sports undertaken by respondents when abroad are included, but not differentiated into a distinct category.

In 1996, nearly two-thirds (64%) of the sample (and thus the UK population), participated in some type of sport or physical activity in the 4 weeks prior to interview, although this profile was dominated by the activity of walking. If the activity of walking was removed, then the proportion of adults having participated in one sport would have been reduced to 46%. This latter figure better reflects the activity participation rates from Mintel (op cit), reviewed previously. Some other key participation rates to have become evident from the most recent GHS, include indoor swimming followed by walking as the most popular sport (in the 4 weeks before interview). It should also be noted that frequency of participation (as well as sole occurrence) is measured, and for some of the less popular sports and activities, such as weight lifting, horse-riding and gymnastics, regular participation (on average twice a week) is common. This is related to the issue of 'fidelity', an important element within the behavioural profiles formulated within the four empirical case studies. On one level, initial (and often one-off) participation in a chosen activity is important, but the longer, regular commitment illustrates a different type of behaviour pattern.

The survey does allow for a distinction to be made between sports predominantly played outdoors, and those mainly undertaken indoors. In 1996, taking the sample as a whole, 52% of adults participated in at least one outdoor and 38% in at least one indoor activity, in the four week period prior to the interview.

There were differences observed in the 1996 survey across a range of indicators. In terms of gender, for example, 71% of men, compared with 58% of women, stated that they had taken part in at least one activity in the 4 weeks before being interviewed. This can be directly compared with similar participation rates from the GHS (1990), in which 73% of men, compared to 57% of women had taken part in an activity in the four weeks prior to interview. The most popular activity in 1996 for both men and women continues to be walking, as shown in Table 3.12.

However, differences between the sexes are evident in terms of the second most popular activities. For men, snooker was the next most popular activity in 1996, whereas women preferred keep fit/aerobics.
Table 3.12: The Ten Most Popular Sports in Great Britain By Sex: 1996

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Men</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Walking</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Snooker/pool/billiards</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Keep Fit/Aerobics</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Cycling</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Swimming</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Soccer</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Snooker/pool/billiards</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Weight Training</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Weight Training</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Golf</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tenpin Bowling</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Jogging/XC/Road</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Jogging/XC/Road</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Keep Fit/Aerobics</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Tenpin Bowling</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GHS (1996)

More women (17%) were shown to participate in swimming than men (13%), although men are almost twice as likely to cycle than women. Cycling still remains a very popular and frequently participated in activity for both sexes. The high popularity of cycling for both sexes and across all age cohorts, provides a potentially huge market for cycling holidays and initiatives such as those increasingly provided at outdoor activity centres, such as Twr-Y-Felin, as well as the holiday centres, including Butlins Holiday Worlds, and the newer centres such as Center Parcs and Oasis.

Another significant finding from the latest GHS (1996) is that golf is participated in by 8% of men, but less than 1% of women. These figures reflect perhaps the inherent structural constraints, and inequality of access to the game for women. A concern expressed in Chapter Two: III.
Participation rates were also found to decline with age, and this was particularly marked if walking was omitted. This pattern was consistent across both genders. With respect to socio-economic groupings, considerable differences resulted. This was most significant for professional people, who were nearly twice as likely as unskilled manual workers to participate in at least one activity in the 4 weeks before interview. The dominance of non-manual socio-economic groups in sports was also reported in previous surveys. For example, in the 1990 GHS findings, those individuals in the 'professional' group exhibit the highest rates of participation (79% in the four weeks before interview) and those in the 'unskilled' group the lowest (46%).

Regional variations were also noted, which mirrored the Mintel consumer research conducted on activity holiday makers. The GHS (1996) data found that individuals from the South West, East Anglia and the South East were most likely to participate in at least one activity (for both the 4 week and 12 months indicators). These regional patterns were also evidenced in the three most popular sports and activities undertaken.

In this latest survey, questions have been introduced to ascertain the individual's use of facilities, tuition (coaching), club membership, and the level of competitive involvement. These are all useful indicators for the profiling of sports tourism behaviour, and are used in the Twr-Y-Felin case study (Chapter Six). This is an attempt by the GHS (1996), to build a more holistic lifestyle picture of sports participation, and to add the value (or behavioural dimension) to the volume 'snap shot' data which constitutes the bulk of the survey questions.

The GHS has consistently recorded an increase in both participation rates and the frequencies of participation in both indoor and outdoor sports since 1987 (with only cue sports declining in popularity). Table 3.13 illustrates the changes in participation rates between 1987 and 1996 in the most popular sports in Great Britain for adults aged 16 years and over in Great Britain during the 4 weeks prior to interview, as compared to the 12 months indicator.
(Persons aged 16 or over)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>% participating in weeks before interview</th>
<th>% participating in 12 months before interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep Fit</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snooker</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight Training</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GHS (1996)

In terms of the specific activities participated in, the rates have remained fairly static. Cycling has increased (+3%), while cue sports have declined in popularity (-4%). Men have shown slightly more marked changes than women, with overall participation rates in at least one activity (excluding walking) having declined from 58% to 54%. Women, however, have shown a slight increase over the time period from 38% to 39% (in at least one activity excluding walking).

Trends in participation according to age, have also been traced over the time period. Table 3.14 illustrates participation rates in at least one activity (both including and excluding walking) in the 4 weeks prior to interview across all the age cohorts. A number of trends can be identified from this data. The first is the consistent picture of declining participation in sport and physical activity with age, which has shown no significant alteration over the time period. Within the various age cohorts, the participation rates (for both indices) have increased gradually over the time. For example, the 45-59 age cohort have evidenced a 5% increase in participation in at least one activity (excluding walking), and a 7% increase in at least one activity (including walking). A similar increased pattern has been observed for the older cohort of 60-69, showing a 7% increase for activities excluding walking, and an 8% increase including walking. These are all higher than the overall (all ages) variations,
which is a 1% increase for the one activity (excluding walking) category, and a 3% decrease in one activity (including walking). All the remaining age cohorts have remained fairly constant, with subsequent increases or decrease in participation over the nine year time period, exhibiting a less than 5% variation.

Table 3.14: Trends in Participation by age: 1987 to 1996

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>16-19</th>
<th>20-24</th>
<th>25-39</th>
<th>30-44</th>
<th>45-59</th>
<th>60-69</th>
<th>70+</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At Least One Activity (exc walking)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>69</td>
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Source: GHS (1996)

The projected decline in the number of young adults from the national demographic profiles (OPCS, 1996), is likely to be offset by the increased participation rates by the adult population as a whole, stimulated by increasing concern over health and fitness. The forecast demographic and lifestyle changes also point to the continued growth and diversity of individual and informal sports at the expense of team games. This has significant implications for participation in various activities whilst away, and particularly for the solitary nature of many outdoor activity holidays.

3.7: Summary

This chapter has provided a review of secondary data sources available within the UK sports and tourism sectors, particularly focusing on participation profiles. The purpose was for the researcher to highlight the problems and obstacles which are shared by both tourism and sport statistics, particularly relating to definitional problems, and to highlight some of the key elements of evidence as to what significant activities may be expected within tourism settings. It was not the intention to undertake comprehensive and in-depth analysis of this data, as this was outside the
remit of this research, but rather to provide an effective framework in which to analyse the volume of primary data to have been generated from the four case studies.

The work on secondary data has been useful in order to chart the sources which are available and to have evaluated them in terms of the most significant data. For the tourism sources, their use (or non-use) of indices and variables relating specifically to activities whilst on holiday (including day trips), was concentrated upon. Whilst for sports participation, the focus was on data that could evidence what the most popular activities at home were, in order to assess the extent to which these may be translated into sports tourism demand and supply patterns.
CHAPTER FOUR
METHODOLOGICAL REVIEW

4.0 Introduction

4.1 The Paradigm Debate

4.2 The Case Study Approach

4.3 Summary
4.0: Introduction

In its initial part, this review does not seek to outline how the research has been conducted, but rather why the particular methodological approach was adopted. The empirical case studies (Chapters Five to Eight) include detail and explanation of the methods and protocol used, although the rationale for the overall approach is discussed subsequently in this chapter. Silverman (1985: x) has stated that there is already a vast literature on techniques and methods for carrying out research, and despite variations in content and style, "they have in common a focus on how to do research and the technical details, with occasional forays into the philosophy of knowledge". The distinction can be made, therefore, between 'methods' as a descriptive notion of the techniques adopted, and 'methodology' as the theory and rationale for the methods and techniques employed and considered appropriate, to generate and justify the knowledge, in light of the epistemology adopted.

Research in its widest sense, is considered to be a systematic inquiry in which the aim is to produce knowledge and understanding. It locates and contextualises the inquiry within the established, existing body of knowledge; it attempts to provide a justification of any claims made. A distinction exists, however, between knowledge for understanding and knowledge for action. The former closely resembles theoretical research as an approach concerned primarily with causal processes and explanation.

The factors (or variables) considered, are frequently abstract or purely theoretical constructs for which operational definitions and indicators of varying degrees of precision and validity are developed. According to Silverman (ibid) "theoretical research is essentially concerned with producing knowledge for understanding, usually within the framework of a single social science discipline". Knowledge for action, exemplified by the area of action or applied research however has the long term aim of changing (in some way), a given social situation. This current research has generated a number of applications, which have benefits at both an individual and organisational level, within the tourism industry (see Chapter Ten). The efficacy of the case study approach in embracing such applied research is discussed.

4.1: The Paradigm Debate

The distinction between methods adopted and the methodological framework, which may include one, or a combination of, the assumptions on the nature of knowledge, and more importantly the rationale for examining the paradigm framework, has been highlighted by Guba and Lincoln (1994: 105):
Questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm, which we define as the basic belief system or world view that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamentally ways.

The debate on paradigm frameworks (referred to by Gage (1989: 4) as "the paradigm wars"), and an understanding of the assumptions inherent in each case are crucial, because any researcher's decisions about which methods to chose, begin (consciously or otherwise) from a theoretical standpoint; involving values, beliefs and ideas. This is particularly pertinent when the research design predominantly involves an inductive and iterative process and the use of case studies. Any given framework or paradigm depends largely on the aims, goals and purposes of the research, and in turn the views and attitudes of the researcher towards the social world. A paradigm has its own perspectives and assumptions about knowledge. It is centred on different views of the social world, and according to Patton (1987: 39) is "a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world".

Guba and Lincoln (1994: 107) suggest rather that paradigms are basic belief systems that represent the most fundamental positions that a community is willing to take and which cannot be proven or disproved. The assumptions of these paradigms involve questions of ontology, epistemology and human nature.

- Ontological assumptions are based on the nature of existence (or being) in the social world. This really involves the question of whether one is discussing what is effectively external to the individual or what the individual is actually creating and recreating (internally) within the study. The ontological question is based upon the form and nature of reality and what there is to be known about it.

- Epistemological assumptions involve the question of knowing, or rather the theory of knowledge and the nature of knowledge, that is, the theory of learning. The epistemological question posed is based on the relationship between the knower (or researcher) and what can be known.

- Human nature assumptions involve people in a social context and either a deterministic viewpoint in which individuals are perceived as products of their environment, and thus conditioned by external circumstances, or voluntaristic in which people are perceived as controlling their own lives and creating their own environment.
The interest in the debate on the use of qualitative research methods arose according to Bryman (1988: 5), primarily from the reference to the paradigm debate in the work of Kuhn (1970). Here, a paradigm is considered to represent a cluster of beliefs, and dictates for scientists in a particular discipline what should be studied and how results should be interpreted. At this time, the social sciences were deemed to be 'pre-paradigmatic' as there was no one overarching paradigm pertaining to each discipline and "these ideas seemed to contribute to a greater sensitivity to the assumptions and methods associated with competing approaches to the social sciences" (Kuhn, ibid).

The terms 'quantitative research' and 'qualitative research' are considered in some situations, to be competing views about the ways in which social reality ought to be studied, and as such are essentially divergent groups of epistemological assumptions. For other writers, the terms are perceived as denoting different ways in which social investigations can be conducted, with different approaches necessary for different social problems. Within this framework the two methods can be integrated. For this second view, therefore, emphasis is placed upon issues of technical approach for data collection and analysis. The researcher felt, for example, that both qualitative and quantitative methods of enquiry would be required, in order to study the interrelationship between sport and tourism. Thus, case studies provided an excellent context in which these methods could be combined.

Bryman (1988: 2) comments that through the use of scientific concepts, such as experiment, control and variables, the researcher is "imposing expectations on the reader about the sort of framework that is about to be encountered, what sorts of criteria of valid knowledge the author endorses and so on". Similarly, many qualitative researchers adopt a different framework, and expect their work to be read and judged within the confines of that framework and nothing else. According to Bryman (1988), the original debate with regards to the relative merits and pitfalls of quantitative and qualitative research methods, operated "almost exclusively at the level of the technical adequacy of the techniques".

The debate has subsequently become broader to encompass philosophical issues, such as the appropriateness (or otherwise) of relating the natural science model to the social sciences. Thus, increasingly the terms quantitative research and qualitative research signify much more than ways of gathering data; they come to denote sciences.
There are a number of paradigms or frames of reference therefore, which have been scrutinised across various disciplines. The most prominent of these paradigms are: the scientific; the interpretative; and the critical (or radical).

4.1.1: The Scientific Paradigm

The scientific paradigm has the advantage of often being closely associated with the natural sciences. It is a method which is 'hypothetico-deductive', and not generally inductive. As a result, the approach is strongly criticised for being reductionist and mechanistic. The approach attempts to give uniformity and provides all encompassing ideas of human behaviour in the social world. It is a top-down approach using the general to describe the particular. According to Giddens (1984) such approaches are positivist, in that they are centred on the idea that statements of science can produce a framework in which the nature of any form of knowledge can be determined. Campbell (1985: 25) provides a balance when he suggests that:

The idealised deductive process of developing theories, deriving hypotheses and testing them to support or not the theory, is respected by almost everyone, but at the same time almost everyone realises that the ideal, seldom describes reality.

Guba & Lincoln (1994: 106) have disputed the conventional wisdom of such positivist approaches and have presented their arguments in terms of internal (intra-paradigm) critiques and external (extra-paradigm) critiques. The internal critiques include inherent weaknesses of such deductive approaches to research. An example of these is 'context stripping', for example, referring to a situation where quantitative designs tend to exclude some variables which might affect the findings. Hence the theoretical rigour may be enhanced by adopting such an approach, but the relevance and thus applicability or generalisibility of the data, may be lost as a result.

Guba and Lincoln (ibid) have also suggested that such approaches may be guilty of excluding meaning and purpose in that "human behaviour, unlike that of physical objects, cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes attached by human actors to their activities". This criticism has been made of quantitative methods in general, whereby often complex phenomenon are compartmentalised 'a priori'. The inapplicability of general data to individual cases, is considered to be a further weakness. This is described by Guba & Lincoln (ibid) when they observe that, although generalisations, may have statistical meaning; they may have no applicability in the individual case".

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The method of triangulation can be adopted to overcome the weakness inherent in generalisability and has been described by Flick (1992: 178) as:

A process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation. But, acknowledging that no observations or interpretations are perfectly repeatable, triangulation serves also to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being seen.

The method can take many forms, but is usually a combination of two or more different research strategies. When more than one method of data collection is used, the process of cross-checking data becomes important, with the quantitative and qualitative methods allowing access to different levels of reality. Hence the quantitative can indicate salient relationships, and these can then be corroborated and reaffirmed by gathering data via qualitative methods. Both Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Patton (1990) argue for the combination of methods for the purposes of cross checking and validation of data interpretation. For example, the combined use of in-depth interviews and questionnaires or focus group sessions.

The external critiques are by contrast dominated by the theory-laden dimension of facts. In order for a study to be considered objective, hypotheses must be stated in ways that are independent of the ways in which the facts needed to test them, are collected. The under-determination of theory is predominantly concerned with an inherent criticism of deductive approaches. For example Popper (1968), rejected the concept of theory verification in favour of theory falsification because he felt it impossible for a researcher to arrive at a single theory.

The interactive nature of the 'inquirer-inquired dyad', constitutes a further critique, referring to the fact that findings are created through the interaction of the researcher examining, and the phenomenon under scrutiny. The search for an alternative frame of reference brings into focus consideration of the interpretative paradigm.

4.1.2: The Interpretative Paradigm

This emerged primarily as a response to the disillusionment felt in the natural sciences and more widely towards the quantitative framework of analysis. It has most recently emerged in the form of symbolic interactionism, ethnomethodology and hermeneutics. (For a detailed explanation of these fields see eg. Blumer, 1969; Hammersley, 1992; Sass, 1988 and Wolcott, 1989). Qualitative research, and more specifically case study analysis are two further prominent examples of this particular
trend. Silverman (op cit) is in no doubt as to the emerging credibility of qualitative methods, when he states that, "encouraged by theoretical critiques of positivism, qualitative methods now occupy a central position in both teaching and research". He continues to explain, however, that despite the apparent theoretical and conceptual rejection of positivism, the researcher is struggling to find guidance as to what might be perceived as an appropriate and non-positivist methodology.

The interpretative paradigm encapsulates the uniqueness of individuals, circumstances and contexts and it is particularly sensitive to thoughts, attributed meanings and so on. The very subjectivity of the results and outcomes creates analytical concerns. This is a bottom-up approach in which the unique features and circumstances surrounding a particular case are explored. It uses the particular to illustrate the general. Most empirical studies tend to lead from theory to data, yet the accumulation of knowledge within this framework involves a continuing iterative cycle between theory and data. The centrality to this study of attempting to understand individual behaviour patterns in sports tourism suggests such an interpretative (and inductive) approach.

Wolcott (op cit) has noted that methods are the most unremarkable dimension of the interpretative study. By focusing excessively on methods (the techniques for gathering and analysing data), then according to Wolcott (ibid), the full understanding of the relationship between method and the purpose of the inquiry is lost. This particular point is further emphasised by Schwandt (1994) who suggests that there is a persistent, mistaken belief that making the interpretative turn in the social sciences is principally a matter of employing different means of collecting and analysing data. Understanding interpretivist approaches to the study of human action is not, according to Schwandt (ibid), simply a matter of mastering technique, copying a method, or following a method. Rather understanding is to be gained through an examination of the epistemological presuppositions of a methodology, through study of its conceptualisation of what we are about when we inquire.

In more general terms, Sparkes (1992) makes reference to the quest for knowledge, which includes a prediction, control and understanding of the particular phenomenon under study. He suggests that this is a sound framework from which to embark on any area of research. There are, however, a multiplicity of ways of knowing, understanding and ultimately explaining the social world.
4.1.3: The Critical Paradigm

The critical paradigm, is based on progress, improvement and positive development. This must be questioned however, particularly as to whether this change is either politically possible, or indeed desirable. Bain (1989) and Griffin (1990) have emphasised therefore, that for critical researchers the aim is not merely to describe the social world, but to empower those involved to help invoke change.

4.2: The Case Study Approach

Case studies, are considered by Yin (1993: 3), to be an in-depth investigation of a particular case within its real life situation or context. The case study, according to Yin (ibid), is originally linked to the case history approach, the latter used extensively in clinical fields, such as psychology and medicine. Case studies have developed within the sociological discipline, to be in-depth investigations which, Zonabend (1992: 12) suggests, pay special special attention to "totalising in the observation, reconstruction and the analysis of the cases under study". Within this predominantly sociological framework, multiple sources of evidence are adopted, and the case study strives to highlight the attributes of social life, including interactions, common behaviour patterns and structures. Hamel et al. (1993) remark that the primary goals of case study research are to reconstruct and analyse a given case or cases from a sociological perspective. The link between subjectivity and objectivity in the context of case studies, has been highlighted by Godelier, cited in Hamel et al. (1993:15):

The case study method simultaneously expresses the subjective approach of the thinker and the objective content of what he is thinking about. In the last analysis, though, it is the content that provides the 'grounds' for the method, since, while the method expresses the procedure adopted by the thought process, the latter expresses the nature of what is being thought about.

Case studies are non-experimental research in which the variables are neither controlled nor manipulated, with the phenomenon under study analysed in its natural setting, which facilitates the study of context. Case study research then, seeks to understand the topic under investigation and enables the researcher to obtain a rich, full, holistic picture of the problem situation. Bonoma (1985) outlines the primary goal of case study research to be understanding the phenomenon under study and this is achieved by description, classification, theory development and (limited) theory testing. The purpose of this form of research, is according to Stake (1994: 245) "not to represent the world, but to represent the case".
According to Bryman (1992) the case study went into decline in the 1960s, primarily as a result of the prevailing view that it is not possible to generalise the results of research deriving from just one or two cases. In the field of organisational studies, this led to a shift towards focusing on samples of organisations from which generalisations to wider populations of organisations could be made. Bryman (ibid) comments that the application of the case study approach has, since the late 1970s seen a rejuvenation, probably due to the increased use of qualitative research. The case study is treated by many writers as synonymous with qualitative research. Many case studies however use a substantial amount of quantitative research methods.

Eisenhardt (1989: 540) has outlined three positive characteristics of case studies. Firstly, the effectiveness in explaining previously uncharted areas; secondly, the ability to test theories and; thirdly, confirming (or denying) findings from other studies. She adds that they also have the potential to enhance internal validity by the use of multiple studies, while naturally providing a suitable context in which quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined. This attempt at defining the case study method, concentrating on the inclusion of context as the defining variable, means that many technical difficulties face the case study. For example, the study is most likely to have more variables than data points, due to the richness of the data. In addition, the study cannot possibly rely on a single data collection method, and even in the situation where all the relevant variables are quantitative, there is a need for the creation of distinctive strategies for both survey design and analysis. With this, Yin (1993: 35) suggests that the development of these rigorous techniques and strategies, which may not necessarily be faced with such severity by other disciplines (such as ethnography, history, quasi-experimentation and surveys), has constituted "the continuing quest in defining the case study method".

4.2.1: Types of Case Study

Case studies, according to Yin (1993: 48) can be based on single or multiple units of analysis, and can be considered as exploratory, descriptive or explanatory. An 'exploratory' case study, which is at the centre of this present research, aims to define the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study, or to determine the feasibility of the desired research procedures. For Yin (ibid), the exploratory case study has "given all of case study research its most notorious reputation". Fieldwork and data collection in this context are undertaken before final definition of study questions and hypotheses are made by the researcher. The research may follow an intuitive path, which by sceptics will be perceived as 'sloppy', while by others regarded as a genuine research attempt to observe and analyse a social phenomenon in its 'raw' form (Glaser
& Strauss, 1967). As a relatively uncharted field, it seemed most germane to adopt an exploratory case study approach. This was certainly supported by Eisenhardt (1989) who advocates the use of case studies in explaining previously under-researched phenomenon.

The primary research requirements emanating from the aim and objectives of this research (see Chapter One) are: providing a full and detailed analysis of the volume and value of sports-related tourism; illustrating empirically the range and significance of sports tourism, and hence defining and delimiting the field; and finally, illustrating at the individual and aggregate level of how sport and tourism interrelate in the leisure lifestyles of significant numbers, and different types of people. These requirements clearly indicate the multi-faceted nature of just one part of the interrelationship, which had not previously been the subject of much research. An exploratory case study design seemed to provide the most appropriate framework in which to meet these aims.

A 'descriptive' case study, aims to present a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. Finally, an 'explanatory' case study involves the analysis of data which impacts on cause-effect relationships, in the main explaining which causes, have produced which effects.

Stake (1994: 242) outlines a typology of case studies, in which three broad types may be identified. The first type is an 'intrinsic' case study, in which the inquirer seeks an improved understanding of the object of study. The case is of interest and relevance in its own right and does not necessarily represent other traits or cases. The purpose here is not predominantly therefore, the building of theory. The second main type of case study approach is the 'instrumental' case study, in which a case is examined in order to provide insight into an issue or refinement of theory. The final case study type is one based on 'collective case scenarios', in which a researcher looks at a series of cases jointly in order to understand a phenomenon. They are chosen, it is argued, as understanding them will lead to better conceptualisation or theorising about a still larger collection of cases.

4.2.2 Selection of Cases

Selecting the cases to be investigated, is one of the most demanding stages of the case study process. This has been emphasised by Stake (1994: 243), when he remarks that "perhaps the most unique aspect of case study in the social sciences and human services is the selection of cases to study". Cases may be chosen to replicate previous
cases, or to extend emergent theory, or they may be chosen to fill theoretical categories and provide examples of polar types. While the cases may be chosen randomly, random selection is neither necessary, nor preferable. The goal in sampling (or choosing) the cases to be studied is to select those which are most likely to produce or extend the theory. The case study must produce an explanation which does not in any way make reference to or suggest any intuitive, tacit or imitative fields of knowledge, that cannot be provided by the case study within a written description. The theoretical and methodological foundations of the explanation resulting from the case study, must thus be clearly understood through the depth of description of the central unit of analysis.

It was decided, due to a combination of the relative 'immaturity' of this emerging sub-sector of the tourism industry and the diversity of ways in which sport acts on tourism, and vice versa, that using independent, yet interrelated cases, was the most efficient and effective means of generating the empirical data. A sequential process therefore, could be assured, adopting the case study approach in which suitable (and accessible) case studies, which sampled various dimensions of the sports tourism interrelationship, within a variety of different supply contexts, could be selected. Hence, the case study approach, not only appeared beneficial in terms of providing a coherent structure to the research, but also facilitated a logical research process.

4.2.3: Object of the Study

The unit of analysis must be clearly defined at the outset of the study, for the very reason that case studies facilitate the collection of data from numerous perspectives, as well as over time periods of undetermined duration. At the culmination of the study, for effective generalisations of theoretical importance to be made, the unit of analysis must be clearly defined for comparative purposes. The definition of the central object of study, is clearly an extremely complex task, and according to Stake (1994: 238):

The case study researcher faces a strategic choice in deciding how much and how long the complexities of the case should be studied. Not everything about the case can be understood. Each researcher will make up his or her own mind about how much is needed.

Despite these inherent difficulties, it is vital Hamel et al. (1993: 48) suggest, that the determination of the central object of the study is made to incorporate the transformation from the theoretical definition of the object of the study, to its empirical construction within the selected materials. The variety of this material will
ensure the depth of the case study. The case study as an in-depth investigation therefore, uses a range of methods to collect data, and it is through these empirical tools that the very object of the study will be more clearly understood. This diversity of methods can, however, produce some analytical problems. The case study, by using materials of different origin, means that it is open to different types of knowledge. For example, a questionnaire will induce direct knowledge from the respondent, while official surveys and reports are clearly based on knowledge lending itself to an inherently administrative process.

Getting started involves an initial definition of the primary research question(s), at least in broad terms. A lack of definition and parameters will otherwise result in the researcher becoming overwhelmed with the sheer volume of data. Eisenhardt (1989:536) refers to this process as an "a-priori specification of research constructs". The potentially important variables must be identified if possible at the outset, with a realisation that the central problems may shift during the course of the research. According to Eisenhardt (ibid) the researcher should avoid thinking about specific relationships between variables and theories as much as possible, especially at beginning of the process.

The need to define the initial research questions before embarking on case study research has a caveat in terms of opportunistic fieldwork opportunities. Yin (op cit) explains that:

Sometimes an important case presents itself and the appropriate case study design seems almost pre-defined. In other situations, data collection might have to start before the investigator has had a chance to define the study questions and issues properly.

This does however rely upon a level of experience of the researcher in order to avoid later accusations of bias. Linked to this is the frequent overlap between data collection and analysis which gives the researcher a head start as well as enabling adjustments to be made during the data collection process in the field. This can be perceived as an ongoing pilot and quality control process. The latter point may well beg the question of legitimacy. Eisenhardt (1989: 539) refers to this flexibility as, "controlled opportunism", in which the researchers are able to take full advantage of the uniqueness of a specific case and the emergence of new themes, to improve resultant theory.

According to the concept of 'grounded theory' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the researcher should enter the case study scenario without any preconceptions or bias. At
the preliminary stages, the researcher does not know what information is important or indeed relevant and thus collects a large volume of data. The subsequent analysis of this data enables the extraction of major emergent themes and relationships between themes. These then form the foundations on which theory can be built. Data is collected and analysed to describe, classify and generate theory. The work of Eisenhardt (1989); Miles (1979); and Mintzberg (1979), all suggest that the researcher must enter the frame with a focus, in order to facilitate the identification and later description of the unit of analysis, identify relevant sites and the kind of data to be gathered from a set of coherent facts by induction alone.

As the researcher was not able to use previous studies to clarify the central unit of analysis, it seemed logical to generate the data within a series of case studies, each of which provides its own context. An alternative approach, which could have been adopted, is a single, large-scale survey (through a questionnaire administered to a randomly selected sample of the population), which aimed to elicit data on general categories of individual's involvement (or non-involvement) in sports-related tourism activity. This could be conceived of in a similar format to the UK Travel and Tourism Survey (and similar ones), reviewed in Chapter Three. An approach along these lines, would have successfully quantified the volume of sports-related tourism, but would not necessarily have been effective in establishing the value of such activity within the overall lifestyles of the respondents.

4.2.4: Integration of Theory within the Case Study

The process by which theory can be integrated into the case study approach is another factor for consideration by the researcher, and according to Yin (1993) can be understood by: selecting the cases to be studied in the first place; specifying what is being explored; defining a complete and appropriate description and generalising the results to other cases. Analysing data is the heart of building theory from case studies, but it is the most difficult and least codified part of the process. The importance of within-case analysis is driven by one of the realities of case study research, and most importantly the frequent production of what Eisenhardt (1989: 536) has referred to as "a staggering volume of data". This situation has been explained more graphically by Pettigrew (1988) as "the ever present danger of death by data asphyxiation". This analysis usually involves detailed write-ups of each case which, although primarily descriptive, are central to the generation of insight.

One tactic for conducting within-case analysis, is to select categories or dimensions and then to look for within-group similarities, coupled with inter-group differences.
These categories can conceivably be produced from the existing literature or the research problem itself. A second possible strategy to adopt, is to select pairs and then to list the similarities and differences between each pair. A third possible tactic is the division of the data by source. The overall aim is to force researchers beyond the realms of initial observations and impressions.

From a combination of the above, tentative themes, concepts and possibly even relationships between variables, can begin to emerge. The next stage of this highly iterative process, is the systematic comparison of the emergent frame with evidence from each of the cases, in order to assess how well or poorly it fits with the case data. This constant comparing of theory and data, iterating towards a theory which closely fits the data, is ongoing. One step in shaping hypotheses is the sharpening of constructs and involves two distinct stages. Firstly, refining the definition of the construct, and secondly building evidence, which measures the construct in each case. The underlying logic through this process is centred on replication; that is the logic of treating a series of cases as a series of experiments, with each case serving to confirm or reject the hypothesis. Following the process of testing known variables and to capture hitherto unknown variables, a theoretical model can begin to be built in order for the researcher to gain a clear understanding of the social phenomenon, and most importantly the relationship between the constructs. This can subsequently be tested using other traditional deductive research approaches.

A further feature of theory building is comparison of the emergent concepts, theory or hypotheses with the literature. This involves asking what is this similar to, what does it contradict, and why? A key to this process is to consider a broad range of literature. Conflicting literature represents an opportunity, not a threat. Literature discussing similar findings is obviously also vital, as it binds together underlying similarities in phenomena not associated with each other. The result, according to Eisenhardt (ibid), is often a theory with "stronger internal validity, wider generalisability and a higher conceptual level". In terms of reaching closure, two factors need to be considered. Firstly, when to stop adding cases or analysis within cases; and secondly, knowing when to stop the iterative process between theory and data. In both instances, when saturation point is reached, then closure must be made. That is the time when incremental improvements are found to be minimal.

Eisenhardt (1989: 548) has established a set of criteria for the evaluation of theory building research through case study application. This can be seen in Table 4.1.
Table 4.1: Criteria for Evaluation of Theory Building through Case Study Research.

Evaluation Criteria Indicators

1) The concepts, framework or propositions that emerge from the study must constitute 'good theory', ie. theory which is parsimonious, testable and logically coherent (Pfeffer, 1982);

2) The empirical issues, namely the very strength of the method adopted and the evidence which grounds the theory, must be sound;

3) A sufficient level of evidence for each construct to enable readers to make their own assessment of the fit with theory, should be displayed;

4) A strong theory building should result in new insights. A theory building which merely replicates past established theory is at best a modest contribution. The goal must ultimately be the building of new theory.

Source: Eisenhardt (1989)

In summary therefore, the strengths of building theory from the case study method include: the possibility of generating novel theory and the generation of an emergent theory, which is most likely to be able to be tested with constructs that can be readily measured, and hypotheses that can be proven false. The resultant or emergent theory is also likely to be empirically valid. Weaknesses of this process include the fact that intensive use of empirical evidence can produce a theory which is too complex, or indeed the theory which emerges may prove to be narrow and idiosyncratic, ie. the researcher has an inability to raise the level of generalisability of the theory. This situation occurs primarily because case study theory building is a bottom-up approach, such that the specifics of data produce the generalisations of the theory. Yin (op cit) balances this argument when he comments that "theory building from case study research is particularly appropriate because the theory building from case studies does not rely on previous literature or prior empirical evidence". This certainly reflected the role of the proposed sports tourism continuum (Chapter Nine), which attempts to conceptualise the diverse patterns of sports tourism behaviour.
4.2.5: Evaluation of Case Studies

Athens (1984) has outlined three criteria for effective evaluation of case studies. Firstly, the contribution made to the development of new concepts and theories; secondly, the refining of existing ones, whilst ensuring that the scientific concepts, developed within the study are empirically grounded; and thirdly, the researcher's work must have scientific credibility, because no study is intrinsically credible or indeed incredible. It is so important, Athens (ibid) suggests, that the researcher must supply an adequate or comprehensive account of the research, as well as detailed accounts and description of the results obtained. Guba and Lincoln (op cit) have provided the criteria for assessment of the 'quality' of interpretivist work more generally to include: trustworthiness; credibility; transferability; dependability and authenticity.

In terms of evaluating the efficacy of the case study approach adopted, Mitchell (1983) and Yin (1984) both argue that case studies should only be judged and evaluated, in terms of the adequacy of the theoretical inferences that are generated. The generation of theory is the key and validity, reliability and representativeness should be judged against this. As Eisenhardt (op cit) has remarked, "strong studies are those which present interesting or frame breaking theories which meet the tests of good theory or concept development, and are grounded in convincing evidence".

Stone (1978) has provided a comparative table of empirical research strategies used within the case study framework, rated across a series of dimensions, with the conclusion that no single research strategy attains favourable ratings against all criteria. Instead, the selection of a strategy is a trade-off, for example, increasing the naturalness of the setting, involves a loss of control over the variables. No single strategy in social sciences, can simultaneously maximise internal validity and external validity (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

It is quite normal however, for a researcher to pursue both data validity and generalisability by using more than one method within one case, with the aim of replication or, at the very least, convergence of findings (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Bonoma (1985) has developed a 'knowledge accrual triangle' which plots the research strategies according to data integrity (internal validity) and currency (external validity and generalisability). High integrity may be obtained by the process of precise and accurate operationalisation of variables and a corresponding high level of control over the variables. The highest degree of integrity is characteristically achieved through the use of laboratory-based experiments, whereas high currency can be obtained by the...
use of natural settings and non-experimental designs and methods, such as case studies.

4.2.6: Criticisms of the Case Study Approach

Within the use of non-experimental research, the risk of improper interpretation of the same event must be realised. This situation has been referred to by Ball (1990), when he says that it would not be entirely uncommon for different interpretations to be made, when different researchers carry out the fieldwork. There are many variables to consider, such as data collection format, sampling techniques and procedures. Case study research may also be found to establish relationships between variables but can not indicate the direction of causation.

The case study, as a research method, has been faulted for two main reasons which together represent the critique. Firstly, it has been berated for its apparent lack of representativeness, particularly of the case which is used as a point of observation for the social phenomenon or issue which constitutes the very object of the study. Secondly, for the potential lack of rigour in collection, construction and analysis of the empirical materials that give rise to the study. The concept of rigour also concerns bias, as introduced by the subjectivity of the researcher, as well as the field respondents.

The generality of the case study, as with any laboratory test, is dependent upon the methodological integrity of the test process. In this sense, the methodological integrity or value in terms of the case study is, in essence, based on a combination of the quality of the strategies first selected in defining the central research issue, and the selection of the social criteria from which the problem will be viewed. At this point only, can the methodological rigour displayed in describing the subject be readily understood. As no two contexts are identical, generalisations mainly ignore, or do injustice to the unique shaping forces at work in each context. The use of multiple case studies may go some way towards removing these concerns, but there exists a law of diminishing returns, in that too many cases may result in the loss of distinctiveness of case study research. As far as Hamel et al. (op cit) are concerned however, "the case study has proven to be in complete harmony with the three key words that characterise any qualitative method: describing, understanding and explaining".
4.3: Summary

In this present research, the case study approach will be adopted to examine the interrelationships between sport and tourism. Within the current research framework, both qualitative and quantitative forms of data collection, interpretation and analysis will be used. The main strength, according to Bryman (1988: 175) of using this approach to tackle a research problem, is that the case study "provides one of the chief arenas in which quantitative and qualitative research can be combined". A combination of both approaches is often highly effective and Henderson (cited in Veal), 1992 emphasises this when she suggests that, "ideally a researcher who understands the array of methods available through both quantitative and qualitative approaches, will be able to address the ways best to study the issues related to leisure".

Theory-building researchers typically combine multiple data collection methods. The likely synergy referred to by Eisenhardt (1989: 538), when combining qualitative and quantitative evidence, has been emphasised by Mintzberg (1979: 587), when he suggests that "we uncover all kinds of relationships in our hard data, but it is only through the use of this soft data that we are able to explain them". Eisenhardt (op cit) also makes reference to the benefits of multiple observers or a team approach to data collection and analysis, but this has obvious budget implications.

The major conceptual responsibilities of the case researcher have been highlighted by Stake (1994: 244) to include the need for:

- delineating the case and conceptualising the object of study;
- selecting phenomena, themes, or issues relating to the research questions;
- seeking patterns of data to develop the issues;
- triangulating key observations and bases for interpretation;
- selecting alternative interpretations to pursue;
- developing assertions or generalisations about the case.

Yin (1993: 50) has isolated the following common elements from his varied research, using both singular and multiple case studies:

- bring expert knowledge to bear upon the phenomenon studied;
- round up all the relevant data;
- examine rival interpretations;
- ponder and to probe the degree to which the findings have implications elsewhere.
Case study research, it appears, captures reality through contextualisation and allows for a large number of variables to be studied, which have not been previously determined. The behavioural implications of individuals' sports-related tourism activity, must be understood within the context of the supply (or provision) of such opportunities. Case studies, it was decided, could provide a context in which these individual characteristics could be integrated with organised provision of sports tourism opportunities (whether this provision be on an individual or corporate level). This 'real' context has been alluded to previously (see Chapter One), and certainly all of the cases have produced this integration, and as a result have generated many applications for the tourism industry, and more specifically the sports tourism sector.

Case studies are also effective in the developing and refining of concepts for further empirical study. It is not possible to generalise case research findings statistically to a population, and during the process, the researcher has no control over independent variables which may, to some degree, limit the internal validity of any conclusions reached.

The researcher accepts that other methodological approaches could have been adopted (and several have been referred to in this chapter), and they would have been feasible within the time-scale and budget restrictions, inherent in research of this type. However, the case study approach was chosen for the reasons outlined (and the rationale is defended on this basis), and it has allowed linkages of theoretical and practical importance to be made within, and between, the four empirical case studies.
CHAPTER FIVE
BUTLINS SOUTHCOAST WORLD:
A CASE STUDY

5.0 Introduction
5.1 Background Information
5.2 Design of Methods
5.3 Analysis of Data
5.4 Case Study Conclusions
5.0: Introduction

This chapter outlines the background to the selection of Butlins Holiday Worlds, and Southcoast World, Bognor Regis, as the first case study in this research, which is based on a traditional UK holiday centre. Chapter Two: Section III has alluded to the importance of such holiday centres within the UK setting in the provision of sports-related tourism opportunities, but no empirical studies had been conducted to examine such behavioural patterns. Background information on the development of Southcoast World as the largest of the Butlins centres in the UK, is outlined in the interview with the Head of Marketing (Appendix Two). The study methods and protocol adopted are discussed within the context of gaining access to an organisation as large as Butlins. The results from analysis of the questionnaires are presented in graphical form, followed by presentation of the focus group results. Finally, a summary of the main findings is provided.

5.1: Background Information

Work by McCoy (1991) paid attention to the increased importance being placed on the use of sport at Butlins Holiday Worlds, focusing on the case of Southcoast World, Bognor Regis. This Loughborough University study was conducted in light of major investment by the Rank Organisation Plc (owners of Butlins) into re-development of their holiday camps, particularly the accommodation stock, and the sport and leisure facilities (a trend outlined in Chapter Two: Section III). This can be illustrated, not only by the level of investment made in sporting provision at this and other centres, but also by the development of a programme of sports festivals staged at Butlins Holiday Worlds throughout the UK. For example in February 1997, Butlins Holiday World in Skegness staged a National Cycling Festival, which was successful in attracting over 2,000 participants, many of whom boarded at the Centre over a three day period.

5.2: Design of Methods

Within this present study, an initial meeting was arranged with the Director of Marketing for Butlins Holiday Worlds, based at their Head Office in Bognor Regis, during which these re-developments were discussed, and a wide range of background information collected on Butlins, and the use of sport in their promotion and programming. Additionally, the consumer market research conducted by Butlins was outlined by the Head of Marketing (see Appendix Two). The two primary research
methods to be adopted within this case study were a self-completion questionnaire to participant tourist visitors and focus group discussion sessions.

5.2.1: The Questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix Two) was designed at all stages in conjunction with the management of Butlins and sought to elicit data from the following four areas:

i) the trip to Butlins Southcoast World: including how the respondents found out about the centre; previous visits; booking procedure; length of stay; and composition of the holiday party;

ii) sport at Butlins Southcoast World: including participation in sports offered (both on-site and off-site); frequency and duration of participation; comparison with home activity profile; and perceived importance of different aspects of the sports programme;

iii) the CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme: including information on awareness of this particular scheme; previous and current participation;

iv) personal profile details: including age; sex; occupation; income; and likelihood of a return visit to Butlins in the future.

The questions were predominantly closed for three main reasons. Firstly, the questionnaire was to be self-completed by individuals whilst on holiday, and hence there was a need for both the simplicity and clarity that closed questions demand. Secondly, this format would aid the coding and analysis stages, and thirdly, the questionnaire needed to be relatively brief, otherwise the response rate would have been adversely affected. There was one opportunity within the format for the respondents to provide additional 'open' comments on sport at Butlins.

The main difficulty with self-administered questionnaires of this type, arises from controlling the accuracy of responses, particularly with respect to ensuring that all relevant questions have been answered in an appropriate way, and as comprehensively as possible. Without careful design, individuals completing such questionnaires on their own are liable to omit sections (particularly when they are not sure of a question) or respond to sections which do not apply to them. The apparent simplicity of the closed question format, is the researchers' best defence against such
problems, particularly when it is infeasible for the researcher to be on-site throughout the entire research period.

The preferred method of data collection would have been an interviewer-administered questionnaire in order to alleviate the problems outlined. However, this was not possible, primarily because the management of Butlins were reticent to allow interviews with visitors and declined approval for such an approach. It was considered to be inappropriate for their guests to be pressured in any way by an interviewer located within the holiday camp. The benefit of the self-completion method, as perceived by the management, was the fact that the guest could complete the forms in their own leisure time, with no direct pressure. This highlights some of the problems of gaining access to, and working with organisations (see also Chapter Four), especially where the collection of data from customers is concerned. There is a need for pragmatism, and occasionally the ideal research method is compromised.

The questionnaire was piloted at Southcoast World on the weekend prior to the survey being conducted. The researcher administered the questionnaire to ten randomly selected guests, and any potential pitfalls, or ambiguities noted. Some amendments were made to the order of the questions, in consultation with the management, prior to the final implementation of the questionnaire.

Over a period of four weekends, questionnaires were distributed to customers on arrival at the general reception, and were collected via a 'return box' in reception. The researcher was present during all of the weekend periods, in order to clarify any problems which arose, and more importantly to persuade the guests to take and complete a questionnaire before their departure.

The distribution, collection and subsequent response rate was calculated, and detailed in Table 5.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1: Response Details for Self-Completed Questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A total of 1,500 questionnaires were distributed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the duration of the study, ignoring duplicated responses,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoiled and incomplete questionnaires:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A total of 315 questionnaires were returned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This represents a response rate of 21.0%.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.22: Focus Group Discussions

The schedule for the focus group was designed closely with Butlin's management, and it was decided to attempt to elicit information on three levels, which were relevant both to this study and to Butlins:

i) *The holiday decision-making process*; including the importance of the availability of sport and recreation opportunities in the decision to take the holiday. The decision to take a holiday at Butlins may have been taken for the individual concerned only, for a partner as well, or for a family or other group.

ii) *Sports activity whilst on holiday*; including the sport and recreation opportunities which have actually been taken up, both for the individual and other members of the group, the frequency and intensity of this participation; a comparison between the intended participation and the actual participation profile.

iii) *Residual impact of sports tourism*; including the participation patterns once returned home, particularly with regards to sports/recreation activities taken up for the first time, or rediscovered at Butlins, the importance of the availability of sport and recreation within the individual's future decision-making process for holidays generally, and more particularly any intended return visit to Butlins.

The focus group discussions were conducted during a Saturday at the beginning of the Spring Programme of events. The first group had nine individuals, and the second group had ten. The venue was a TV lounge within the centre, and refreshments were provided. Customers were recruited for the focus groups from the main reception in the morning, at which time the aims of the project were explained. No direct incentive was provided for participation in the focus group discussions.

The first session lasted approximately 45 minutes, while the second lasted approximately 55 minutes.

The various strengths and weaknesses of focus group discussions have been widely documented (see eg. Bryman, 1986; Huberman, 1992; Veal, 1997). A particularly useful categorisation of the advantages and limitations of focus groups has been put forward by Stewart and Shamdasani (1990: 16-17). They list the advantages and limitations, relative to other types of research and are included in Table 5.2:
Table 5.2: Advantages and Limitations of Focus Groups

Advantages

1) Focus groups provide data from a group of people much more quickly and at less cost than if the individuals were interviewed separately.
2) Focus groups allow the research to interact directly with respondents, allowing clarification, probing and follow-up questions.
3) The open response format facilitates a large and rich amount of data.
4) Focus groups allow respondents to react to and build upon the responses and reactions of other group members.
5) Focus groups are very flexible, being able to examine a wide range of topics.
6) Focus groups can be an effective research tool for obtaining data from children.
7) The results of the focus group are easy to understand, and do not require complex statistical analysis.

Limitations

1) Generalisations to the larger population cannot be confidently made from a small group.
2) The responses from the group are not independent of one another, and the discussion may be biased by a dominant or opinionated member.
3) The 'live' and immediate nature of this method may lead the researcher to place greater faith in the findings than is warranted.
4) The open-ended nature of responses makes summarisation and interpretation of results difficult.
5) The 'moderator' may bias the respondents either knowingly or unknowingly by providing cues.

Source: Stewart and Shamdasani (1990)

The key to the success (or otherwise) of such qualitative techniques is the organisation and subsequent management of the session. The location, briefing, and composition of both focus group discussions was not problematic. However, the relative inexperience of the researcher in managing such discussion fora, should be recognised. The inherent problems of domination by one or a few members of the group, diversion of the discussion from the pre-determined topic areas, and the closure of the discussion were all identified by the researcher prior to conducting the focus groups.
The need for pragmatism was again evident in terms of data collection for this method, in that the Butlin's management would not allow the focus group discussions to be tape-recorded, hence eliminating the possibility of a verbatim transcription. Comprehensive notes were taken by an assistant to the researcher, while the researcher also took notes as the discussions progressed. A combination of these two methods facilitated a detailed description, with direct quotations, to be compiled immediately following closure of the groups.

The profiles of the members for the first focus group, including details on age, marital status, number of dependent children, and occupation are described in Table 5.3:

Table 5.3: Focus Group One: Respondent Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ann</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Married: two children (not at home)</td>
<td>P/T Receptionist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Single: (living with partner)</td>
<td>Insurance Clerk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexandra</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Married: one child (aged 3)</td>
<td>P/T Event Organiser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Married: three children (not living at home)</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jim</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Married: two children (one living at home)</td>
<td>Postman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Single: (living with partner)</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuart</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Married: one child (living at home)</td>
<td>Mechanic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Insurance Clerk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A similar profile summary was produced for members of the second focus group, and these are detailed in Table 5.4:
The representative nature of the focus group composition is a vital component of the methods protocol. For the purposes of this study, it was important to achieve not only a representation of the 'Butlins Holiday Maker' across the two groups, but also a representative balance within the groups. The decision was made by the researcher not to select children for participation in these discussions. This was due to the problems inherent in parental supervision, and hence the risk of advocacy, and also emphasis placed on the holiday decision-making process (within the schedule), of which children are fundamentally important, but often on an unconscious level. Consequently the researcher recognises that this removed a potentially valuable subset of the Butlins clientele from the research framework, and affected the overall representativeness of the sample, to the Butlin's population.

Using the Consumer Survey data conducted by Butlins in 1995 at all of their holiday worlds, the remainder of the indicators of age, sex and dependents were found to be well represented within the two focus groups. Issues of practicality (the inclusion or exclusion of children), and willingness of individuals to give time during their holiday period to answer questions, were recognised as barriers to achieving a truely representative sample.
5.3: Analysis of Data

The analysis of the questionnaires was performed using 'SPSS for Windows' and the frequency calculations were supported by selected cross-tabulations. Those questions which invited open responses could be effectively coded, and then analysed using the method adopted for the remainder of the closed response questions. Consequently, no alternative method of content analysis was required.

The data from the two focus group discussions was analysed using the framework of the pre-determined categories of topic, in order to delimit the discussions. It was considered essential that this analysis integrated effectively with the quantitative analytical framework adopted for the questionnaire survey. According to Stewart and Shamdasani (1990: 102):

For such exploratory research a simple descriptive narrative is quite appropriate. More detailed analyses simply are not necessary or efficient.

There are a variety of more detailed methods available to the researcher, including content analysis. Some of the pioneering work on the use of content analysis was applied to focus group data (see eg. Janis, 1965; Krippendorf, 1980). However, the three categories, which effectively constituted the focus group schedule, also provided a coherent framework in which analysis of the qualitative data could be made. The combination of research methods (self-completion questionnaire and focus group discussions) aimed to induce the positive effects of triangulation (discussed in Chapter Four).

5.3.1: Questionnaire Data Analysis

The respondent profile was measured according to the parameters of sex, age, occupational status and annual income groupings. The Butlin's Consumer Survey outlined, provided a base-line from which the representativeness of the sample could be measured. Figure 5.1, showing the breakdown of the age of the respondents by sex, indicates a relatively representative sample, with the exception of the youngest cohort, which is attributable to the targeting of the questionnaire on adults within the holiday party. The number of females who completed and returned the questionnaire was n=147, which represented 47% of the sample, while males constituted 53% of the sample (n=168).
The age categories of the sample (as outlined), is skewed towards the older categories, with the largest proportion of respondents coming within the 35-44 (30%) and 45-54 (28%) cohorts, with a high number of respondents (n=22%) within the oldest category of 55 years and over. The majority of the respondents were in either full-time or part-time employment, with quite a high level of retired, reflecting the age structure of the respondents. As a socio-economic indicator, the annual income groupings (Figure 5.2) mirror the profile expressed by the management of Butlins in that the majority of their guests are to be found within the lower socio-economic groupings C1, D and E. The highest percentage of respondents were highlighted within the lowest income category of £9,999 or under (34%), which again is related to some extent, to those retired, and those in part-time employment only.
The demographic and socio-economic profile of the sample, as well as the composition of the group engaged in the holiday experience at Butlins are important parameters, particularly with regards to participation in sports activities. Once again using the Butlin's Consumer Survey (and the management information provided in Appendix Three), the sample is found to be fairly representative, with the key differentiating characteristic being the high proportion of visitors falling within the lower income groupings. Figure 5.3 clearly shows the group structure and composition, which was found to be particularly influential in the level of sports activity during the holiday.

The nature of the Butlins Holiday World product (predominantly self-catered facilities and designed for family use), means that it is a type of experience not consumed very often at an individual level. The dominant group composition was that of respondents with spouse or partner (n=286), with their own children (n=230), although other family members (n=114) and friends (n=89) were significant sub-groups. The categories are not mutually exclusive.

Figure 5.4 illustrates the respondents' previous visits to Butlins Holiday Worlds throughout the UK (not just Southcoast World). Rank management assert (see Appendix Two) that a significant proportion of Butlin's core business is achieved through repeat visits, and this is supported by the data shown.
Around one quarter of the respondents had never visited a Butlins centre (n=81), whilst the remainder had visited at least once previously (n=138), with nearly one third (n=96) having engaged in at least two previous holidays at a Butlins Holiday World. The immediate importance of such responses is the established knowledge and previous experience of the product offered.

Figure 5.5 indicates that visitors most commonly become aware of the product offered at Butlins Holiday Worlds through the company brochure (n=198) and newspaper advertisements (n=113). These both contain predominately activity-based photographs and images, often within a family or group context. The impact of 'word-of-mouth' from friends and relatives should, as usual, not be underestimated. The role of activities and the availability (or otherwise) of facilities for participation in a wide range of activities proved to be an important factor within this communication mix.

The questionnaire design did not provide a category for 'been before' within this topic of awareness, which in retrospect, the researcher accepts as an oversight. It would be reasonable to assume, however, based on the accumulated evidence, that as a significant proportion of the clientele are repeat visitors, then this would account for their existing awareness of this type of holiday.
The length of stay of the respondents within the sample is relevant when considering both the duration and frequency of sports activities undertaken. This data is illustrated in Figure 5.6.

The most popular holiday package is the seven night full week (n=159), although the two week stay was also extremely popular (n=86). None of the short weekend respondents (neither 3 or 4 nights) were visiting Butlins exclusively as part of the sports festivals being offered at that time, as this information was explicitly asked for within the questionnaire.
The importance of the decision-making process in holiday destination choice, and more specifically sports related tourism activity, has been highlighted previously. The analysis of the question reflected in Figure 5.7 demonstrates who takes responsibility for choosing Butlins as a holiday. Over half of the respondents (n=172) felt this decision-making responsibility was held jointly, while approximately one quarter (n=81) took full responsibility. The remainder, which constitutes 20% (n=62) of the sample, stated that the responsibility for deciding to come to Butlins was taken by someone else.

![Figure 5.7: Responsibility for Decision to Come to Butlins.]

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two, Section I, did not produce a definitive profile as to the decision-makers, and their profile characteristics, but suggested that the sex of the individual was the most significant determinant. Table 5.5 shows the individuals with responsibility for the decision to come to Butlins, by sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Responsibility</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint Responsibility</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others had Responsibility</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It was expected that 'joint' responsibility for the decision to come to Butlins would have been equally represented across both sexes, as indeed would the response to the category of 'others' taking responsibility for the decision-making. The main differential between the sexes however, is found to exist, when the question of 'full' responsibility is taken into account. The males within the sample dominated (in proportionate terms) this aspect of the holiday decision-making process.

It was considered important to construct a general holiday profile of the respondents to support the sports-related tourism activity profile. Figure 5.8 presents the total number of respondents who have taken certain types of self-catered holidays in the UK within the previous three years.

The holiday centre dominated the picture (n=268), and this can be compared to Figure 5.9 in which the types of catered holiday taken in the same period within the UK are presented.
Once again the holiday centre received the highest frequency or responses \((n=192)\), with the use of guest houses \((n=178)\) and hotels \((n=128)\), also proving to be extremely popular types of domestic catered holiday.

The importance attached to various factors in terms of the holiday decision-making process is crucial to an understanding of appropriate programming and the generation of future repeat business. Table 5.6 shows the ranking of the factors listed with regards to their perceived importance to holidays taken within the UK.

### Table 5.6: Importance of Various Factors in Domestic Holiday Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good Value for Money</td>
<td>=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been Before</td>
<td>=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lots of things for the Children to do</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Standard of Food</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of Indoor Facilities</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An identical ranking system used for the importance of the same set of factors as related to the specific choice to visit Butlins Holiday Worlds is shown in Table 5.7. The profile is virtually identical, with the exception of the added factor of 'good entertainment' for Butlins replacing 'high standard of food', for the general domestic holiday choice.
Table 5.7: Importance of Various Factors in Butlins Holiday Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good Value for Money</td>
<td>=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Been Before</td>
<td>=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lots of things for the Children to do</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Entertainment</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of Indoor Facilities (inclement weather)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was useful to ascertain the level of importance attached to sport as a factor, either enhancing or detracting from the overall enjoyment of the holiday experience at Butlins, and Figure 5.10 outlines the respondents' perception as to the relative importance of sport.

As is clearly shown 69% of the respondents (n= 216) perceived that the availability of sport at Butlins as either 'very' or 'quite' important to the enjoyment of the holiday, although 13% (n=40) considered that such provision was 'not at all' important to the enjoyment of their holiday experience. If this level of importance attached to the availability of sport at Butlins is directly related to the variable of age, then a distinct pattern emerges. This is illustrated in Table 5.8.
Table 5.8: Importance of Sport at Butlins By Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>very n=98</th>
<th>quite n=118</th>
<th>not very n=59</th>
<th>not at all n=40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A general observation on these results (without the use of significance tests) suggests that the younger cohorts taken as an aggregate (<16-34), have evidenced a proportionately higher perceived level of importance than the older cohorts (35-55 and over). This pattern however is further strengthened by taking into account the perceived importance of various listed aspects of the sports provision at Southcoast World, by those respondents who considered sport to be either 'quite', or 'very' important. Table 5.9 contains analysis of these factors in their descending ranked order.

Table 5.9: Importance of Selected Aspects of the Sports Programme at Butlins

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taking part with friends and family</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy Activity</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting Others (social aspects)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying a new sport</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve individual ability</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The selection of sport available</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winning (extrinsic factors)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The social aspects of sports provision at Butlins are revealed as being ranked very highly among the respondents, whereas the benefits related to development of themselves and their ability at the chosen activities were not ranked as important (with 'winning' ranked at the lowest level of importance). The most significant issue to have arisen from these results is the low priority ascribed to the availability of a wide range of sporting facilities at Butlins Holiday Worlds.
The management at Butlins Holiday Worlds have attempted to broaden the participation profile for their guests by facilitating use of a range of activities 'off centre' which may be accessed at a discounted price for its guests. A brochure was produced listing such facilities within a five-mile catchment area. Figure 5.11 illustrates the respondents' participation in 'off centre' sports activities.

The data overwhelmingly confirms the relatively low take-up of such opportunities by the sample respondents questioned. The all inclusive nature of the Butlins product, both physically (with respect to its layout) and in terms of the programme offered within the camp itself, would primarily explain the non-participation in activities provided outside the camp. These activities would inevitably incur an additional cost, albeit at a reduced rate, and this would have produced a further barrier to participation.

Figure 5.12 represents the percentage of respondents' participating in their chosen activities, 'on-site' for the first time during their stay at Butlins Southcoast World.
Almost three quarters of the sample (n=230) had participated in their particular activities prior to their current visit to Butlins. It is significant to note however that over one quarter of the respondents had used this holiday period to engage in an activity for the first time. It should also be noted that of this total, the majority (n=87) remarked that they intended to continue the activity on returning home, either regularly or occasionally.

If the data for participation in activities for the first time is related to the variable of length of stay at Butlins Holiday Worlds, then some interesting results can be observed. This cross tabulation is detailed in Table 5.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>&gt;1 week n=86</th>
<th>7 nights n=159</th>
<th>4 nights n=18</th>
<th>3 nights n=52</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a direct relationship between activities undertaken for the first time and the duration of stay at Butlins. Those respondents remaining for the greater length of time found greater opportunity to engage in their chosen activity; a situation not echoed as strongly within the group of respondents only staying at Butlins for long weekend breaks. It should be noted that the significance of this result, should be considered within the context that a number of the 'organised' sporting activities offered (in a
Butlins Southcoast World: A Case Study

programme or course format), lasted throughout the week, and hence were not appropriate for the long weekend visitors.

Analysis of the participation of respondents in activities offered 'on-site', Table 5.11 records the top five most frequently participated in activities and responses to the related questions. The labels for the frequency of activities to be considered were clearly marked on the self-completion questionnaire. Regular participation in the chosen sport was labelled as, 'at least once a week'. 'Available' refers to those activities which can be undertaken at Southcoast World. 'Done' refers to the fact that the respondents had already participated in their chosen activities at the time of completing the questionnaire. Finally, 'intend to' relates to whether the respondents were intending to undertake their chosen activity before returning home. There was some confusion over exactly what constituted an 'activity', particularly with regards to the definition of swimming and keep fit/aerobics. Any level of active involvement in these sports was included within the data analysis.

Table 5.11: Frequency of Participation in On-Site Activities Whilst at Butlins

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Available</th>
<th>Done</th>
<th>Intend to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>98 (31%)</td>
<td>304 (97%)</td>
<td>168 (53%)</td>
<td>139 (44%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep Fit</td>
<td>87 (28%)</td>
<td>115 (37%)</td>
<td>61 (19%)</td>
<td>45 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snooker/Pool</td>
<td>94 (30%)</td>
<td>217 (69%)</td>
<td>82 (26%)</td>
<td>38 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>83 (26%)</td>
<td>118 (38%)</td>
<td>105 (33%)</td>
<td>98 (31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>33 (11%)</td>
<td>87 (28%)</td>
<td>24 (8%)</td>
<td>18 (6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A certain amount of ambivalence was expressed towards the provision of more structured sports coaching sessions at Butlins, as seen in Figure 5.13.

1 This element of the results should be treated with caution because when asked to respond to the question, 'do you intend to do before you leave?', some respondents interpreted this as further participation in a chosen activity already participated in at Southcoast World on this trip, rather than new participation in the activity.
It became apparent that approximately one third of the sample (n=115) thought that they would like to see an expansion of such sessions, but a similar amount were against such a development (n=109). The remainder were not sure about the effect of such an expansion in provision (n=92). The lack of awareness among the respondents with regards to the CCPR endorsed National Pentathlete Scheme\(^1\) (Figure 5.14), was to be expected, and was largely attributable to the 'running down' of the scheme by Rank management, at the time of the study.

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\(^1\) The National Pentathlete Scheme is an award scheme for children, offering a wide choice of sports designed to give participants an opportunity to measure their skills against standards set down by the National Governing Bodies of Sport.
Butlins have developed a policy of offering a range of weekend sports festivals (sports-specific and multi-sport in design), and therefore it was of interest to note the attitude of the sample towards attendance at such events in the future (Figure 5.15).

The result was fairly positive, in that over 40% of the respondents (n=135) would definitely consider such future involvement. Those respondents still unsure about the likelihood (or otherwise) of attendance at weekend sports festivals in the future (n=84), remarked that they required more detailed information as to the programme and approximate costs. The sports activities most in demand at such weekend events were tennis (n=38); keep fit / aerobics (n=34); soccer (n=27) and swimming (n=19).

5.3.2: Summary of Self-Completion Questionnaire Results

The profile of holiday makers at Butlins Southcoast World, established from the sample, is one of a tourist with familiarity of the product being offered, as indicated by level of previous visits. The dominant cohort was 35-54, and socio-economic groupings C1, D and E. The duration of stay was predominantly one week or longer, as opposed to the shorter weekend breaks, which had implications for frequency of activities undertaken. Those guests spending the longer period at the Holiday World engaged (or intended to participate) in activities at a higher frequency than those remaining at Butlins for the shorter time period. This is not necessarily an expected pattern, in that those visitors spending a shorter period of time, may have attempted to undertake more activities in a concentrated time. The group structure was predominantly composed of spouse, partner, children and other family members, and
once again had implications for participation in chosen sports, which has been supported by the focus group discussion results (section 5.3.4).

In terms of holidays taken within the UK, the general profile of holiday centres such as Butlins being used for both catered and non-catered domestic holidays, reinforces the data on the level of return visits. The factors of 'good value for money' and 'we've been before' and 'there are lots of things for the children to do' were ranked as most important for holiday choice in the UK in general and also for Butlins specifically.

The responsibility for the decision-making process was primarily shared between partners, although when full responsibility was taken by an individual, more males than females were represented, as a proportion of the total number.

The availability of sports facilities at the Holiday World was found to be a significant factor in the overall perceived enjoyment of the holiday experience. A considerable number of respondents also expressed a preference for the activities offered to be more formalised, in the form of more structured coaching-type sessions. This commitment to the importance of sporting activities was further endorsed by a significant number of the respondents being prepared to attend Butlins in the future for weekend sports festivals, although it should be stated that few details were made available to the respondents on the programme and costs of such weekends.

The CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme offers a highly structured progression through various physical activities. The existence of this scheme and the opportunities made available for children were not widely known within the questionnaire sample, nor was it considered to be an essential ingredient within the overall holiday experience.

The social aspects of the sports activities provided, were perceived in the questionnaire responses as being of greater importance than the personal and sports development factors. The respondents who took part in activities for the first time whilst on holiday at Butlins were intending, in the main, to continue this level of participation on their return home.

Very few guests took advantage of facilities offered 'off centre', and although the level of awareness of sports provided for within the centre was high, this was not translated into actual (or intended) participation. Swimming was the only activity to
be participated in by over half of the sample and that was often regarded as being purely of a recreational nature.

5.3.3: Focus Group Results

The pre-determined categories (eg. decision-making process, sport interest etc.) are used to outline the reported outcomes of the two focus group discussions.

1) The Holiday Decision-Making Process

a) Availability of Activities and Provision for Sport

Within the focus group discussions, the importance (or otherwise) of the availability of facilities and provision for a variety of activities was discussed, and several members remarked that this factor had not really impacted on the decision to come to Butlins. For example, Andrea commented that:

"I never really thought about what facilities there were, apart from the outdoor swimming pool."

Other members considered the availability of entertainment on-site, particularly in the evening, to be a more important factor in holiday choice than sports/activity facilities:

"I decided to come here more because of the entertainment stuff than the sports, although it is nice to sit around the pool, when (and if) it gets hot." (Claire)

However, the provision of sporting activities at Butlins was often the deciding factor when children were concerned. This was effectively articulated by the following comments made:

"When we were thinking about a holiday this year, we sort of knew that Butlins holiday camps had loads of sports, particularly for the kids, but we spent most of our time discussing which camp to come to." (Margaret)

"We weren't really bothered about the sports and recreation facilities for ourselves, but we have two young children and they get bored
very easily, so this was an easy choice to keep them out of trouble and in one place." (Pete)

This situation was also referred to by Mark when he noted that:

"To be frank the wife booked it and the kids seemed happy about it. They looked at the brochures and were excited about the swimming pool and the go karting."

b) The Cost of the Holiday and Value For Money

The importance of budget limitations within the family unit, and the overall cost of the holiday chosen, was a dominant theme within both focus group discussions. In particular the need to gain perceived value for money from the holiday experience. This was stated vividly by Alexandra when she said that:

"Financially this year we wanted to save for a big summer holiday next summer and so we were looking for a cheap holiday in this country where activities and entertainment would not cost a fortune. This seemed the best place and the self-catered chalets looked nice."

This feeling was echoed by Pat:

"The brochures were full of colourful and action-packed pictures and the travel agent was offering special early book discounts. The reality is finance, when it comes to choosing our family holiday."

Some members of the group were saving for another holiday (often abroad) to be taken later in the year, so this holiday choice had to be based on relatively low cost and convenience. An example of this was highlighted in the comments made by Jane:

"Me and my partner decided to come here for a laugh, as we are going to have another holiday in Spain later this month. This was cheap and cheerful and to be truthful we didn't give it too much thought. We just came to the nearest centre to where we live."
The need for receiving value for money also emerged during discussion of other topics. For example, Phil alluded to this while talking about the types of activities he wished to get involved in during his stay:

"I was really keen to come here to play a bit of football with the rest of my mates and see the cabaret and things in the evening. It had to be full board but still cheap as self-catering would be a nightmare."

The negative feelings associated with a previous holiday experience were also noted to be a reason for seeking value for money in future choices:

"I had a bad experience last year of hours of waiting in a Spanish airport and I just didn't want any hassle this year. I'm not particularly bothered about the activities here, but thought about Center Parcs, but that was too expensive." (Jim)

c) Spontaneous Choice with No Specific Reason

Comments were made within the focus groups that suggested consensus had not always been reached when holiday decisions were taken. In some instances the decision to come to Butlins was made in a spontaneous and/or unilateral manner:

"I don't think my other half was very chuffed about the decision to come here. I booked it after work one evening, just for a long weekend as a surprise. Just thought it would be a laugh." (Jonathon)

d) Previous Visits and Word-of-Mouth

The fact that previous visits had been made to Southcoast World or one of the other Butlins Holiday Centres, was referred to within the focus groups as a main reason for some members choosing to return to Butlins:

"Me and my wife came here about thirty years ago when we first got married and decided to be a bit nostalgic. No more than that really." (John)

Word-of-mouth as a communication and promotional mix technique was discussed. It was highlighted, by the majority of the respondents as a significant factor in the
holiday decision-making process, which supports the data generated from the self-completion questionnaire. This was also expressed by Stuart when considering the impact of the evaluations made by friends and relatives on his holiday choice:

"I remember as a kid playing in the soccer skills camp run by a Tottenham Player and hadn't been back since. My mates kept telling me how much they have changed over the years, so I wanted to find out for myself."

2) Sports Activity Whilst on Holiday

a) Activities Tried for the First Time

Some members of the focus groups had been quick to use the forum to say that they had taken part in an activity or activities for the first time whilst at Butlins, and this was clearly expressed by Jim:

"I tried go karting for the first time, which I didn't think I would try, but it was great fun. My wife tends to laze by the pool sunbathing."

b) Children's Impact on Activities Undertaken

Activities participated in by some members of the focus group discussions were dominated by the activity profile of their dependents. For example Pete remarked that:

"My two boys have been non-stop since we arrived. You name it they've done it. They've met some nice friends as well. I have swam most days, but that's about the limit of my efforts."

The activity of children (particularly in terms of the responsibility for supervision associated with many sports activities), can have a considerable impact on the individual's own leisure time, for example:

"I do more than I probably realise, because I'm always playing with the kids or in the pool with them, but none of that is my own time and not really organised. It just happens when you have to look after the young ones." (Stuart)
c) Non-Activity and Watching Others

For some members, watching others participate in a range of activities was an integral, and enjoyable part of their holiday experience:

"I walk around the camp watching other people playing various sports and that tires me out. It's nice to see that activity happening though and is part of being here." (Pete)

In some cases, the members said quite honestly that their respective partners were very active, and so they spent a considerable amount of time (and energy) following their participation:

"I watch others doing things and read my paper by the pool; that suits me. My girlfriend is more active and has gone to a couple of the aqua aerobics sessions organised by the camp. Not my idea of a holiday really." (Tony)

d) Partners and Others Engaged in Activities

As mentioned by those who watched others, many of these sedentary individuals had partners or friends who were far more active than them, whilst on holiday. Two comments were made by female members within the group, that others taking part in certain sports had de-motivated them from participating themselves, due largely to the risk of getting injured. There was a perceived notion of the activities being taken 'too seriously':

"If diving into the pool and doing doggy paddle for five minutes is exercise, then that's my lot. It doesn't matter where I go, I always use the pool, but not much else to be honest. I'd quite like to play a game or two of volleyball or football, but they always look a little bit too serious for me." (Margaret)

"The afternoon matches on the lawn organised by the red coats are always a laugh. Some of the blokes do take the games too seriously though and I'm worried about getting hurt, particularly playing football. The blokes are trying to be boys again." (Andrea)
c) Casual Participation

Several members of the focus group discussions indicated a relatively regular level of activity, but of a very informal nature, and low intensity. This type of activity however was still viewed as constituting a significant part of the holiday experience, albeit not as regular as often anticipated (and hoped) at the outset of the holiday:

"I must admit, I had all these great ideas of taking advantage of the facilities both indoors and outdoors, and in ten days all I've managed is a couple of frames of snooker with a guy I met on the first day. Still I needed to relax and that's happened." (Mark)

Such informal activity can be part of the daily routine whilst on holiday:

"I jog around the outside of the camp every morning and pick up my newspaper and I might have a game of footie if a team is out on the front lawn, but other than that, I don't play squash or tennis or anything like that." (Jonathon)

f) Activity with Others

Within the discussions, a considerable amount of activity at Butlins was reported to be engaged in with others (predominantly family and friends). This was certainly true for Phil, who remarked that:

"As I said before, me and my mates have arranged footie matches every day, which tend to last for a couple of hours, then we go to the bar. I swim every morning as well."

The importance of this social dimension was further endorsed by another member of the group:

"We have met a lovely old couple who challenged us to tennis. It has been a really sociable part of the holiday. We've only played twice and it's only for a bit of fun, but we've then had a meal with them, and gone to the cabaret with them." (John)
g) Regular Activity

The most frequently participated in activity was not surprisingly swimming, with most of the group having visited the outside pool on a daily basis, often purely on a recreational level. A significant amount of comments suggested a pattern of regular activity by individuals, and their family and friends:

"I've played table tennis and snooker every day, mostly after lunch and before going out in the evening." (Phil)

"I'm a real sport billy and have got involved with all the sessions in the 'rec centre'. It's important to me to keep fit, particularly as you tend to drink and eat loads when you're on this kind of holiday. I take my swimming quite seriously, but have to get to the pool at a stupid hour in the morning to avoid the kids messing around." (Tony)

3) Residual Impact of Sports Tourism

a) Intention to carry on activities at home

For several members, there was a strong commitment evident for the continuation of their activities upon returning home. The potential gap between intention and reality, however, is neatly expressed by both Pat and Mark, when they comment that:

"I go home with all the best intentions in the world, especially as the weather has been nice and I'm quite brown, but I bet I'll end up in front of the telly watching the sport and getting fatter and lazier. My kids are great and tend to drag me out when I really don't feel like it. The effects of the holiday last a few weeks and then I want to go away again." (Pat)

"I go down my local snooker club on the odd occasion probably Friday night, but apart from that my lifestyle is not very active I'm afraid. In fact I don't even walk to work anymore. I get a lift from one of my colleagues and it's only a mile or so. I must admit though being here with lots going on does make me think about doing sport and stuff, but I don't think I'll get off my bum." (Mark)
Further evidence of this intention to continue activities is provided by John:

"I really think we might go and join a tennis club now. We don't live far away from the couple we have met and can play them on occasions. We are definitely going to do this when we get back. It has been years since we played and I used to be really quite good. So maybe next year when we choose a holiday, we'll make sure it has got good tennis courts."

b) Regular Participation in Activities at Home

Some of the members outlined an existing regular pattern of activity in their chosen activities at home:

"I play football with colleagues at work, but only once a week. I do want to keep fit, but I am always knackered when I get in from work. I do a fair bit of cycling at weekends, normally with my girlfriend." (Tony)

"I'm going to carry on jogging when I get home at the weekend, but I always have done. This holiday would have been strange without a slow jog in the morning. Nothing too strenuous, but it does make me feel better for the rest of the day." (Jonathon)

c) Importance of Activities for Holiday Choice

The importance of the availability of sports facilities and the general provision for sporting activity for future holiday choice was also considered within the focus group discussions. It was mentioned by some members to have absolutely no impact on such holiday choice:

"My holidays are usually in Spain or Turkey and I'm more bothered about the hotel and night life, rather than what sporting facilities are available, if I'm to be honest with you." (Andrea)

Another member of the group, however, ranked such provision and availability of facilities as crucial to her holiday destination choice:
"I'll always want at least some kind of facility for sport when I go on holiday, even if it's just a swimming pool. I get really bored otherwise and that spoils the fun, because I get stressed about being bored. I'm not really a sport's star, but I have to keep active. Whoever I go with, either my partner or my mates, they are usually like minded, so we can do activities together." (Claire)

d) Activity with Others

The importance attached to participation (both actual and intended) with others was relatively high within the discussion. Much of this participation was hoped to be linked to the work situation. In one case, the fact that the activity required a critical mass of other people was an inhibiting factor in his continuation at home:

"I've really got into volleyball this time, but I don't think it's the sort of sport you can carry on playing, as you need a group of people, but we'll see." (Jim)

e) Commitments

Directly linked to the issue of intended future activity, are the problems associated with work and family commitments, and the detrimental effect on activity profiles at home:

"Work and family mean that any spare time I get is spent in the garden or down the DIY place. I would love to go and join a five-a-side league down the local leisure centre, particularly after having played a fair bit here, but it never seems to happen. Maybe I will this time." (Pete)

"I think I go back home after any holiday and make new years resolutions, which last minutes. So I don't think I'll be playing football and swimming when I get back, except an odd kick about in the back garden with my children, if I'm not too tired after work." (Pete)

5.3.4: Summary of Focus Group Results

Accepting the limitations of focus groups (discussed in section 5.2.2), the results which have been discussed, add considerable empirical weight to the quantitative data
generated from the self-completion questionnaires. The comments highlighted were not isolated observations but received considerable support from other members of the focus group. They were indicative (and illustrative) of general feelings within the group. This support was often tacit (eg. body language and gestures), which could not be analysed easily. The main findings of the two focus groups are now summarised, followed by broader conclusions, related to this case study.

As far as the issue of holiday decision-making is concerned, comments made within the focus group discussions, supported the questionnaire results (discussed in section 5.3.3). The members, within both groups often remarked, 'we decide' or 'we chose' or 'we thought that', suggesting a consensus as far as holiday choice was concerned. The importance of this collective holiday experience was often alluded to within the focus group discussions.

The comments made within the focus groups inferred that a considerable amount of activity is engaged in at a very sociable and disjointed level, often as a part of child care and supervision responsibilities. A slight disparity within these remarks was, however, observed in the groups, when predominately female members felt 'put-off' from participation in certain sports (particularly football) due to the perceived seriousness of the activity.

The profile of continuation of activities on returning home, was an important aspect of the focus group schedule, and several members from the focus groups suggested that the intention to carry on in their chosen activities when home was present (and in some cases, very strong), but the reality of work and family commitments made this difficult to achieve in practice.

5.4: Case Study Conclusions

The interrelationship between sport and tourism was indicated (in Chapter One) to include the dual action of sport on tourism, and tourism on sport. This case study has attempted to examine the decision-making processes, sporting activity profile, and continuation (or not) or chosen activities following the holiday taken. It has primarily focused therefore, on the action of tourism provision on the sports participation of a certain segment of the population (ie. Southcoast Holiday World users), although for those whom the element of sport was an integral and important part of the decision-making process, sport could conceivably be thought of as generating tourism.
The results highlighted have clearly indicated that, for some individuals, their time at Butlins is used to participate in a range of activities, which are then continued, on a regular basis having returned home. Furthermore, for a significant minority of the sample, the availability of sport at Butlins Holiday World was a determinant (to differing extents) in their decision to choose Southcoast World. This however, is not the entire picture, as for a majority of the sample, sport played a relatively small part (if any), in either their decision to come to Southcoast World, or indeed their profile of activities whilst there. There were a plethora of reasons provided for this lack of interest, including most noticeably the responsibility to others, but equally, for many the engagement in sporting activities of any kind, simply did not figure very highly on their personal agenda.

The links between the literature reviewed and the case studies are discussed in Chapter Nine. It is important here, however, to isolate those specific links to this case, and reflect upon the literature following the analysis of the data. De Knop (1990) provided a diagrammatic representation of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, in which the types of activity undertaken during various holidays were discussed. This case study supported the implicit notion within this framework, that for a significant proportion of the population, more passive involvement in sporting activities constitutes an important part of the holiday experience.

The fear of failure (making a fool of oneself), or the fear of injury were elements included within De Knop's typology as barriers to more active forms of sporting participation, particularly within public spaces, such as holiday camps. There was little (if any) reference made in the literature to the role of 'significant others' in sports tourism behaviour, and this has emerged as one of the most fundamental findings from this case study. The level, frequency, duration and intensity of any activities undertaken during the individual's stay at Southcoast World were often compromised (in some cases dictated to), by other members of their holiday party. Apart from the inherent responsibilities to dependents, much passive activity was centred on watching partners, spouse and other group members participate. This is nevertheless an element of sports tourism behaviour, particularly as the involvement often required prolonged periods of time.

Some of the literature reviewed (most noticeably the work of Weed, 1996), has posited the increasing use of the traditional British holiday centres, of which Butlins is clearly the most prominent example, by non-residents. This particular aspect of the development of such centres, was outside the scope of this current research, in which
the holiday maker's behavioural patterns are central. However, this relatively new dimension to the portfolio was emphasised by the Director of Marketing at Butlins Holiday Worlds. The popularity of weekend sport festivals for example, cannot be questioned, but these were not mentioned either within the questionnaire responses or the focus group discussions. This is an issue which will be outlined in greater detail in Chapter Ten, when applications of the wider research, are discussed.

This case study was problematic in terms of its original implementation, and especially gaining access to conduct the research. The limitations are those largely imposed by these practical arrangements. The volume and value of the quantitative and qualitative data combined, remains its greatest strength. An iterative cycle has certainly been extended between the available theory (albeit extremely limited) and the data generated, which has been highlighted in this section. The rationale for the case study was to address the statements made within the extant literature on the role of providers such as Butlins in the development of sports tourism opportunities, and to begin to assess the nature of the interrelationship within this sector of the tourism industry.
CHAPTER SIX
TWR-Y-FELIN ACTIVITY CENTRE:
A CASE STUDY

6.0 Introduction
6.1 Background Information
6.2 Design of Methods
6.3 Analysis of Data
6.4 Case Study Conclusions
6.0: Introduction

The second case study, based on the Twr-Y-Felin outdoor activity centre and the St. Davids area of Pembrokeshire, attempts to examine sports-related tourism within the UK activity holiday market. The literature on the activity holiday market in the UK (Chapter Two: Section IV) and much of the secondary data reviewed within Chapter Three, suggested that certain profiles of activity holiday makers could be established, although few empirical studies had been undertaken to verify these supply-side observations. This case study seeks to provide empirical evidence across a range of activity holiday behaviour types, including individuals who are clearly committed activity holiday makers as well as those who may have participated in activities whilst in the region, on a less committed basis.

The organisational structure of the Twr-Y-Felin centre and details on the courses and programmes offered are provided in Appendix Three. The background information on this case, is followed by a review of the methods adopted, and the response rates achieved. The questionnaire results are then presented, and finally a summary of these main findings is provided. As with the other cases, brief conclusions on this sports tourism market segment are drawn here, whilst the contribution of this case to the overall research into a broad range of sports tourism types is overviewed in Chapter Nine.

6.1: Background Information

Twr-Y-Felin represents one of the largest outdoor activity holiday opportunities in West Wales, in terms of volume and diversity of courses offered. The Company organises management development courses, children's activity holidays and courses for groups and individuals of all standards, who wish to participate and/or gain the relevant coaching/leadership qualifications. Twr-Y-Felin has gained a very sound reputation for quality of tuition and safety of all its courses.

A brief report of the initial results of this study was produced for the Company as part of the research arrangements, and subsequently presented to the Pembrokeshire Business Initiative (PBI). The positive outcome of this was two-fold, firstly that the PBI included the findings within their comprehensive survey examining the activity patterns of visitors to the region; and secondly, the centre granted the researcher full access to a significant 'active' database of past and current activity centre users.
6.2: Design of Methods

The most germane method of data collection was considered by the researcher to be a questionnaire format. This would allow for the generation of a significant volume of data over a relatively short period of time. After first contact with the owner and a meeting, during which much useful background information on the operation was gleaned, two questionnaires were designed. The first was to be interviewer-administered at the Centre’s booking office in St. Davids, and the second to be designed as a postal questionnaire sampling from the organisation’s customer database.

6.2.1: The 'on-street': interviewer-administered questionnaire.

This was designed in order to concentrate on the activity profile of the holiday maker in the St. Davids area of Pembrokeshire. The design of the questionnaire (Appendix Three) included the following areas:

(i) personal details: including age; sex; occupation; income; and place of residence;

(ii) holiday details: including length of stay: and accommodation used;

(iii) activity profile whilst in Pembrokeshire: including information on who respondents were taking part with; types of activity participated in; frequency and duration of activity; and ownership of kit and equipment;

(iv) activity profile whilst at home: including whether they already undertook the activities at home before coming; whether activities are continued on return home, and to what level;

(v) importance of activities within the holiday decision-making process: including the importance or otherwise of the availability of outdoor activities in the individual’s choice of Pembrokeshire as a holiday destination;

(vi) awareness and usage of Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre: including previous use of the centre, and awareness of courses available.

The questions included within this questionnaire were entirely closed response, which facilitated ease of coding and subsequent analysis. The only exception to this was the request made at the beginning of the questionnaire for place of residence. The advantages of this particular questionnaire being interviewer-administered included
accuracy and reliability, and it allowed for any clarification to be made to the respondent at the point of completion. The opportunity to be able to explain the nature and purpose of the research project, was a further advantage of this method. A quota sheet was completed each day to ensure an equal distribution of respondents was achieved across the parameters of age, sex and ethnic minority.

A total of 250 questionnaires were completed over a three day period (Thursday, Friday and Saturday of a Bank Holiday weekend). A total of 75 questionnaires were completed on the Thursday; 110 on the Friday; and 65 on the Saturday. The site chosen was the booking office owned by the Twr-Y-Felin activity centre, located in St. Davids on the main road between the activity centre itself and the main coastal area.

6.2.2: The Postal Questionnaire

The questionnaire, designed to be sent to randomly selected members from the database, differed slightly from the interviewer-administered questionnaire. Many sections of information remained the same, but as the aim was to generate data in an attempt to produce a profile of the activity users from the centre, the following additional information was requested:

i) activity breaks and courses at Twr-Y-Felin: including previous visits to the centre; activities participated in; and likelihood of a return visit to Twr-Y-Felin;

ii) activity profile whilst on holiday: including who respondents were taking part with, and type, frequency and duration of activities;

iii) historical activity profile: including qualifications obtained; origins of activity participation; and level of participation;

iv) general tourism profile: including details on other holidays and short breaks taken, predominance (or otherwise) of activity-based tourism.

The researcher was afforded access to the Twr-Y-Felin customer data base, from which 850 addresses were randomly selected. The questionnaire was sent to these, along with a pre-paid reply envelope and covering letter explaining the work carried out collaboratively between the Centre and the Department. The distribution, return of completed questionnaires and calculated response rates are included in Table 6.1.
Table 6.1: Postal Questionnaire Response Details

A total of 850 questionnaires were sent

For the period of time allowed for return and ignoring spoiled and incomplete questionnaires:

A total of 215 questionnaires were returned:

This represents a response rate of 25.3%

This response rate for a postal questionnaire was favourable, particularly as no incentive for return was provided. It should be noted that there are inherent problems with self-completed questionnaires and these have been discussed previously in Chapter Five. However, the questionnaire was designed in such a way as to avoid ambiguity and confusion to the respondent. A safeguard to this was the fact that the 'on-street' questionnaire had provided a significant piloting opportunity for this postal questionnaire, which shared predominantly the same format. The combined results of the two surveys generated a significant sample of 450 activity-oriented tourists and, as such, represents one of the largest dedicated surveys carried out on this type of tourists.

6.3: Analysis of Data

For both sets of questionnaires, data analysis was completed using the 'SPSS for Windows' package. The initial frequency output was followed by selected cross tabulations, to provide a more detailed picture across different tourist profile types.

6.3.1: On-Street Questionnaire Analysis

Figure 6.1 shows the age cohorts represented within the sample by sex. The breakdown according to the sex of the respondents was also representative (using the Pembrokeshire County Visitor Survey 1995), with male respondents constituting 55% (n=138) of the sample and females 45% (n=112). The lowest cohort (16 or under) was underrepresented however (using the same base line). This was due to the fact that the researcher avoided administering the questionnaire to people clearly within this age category, because of legal constraints of administering on-street questionnaires. The remainder of the age categories were well represented within the sample across both sexes.
The socio-economic status as described by current occupational status is illustrated in Figure 6.2. The highest number of respondents (n=87) were in full-time employment. Some caution is required in terms of the respondents' uncertainty as to which forms (if any) of casual employment should be considered to constitute part time work. This provided difficulty in interpretation even following interviewer clarification.
A further indicator of socio-economic class is provided by annual income groupings, and these are presented in Figure 6.3. The relatively high number of respondents reporting to earn in the lowest income category (n=42) is related to those in either part-time employment, retired or having full-time student status. The highest number of respondents (n=50) were reported to earn an annual income of between £20,000 and £24,999, with a relatively high number (n=38) earning between £25,000 and £29,999.

The respondents who lived outside Pembrokeshire (n=238) were asked to stipulate their place of residence and Table 6.2 indicates the most common destinations.

**Table 6.2: Area of Residence.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dyfed</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Glamorgan</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Glamorgan</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powys</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid Glamorgan</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hereford &amp; Worcester</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwynedd</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheshire</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shropshire</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clwyd</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other(^1)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) This category included fifteen other areas of residence on the UK, with no one county having more than 5 respondents. It was decided, therefore to maintain the 'other' category.
The 'radar chart' (Figure 6.4) illustrates that over half of the sample (n=138) travelled 61 miles or further for their trip to Pembrokeshire, and over three quarters of the respondents over 31 miles (n=185). This is attributable to the relatively remote nature of St. David's location in the County and the considerable journey distance and time for non-residents of Pembrokeshire, even for those residing in the neighbouring counties of Dyfed and West Glamorgan. The low number of visitors who had travelled the shortest distances of 1-10 miles (n=8) and 11-20 (n=12), was again due to the remote situation of St. Davids at the furthest point of the Pembrokeshire coast.

Figure 6.4: Distance Travelled to Pembrokeshire.

The length of stay of the respondents in Pembrokeshire is reported in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5: Length of Stay in Pembrokeshire.
There is no dominant duration of stay, although the extreme lengths, 1 day (n=35) and over 2 weeks (n=20), were found to be the least preferred duration. The categories used were in line with those utilised within the national tourism surveys (reviewed in Chapter Three), with 3 days or less being labelled as a 'short stay' and 4 days or more a 'long stay'.

Pembrokeshire, and more specifically the St. Davids peninsular, has a healthy accommodation stock, both in terms of type and volume. The sample questioned has produced a balance picture across all the accommodation types available in the area, with the bed and breakfast (n=87) and hotel (n=40) sectors dominating (Figure 6.6).

![Figure 6.6: Accommodation Used During Stay.](image)

There are a significant number of both camping and caravanning sites in the vicinity of St. Davids, hence the relatively high number of respondents choosing this type of accommodation (n=48). The 'other' category received a significant number of responses (n=22) and these included accommodation on or near the beaches (n=8) (such as beach cabins); vehicles parked off road, and staying with friends and/or relatives (n=10), which could legitimately have constituted a separate category.

Perhaps one of the most salient differentiating characteristics of the tourist, is the level of importance attached to the availability of activities as the main purpose of the trip. Responses to a question on this are illustrated in Figure 6.7.
It has been emphasised that such provision does indeed constitute the primary reason for making this holiday destination choice (n=167), with only one quarter of the respondents (n=65), not considering this factor to be the main motive for visiting Pembrokeshire. The relationship between the availability of outdoor activities as the main reason for the visit and the age of the respondents is outlined in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Main Purpose of Trip by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>yes n=167</th>
<th>no n=65</th>
<th>don't know n=18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td>13 (87%)</td>
<td>2 (7%)</td>
<td>1 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>45 (83%)</td>
<td>6 (11%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>26 (81%)</td>
<td>5 (16%)</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>41 (60%)</td>
<td>23 (43%)</td>
<td>4 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>21 (57%)</td>
<td>13 (35%)</td>
<td>3 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>21 (49%)</td>
<td>16 (37%)</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data emphasises that the availability of outdoor activities was proportionally more important to the younger age cohorts than to the older ones. The percentages given, show the relationship between the number of responses for the age cohort for each answer and the total number of responses.

The profile of activities undertaken whilst on the holiday are illustrated in Figure 6.8. The problem that emerged from this particular question however, centered on the
definition of 'activity', which was not prescribed within the questionnaire format, although explained if requested by the interviewer. Swimming (n=168) and walking (n=128) were engaged in by an extremely high proportion of the sample, but many respondents indicated a purely 'recreational' level and intensity of activity. This was exemplified by swimming, as an activity pursued as part of the supervisory responsibility for children (a similar pattern emerged from the Southcoast World results), and so did not involve any personal activity. In addition, walking to and from other more rigorous and structured activities was included within this category, alongside the vigorous activity of walking and rambling on coastal walkways.

Figure 6.8: Activities Undertaken on Trip.

Nevertheless, such activity, albeit of a predominantly recreational nature, did constitute a considerable amount of time for the respondents in terms of their overall holiday experience. Many of the respondents were questioned at the beginning of their holiday, and thus were not in the position to have been able to participate in all the activities intended at the outset of the trip. It was vital therefore to enquire as to their future intention to engage in various activities (indeed significant number of respondents were questioned en route to an activity). This profile of responses is included in Figure 6.9.
It is necessary to be cautious in interpretation of these results, in that the intention to participate in an activity or several activities whilst on holiday, and the translation of this intention into actual participation before returning home, often represents a significant reality gap. This was alluded to within the recent research by Mintel (1996), but not developed to any great extent. This facet of the sports tourism experience would most effectively be examined using an in-depth interview protocol (similar to that adopted within the elite athletes case study, Chapter Eight).

Furthermore, the interpretation needs to be sensitive to the expressed intensity, frequency and duration of activities, particularly swimming and walking, which have been previously highlighted. The activities included within the responses, requiring specialised equipment such as canoeing (n=65), kayaking (n=43), mountain biking (n=32) and surfing (n=34) were largely dependent upon the availability and hiring arrangements of the requisite kit, and so more barriers to participation (certainly for the casual participants), would be evident for such activities.
The principal participation in activities whilst in Pembrokeshire was considered to be with others, as indicated by Figure 6.10. The fact that 31% of the sample engaged in activities whilst away on their own (n=78), can be explained in part by the solitary nature of many outdoor sports, such as surfing, abseiling, coasteering\(^1\) and windsurfing.

![Figure 6.10: Participation in Chosen Activity](image)

The composition of the groups in which the activities were being undertaken is shown in Figure 6.11. The pattern was constituted in the main by a combination of spouses and partners (n=120). Activities undertaken with a group from a club, school or college was also significant (n=36). Participation with work colleagues (n=15) was attributable to the corporate development activity programme being organised by Twr-Y-Felin at the time of the study. Friends were also a significant category within the composition (n=44).

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\(^1\) Coasteering is an activity which has been developed over the past five years, and is therefore a relatively new concept within the portfolio of many outdoor activity centres. It involves individuals (in full harness and protective gear) traversing along the base of the coastline, and diving into the water at points where the rock face becomes too dangerous, and then resuming their horizontal movement.
The respondents were asked to state the frequency of participation in their chosen activity, and Table 6.4 illustrates this data as related to the two activities most frequently participated in.

**Table 6.4: Frequency of Participation in Chosen Activity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very regularly</th>
<th>regularly</th>
<th>occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity one</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity two</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicates the regularity of stated participation (both on holiday and at home), with 85% participating in their main activity either 'very regularly' (monthly or more) or 'regularly' (a few times a year). This pattern was very similar for the respondents' second choice of activity, although here a higher percentage was observed for participation only on an occasional basis (once a year). These labels for regularity of participation, were kept consistent across both surveys.

As the secondary data analysis evidenced, such interpretation of participation rates are not provided within the available surveys. In addition, the sports surveys, often use the
indicator of participation rates either over the previous four weeks before interview, or in the 12 months prior to interview. These labels were based upon the small-scale visitor survey undertaken by the booking office in the previous summer (results from which were not made available). This participation pattern can be demonstrated more clearly in Figure 6.12.

Figure 6.12: Frequency of Participation in Chosen Activity

![Figure 6.12: Frequency of Participation in Chosen Activity](image)

Figure 6.13 is revealing in that it illustrates the 'dedicated' nature of those participating in activities whilst on holiday in Pembrokeshire. Only 10% of the sample \((n=25)\) engaged in their chosen activity for the first time, with the remainder \((n=225)\) having participated previously.

Figure 6.13: First Time Attempted Chosen Activity

![Figure 6.13: First Time Attempted Chosen Activity](image)
As with the Southcoast World case study, the holiday decision-making process was considered to be an important aspect of sports tourism behaviour, and so was incorporated within the research design. The questionnaire invited the respondents to rank the importance of a list of factors with respect to the impact they had on their decision to come to Pembrokeshire. Table 6.5 lists the factors ranked by the respondents, in terms of their relative importance to holiday choice.

**Table 6.5 : Ranked Importance of Factors in Holiday Choice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>relaxation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>companionship/social dimension</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical fitness/well-being</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>novelty of experience</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>challenge (physical and mental)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adventure</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The high importance attached to the benefit of relaxation during the holiday was closely linked to the social dimensions of companionship and activity with others. The factors relating directly to the participation in activities were ranked lower, with the physical and mental challenge posed by the activity, and the adventure inherent in such participation, not being perceived as a very important factor in holiday choice. This is an interesting outcome, when one considers the nature of the activities available within this geographical area, and the range of activities arranged by Twr-Y-Felin. Despite this, the adventure-based nature of these activities was not perceived to be as important as the more generic holiday satisfaction factors (relaxation and companionship). The literature reviewed in Chapter Two: Section I, included listings of motivation factors and their relationship with holiday satisfaction, but these were not related to specific types of holiday, as in this current case study.

The ownership of the requisite kit and/or equipment to undertake the various activities described, is evidenced in Figure 6.14. This is directly related to non-continuation of the activities once home, in that much of the equipment (and indeed appropriate level of supervision and teaching) are readily available within St. Davids, but not in the home area. In addition to this factor, a great deal of the equipment is not transportable. The continuation of the activities would therefore not be feasible even if the motivation to participate is strong, unless other centres were utilised.
Figure 6.14: Ownership of Kit/Equipment

This can be further highlighted, by the evidence provided in Figure 6.15 which illustrates that nearly half of the respondents (n=102) were positive that the activities would be continued on their return home. However this must be placed against the significant negative response (n=86), which could be explained (at least in part) by the specialist nature of the activities engaged in, alongside the natural amenities provided within Pembrokeshire.

Figure 6.15: Continuation of Activities at Home

This profile of continuation (or non-continuation) in activities at home is highlighted further when the variable of age is taken into account. The variable of age across all respondent cohorts can be directly related to the continuation of chosen activities on
returning home. Table 6.6 indicates the nature of this relationship, with the percentages given corresponding to the frequency of answers provided as a proportion of the total number within the given category.

Table 6.6: Continuation of Activities at Home by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>yes n=102</th>
<th>no n=86</th>
<th>don't know n=38</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pattern which is evident, can be most effectively illustrated by reference to the two extreme age groups, namely under 16 and over 55 years of age, and the corresponding frequencies. In terms of definitely continuing activities after the holiday has been taken, 73% (n=11) of the total respondents questioned within the lowest age cohort replied positively. For the oldest age cohort, this total was only 11% (n=5). The inverse of this relationship can be observed when taking into consideration the negative response, and the pattern of non-continuation in the chosen activities. Only 20% (n=3) of the under 16 age category would definitely not continue the activities at home, while 70% (n=30) of the over 55 age category would not continue.

Figure 6.16 indicates that one third of the sample (n=85) had never previously undertaken an activity based holiday, and this correlates closely to the respondents who did not consider the availability of outdoor activities to be the main purpose of their current holiday.
6.3.2: Summary of the 'On-Street' Questionnaire Results

The findings from the on-street self completion survey are dominated by an active profile, which was to be expected when the nature of the setting in which the questionnaire was administered, is taken into consideration. However, what was important to establish was the exact nature of this sports tourism behavioural profile. The importance of age and sex to the level and frequency of participation in chosen activities whilst on holiday (and continuation on returning home) was found to be significant, and hence supported the evidence generated within the secondary data analysis (Chapter Three).

The general tourism profile, although of interest to note as an adjunct to this established sports tourism behaviour, evidenced a variable picture in which activity holidays did not dictate the main purpose of all holidays taken. This can be compared directly to the findings from the more significant database survey, which will now be discussed. Links will be made between the various indicators identified as crucial to the successful profiling of sports tourism behaviour of this cohort.

6.3.3 Postal Questionnaire Analysis

The characteristics of the sample in terms of age, sex and socio-economic groupings reflected the population as a whole. The fact that the sample was selected from the overall database (every other name and address from the alphabetical list was chosen),
meant that the characteristics of the sample would have been expected to be equally proportional across these various indicators. In terms of sex, the sample was fairly equal, with males totalling 52% (n=113) and females 48% (n=102).

The relatively low representation of the 16 or under age cohort (n=9) was to be expected as the residential and non-residential programmes at Twr-Y-Felin are targeted at the adult cohorts (16 and over). The main proportion of the sample constituted the combined 25-44 age categories (n=110), although the 55 and over also contained a significant number of respondents (n=27). The representation of age across both sexes, is fairly equal, with the exception of the 17-24 age cohort, in which the males (n=41), clearly out number the females (n=19). This personal characteristic profile fits with that reported within the recent commercial market research surveys on activity holidays (see eg., Mintel, 1996). The breakdown of the sample by age and sex is illustrated in Figure 6.17.

The profile of the respondents as far as socio-economic indicators are concerned reflects a majority of the sample in either full time (n=102) or part time employment (n=37). This profile is shown in Figure 6.18.
The annual income groupings, shown in Figure 6.19 follow a similar pattern to that which emerged from the on-street questionnaire sample. The only slight discrepancy being the comparatively large number of respondents (n= 48), reporting to earn in the category of £25,000-£29,999. These socio-economic patterns would place the respondents primarily in groups ABC1, and although earning above the national average, would be directly comparable with the profiles of activity holiday makers reported within recent surveys (see eg. Mintel, 1996; Ogilvie and Dickinson, 1992).
The respondents taken from the established data base of the Twr-Y-Felin outdoor activity centre had visited the centre at St. Davids at least once, and in many instances regularly attended courses (both residential and non-residential). It was not surprising therefore to find that one third of the respondents (n=60), had been present at the activity centre within the previous six months, and the majority of these (n=32) within the month prior to receiving the questionnaire, as shown in Figure 6.20.
The largest group had not taken part in a programme at the centre for at least one year (n=87), but the respondents were not requested to stipulate the length of time which had in fact elapsed since their previous visit, and so it was not possible to ascertain the immediacy of their last activity at Twr-Y-Felin.

The intention of future visits to Twr-Y-Felin activity centre and participation in a programme of some kind is shown in Figure 6.21.
Despite the fact that 10% of the sample (n=21) were undecided as to the likelihood of a return visit, 63% of the respondents (n=103) were either 'definitely' or 'probably' intending to return. Less than 20% (n=41) had absolutely no intention to return. This data must be contextualised, in that the sample was taken from an 'active' data set. A clear pattern emerged, as indicated in Figure 6.22 when the respondents were asked as to their regularity of participation in activity holidays.

The relationship between stated regularity of participation in activity holidays and the two variables of age and sex, is outlined in Table 6.7. The pattern which emerges is one of similarity across most of the age groups and between sexes, with the exception of the 25-24 and 35-44 age cohorts. It is within these two age groupings that the greatest disparity between sexes exists, particularly for the 'very regular' and 'regular' responses. By making cross-references to the market information on activity holiday makers (reviewed in Chapter Two: Section IV and Chapter Three), then it can be seen that the most 'active' age cohort is 25-44 years, and predominantly male, not female, whereas greater equity was reported across the younger and older age cohorts. This can in part, be explained by child care and other domestic responsibilities, and in addition the statistics on sport for these age groups evidence a considerable lower level of participation (across a range of sports), than for males of an equivalent age.
Table 6.7: Regularity of Participation in Activity Holidays
by Age and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Very Regularly</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=98</td>
<td>n=85</td>
<td>n=32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M F</td>
<td>M F</td>
<td>M F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td>3 2</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>16 12</td>
<td>6 6</td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>14 10</td>
<td>13 9</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>13 8</td>
<td>16 8</td>
<td>6 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>5 6</td>
<td>7 6</td>
<td>3 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>5 4</td>
<td>4 6</td>
<td>3 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many of the characteristic indices used within the commercial market research surveys, in order to profile activity holiday makers involve socio-economic parameters, of which annual income groupings is a vital component. In order to develop the profile of the activity holiday makers within this current research, the regularity of participation in activity holidays is cross tabulated with the respondent's annual income classification (Figure 6.23).

Figure 6.23: Regularity of Participation in Activity Holidays: By Annual Income

![Bar chart showing regularity of participation by annual income groupings.](image)
As can be seen, the pattern to have emerged is not of uniformity across the annual income groupings. The important finding to highlight is the pattern between these two variables. To compare, for example, the < £9,000 grouping with the £25,000-29,999 category, a clear difference emerges. This is most noticeable for those respondents who had undertaken activity holidays on a 'very regular' basis. For the lower income group, only 17% had undertaken such a holiday type very regularly, which compares with 57% within the higher income grouping. Comparisons can be made across the remaining income groupings, and a similar picture is evident. Those respondents therefore, in the higher annual income groupings (and hence socio economic groups), were more likely to engage in activity holidays at 'very regular' intervals, (this pattern was not the same for 'regular' and 'occasional' intervals), than respondents with a lower annual income. This supports the evidence on the effect of socio-economic groupings on activity holiday participation rates evidenced within the commercial market research surveys.

It is important to elicit the type of activities undertaken whilst engaged in such activity-based holidays, and the activities which received the highest responses are illustrated in Figure 6.24.

As the graph illustrates, the outdoor adventure-based activities (canoeing, n=62; wind surfing, n=78; surfing, n=88), which are so important to the holiday profile of the respondents in the on-street survey, remain most popular amongst this database.
sample. The other popular activities to be participated in by the respondents were football (n=67); golf (n=59) and tennis (n=44). These activities have appeared in the most popular sports participated within the adult population (as reported by the GHS, 1996), and so would be expected to have a significant role in the activity profile of 'already active' holiday makers. The two sports; football and golf, could certainly be undertaken within the winter months, when the traditional adventure-based activities are engaged in at a less intensive level, due to the inclement weather and dangerous conditions.

The postal questionnaire mirrored the on-street administered questionnaire, with respect to the composition of the group with whom the respondents engaged in their chosen activities (Figure 6.25). The picture was dominated by partners and spouses (n=86) and friends (n=38), with a significant sub-group composed of members from clubs, school or college (n=31). The category stipulating 'on my own' (n=26) relates directly to the solitary nature of many of the activities listed.

![Figure 6.25: Participation in Chosen Activities by Group](image)

It was necessary for the research to construct a tourism profile of the respondents, apart from the activity-based holidays previously described. Table 6.8 outlines the types of holiday taken (domestic and foreign) by all respondents within the five years prior to the study being conducted. As can be seen, a larger number (n=245) had chosen a long holiday (4 or more days) which was self-catered, than the number (n=110) who had
chosen a catered long holiday (both domestic and foreign). For the short holiday breaks (3 days or less) taken by the respondents, a slightly different pattern emerged. Within this holiday type there is a greater proportion of catered domestic holidays (n=64) than seen for the long holiday, and the foreign trips taken are equal between catered and self-catered.

Table 6.8 Other Holidays Taken within the Last Five Years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holiday Type</th>
<th>Long Holiday</th>
<th>Short Break</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK Camping/Caravanning</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Self-Catered</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Camping/Caravanning</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Self-Catering</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Hotel Based</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Hotel Based</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency of participation in chosen activities at home (illustrated in Figure 6.26) is extremely enlightening, with 20% of the sample (n=43) engaged in such activities at least once a month and almost two thirds of the respondents, participating either everyday (n=48) or several times a week (n=89).

The secondary data sources on sports participation statistics (Chapter Three), evidenced that there are significant differences between the sexes across most of the most popular
sports. The frequency of participation in chosen activities (within this sample), directly related to sex, is shown in Figure 6.27.

If the two extreme measures of frequency are taken, then a clear pattern between participation and sex becomes evident. Within the groups of respondents who reported to participate 'every day' in their chosen activities 67% (n=32) were male and 33% (n=16), female. This can be directly compared to the respondents who participated only 'several times a year' (n=35). Of this total, 34% were male and 66% female. It may be noted, therefore that the activities are more frequently participated in by males than females. It is not in the remit of this research to provide a rationale for such a pattern, but rather to chart the evidence as a vital characteristic of the sports tourism behavioural profile, within this particular cohort.

The frequency of participation at home in their chosen activities is an important variable, particularly when it is related to the ownership of equipment and kit (Figure 6.28). Such data has been generated within the recent Mintel reports on activity holidays, but primarily in terms of total market value of purchasing such kit and equipment, and not necessarily highlighting its importance (or otherwise) to continuation (or non-continuation) of activities on returning home. Nearly half of the sample (n=106) do in fact own (or have immediate access to) the necessary equipment required to undertake their chosen activities, and over one quarter (n=61) have at least some of the requisite kit and/or equipment.
This data should be understood within the context of the level at which such activities are participated in, shown Figure 6.29.

This shows only one fifth of the sample (n=42) perceived themselves as beginners (as defined within the questionnaire rubric, included in Appendix Three). In addition to this, over half (n=127) considered themselves as having an intermediate level of participation, and over one fifth (n=46) at an elite level of attainment.
The ownership of kit/equipment (see Figure 6.28), is an important factor within activity holiday makers' profile, and it is useful therefore to cross tabulate this result with the frequency of participation in chosen activities at home (Figure 6.30), in order that the existence (or non-existence) of a pattern between these two variables can be established.

![Figure 6.30: Ownership of Kit/Equipment: By Frequency of Participation in Activities at Home](image)

No clear picture emerged from these findings, although it would have been expected that the ownership of all (or some) of the requisite kit/equipment would have facilitated a higher frequency of participation at home, compared with those respondents who did not own any kit, and were reliant on hiring, or borrowing it for their holiday. This may be explained by the fact that many of the activities reported within the activity profile of the holiday makers within this sample, required not only the kit/equipment, but also natural resources and amenities, often not present within an individual's home environment. This could be examined further by conducting follow-up interviews with these respondents (which is discussed in Chapter Ten).

In order to make the profile of such respondents more comprehensive and vivid, a series of questions were posed in an attempt to assess the background to the development of the respondents' interest in such activities. Figure 6.31 indicates a strong influence by significant others and close reference groups, particularly teachers (n=76) and parents (n=32), inferring a relatively early take-up of these activities. The influence of friends (n=39) and sports clubs (n=38), more specifically as a source of introduction to the chosen activities would be perceived as a slightly later development stage, but nevertheless a vital one, in consideration of the adventure (and risk) nature of many outdoor activities.
The possession of (or training for) specified activity qualifications was considered to be an indicator not only of level of attainment in their chosen activities, but also commitment within the holiday context. As Figure 6.32 shows, more than one third of the sample (n=79) did in fact possess a coaching qualification, although over half of the sample (n=120) did not have a recognised qualification, nor were they in the process of gaining one.
A significant percentage of the sample (34%) did consider an activity break as their main holiday each year (see Figure 6.33), although 35% responded that other types of holiday constituted their main annual holiday.

![Figure 6.33: Activity Break as Main Annual Holiday.](image)

These results are rarely compared with other variables (within the secondary data surveys), but this current research can effectively cross tabulate the activity break as the main annual holiday with the individual's reported level of participation and competency within their chosen activities. The domination of an individual's tourism activity, is one of the most fundamental aspects of the proposed sports tourism behavioural profile. Figure 6.34 illustrates the comparison of these two variables.
For those respondents who perceived themselves as participating in their chosen activities at an 'intermediate' level (n=127), the constitution of activity breaks as the main annual holiday were evenly distributed, but for the other two levels of participation, a different picture is evidenced. For those respondents who were considered as only 'beginners' in their activities (n=42), the majority (60%), remarked that activity breaks 'never' constituted their main annual holiday; 21% 'sometimes', and 19% 'always'. For the elite level participants (n=46), a completely opposite pattern is formed, in that the majority of the respondents (67%) considered an activity break to 'always' constitute their main annual holiday; 22% 'sometimes' and only 11% 'never'. This can be explained perhaps by the fact that the commitment required to achieve and sustain high levels of performance in their chosen activities (and particularly the highly technical pursuits), would necessarily involve a time and financial commitment over and above that available at home, and would therefore 'spill over' into the individual' leisure time, and hence holiday taking profile.

A further indicator of the tourist behaviour of the respondents was the vast majority (n=198) did in fact engage in some form of activity-based leisure day trip within the previous twelve months, and only 8% of the sample (n=17), had not. The profile of the respondents with respect to activities participated in and those followed as a spectator
whilst away on day trips was also required, and Table 6.9 outlines the frequencies for the activities listed.

### Table 6.9: Participation and Spectating Levels Whilst on Day Trips within the previous year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Participated in</th>
<th>Spectated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indoor Sport</td>
<td>155 (78%)</td>
<td>22 (11%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Sports</td>
<td>137 (69%)</td>
<td>32 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking/Rambling</td>
<td>128 (65%)</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>78 (39%)</td>
<td>12 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>132 (67%)</td>
<td>28 (14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the number of respondents who had in fact engaged in some form of activity whilst on a leisure day trip within the past year, over three quarters had participated in some form of indoor sport (n=178). This high level of participation was not matched by a similar frequency of spectating activity (n=22). A large number of the leisure day trippers also participated in some form of outdoor sport (n=137), and this activity received a higher level of spectating than observed for the indoor sports frequency (n=32). The activity of walking/rambling was also heavily participated in (n=128), albeit at a recreational intensity. The high numbers of respondents (n=132) engaged in 'other' types of activity whilst away on leisure day trips, included cricket (n=25), with a fairly high level associated with spectating golf (n=31) and tennis (n=18).

6.3.4: Summary of Postal Questionnaire Results

The findings from the this database survey illustrate the nature of active holiday engagement for this cohort. The relationship of these findings to the literature reviewed, are discussed in detail in the following section of this chapter, and links made with the other empirical case studies in Chapter Nine. The results highlighted here, evidence a dedicated profile of activity holiday makers, whereby such sports tourism activity constitutes the main purpose of the annual holiday on a regular basis, particularly for those individuals participating at 'intermediate' and 'elite' levels. The opportunity to engage in various forms of outdoor activity for this sample, was clearly a significant determinant within the holiday decision-making process, participation patterns whilst on holiday, and an important element of continued activities at home. This pattern is intensified when the indicators of age, sex and socio-economic classification, are taken into consideration.
6.4: Case Study Conclusions

The profile of respondents in terms of age, sex and occupational status were similar for both sets of questionnaires, with a lower mean age than with the Southcoast World sample and a considerably higher socio-economic class. There was not a significant relationship between length of stay and activities undertaken whilst in Pembrokeshire, as many respondents visited specifically with the main purpose of engaging in some form of outdoor activity. Many of the respondents participated regularly in activity-based holidays, and were not using this particular trip as an opportunity for taking part for the first time, or to learn activities. The composition of the groups was also similar for both samples, with a significant percentage electing to participate in their chosen activity on their own. The continuation of activities once home was also relatively high for both groups, although the ownership of kit and equipment was a determining factor in the feasibility (or otherwise) of this.

The types of activity undertaken whilst on holiday were similar for both groups and can be explained by the natural amenities of the Pembrokeshire area, and the range of activities offered by Twr-Y-Felin (and the other main providers of outdoor activities in the County, as shown in Appendix Three). The sample taken from the database were regular activity holiday takers, reflected in the main activity indicators used within the questionnaire. The commitment and dedicated nature of this participation is indicated by the high number of respondents who had coaching qualifications and who had been introduced to the activity at an early age by either their parents or school teachers. The availability of key types of activities was considered to be a very significant factor in the domestic holiday decision-making process for these people.

The data clearly inferred two levels of sports tourist, firstly sports-specific in nature and function, as indicated primarily, by the activities of canoeing, wind surfing and surfing. Secondly, a broader profile of general sporting activity. The latter type of activity is observed to be engaged in often as an adjunct to more specialised activity.

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two Section IV, which examined the various supply and demand characteristics of the activity holiday market within the UK, provided an effective framework in which to locate this particular case study. This case, based on a random sample of tourists within a predominantly activity-oriented region of Wales, and also on a sample of activity holiday makers from a recognised outdoor activity centre, served to evidence the nature of the individuals' sports tourism behaviour (and hence demand) in response to both types of provision (or supply).
The problems of definition and categorisation of activity holidays, and more specifically active components within a given holiday, have not necessarily been addressed within this case study, but they have become evident within both questionnaires. The respondents were found to have differing perceptions of what constituted an activity, in terms of its nature and intensity, and even if a general categorisation is adopted (see eg. WTO 1988), the problem of consistency still remains. The results from this case study, therefore, would not totally fill the gap left by the secondary data surveys (reviewed in Chapter Three); this could not be achieved within a single study of this type. The surveys undertaken by the statutory tourist authorities, for example, related to the first part of this case study, in which the on-street survey was administered. The main purpose of the visit was established, along with other general tourism indicators, which, when amalgamated could generate a tourist profile. The identified 'gap' in the secondary data, with regards to making more specific reference to activity types, frequency, duration and intensity was at least partially addressed within this framework.

The commercial market surveys (see eg. Leisure Consultants, 1992; Mintel, 1996) developed a characteristic profile of activity holiday makers, in terms of age; socio-economic indicators and activities undertaken, and was closely related to the second part of this case study, in which the established Twr-Y-Felin clients were contacted. As stated earlier in this section, the data supported much of the evidence produced from these surveys, particularly with respect to socio-economic indicators, and activity profiles. The aim of this study therefore, namely to construct a behavioural profile of these two groups of individuals, was realised.

The activity holiday market in the UK (and on an international level) is a significant, yet disparate one, making the charting of its demand and supply components highly problematic. The various estimations of generated worth, using a variety of economic indicators have been discussed in Chapter Two: Section IV. This case study did not set out to provide yet further estimates of the economic significance of the activity holiday market, but instead to indicate the role of outdoor activities in the holiday decision-making process, holiday consumption patterns, and post-holiday continuation (or non-continuation) of chosen activities.

The management of Twr-Y-Felin, along with the Pembrokeshire Business Initiative were unequivocal in their desire to continue the process of developing opportunities for outdoor activities to both visitors of Pembrokeshire and existing (and potential) users of Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre. The findings from this case study suggest that there is enormous potential remaining for such development (which are detailed further
in Chapter Ten), with the availability of outdoor activities (of both an organised and independent nature) evidenced to be a major determinant of people visiting the County for a holiday, and also for returning to develop their chosen sporting interests.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Background Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Design of Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Respondent Profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Analysis of Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Case Study Conclusions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.0: Introduction

The opportunity presented to research at the World Athletics Cup enabled a medium-sized sports event to be studied in terms of its impact on generating tourism flow to the host region. This case afforded the opportunity to investigate empirically the associated costs and benefits, particularly through expenditure calculations, profiling the behaviour of the spectators, and identifying what proportion of such an event's spectators are non-local, bringing additional benefit to the area, rather than substituting activities and spending already evident. This chapter describes the background to securing access to this prestigious event, the methods chosen, and the rationale for the selection. The data analysed from the large number of responses is presented, with the expenditure estimations explained. Finally, a summary of the main results is presented, and conclusions from the case study drawn.

7.1: Background Information

The World Athletics Cup, is one of the largest international athletics meetings outside of the major (mega event) Championships and was staged in the UK at Crystal Palace over three days in September 1994. With both the Great Britain men and ladies teams having qualified from the Europa Cup (staged also in the UK at the Alexander Stadium, Birmingham), this event had generated substantial media coverage. This interest was reflected in an aggregate attendance for the three days of over 30,000.

The World Cup, although an undoubted success in terms of the Great Britain team's performances and the crowd's obvious enjoyment of world class athletics, was blighted by widespread media condemnation of the choice of venue, and the decline of Crystal Palace as the national athletics stadium. Problems of poor facilities, expensive and poor quality refreshments and travelling difficulties associated with the location of the stadium, were also voiced by the spectators.

These management issues, although very important, lie outside the specific remit of this study. However, following a request, the researcher was able to provide the British Athletic Federation (BAF), with a summary report of views on these issues, and this reflects the very 'real' context in which the interrelationships between sport and tourism are being studied, and further illustrates the currency of this work.
7.2: Design of Methods

The primary research method chosen for this case study was a self-completed questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed in such a way as to use predominantly closed response questions to keep the time taken for completion relatively short. The design of the questionnaire (which is included in Appendix Six) allowed for the following general areas to be addressed:

(i) personal details: including age; occupation; and place of residence;

(ii) world athletics cup details: including purchasing of tickets; accommodation and travel arrangements; expenditure at the event, and elsewhere in London;

(iii) spectating at other sporting events: including frequency of spectating at other athletics and sports events in the UK and abroad;

(iv) participation patterns in sport: including activities participated in at present and in the past, and participation rates in those sports spectated.

The researcher secured accreditation and access to conduct questionnaires on all three days of the event through the British Athletic Federation (the sport's National Governing Body and the organisation with full responsibility for organisation of the World Cup). The questionnaire was designed, in consultation with the BAF, and the fieldwork logistics planned. A team of five researchers located at key entry and exit points around the stadium, as well as within the enclosed seating areas, distributed and collected the questionnaires. The details of the distribution, subsequent return and calculated response rate from the administered questionnaire are included in Table 7.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.1: Response Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A total of 7,500 questionnaires were distributed:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Friday:</strong> 2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Saturday:</strong> 2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sunday:</strong> 3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the duration of the competition, ignoring duplicated responses, spoiled or incomplete questionnaires:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A total of 2,300(^1) questionnaires were returned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This represents a response rate of 30.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) A total of 1,926 questionnaires were returned during the event itself, while 374 were sent back to the researcher in the post, up to six weeks following the event.
This return was incentivised by a free prize draw, which was highlighted on the questionnaire, and at the event by the distributing team. The favourable response rate achieved was attributable largely, it is suggested, by this incentive. In addition to this, several announcements were made over the public address system at quiet times during the three days, when the spectators had time to complete them. The boxes available for return of the questionnaires were clearly marked, and supervised by a member of the distributing team. This was considered to be a comprehensive and representative sample from which statistical inferences could confidently be made.

7.3: Respondent Profiles

The composition of the sample with respect to age and sex is illustrated in Figure 7.1. The composition of the two sexes within the sample is 56% (n=1258) being female respondents and 44% (n=1042) being male.

This follows a normal distribution pattern (measured against the OPCS population statistics), with one distinct discrepancy for the lowest age cohort (16 and under) with just over 4% of the sample (n=102). This can be explained by instructions given to members of the distribution team to avoid giving questionnaires to people likely to be under 16, because many of the questions were directly targeted at the adult spectators within the group structure, who were the most likely to do the majority of the spending for groups, including children. Of the remaining age categories, no cohort was over-represented. This is indicative of the wide ranging nature of the audience for athletics.
The occupational status of the respondents, as shown in Figure 7.2 evidences a predominance in the sample of those in full time employment (n=1365). There is a small amount of ambiguity in that a small number ticked more than one box, e.g. a number of full time students for example also carried out part-time work. Where possible this type of anomaly was dealt with consistently.

![Figure 7.2: Current Occupation: All Respondents](image)

7.4: Analysis of Data

Due to the size of the sample and the volume of data, the analysis was undertaken using SPSS statistical package on a mainframe computer system, as opposed to the SPSS version for windows. In order to produce a comprehensive profile of the sports-tourist spectator, the initial stage of frequency calculations were followed by selected cross tabulations. The design of the questionnaire was such that all responses could be adequately coded, and hence no content analysis or other qualitative technique was deemed necessary. The size and volume of this data set made this a very significant element of the middle period of this study.

The first important characteristic of the sample to establish was their place of residence, and Figure 7.3 illustrates the breakdown of respondents from within and outside the London area. It can be observed that more than one third of the respondents (n=848) lived inside the London area, which was determined by a complete listing of the Greater London Borough postal codes. It can therefore be illustrated immediately, empirically, that this event brought considerable numbers of tourists into the area from outside.
The catchment area of spectators to the event was extremely wide, including visitors from Europe, America and Australia. The predominance however of visitors from neighbouring areas of residence, albeit ones outside the immediate Greater London region, is shown in Table 7.2.

**Table 7.2 : Respondents' Place of Residence Living**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Residence</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surrey</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middlesex</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essex</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sussex (East &amp; West)</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berkshire</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other England</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Overseas</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The radar chart, shown in Figure 7.4 illustrates the various distances travelled by the respondents, and is highly significant when considering definitions of tourism and day trips, and the relationship with an overnight stay. As indicated by the chart, the largest number of spectators (n=688) had travelled the shortest distance, namely between 1 and 10 miles, but a similar number of spectators (n=620) had travelled the furthest distance.
The smallest number of spectators (n=282) had travelled between 11 and 20 miles for the event and 18% of the total sample (n=425) had travelled between 31 and 60 miles.

**Figure 7.4: Distance Travelled for Event**

The respondents were requested to list the main methods of travel adopted to attend the event. In many cases, due to the poor location of the stadium, multiple methods of transport were required. The frequency graph for the main methods of transport used by the respondents is presented in Figure 7.5.

**Figure 7.5: Main Method of Transport to the World Cup**
The pattern is dominated by the car (n=1598) and tube (n=1188) (the underground station is located within one mile of the stadium). The somewhat limited nature of the car parking available at the stadium and in the immediate area would have had a significant impact on transport choice. The 'other' category (n=145) included cycling, usually for residents of the host and neighbouring Boroughs (n=36), and the airplane and ferry (or boat) for overseas visitors (n=25).

The World Cup event was clearly the main reason for the majority of respondents (n=1,971) visiting London. This is demonstrated by Figure 7.6.

![Figure 7.6: Visiting the Event as Main Reason for being in London](image)

Only 14% of the sample (n=329) indicating other main motives for their trip. The 'other' reasons for their trip included visiting friends and relatives (n=171); business and work commitments (n=74); and study (educational) tours (n=49).

It was important to elicit information on the composition of the group in which the respondents arrived (if within a group) for their spectating of the event, and this profile is presented in Figure 7.7.
The data clearly evidences that the dominant group structure is one comprising a family (n=986) or with friends (n=842), and in many cases a combination of these two group types. It is also clear that spectating at an athletics event, such as the World Cup, is not engaged in very extensively on an individual level, with a comparatively small number arriving on their own at the event (n=151). In fact, the number of spectators who were with work colleagues exceeded this total (n=182). This was probably attributable to the significant number of corporate hospitality events which were being organised by various local and national companies during the event. Significant to this study particularly are those attending the event as tourists.

The use of various types of accommodation by those respondents away from their usual place of residence, is represented in Figure 7.8.
The total number of spectators who were away from their usual place of residence (n=368) and required an overnight stay, represented 16% of the total sample, and 25% of the sample of non-residents. If staying with friends and relatives, and the 'other' category are not included, then still 61% (n=236) of this total, paid to stay overnight (for at least on evening). The related expenditure for accommodation is discussed in section 7.4.1.

An indicator of the volume and pattern of sports event spectating could be established from the sample. A variety of indicators were designed within the questionnaire format to facilitate this. Figure 7.9 for example shows that 40% of the sample (n=922) had in fact attended a sports event in London previously, whilst 60% (n=1378) were spectating at an event in London for the first time.

It was important to develop a profile of the respondents in terms of the frequency of their attendance at sporting events, and this data is reflected in Figure 7.10. As can be seen, there is not a clear domination by any one frequency of attendance throughout the sample, however it is highly significant that nearly three quarters of the sample (n=1688) reported that they visited sporting events either 'very regularly' (monthly or more often) or 'regularly' (a few times a year). The number of respondents (n=612) who only occasionally (once a year or less) attended sports events would have included some who used their current visit to the World Cup as constituting their one previous visit. This was confirmed by analysis of a later question, which asked for a listing of sports events (with venues) visited in the previous twelve months (Table 7.3). The
important point to make from these findings, in terms of sports tourism behaviour, is that for some individuals, attendance at an event such as this is a catalyst for future, more intensive sports spectating, which suggests the usefulness of a longitudinal study in this area.

This profile of attendance at sports events, was further enhanced by a listing of the events and the corresponding venues attended over the previous twelve months by the respondents. The ten most frequently attended events are shown in Table 7.3. The percentage of the total sample of respondents (n=2,300) are presented in column four.

**Table 7.3: Top Ten Sports Events and Venues Visited within the Previous Twelve Months.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TSB Challenge (A)</td>
<td>Crystal Palace</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europa Cup (A)</td>
<td>Alexander Stadium</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonalds Games (A)</td>
<td>Lower Don Valley</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wimbledon Tennis</td>
<td>Wimbledon</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McVities Challenge (A)</td>
<td>Gateshead</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County Cricket Matches</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football League Matches</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAA Championships (A)</td>
<td>Lower Don Valley</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Indoor (A)</td>
<td>NIA (Birmingham)</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAA Indoors (A)</td>
<td>NIA (Birmingham)</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The domination within this spectating profile of athletics matches is the most striking outcome, further endorsing the dedicated and committed nature of some spectators. While there is clear evidence that there is a 'within sport' dedicated sports tourist ie. concentrating on travel for one sport, but following it to several locations, there are also
a set of people in the sample who travel regularly for different sports. Within the previous year to the staging of the World Cup, seven of the most frequently events visited by the respondents, were athletics-based. The Grand Prix circuit of domestic athletics events staged at the main stadia in the UK accounted for a considerable proportion of their spectating activity throughout the year. This was compounded by the hosting of two European wide meetings (The Europa Cup; European Indoor Championships in the National Indoor Arena, Birmingham). However, even within this sample (and more work is clearly needed across a range of sports), there are some multi-sport spectators.

The other main events to emerge within the ten most frequently attended were The Tennis Championships at Wimbledon, spectating at Football League matches at various venues in the UK, and at County Cricket matches (during the summer months). It was anticipated that the frequency and regularity of attendance at sports events, as evidenced, would not necessarily be uniform across the respondent age groups (see Table 7.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>very regularly n=839</th>
<th>regularly n=849</th>
<th>occasionally n=612</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td>8  7%</td>
<td>82  77%</td>
<td>17   16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>99  23%</td>
<td>202 47%</td>
<td>129  30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>103 25%</td>
<td>164 40%</td>
<td>142  35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>186 37%</td>
<td>169 33%</td>
<td>150  30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>182 40%</td>
<td>146 33%</td>
<td>120  27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>149 37%</td>
<td>166 42%</td>
<td>86   22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A distinct pattern does become evident in that the older age cohorts exhibit a proportionally greater regularity of attendance at sports events, than the younger ones. The percentages given are calculated for each frequency as a proportion of the total given for each age category, in order that legitimate comparisons can be made. The total number of respondents who participate in the sports to which the events relate, are outlined in Figure 7.11.
It is evident that over 25% of the sample (n=585) consider that they 'regularly play' such sports, whilst 40% of the sample (n=924) 'occasionally play'. A significant 35% of the sample (n=791) 'never play' the sports which they have spectated. If the relationship between this frequency of participation and the variable of age is considered, then a further pattern arises (see Table 7.5).

Table 7.5: Frequency of Participation in Sports Spectated by Age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>regularly</th>
<th>occasionally</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=585</td>
<td>n=924</td>
<td>n=791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;16</td>
<td>72 67%</td>
<td>27 25%</td>
<td>8 18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>165 38%</td>
<td>190 44%</td>
<td>75 18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>127 31%</td>
<td>175 43%</td>
<td>107 26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>109 22%</td>
<td>226 45%</td>
<td>171 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>76 17%</td>
<td>167 37%</td>
<td>205 46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>36 9%</td>
<td>139 35%</td>
<td>226 56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extreme measures of 'regular' and 'occasional' participation reflect a greater level of participation by the younger age cohorts than the older, which is a complete opposite profile to the one observed in Table 7.4. The respondents to have reported 'never' to have participated in the sports watched, were more proportionally represented within the older age categories.

The regularity of attendance at athletics meetings, as a spectator is represented in Figure 7.12. It should be noted that 72% of the sample (n=1660) responded that they had attended an athletics match within the last year, and a significant number of these
(n=871) had done so within the previous six months. The 28% of the sample (n=640) who had attended an athletics match more than one year ago, were not requested to stipulate how long ago the previous spectating activity had occurred.

These results are significant in terms of profiling the sports tourism behaviour of such spectators, particularly as the literature reviewed in Chapter Two: Section V includes little analysis of patterns related to personal characteristics. Clearly, within this study, the variable of age has been identified to impact upon the intensity of participation and spectating in the individuals' chosen sports; with the former being found to decrease with age; and the former to increase with age.

![Figure 7.12: Last Attendance at an Athletics Event.](image)

Figure 7.12 represents a breakdown of when the ticket(s) for the event were in fact purchased by the spectator, and includes those respondents who received complimentary tickets (such as corporate visitors and friends or relatives of the athletes taking part). This was considered to be an important indicator in the profiling of the athletics supporter, in that purchasing of the ticket some time before the event suggests a more organised approach, and more significantly generates a higher level of pre-event anticipation (which remains an integral part of the tourism experience). In addition, ticket purchase is a vital part of the travel decision-making process, which can be compared with the Southcoast World Case Study, and the selection of Butlins as a holiday choice.
The smallest number of spectators (n=272) purchased their ticket on the day of the event, although the complimentary tickets distributed were included within this category. The public were informed by the BAF that the event had sold out for all three days, and so the purchase of tickets on the day itself was not encouraged. Over half of the spectators (n=1341) had purchased their tickets more than one week prior to the event, and 30% (n=687) within the week immediately before the event. The purchasing of tickets and arrangements for accommodation is directly related to the use by spectators of professional tour agencies.

Figure 7.14 indicates that 19% of the respondents (n=432) did in fact use an outside agency (other than the Crystal Palace booking office) for ticket and travelling arrangements. This signifies a considerable reliance on such companies, and of more importance is the fact that 24% (n=375) of spectators living outside of London made
use of the service of professional agencies. This clearly emphasises the importance of this event as a tourism generator, and the use of outside agencies in the organisation of travel arrangement is comparable to the utilisation of travel agents for any short or long trip taken throughout the year.

The respondents who did make use of an outside agency (n=432), evidenced a market dominated by three main specialised organisations, catering for sports event travel within the UK and abroad (see Table 7.6).

Table 7.6: Agencies Used For the World Cup

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centersport</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ticketstop</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track &amp; Field Sports</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interest within the media (particularly the newspapers) following the considerable success of both the men's and women Great Britain teams at the Europa Cup, staged in Birmingham, resulted in over 1000 of the sample being made aware of the World Athletics Cup through the newspaper they read. Figure 7.15 displays the various forms of media from which the respondents were made aware of the event.

Figure 7.15: Awareness of World Cup Event

The next most common form of media responsible for raising this level of awareness was the athletics press (n=458), which endorses the sports-specific knowledge and

1 Some significant agencies to have been included within the 'other' category were the BAF (n=10); British Athletics Supporters (n=10) and Concert Travel (n=6).
interest of the spectators. The effectiveness of word-of-mouth as a communication device for such an event is also emphasised here (n=281). The significant number of respondents who recorded 'other' (n=179), were in the main spectators who had also attended the Europa Cup in Birmingham (n=96), where information had been distributed about the World Cup.

Figure 7.16 demonstrates the number of spectators who visited the World Cup for all three days of the event. A weakness in the survey design meant that spectators who reported that they were not remaining for the entire duration, were not requested to state if they were to be there for one or two days. This is an accepted limitation within the questionnaire design. Over half of the sample (n=1285) were in fact due to stay for the whole event, although some confusion was evident as to the availability (or not) of tickets for the final day of athletics, which clouded some spectator's views.

Figure 7.16: Attendance at the Event for all Three Days

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Attendance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.1: Expenditure Calculations

Within the questionnaire format, the respondents were requested to estimate as accurately as possible how much money they already had (or were expected to) spend during the World Cup event on a list of specified items. In addition to this, they were asked to make it clear how many people this level of expenditure was for. Table 7.7 outlines these expenditure details for non-residents of London during their stay at the World Cup.

Column one lists the expenditure type taken directly from the questionnaire, including an 'other spending' category. This expenditure category included the purchasing of athletics sports clothing and other athletics merchandise at the event, and food and drink purchased en route, either to or from the venue. Column two lists the total number of
respondents within the sample of non-residents who included expenditure details for each of the items. Column three is the average level of expenditure for all items listed, and finally column four is a total aggregate expenditure, arrived at by multiplying the number who spent with the average item expenditure. All the rows are aggregated to produce the final total expenditure across the sample.

Table 7.7: Expenditure Details for Non-Residents (n=1542) of London

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure Type</th>
<th>Number who spent</th>
<th>Expenditure (£)</th>
<th>Total (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admission</td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>34.82</td>
<td>48,295.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car-Parking</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>977.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>38.72</td>
<td>9757.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel in and around London</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1411.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/Drink at the Event</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4133.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/Drink Elsewhere</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>4018.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs</td>
<td>1018</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3939.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping in London</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>4079.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Entertainment</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>3177.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Spending</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>605.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>80,395.42</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A further indicator can be established to calculate the average spend per spectator within this sample of respondents. This is calculated by dividing the total expenditure by the total number of spectators who spent. Average Spend Per Person for the non-resident sample was calculated to be £57.96. Whilst a significant figure, this may actually be lower than expected from some estimates that are made of the direct economic value of events any of which are inflated. This type of detailed research reveals aspects such as the number of relatively low spending children and older adults who are spectators at events, the numbers staying in non-commercial accommodation etc. Equally the figure may underestimate spending where a family member is part of a trip to an event, but does not attend, where spending is generated but not recorded. This type of empirical data which is rare in this country does however illustrate the significant impact of hosting events, but also perhaps that spending estimates can sometimes be inflated.

1 This total expenditure by Non-Residents can be further divided between those items of expenditure directly related to attendance at the event, and indirect items of expenditure. Total Direct Expenditure (admission, car-parking, food & drink, and souvenirs at the event) is £53, 212.34. Total Indirect Expenditure (all other expenditure items) is £27, 183.08.
Using the aggregate attendance figures over three days of the World Cup of 30,700 (taken from official BAF data, and verified by Crystal Place Athletics Stadium), the total spending related directly to the event can be calculated (see Table 7.8).

### Table 7.8: Total Spending for Non-Residents

Total Expenditure for 1387 respondents divided by the average number for whom the expenditure was intended, multiplied by the proportion of total spectator numbers who were non-resident:

\[
\frac{80,395.42}{2.6} \times 22.13 = £684,288.71
\]

The same calculations were made for the respondents within the sample who were resident in London (n=758) (see Table 7.9).

### Table 7.9: Expenditure Details for Residents (n=758) of London

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure Type</th>
<th>Number who spent</th>
<th>Expenditure (£)</th>
<th>Total (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admission</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>25.50</td>
<td>18,487.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car-Parking</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>272.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>32.25</td>
<td>161.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel in and around London</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1050.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/Drink at the Event</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1381.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/Drink Elsewhere</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>301.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs</td>
<td>649</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>2154.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping in London</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>106.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Entertainment</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>185.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Spending</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>140.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>24,241.37</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average spend per person for the residents of London was calculated to be £33.44. This figure obviously does not have the same significance as the calculation for non-

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1 This total expenditure by Residents can be further divided between those items of expenditure directly related to attendance at the event, and indirect items of expenditure. Total Direct Expenditure (admission, car-parking, food & drink, and souvenirs at the event) is £22, 296.36. Total Indirect Expenditure (all other expenditure items) is £1, 945.01.
residents of London, from a tourism generator viewpoint, but nevertheless does indicate the significant spending at the event, dominated by ticket price and purchasing of souvenirs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.10: Total Spending for Residents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Expenditure for 725 respondents divided the average number for whom the expenditure was intended, multiplied by proportion of total spectator numbers who were residents of London:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24,241.37/2.2*13.3= £146,550.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Direct and Indirect Expenditure (Residents and Non-residents)= £799,917.72.

In light of these significant economic indicators resulting both directly and indirectly from the event, the intangible benefits should also be considered. It is important to ascertain the opinions of the spectators towards the staging of the event more generally. This is achieved through using the parameters of quality of the stadia; facility and organisation; and the perceived 'value for money' of the event.

These parameters are vital in the consideration of the likelihood of return to an athletics event specifically, and more generally a repeat visit to the host region. These issues were examined within the event-based tourism literature (Chapter Two: Section V), particularly for those cities which are using sports events to enhance their image (e.g., Sheffield and Manchester), and this current study provides a balanced picture of the benefit of hosting medium-sized events. The ticket price was used as an indicator and the perceived 'value for money' of the event is illustrated in Figure 7.17.
The picture is a mixed one in the sense that 47% of the respondents (n=1085) perceived the ticket price to represent either 'very good' or 'good' value for money, but only 26% considered this to be representative of 'average' value for money (n=562). A similar percentage did not perceive the ticket price as good value for money, stating its value as either 'poor' (n=429) or 'very poor' (n=224). This pattern is understood more clearly when the rating of Crystal Palace as a venue is compared to other similar stadia known to the respondents (Figure 7.18). This evidences a situation where the poor quality impact of the physical surroundings and facilities had a relatively negative impact on spectators, which may have affected and suppressed both direct and indirect spending.
This clearly demonstrates a very unfavourable perception of Crystal Palace as an athletics stadium compared to others, with 48% (n=1100) of the sample valuing it as either 'a bit worse' or 'much worse' than other stadia they are familiar with. Less than 20% of the spectators sampled (n=427) were positive in their evaluation of the facility, considering it to be either 'much better' or 'a bit better' than similar stadia. The decision to allow Crystal Palace to host this event was not a popular one with spectators, and this intangible impact is significant when taking into account the general received quality of the tourist experience. All these elements are connected and part of the total visitor experience that venues and event organisers (eg. from the sport and the host city) have to get right if events are to be successful and valuable to the economy, both immediately and in terms of future tourist visit generation and attracting further events in the future. The whole visit experience is significant, given the substantial financial commitment necessary for attendance at such an event, which has been evidenced.

7.5: Case Study Conclusions

Several elements of significance have emerged from this case study of the World Athletics Cup at Crystal Palace. For example, identification of the 'dedicated' nature of some spectators with respect to travelling to attend sports events; and also the sheer volume of activity (as indicated by levels of both direct and indirect expenditure associated with travelling to spectate at such an event). Many of the respondents had a profile of dedicated sports spectatorship not just for athletics-specific matches, but for a diverse range of events of varying profile both in the UK and abroad. The existence of a travelling set of dedicated sports tourists has rarely been demonstrated previously.

This commitment was further evidenced by the relatively high usage made of outside agencies to aid their travelling and ticket purchasing arrangements, which represents additional spending, not calculated into the estimates of economic value to the host area. A further indicator of this athletics-specific commitment was the significance of the positive impact of the athletics press as a source for raising the initial awareness of the World Cup being staged in London. Interestingly, in terms of 'pure' analysis of some of the broader characteristics of sports tourism, this dedication to spectating was not generally matched by regular participation in the sports concerned, although this was observed to vary significantly across the age categories.

The profile of the spectator was characterised by attendance at events with others (primarily partners, friends and family), rather than on their own. The sex, age cohort and occupational structure of the sample followed the pattern of the general population,
and more significantly was representative of the diverse nature of athletics spectators at athletics events of this kind. It became apparent through examination of the existing literature of event-based tourism generally, and sports events, more specifically that few studies (if any), adopted a visitor survey approach in order to construct a profile, based on similar indices as the ones adopted within this current research. The findings therefore, are more credible within this particular context.

Even at conservative estimates, using approximated figures for the expenditure levels, the event generated (both directly and indirectly) between three quarters of a million and a million pounds over the three days of the event, and this will also have a substantial economic impact on the local economy. This corresponds to estimates produced of similar sized events (see eg. Gratton, 1998 and Shibli & Gratton, 1998). The issues discussed previously in Chapter Two: Section V on the various advantages and limitations of economic impact assessments, and the inclusion (or non-inclusion) of residents' expenditure levels within the overall assessment, remain pertinent. However, these empirical figures, demonstrate that even medium scale sports events, which are also tourist attractions (67% were non London residents in the expenditure data), can have a significant economic impact, and this may be even more the case for host cities which are blessed less than London is, with alternative sources of tourism and other direct income generation.

Such tangible benefits for London staging this prestigious event were unfortunately not mirrored by the less tangible impressions they had of the visit experience. The sample of spectators registered considerable disapproval of the decision to allow Crystal Palace to host this event. The repercussions of such dissent for future organisation of events has been discussed within the work of Hall et al. (1998), reviewed in Chapter Two: Section V. The stadium was not measured favourably against other similar stadia, either in terms of impressions of the physical facilities or with low perceived value for money expressed, related to the high levels of expenditure perceived attributable to the event. This also carries valuable messages to other venues and potential host destinations in that such events can be highly positive economic and tourism generating vehicles. However, if operated poorly they can generate significant negative impressions and publicity.

This case study was selected, and the empirical investigation conducted, at a time when there was scant literature available, which examined the value of medium-sized events, in terms of their potential to generate tourism, and to become a significant dimension of tourists' behavioural profiles. As Chapter Two: Section V has outlined, this situation has developed, particularly in the proliferation of studies examining the economic
impact (and in some cases, social impact) of sports events (of all sizes). The picture is no longer dominated by the analysis of mega events. The decision to choose a case study, such as the World Athletics Cup was therefore, a timely and germane one. In addition to providing yet further economic evidence as to the significance of these types of event to the host community (which was not the primary aim of the case study), the data generated has highlighted the value of speculating to the individual tourist, and the ways in which the characteristics present during the World Athletics Cup integrated within a wider and even more significant (in terms of sports tourism) profile of sports event spectating.

The World Athletics Cup has provided an highly effective exemplar of the way in which sport can act directly on tourism (a concept which was introduced in Chapter One). The case study clearly fits into the typological account of event tourism, provided by Getz (1991), which was discussed in Chapter Two: Section V, and has proved to be an extremely important supplier within the sports tourism sector of the industry. This case study can only provide empirical evidence at this point in time, whilst attempting to produce a 'snap shot' account of other sports events attended. The overwhelming evidence from the World Athletics Cup was that the event constituted the main reason for visiting London, and is testament to the powerful force of this sporting event on tourism activity.

The iterative process vital to this current research, can lead the researcher to the assertion that the framework for the empirical investigation would have been enhanced by reference to the research literature which emerged after the fieldwork, data analysis and interpretation had been made. This case study attempted to measure the significance (both in terms of value and volume) of a medium-sized event to the spectators, organisers and host region alike.
CHAPTER EIGHT
ELITE BRITISH ATHLETES:
A CASE STUDY

8.0 Introduction
8.1 Background Information
8.2 Design of Methods
8.3 Analysis of Data
8.4 Case Study Conclusions
8.0: Introduction

A pilot for this particular case study was conducted on a group of intermediate and elite standard squash players from the Priory Rackets Club, in Edgbaston, Birmingham. An opportunity arose for them to complete a questionnaire during their training holiday to Club La Santa in Lanzarote. The details of the pilot for this set of squash players is included in Appendix Five. This provided the foundation for this case to study the travel behaviour of elite athletes on a domestic and international level, as the literature (Chapter Two: Section III), although making reference to this as a distinct category of sports-related tourism, had not generated any empirical evidence to support these claims. The background information to the case study is followed by an in-depth description and rationale for the two main study methods adopted. The data is then presented, with a summary of the main findings linked to the original selection of the case study.

8.1: Background Information

This case study concentrates on the committed behaviour of sports tourism and examines the generation of tourism through elite level sports participation, competition and training. It focuses on a group (n=18) of athletes who have all represented Great Britain at junior, intermediate and senior levels in track and field athletics. Within this cohort, a variety of age, experience and competitive success was sampled, and each athlete was interviewed by a researcher using a semi-structured interview schedule. The data can be viewed as indicative of the level of sports tourism which results from elite level participation in other sport types, which should clearly be studied in detail.

The research also provided a contribution towards the more detailed and systematic quantification of the significance of sport as a tourism generator (through the use of time-space budget diaries), which cannot be effectively established from existing tourism statistics (Chapter Three).

8.2: Design of methods

The first stage of the data collection involved a detailed tape-recorded interview, adopting a semi-structured format (the schedule is included in Appendix Six) in five sections:
background questions to compile a profile of the athlete including level of sports performance and representative honours;

- information on the athletes' sports-related travel, including that for training and competition;

- information on recreational activities undertaken whilst the athlete was involved in travel for both training and competition;

- questions attempting to differentiate travel for spectating and other purposes from that specifically linked to activity for training and competition;

- the location and type of other holidays and travel undertaken, outside that which was related to their elite sports performance.

Fielding (1993: 15) is in no doubt as to the benefits of adopting this form of semi-structured questionnaire, when he suggests that:

No survey, questionnaire or standardised interview can provide the information in sufficient depth or attune it to the varying levels of comprehension likely to be present in the population like the semi-structured interview.

As no previous research had been undertaken in this particular area, an in-depth semi-structured interview of this type would reveal a breadth and richness of data. The schedule allowed for alteration of the question sequence and for 'probing' if more information was required. Some interviews were conducted on athletes during club training nights at Barnet Shaftsbury Harriers, in order to test the question order, wording and general length of the interview process.

The actual interviews were conducted in a comfortable environment, essential for interviews and diary completion of this kind, which has been supported by Oppenheim (1996: 71) when he suggests that, "everything should be done to create a comfortable, unhurried and relaxed setting for private, confidential talk".

There are obviously a series of limitations within this form of interviewing, for example Walker (1995: 32) has commented that:

Interviewing people presents a number of practical problems; there is no guarantee of obtaining accurate, truthful responses, full and sincere responses or focusing the interviewee on issues which concern the researcher.
In addition McNeil (1990) has labelled the problems of 'interview effects' (such as respondents giving the answers they think they want to hear) and 'interviewee effects' (such as the socio-demographic characteristics of the researcher and possibilities of bias during the interview). One problem with such interviews asking for recall and retrospective questioning is inaccuracies through memory inefficiencies, hence the use of the calendar of major athletics events, to aid recall.

The second part of data collection involved the athlete completing a twelve month calendar diary detailing travel behaviour for training and competition commitments within the UK and abroad, and any additional holiday and short break tourism. The qualitative data generated from the interviews was supplemented by quantitative information in the form of the time-space budget diary approach. The notation of the athletics competitions was found to be necessary to act as an aide memoir to respondents, since most athletes' training and minor competitive activities and, in many cases, their work, domestic and recreational activities, are structured around key competition dates. A colour scheme was used to separately identify time engaged in travelling to and from competition, to and from training in the UK and abroad, and travel for other purposes. A sample of the annotated twelve month athletics calendar is provided in Appendix Six.

The research for this case study of elite level sport tourism was conducted throughout Spring 1996 in London and Loughborough. Many of the athletes lived, worked and/or studied at Loughborough University. The remainder of the sample were contacted during training evenings at Barnet Shaftesbury Harriers AC, or during the annual international invitation athletics match staged at Loughborough in May 1996.

The composition of the sample was designed to represent a cross-section of elite level athletes across a range of variables including age, sex, representative level and experience. The sample of eighteen athletes covered ten males and eight females. At the time of interview six were classified as senior international, six were junior international and six were 'intermediate' internationals (not currently in the senior Great Britain athletics squad but with recent international experience). All respondents were international athletes at one of the three levels being researched. At the time of interviewing five of the respondents had achieved Olympic qualifying standards for the 1996 Atlanta Games.

The personal characteristics of the athletes, along with their main event (either track or field), and the international honours they had received at the time of the study, are shown in Table 8.1.
### Table 8.1: Respondent Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>EVENT</th>
<th>HONOURS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angela Davies</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1500m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Senior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacqui Agyepong</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100m hurdles</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Senior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spencer Newport</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3000m</td>
<td>Loughborough &amp; England (Senior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma Merry</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Discus &amp; Shot</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Intermediate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Hylon</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>800m</td>
<td>England (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claire Raven</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>400m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Intermediate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Richardson</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>400m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Senior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sonya Bowyer</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>800m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Intermediate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul Hibbert</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>400m hurdles</td>
<td>England (Senior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesley Owusu</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>200m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna Roze</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>400m</td>
<td>Loughborough (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graham Beasley</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100m</td>
<td>GB (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasher Saint-Smith</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Shot</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Intermediate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrew Young</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>800m</td>
<td>GB &amp; Scotland (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alasdair Donaldson</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1500m</td>
<td>GB &amp; Scotland (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daniel Flint</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100m hurdles</td>
<td>England (Junior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon McAree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3000m</td>
<td>GB &amp; England (Intermediate)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8.3: Analysis of Data

The interviews which were tape-recorded were fully transcribed and the rich data which resulted was analysed using a combination of content and thematic analysis. (ie. The schedule adopted for the interview was used as a framework for analysis in pre-determined categories of response). Analysis of qualitative interviews is a process involving close examination of the information collected, fundamentally in order to find answers to the research questions posed at the outset of the study. An interpretation is then made based on the evidence that has been organised in a systematic manner.

Descriptive and interpretive analysis involves firstly identifying the discrete elements (or descriptors) in the interview data and secondly ordering the discrete elements into categories. According to Richardson (1996) the two most common categories are:
• those that are explicit in the data, which may include reasons given by the respondents for engaging in a certain activity or enjoying specific experiences;

• those that are implicit in the data and are constructed by the researcher, such as attitudes to change.

The data which resulted from the time-space budget diaries completed by all the athletes was accumulated and the Excel package used to present the findings. The summarised results of the six time-space budget diaries which follow provide further evidence of some of the issues which have been identified here, and not least the significant time and financial commitment undertaken by these athletes over a period of twelve months. Whilst clearly these are individual experiences, they have been selected for their representativeness and are not untypical of the findings across the other elite athletes interviewed.

8.3.1: The Semi-Structured Interviews

1) Travel for Training

The respondents' trained from 5-11 times per week, and this included two sessions each day, depending on the time of year and competition commitments. The distance and time spent going to and from training was of considerable significance to this study. In many cases the athletes had to travel outside their area of residence in order to take advantage of specialised equipment, facilities and coaching expertise. This is encapsulated by the athletes' commitment to national training squad weekends.

"I travel down to Crystal Palace from Loughborough twice a week and train at Loughborough four times a week." (Emma Merry)

Many of the athletes also had maintained commitment to training and competition with their home club even whilst studying or working away from their usual area of residence:

"I have to travel from Loughborough to meet up with the Gateshead team. So there is a lot of time spent travelling this year". (Simon McAree)
The fact that these athletes have to spend considerable time and energy in travelling for training, often necessitates an overnight stop. The nature of the accommodation used does vary and in many instances the athlete was found to stay with fellow athletes, family or friends. This situation was outlined by one of the athletes:

"For some of the training sessions at Crystal Palace, I have stayed overnight, either at a friends house or at a cheap hotel near the track. I will finish training, have a meal and then travel back". (Emma Merry)

For training camps abroad, all respondents indicated that they would endeavour to go on at least one warm weather training camp each year.

"Generally warm weather training starts in March, carrying through to April. I usually go once a year, but ideally I would like to go twice a year if I can afford it". (Mark Hylton)

This particular hope was echoed by Sonia Bowyer, who remarked that:

"Ideally I would go twice. Once in December and once around March".

The actual location of the camps were found to vary according to the training requirements of the athletes, and of course budget restrictions. The time spent tended to range from 1-4 weeks and they are predominately taken at the same period each year, around Easter time just prior to the start of the athletics summer calendar. The more established athletes would also train over the Christmas and New Year period for a longer period of time. For example one of the senior athletes outlined his hectic overseas training commitments:

"This year I went to Lanzarote for a week at the end of February. I then went to Jamaica for a week in March. I have also been to Portugal, America and Spain to train". (Mark Richardson)

The range of destinations visited for warm-weather training was identified by the athletes to be remarkably diverse and this was seen to be the case for athletes at all levels of performance. The highest proportion of the training camps were in Europe, Lanzarote, Spain, Portugal and Cyprus each having recognised international sports
training resorts. The following quotes are indicative and representative of the range of places visited exclusively for training purposes:

"I went to New Mexico for three weeks last year and I went to Belgium for three weeks in early spring. I have been to Alperma in Portugal every year bar this year, for a fortnight. I have also been to Club La Santa in Lanzarote". (Sonya Bowyer)

"I went to Portugal for one week, I have been to Gainsville, Florida for two weeks, I was also in France earlier this year for four or five days, to catch up on a bit of pre-season warm weather training". (Lesley Owusu)

"I have been to Portugal for two weeks, I have been to New Zealand for a month, I have been to America for a week and I have been to Spain for a week on numerous occasions". (Paul Hibbert)

"I've been to Uruguay, Holland, California, Tenerife, Spain, South Africa and most other European countries". (Jackie Agyepong)

With the exception of the national squad training weekends, the athletes did not tend to go for UK based training specific weeks simply, because of the unpredictability of the British climate.

2) Activity profile during training and competition

Training and quality time with coaches tended to fill more of the period away from home, with residual time devoted to quiet meals and early nights. The intensity of such periods dictated the very nature of any ancillary activity undertaken and some parallels can be drawn therefore, between these sports tourists and business tourists. The experience is clearly very different, however, from traditional domestic short breaks.

In addition to their specified training, all respondents said that they engage in some other form of recreation whilst away. This has been effectively summarised by one of the more senior athletes when she commented that:
"We play anything to take the monotony out of athletics training all the time. We might go cycling, swimming, just to get out of the complex. When you are away training you tend to eat, breath and talk athletics. So for example when I was in Lanzarote in January, we went swimming, played badminton and basketball and joined in with the aerobics". (Jackie Agyepong)

This particular activity profile, whilst training, was supported by many of the other respondents. For example:

"We have bicycles and we tend to play a lot of basketball. We do a lot of go-karting in Benidorm as they have brilliant facilities out there. Anything at all to stop the boredom whilst you are out there training hard twice a day". (Paul Hibbert)

Despite this active lifestyle whilst training for their sport, there had been several mediating factors identified. The most prominent of which, was the fear of injury, and this was highlighted within many of the interviews. The following quotes are taken directly from the interviews and illustrate the very real problem faced by the athletes performing at such an elite level:

"We go swimming. Quite often we use it as a session. We play a bit of basketball, but I tend not to play too many other sports because your muscles are not used to it and there is a greater chance of sustaining an injury". (Mark Richardson)

"I tend not to play other sports as I'm usually too tired after my athletics training. There is also the risk of injury. I do a bit of swimming, but really when I am away I believe that I am specifically there to train. I try not to do too many active things so that I can conserve my energy and put it into my training. I cannot risk getting injured". (Angela Davies)

"I play a lot of golf. When we went to La Manga the camp was actually situated on a golf course. We also take part in activities such as water skiing and swimming. It is like a half holiday, so we try and do as many activities as possible. We have to be careful of injury, but we must make sure that we are able to relax as well. The best way for me to do that is through playing sport". (Emma Merry)
"I think that when you are on the training camp, you have so much free time to kill that you try and find as many recreational activities as you can to keep you occupied. If I enjoy the sport, I will have a go at it in between my training at home". (Lesley Owusu)

"A couple of years ago when I was in Lanzarote, I went in early December so you are not too close to competition time. So that time I got involved in surfing, cycling and played tennis. When I went in March time just before competition, I would not do anything for fear of injury. I did swim recreationally, but nothing dangerous". (Sonya Bowyer)

"I do fancy skiing holidays, but the risk of injuries is so high that I would be worried about breaking a leg and missing a season". (Spencer Newport)

The profile of activities was found to be dominated by the requirements of their respective training and competing regimes, with the fear of injury whilst participating in other sports punctuating the interviews. The athletes noted that boredom could often be a problem when away on warm weather training trips to otherwise attractive destinations. A relatively limited range of activities was open to them and so participation in non-sport activities was often appreciated. It was at these times that the athletes would become involved in sightseeing, eating out and fulfilling a profile more similar to that of a traditional holiday tourist.

The pattern of the athletes participating in quite a diverse range of other activities whilst training (particularly during the two training sessions each day to relax and relieve boredom), was not mirrored during competition, due to the more intense and serious periods of sporting involvement. The level of sightseeing, however did remain important. Stringent timetables imposed on the athletes by coaches and the event co-ordinators made activities difficult to engage in.

3) Tourist activity whilst training and competing

The other tourist activity category was observed to include eating out and socialising, which has enormous economic implications for the destination visited for training and competition purposes. From the interviews, it became apparent that the athletes preferred to have self-catering accommodation and to eat out at times and places to fit
in around their respective training regimes. This was reflected on by one of the athletes, when she said that:

"I have to go to places that are self-catering. The thing with staying in hotels is that breakfast, lunch and dinner are all at set times, so you have to fit your training around those times to be able to eat. It is nice to get self-catering so you can eat when you want and do your own thing". (Jackie Agyepong)

It was also the case that such eating out was perceived by some of the athletes to be an important and integral part of the tourist experience, rather than merely being convenient for their training. For example one of the athletes commented:

"I eat out all the time. For example when I was in Spain there are a lot of English bars and cafe's etc. I will not go to them. I mean when I am in Spain I want to eat Spanish food. I can eat English food at home all the time. You have to try out new things. Obviously you don't want to do too much as you are there to train, but you have to eat at some of the local bars and see how the locals live". (Paul Hibbert)

This brings into focus the issue of authentic tourist experiences and the socio-cultural meanings attached by visitors. (reviewed in Chapter Two: Section I). The fact that many of the athletes viewed the opportunities provided for cultural visits whilst away, either training or competing to be extremely important to their overall tourism experience, has considerable socio-cultural benefits to the host population. The nature of the training meant that the social aspects of the stay were in the main restricted to visiting the cinema and local bars, but late nights and the drinking of alcohol would not be an important (or even permissible) part of this experience.

In terms of sightseeing whilst training, most of the athletes were able to recall examples of trips which had either been organised on their behalf or independently to be engaged in during their day off or evenings. The general need to have this form of relaxation and escape has been expressed (two elements which were central to the perceived satisfaction of the holiday by a significant number of respondents in both the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin studies) by Jackie Agyepong when she remarked that:

"We have to make the most of it as we may never get the opportunity to go back there. So you just sort of take the odd day off to see things."
mean when you are warm weather training you might train five days a week because your training is so intense. The couple of days you have off is when you go out sightseeing”.

Another of the senior athletes interviewed also stressed the importance attached to using time off effectively:

"We cannot train all day so we have to keep ourselves occupied. Especially if you are on a long trip. For example in Jamaica we went to the Bob Marley museum and out in the USA, we visited the Universal Studios and went on lots of tourist excursions". (Mark Richardson)

Due to the nature of the resorts and destinations visited for training purposes, many of the athletes, it was found, made use of the beach facilities nearby. This was for both relaxation purposes as well as to engage in some forms of recreational sport:

"The vast majority of the week we spend at the beach. We play volleyball, tennis and I also go on the boat trips available". (Angela Davies)

This was supported by Mark Richardson, who commented that:

"We normally go to the beach everyday after our morning training session. I like to sunbathe, body surf and water ski".

Activity profile whilst away from competition were markedly different, due to the shorter nature of the trip and also the need to be focused on the competition. This can be compared directly to the profile of short and long trips evident within the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin studies, and the impact of these holiday types on duration and intensity of activities undertaken. This was indicated by one of the athletes who observed that:

"At competitions we are only usually there a weekend or so we are not there long at all. We travel on the Friday and compete on the Saturday. You get Saturday evening free and then travel straight back on the Sunday. At the week long competitions, you get a bit more free time, but then again you are running 2-3 days and spend a couple of
days watching the competition, so again time is short". (Andrew Young)

The majority of competition for the athletes sampled are UK based and so it was of interest to note the difference when travelling abroad for competitions, particularly for the more junior athletes who had not previously travelled very extensively for competition. One of the junior athletes recalled competing at the World Student Games in China and commented that:

"We were there for a week. We went to a number of attractions and got caught up in the holiday atmosphere, but we knew we had to focus on the race at the end of the week, so it was good experience". (Duncan Flint)

The need to optimise the experience was echoed by another athlete who said that:

"We like to sample all the attractions to say we have been there and done it". (Mark Hylton)

4) Funding

The travel associated for both training and competition has enormous financial implications and the funding of such activity varied between athletes, depending on experience, standards and existing sources of funding. Self-funding was common, particularly among the younger athletes, attempting to establish themselves on the international athletics scene. This situation has been summarised by one of the athletes:

"There are various sources of funding available, for example last year I got a thousand pounds grant off the Scottish Sports Aid Foundation. This was towards general training costs and competition costs. I also receive two or three hundred pounds off the local council to help with the costs towards training. But anything over and above this funding comes out of my own pocket and I find that it hit my finances quite hard." (Andrew Young)

It was found that the more senior athletes (and certainly those able to compete on the Grand Prix Tour) had far greater access to funding and sponsorship at all levels and indeed many of the top British athletes are able to train and compete as full-time
(professional) athletes. The amount of income was highlighted as affecting the nature, duration and frequency of the training and indeed the choice of destination. For the UK-based training commitments, one of the senior athletes explained that:

"For the National Squad weekends you only have to pay for your travel, the British Athletics Federation put you up in a hotel and pay for all of your food over the weekend." (Angela Davies)

5) Holiday Patterns and Activity Profiles

None of the respondents during interviews expressed that they trained specifically whilst away on holiday, and in fact most of their holidays would be taken out of season when they would be resting. Some of the athletes engaged in some forms of exercise to keep general levels of fitness, but equally some were seen to desire a complete break from the rigours of athletics training and competition, a view expressed by one of the athletes:

"What we try to do is get away from seeing the track for 3-4 weeks or however long you are going away for, because when you finish competing all you want to do is rest. You want a total rest so you go somewhere where there is no track to tempt you." (Jackie Ageypong)

Despite this reluctance to train for athletics, the majority of the athletes did participate in a wide range of sporting activities whilst away on holiday, although they did not necessarily seek a sports-specific or activity holiday. The following two quotes were indicative of the athletes' views more generally:

"If there are any facilities there to do sports then I will have to try them. It is like a drug to me. I have to keep active at all times." (Paul Hibbert)

"I like to keep active at all times and I enjoy sports so much. So I get involved in any sports going really. Things like badminton, tennis, volleyball etc." (Sonia Bowyer)

It is important within this current research framework, to highlight that many of the athletes other holidays are limited by the time and more importantly the money spent on their athletics travel. This also explains in part why the athletes interviewed did not tend to engage in short-breaks or indeed spectated at other sporting events. The fear
of sustaining injury is a further sports related restriction and a factor in the holiday decision-making process of the athletes (and hence their family and friends), as well as a factor when they chose activities to engage in whilst training and competing. This is clearly a different set of characteristics than evidenced in the other empirical cases, in terms of determinant in the decision-making process.

Work, study and family commitments had to be balanced in light of this extensive travelling. Due to the enormous commitment on both time and finance imposed by elite level athletics in this country. The athletes interviewed remarked how little time they had left to take other holidays both in the UK and abroad, or day visits (including spectating at other sports events) unless they were directly related to their athletics programme. This was also reflected by the fact that very few of the athletes travel to watch other athletics competitions and only tend to spectate at those at which close friends are competing. This has some similarity to the profile of respondents, particularly in the Southcoast World (for participation) and the World Athletics Cup (for spectating), that responsibility to others (mainly family and friends), resulted in them undertaking activities they would not otherwise have done. Other holidays taken by the athletes were fitted in around these training and competition commitments, and normally occur at the end of the season before winter training commences.

Once again, however, the fear of injury prior to the beginning of the new season was deemed to be a limiting factor in their choice of activity. In addition to this, once they had returned from their holidays, little or no continuation of the sport would occur, due totally to the demands imposed on their time, resources and energy by the athletics training and competition. One of the junior athletes did, however, reflect on one sport which she has continued to participate in:

"I enjoyed tennis so much in La Manga, that I have continued to play frequently back home at a local club, but I do not usually continue with these activities when I am at home as I do not have time. They are not on your doorstep like when you are at a hotel at the training camp." (Claire Raven)

In general terms, the type, frequency and intensity of activities engaged in whilst taking these holidays was seen to be restricted by the requirements imposed by elite level performance in athletics. This was seen to be the case despite the fact that in most instances the season’s training and competitive commitments had been satisfied.
"The season basically specifies when you can go away, so by the time the season has finished you are talking about the September/October period." (Paul Hibbert)

"When the season has finished places are starting to get a bit colder in the UK, so I go abroad and visit friends in places such as America." (Graham Beasley)

"I do not take other holidays during the year, due to the expense of going to training camps." (Anna Roze)

"I take proper holidays during the year. Either once or twice a year or depending how much money I have left once I have paid for my warm weather training. I go on holiday directly after the season has finished, mainly sun/sea destinations." (Clare Raven)

8.3.2: Time-Space Budget Diaries

The travel commitment for training and competition in the UK and abroad, has been quantified for six athletes selected from the sample, to represent the three levels of performance, identified at the beginning of the study. The data from the calendar diaries the athletes completed have been graphically represented in each case. In addition, biographical details and further details on the nature and intensity of the travel has been included with the discussion of each case.

The period of travel quantified is identical for all of the athletes sampled, namely October 1995 to September 1996. Hence, the aggregate days for travel commitment for training and competition in the UK and abroad is for that specified one year period. All of the athletes were given the same information with respect to athletics events on the calendar (dates and locations), and prompted by the researcher as to the dates for the National Squad training weekends (for both track and field athletes).
8.3.3: Case One: Angela Davies: Senior International Athlete

Training UK: 38 Days
Competition UK: 24 Days
Training Abroad: 4 Days
Competition Abroad: 34 Days (World Cup, Madrid, Spain and Olympic Games, Atlanta, USA)

Total Commitment: 100 Days

Angela Davies, aged 28, is a senior international athlete and represented Great Britain at the Olympic Games, Atlanta. Preparation for this major event, resulted in the majority of time being spent in competition outside of the UK (n=34 days). Angela did most of her domestic training at Loughborough where she was based, and hence did not need to travel and stay overnight, with the exception of National Squad training weekends. Her diary also included an intensive one week training programme in the UK, for which she stayed with friends and family. All of the domestic competitions attended involved travel over 20 miles and an overnight stay, either in paid accommodation or with friends and/or relatives.
8.3.4: Case Two:  Emma Merry : Intermediate International Athlete

Training UK:  31 Days
Competition UK:  20 Days
Training Abroad:  28 Days (Warm Weather in Portugal and Spain)
Competition Abroad:  2 Days

Total Commitment:  81 Days

Emma Merry, aged 21, has risen through the junior ranks and made several competitive appearances for the senior Great Britain squad in competition both in the UK and abroad. Her diary for the twelve month period was dominated by training commitments on two levels: firstly, the frequent 300 mile round trip from Loughborough to Crystal Palace and attendance at National Squad training weekends; secondly, two periods of warm weather training abroad. The first of these in December was to the Algarve, Portugal and the second in March to Club La Manga, Spain. Her competitive commitments for the year have been mostly domestic (n=20 days), and these all involved travel over 20 miles and an overnight stay, except for the international invitation match in May, which was staged at Loughborough.
8.3.5: Case Three: Alasdair Donaldson: Junior International Athlete

Training in the UK: 12 Days
Competition UK: 40 Days
Training Abroad: 14 Days (Altitude Training in Johannesburg, South Africa)
Competition Abroad 10 Days (World Junior Championships, Sydney, Australia)

Total Commitment: 76 Days

Alasdair Donaldson, aged 19, has represented Great Britain at Junior International level and narrowly missed out on qualifying for the Atlanta squad for the 800 metres. The year for Alasdair was dominated by two separate intensive sports tourism periods: the first, a two week warm weather training camp near Johannesburg, South Africa at Easter; and secondly, ten days of competition at the World Junior Championships, in August in Sydney, Australia. His coach is also based at Loughborough and therefore he did not need to travel for training, except for attendance at National Squad weekends at Crystal Palace and Oxford. His domestic competitive commitments, during the study period (n=40 days), started with cross country races in October, November and December. All of the competitions highlighted have involved travel over 20 miles and an overnight stay.
8.3.6: Case Four: Mark Richardson: Senior International Athlete

Training in the UK: 40 Days
Competition UK: 20 Days
Training Abroad: 28 Days (Warm weather training: Talahassee, USA and Jamaica)
Competition Abroad 48 Days (World Cup, Madrid and Olympics, Atlanta)

Total Commitment: 146 Days

Figure 8.4: Mark Richardson: total days involving travel for training and competition in the UK and abroad

Mark, aged 23 has represented Great Britain at 400 metres for two years and was a member of the gold medal winning relay team at the World Championships; Europa Cup winner and 3As champion. His coach is based at Loughborough, but the extremely high travel commitment for training in the UK (n=40 days) is a result of attendance at National Squad training weekends, and 400 metre squad training at Bath University. The considerable commitment identified for training abroad was made up of two warm weather trips, one to Talahassee in the USA and one to Jamaica. The number of days (n=48) committed to non-domestic competition followed a similar profile as observed for Angela Davies, with two Championship events, the World Cup in Madrid and the Olympic Games in Atlanta.
8.3.7: Case Five: Clare Raven: Intermediate International Athlete

Training in the UK: 19 Days
Competition UK: 21 Days
Training Abroad: 14 Days (Warm weather Training in La Manga, Spain)
Competition Abroad 2 Days

Total Commitment: 56 Days

Figure 8.5: Clare Raven: total days involving travel for training and competition in the UK and abroad

Claire, aged 23 has represented England and Great Britain as a junior at 200 metres and 400 metres, and immediately before the study had won her first senior international vest. She is a former English Schools 400m champion. The training commitment in the UK is almost entirely attributable to travelling from Loughborough to Crystal Palace for National Squad weekends, as with most of the other athletes interviewed. The training abroad for the year was a two week warm weather trip to Club La Manga in Spain. The commitment for domestic competition (n=21 days) was lower than expected for an athlete having just represented Great Britain at senior level, although many of the events were noted to be within travelling distance of either her parent's home or term time accommodation. The only travel commitment abroad was two days when she travelled to Zurich as a reserve for an international Grand Prix meeting.
8.3.8: Case Six: Andrew Young: Junior International Athlete

Training in the UK: 16 Days  
Competition UK: 29 Days  
Training Abroad: 14 Days (Altitude Training in Johannesburg, South Africa)  
Competition Abroad: 10 Days (World Junior Championships, Sydney, Australia)  
Total Commitment: 69 Days  

Figure 8.6: Andrew Young: total days travel for training and competition in the UK and abroad

Andrew, aged 20, is a junior international athlete, having represented Scotland at all junior age levels and Great Britain juniors. His travel commitment profile is very similar to his training partner, Alasdair Donaldson, with training abroad in South Africa, and competition abroad in Sydney for the World Junior Championships. His coach is based in Loughborough, where he does most of his training in the winter months, although he does return to his home club in Scotland. This travel combined with the fairly regular journey to Crystal Palace for national squad weekends is responsible for the 16 days travel involving an overnight stay. As with most of the junior athletes, there is a hectic schedule of domestic events throughout the summer, which often required an overnight stay.
8.4: Conclusions to the Case Study

The basic aim of this case study was through primary empirical work, to establish the level of sports-related travel and tourism generated through elite level participation in one sample sport. In summary, the athletes studied travelled extensively to facilitate their athletic success, whether it be through training and/or competition. In aggregate terms, when one considers that these elite athletes could conceivably be competing at this standard for 10-15 years, the volume of travel associated with their sport is high.

Competition on a domestic and international level is the arena in which the greatest commitment to travel in terms of frequency and duration is observed for this particular cohort of athletes. This is quantified within the time-space budget diaries, but responses from the interview shed considerable light on the nature of this commitment.

In summary, the study has highlighted:

- the extent to which elite level participation in sport generates tourism;
- the duration and frequency of travel by athletes for both training and competition;
- the behaviour patterns of those tourists involved in travel associated with elite level sport;
- the qualitative differences between travel for elite participation in sport and more traditional forms of participation.

This case study has also produced a series of further questions and opened lines for further research (detailed in Chapter Ten). The substantial level of travel and tourism, both domestic and international, which is clearly generated by this representative cohort of elite British Athletes is significant in itself, and illustrates just for one sport the significance of sport to tourism. One of the fundamental findings is the relatively low level of recognition outside the elite sports participants of the significant level of travel and tourism attributable to training both in the UK and abroad. To this has to be added the activities of less talented performers, coaches and administrators and spectators, particularly for the larger scale events.

In this research, the researcher has treated day return travel (eg. for training) as sports tourism activity in the same way as spectating at a football league match away from the home area can be conceived. This is so long as it meets the accepted time and distance requirements for day visit tourism, to be considered away from the area of residence. Even adopting the stricter view that tourism must involve an overnight
stay, the travel profiles highlighted here, evidence the large amount of travel (involving an overnight stay) that elite participation in athletics generates.

The greatest number of overnight stays are related to competition commitments in the UK and then warm weather training abroad. The largest travel commitment by the athletes is in the months of March and April, which relates to time spent at warm weather training camps. The degree of travel remains high for the period of time (April to August), which is the traditional athletics season in the UK and on the European Grand Prix circuit. The 'off-season' months of September to December show a vast decline in the travel commitment.

The days of athletics travelling ranges from 56-146 days and is clearly related to representative success. The extent of travel is such, that a certain amount of frustration was expressed by some athletes having to travel long distances frequently in order to keep in contact with their respective coaches and to attend National Squad Training. This was accepted as an integral and inevitable part of an international athletes' lifestyle. It does, however, raise issues about the quality of experience.

In addition to the volume of tourist travel generated by elite sport, which is the primary purpose of this case study, there are several other behavioural elements of interest involved in elite level sports tourism which have resulted. The motivational issues and severe pressures imposed on elite athletes by these training commitments alone are highlighted.

The key finding of the research, and one the researcher hoped to demonstrate, was the significant level of travel generated by, or resulting from, participation in elite level sport. The case study of athletics has proved a fertile area in this regard, for whilst the level of travel for competition on a domestic and international basis was expected, the volume of travel for week to week training and additionally to travel for warm weather training purposes exceeded expectations.
CHAPTER NINE
CONCLUSIONS

9.0 Introduction

9.1 The Sports Tourism Interrelationship

9.2 Linking the Case Studies

9.3 The Sports Tourism Continuum

9.5 Reflection on the Specific Aims and Objectives

9.6 Final Comments
9.0: Introduction

This chapter outlines conclusions based primarily on the empirical data generated from the four case studies. Initially, broad conclusions are drawn on the nature of the interrelationship between sport and tourism. However, the importance of the linkages between the results of the cases developed here, and the literature and secondary data sources reviewed are also highlighted. The links between the cases are then examined, with a series of indicators that have been used consistently throughout the research. A sports tourism continuum is then proposed, with specific cross references made with findings from the four empirical case studies. This, along with a typology, are put forward as suitable vehicles for conceptualising the range of sports tourism behavioural types. The specific aims and objectives of the research are reflected upon, particularly in light of the results and the conceptualisation of the interrelationship between sport and tourism.

9.1: The Sports Tourism Interrelationship

It has been evident from the literature that the interrelationship between sport and tourism has developed considerably. These developments have been gathering pace particularly over the past decade. This research has highlighted a significant volume of travel associated with sport (participation and spectating) at all levels of performance. This developing sub-element of overall tourism volume has been enhanced by a number of contemporary factors, including: increased sophistication in the market place; greater consumer expectations and improved communications technology. In a relatively short time span, this sector of sports tourism has developed from the academic and commercial interest of a few, into a significant area of academic and commercial endeavour. This empirical research has provided evidence, in both qualitative and quantitative terms, of the extent and significance of sport in generating tourism, in order to improve understanding of the volume and value of this sub-sector.

The individual consumer is now faced with an ever growing portfolio of sports tourism products, which were not available ten years ago. The development of the interrelationship between sport and tourism has, in practice, not always been matched by empirical charting and understanding. In recent years however, the nature of what Standeven and Tomlinson (1994: 3) referred to as "a deep-rooted and long term interdependency", has been increasingly examined. This proposed 'symbiosis', where "their interests are served by the protection and promotion not just of themselves but of each other" (Standeven & Tomlinson, ibid), has been shown within the literature reviewed, and research conducted, to exist on a variety of levels. This occurs from
sport becoming just one component of the tourism experience through to sport dominating tourism activity, for some people and some places.

The dual nature of this interrelationship can be explained by the realisation that tourism activity can be generated by the availability of sport (whether through spectating at an event, or participating in the activity), and also that the inverse is true. Namely, that sports participation and spectating can be attributable (sometimes solely) to engagement in some form of tourism. It is in this dimension of the interrelationship that potential sports development opportunities have been identified. Participation in sport whilst engaged in some form of tourism, is an aspect of the interrelationship which has not only sports development opportunities, but more general implications for the enhanced physical well-being/fitness of large segments of the population. This research has focused primarily on the consumption (as opposed to production) of sports tourism activities. The area of sports development, although including many production (and hence supply) dimensions, can only be truly understood within the consumer behaviour framework, outlined in Chapter Two: I. Furthermore, the three phases of consumer behaviour (as identified by Solomon, 1990) necessarily involve the purpose and rationale for participation in sport and active forms of tourism in individuals' lives (Chapter Two: II). This is particularly important for a substantial number of individuals, for whom the holiday often provides the only opportunity to engage in active pursuits (at any level of intensity). This has been evidenced as increasingly important across all ages and socio-economic groupings, and the use of tourism as a vehicle on which to promote physical activity seems a logical progression.

The concept which binds together the behavioural types manifested in sports tourism activity is that of 'lifestyle'. This has been considered as one of the central components of consumer behaviour. It is transitory in nature, and as such can be affected by a series of indicators. Lifestyle is viewed as being impacted upon by individual indicators, such as gender, ethnicity, stage in life cycle (as opposed to chronological age) and structural indicators such as trends, fashions, expectations and the wider socio-political and economic environment. If sport and tourism are conceived as elements within an individual's lifestyle, then it becomes apparent that these activities will be subject to variation, and sometimes drastic change. This is dependent firstly on the individual's 'life' situation, and secondly, the prevailing social conditions. As sport and tourism are predominately undertaken in group contexts, not as solitary activities, an individual's lifestyle is also influenced by the role of 'significant others' and group dynamics more generally.
The concept of lifestyle is clearly a complex one, constructed from a series of interrelated issues, many of which an individual has no direct control over. For example, the existence of barriers or constraints, result in sport and tourism having a de-motivating impact on individual (and group) involvement in certain activities. For others, consumption of such forms of activity (particularly more active ones) is not perceived as an important element of their identity and lifestyle, and this 'apathy' towards participation can be passed on to significant others, particularly dependents. This is a conscious decision made within their available opportunity set, and within the consumer behaviour framework. The reasons provided for such non-involvement, and apathy towards particular, or all forms of physical activity, can be as revealing about behavioural types as for those whom sport and tourism (both individually and together) are perceived as positive and sometimes a defining aspect of their current lifestyle choice.

The framework for the four case studies, evidencing (albeit inexhaustively) the proposed interrelationship between sport and tourism, was based on the existing literature on sports-related tourism. The cases were developed to generate empirical data to shed light on the inherent behavioural types, of lifestyle construction, and associated demand characteristics, with reference to sports-related tourism activity. The original suggestion of such an interrelationship in the early 1980s by Glyptis (1981) followed by an international review of the literature on sports-related tourism (Jackson & Glyptis, 1992) served to fuel interest in this area of study. The subsequent accounts of the interrelationship provided various categorisations of sports tourism (as well as a variety of labels, including 'sport tourism' and 'tourism sport'), but few were based on a comprehensive empirical data set. De Knop's work (1990, 1991), for example, provided a useful analytical framework for further study, and his later work with Standeven (1999) has progressed this area, but is not based on any significant data sets (either primary or secondary). The work carried out in the North American context by Redmond (1990, 1991) generated another framework of generic categories of sports-related tourism, but once again without empirical foundation.

The categorisation provided by Standeven and De Knop (op cit) has produced an intuitively generated series of 'labels' for various forms of sports-related tourism, both for participation and spectating. This was achieved by making a distinction between 'active' and 'passive' sports tourism. This categorisation also allowed for the consumption of sports-related tourism through spectating, and referred to 'casual observers' and 'connoisseurs', within their 'passive sport' category. The empirical case studies presented here have supported this observation, in the sense that within the levels of activity isolated from the research, a further range has been identified. The
respondents who had participated in various activities due to family responsibilities or through partnership with a spouse or other family members, could conceivably be labelled as less active than those for whom the participation or spectating was a central motive. This was also true for those who had attended the World Athletics Cup through a commitment to others.

There have been attempts made (see eg. Gibson & Yiannakis, 1990; Gibson et al, 1997 and Standeven & De Knop, 1999) to produce typological accounts of sports tourism (or the sports tourist more specifically). Certainly in the case of Standeven & De Knop, broad categorisation is evidenced in which participants and spectators of various forms of sports tourism are grouped according to some generic criteria. These types of framework attempt to characterise the field of sports tourism, without critically evaluating the 'dynamic' aspects of this behaviour. This weakness has been addressed, to some extent, by the work of Gibson et al (ibid), whereby the individual's life stage is isolated as a crucial variable in affecting the type, intensity and regularity of sports tourism behaviour. These later profiles (based on quite an extensive set of survey data in the US) are important tools in evidencing the interrelationship between sport and tourism, which is central to this research.

Within the parameters of this current research, and the unavoidable time and budget constraints, the four case studies could not be based upon the size of sample used within the majority of the secondary data surveys reviewed (although the World Athletics Cup sample of 2200 is comparable with many of the BTA/ETB national surveys). However, the aim was to bring together data based on similar indices in order to compare the cases, and draw general conclusions on the various aspects of sports-related tourism behaviour, identified within each of the cases. The review of literature, and additionally the commercial research from Leisure Consultants (1992), Mintel (1996) and Key Note (1998) have generated data (predominantly quantitative) on a variety of indices, which when amalgamated enable a typology of active holiday makers to be formed. It is this integration of empirical evidence from established organisations, alongside further specific empirical work on key sports tourism types, that constitutes the strength and value of this approach, and which can clearly add to the existing knowledge-base, which has been acknowledged to lack empirical substance.

The four areas in which the sports tourism interrelationship has been examined within the parameters of this research have been:

* the development of sports-related facilities at traditional holiday destinations (Southcoast World: Case Study);
• the role of outdoor activity provision in tourism generation (Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre: Case Study);
• the high profile and tourism-generating potential of medium-sized sports events (World Athletics Cup: Case Study);
• the tourism activity generated by high level participation (and training) in sport (Elite British Athletes: Case Study).

The patterns which have resulted from the cases in this current research can assist in addressing the anomalies, and often confused picture, presented within the tourism studies literature (Chapter Two: I). This is particularly relevant for the problems associated with the categorisation of tourists, when using activities undertaken during their stay. This is evidenced, for example, by the confusion in the application of business tourism and whether such forms of tourism activity should be included within studies of tourism and tourism statistics. The case study results illustrate that by using various activity indices, and subsequently mapping behavioural patterns, a typology of (sports) tourists can be formulated, whereby often arbitrary boundaries, such as visiting friends and relatives (VFR) and business/conference tourism, are not viewed as restrictive to the study, but embraced within such a typological framework.

Four case studies were examined in an attempt to provide a balance, between providing sufficient detail in the individual case studies and researching across a range or breadth of sports tourism behavioural styles. This approach was considered to be the most effective way, in one study, of fully reflecting the diversity of sports tourism, as well as facilitating comparisons and broader conclusions. Clearly, more detailed individual, single case, studies would provide more data on specific sports tourist types. Early in the research a continuum of activity types from the very active to non-active, and the very committed to the occasional could be identified, and these cases (although inexhaustive) could help chart this field and bring structure to it. This significant contribution ultimately became one of the key conclusions to the present study, and is discussed in detail towards the end of this chapter.

The four case studies provide empirical substance to previous typological attempts, and have produced data (quantitative and qualitative) which support these proposed categorisations of sports-related tourism. The case studies have not attempted to clarify the definition and conceptualisation problems inherent in this field of study, but instead aimed to add empirical weight to some of the claims made within the literature. Each of the cases has added evidence to the earliest categorisation provided by Glyptis (op cit), in which topical instances of sports-related tourism opportunities consumed by a variety of individuals in a range of contexts were identified.
The Butlins Southcoast World case study was chosen to increase understanding of individual patterns of behaviour at traditional holiday centres. The profile of visitors to these types of holiday centres (as evidenced in previous work by McCoy, 1991) suggested that participation in sport and active recreation, whilst a significant part of the activities on offer, would not dominate the holiday programme, but rather represents casual forms of participation rarely repeated once the holiday was over. Over one quarter of the respondents did however use their holiday period to try an activity for the first time, and perhaps more significantly over 85% of these intended to continue the activities on returning home, either on a regular or occasional basis. The results which emerged from both the questionnaires and the focus groups predominantly confirmed the initial ideas regarding casual participation, although there was a small sub-group for whom the sports activities were considered to be a significant motive for the holiday choice. The importance of selected aspects of the sports programme offered at Butlins evidenced that the social dimension of participation with friends and family (and meeting with others), was ranked far higher in terms of perceived importance than more extrinsic dimensions, such as the winning of external rewards.

Originally designed to look at sports tourists likely to exhibit more 'purposeful', and 'deliberate' activity-related tourism, the Twr-Y-Felin case study of activity holidays, provided a more diverse picture of sports tourist behaviour. The Twr-Y-Felin case study attempted not merely to gather data on the socio-economic profile of such individuals, but rather to produce a profile in which the activities undertaken were paralleled with other tourism activity, and pre and post holiday consumption of their chosen activities. This case study therefore, included similar indices to the secondary data reports reviewed, but the aim was not to measure this particular niche of the sports tourism related sub-sector, but instead to shed light on the behaviour of individuals embarking on activity holidays.

The results, already described, confirm many of the findings from other diverse tourism and sport surveys, including the most recent reports (some published after the fieldwork for the cases had been conducted). For example, the domination of the activity profile by walking and swimming, as well as the identified patterns relating the indicators of age and socio-economic profile to both spectating and participation in the chosen activities, were reinforced within this present research. In the Twr-Y-Felin 'on-street' sample, 67% of the sample (n=168) participated in swimming during their stay in the area, and 51% (n=128) in walking. This is of value in itself, but the use of specific categories for the various activities, consistent throughout the cases (with respect to the parameters of frequency, duration, intensity, and group composition), made the results particularly valuable. Finally, the linking of such activity profiles to
future decision-making and hence future consumption patterns of various types of
holidays, was an area neglected within the previous studies, but one included as a
primary element of the empirical case studies for this research.

The third case study on event-based spectating tourism, using the World Athletics Cup
at Crystal Palace, as a sample 'medium sized' event, was adopted within this research
framework primarily because it exemplified the existence of clusters of sports
spectating behaviour types. This also provided an exciting opportunity to test
empirically some of the observations made about event tourism behaviour and its
resulting economics, and the fact that very few studies in this country have ever looked
in detail at the composition of event sports tourists and their behaviour. Data on
medium scale events was rare more generally. This was considered to be one of the
most valuable sub-studies within the research and has clear potential to be developed
further. The World Athletics Cup research represented a somewhat different case study
in its deliberate examination of spectating, as opposed to participation, which consumed
the other three cases.

The case study of the World Athletics Cup sought to produce results from a large data
set on the role of medium-sized events in the generating of tourism activity. In addition,
this particular case aimed to examine the behaviour of individuals at such an event,
including their expenditure patterns and other participation and spectating patterns
before and after the event. Nearly 75% of the sample (n=1688) were found to visit
sporting events either 'very regularly' (monthly or more often) or 'regularly' (a few
times a year). The existing literature reviewed clearly identified a concentration on
larger events (see eg. Getz, 1987; Hall, 1989, 1994a, 1994b; and Ritchie, 1984), and
particularly the economic and political impacts (negative and positive) of bidding for,
and staging them. Those studies which were based on small and medium-sized events
(see eg. Baade, 1996; Cheema, 1996 and Sack, 1996) tended to concentrate solely on
the expenditure associated with such events, using various economic impact indicators.
These studies aimed primarily to pilot these methods, rather than to generate empirical
data on event-based tourism.

The World Athletics Cup generated some useful economic data, outlining the direct and
indirect levels of expenditure at the event, by residents and non-residents alike (which
is a useful comparative study to the one undertaken by Train on the Europa Cup in
1994). The average spend for non-residents was £57.96 and for residents, this figure
was calculated to be £33.44. This can be compared to the results which emanated from
the recent studies of Shibli and Gratton (1998), reviewed in Chapter Two: V. They
calculated for the Sheffield Grand Prix Athletics event that the overnight visitor had a total expenditure of £41.64 (while the day visitor spent £9.02 on average).

The most influential aspect of this particular case however, was the behavioural profile generated from the data, once again integrating the three phases of pre, during and post-event participation and spectating patterns. Spectating at sports events was found to be proportionately higher for the older age cohort within the World Athletics Cup case study. For example, 40% (n=182) of the 45-54 age cohort attended events 'very frequently', compared to only 23% (n=99) of the 17-24 cohort. Such analysis was generally lacking in the previous studies reviewed, and so this added value and enhanced understanding of the nature of sports spectating as a vital element of the sports tourism interrelationship.

The case study of elite British athletes indicated the significance of travel generated by contemporary sports involvement at an elite level in athletics, although clearly this type of study could be applied to virtually any sport.

"This year I went to Lanzarote for a week at the end of February. I then went to Jamaica for a week in March. I have also been to Portugal, America and Spain". (Mark Richardson: Elite Athlete).

The interview data evidenced that an enormous time commitment and expenditure was generated purely by sports driven travel flows, both in the UK and abroad, as a result of elite level participation. The maximum travel commitment was 146 days in the calendar year studied, and this was attributable to one of the senior athletes, while 56 days was the minimum by an athlete within the study. For just training and competition outside of the UK, the commitment still remains considerable. One of the senior athletes spent a total of 76 days in the year travelling abroad, and the fewest days committed was still 16 by one of the junior athletes. In terms of the behavioural element of the study, amongst the more revealing results was the element of 'reluctant tourism', mentioned previously, which is involved in some of their activity, and the unusually constrained nature of this tourism behaviour. The study clearly evidenced the sheer volume of tourism activity generated in this one sport at an elite level, from participation (let alone spectating), which if multiplied across the range of other sports activities would provide support for some of the significant volume estimates for sports-related tourism (see Chapter One & Chapter Two: Section III).

This section has provided a critical appraisal of the ways in which the four empirical case studies have, both individually and combined, added value to the literature in the
field (including secondary data sources) and the extent to which the identified gaps and weaknesses have been addressed through this research. The work of Eisenhardt (1989), Stake (1994) and Yin (1993) has confirmed the importance of establishing linkages back to the reviewed literature (and any existing secondary data sources), to the effective building of theory through case study research. This is an essential part of the iterative process of such inductive research, and acts as an important foundation for the linkages (and salient relationships) between the cases, which is now discussed.

9.2: Linking the Case Studies

As Eisenhardt (1992) suggested, the effectiveness of building theory through case study research is measured by the ability of the researcher to isolate and explain the links between the cases. Each case was chosen to elucidate behavioural patterns, so differences were expected in terms of the value attributed to sport in the generation of tourism activity and the types of activity generated. The cases chosen, although having unique characteristics, which have been discussed, exhibited many important linking similarities and it is within this integrated analysis of the cases, that the strength of this methodological approach lies. In discussing the use of case studies generally, Bryman (1991: 38) suggests that the aim is "not to infer findings from a sample to a population but to engender patterns and linkages of theoretical importance".

The key for the development of this study lay not only in reporting the detail of each case study, but also in honing the analysis from the four cases. This would highlight these linkages and thus produce, or assist in producing, a more comprehensive understanding of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, and the leisure/tourism behaviour it generates, in increasing volumes.

9.2.1: The Decision-Making Process

This indicator was considered to be a vital component in the research design for the case studies, in order to facilitate an enhanced understanding of the interrelationship between sport and tourism. The literature concerning the motivations of tourists (Chapter Two: Section I) has been found to be relatively well developed, with particular emphasis on this dimension of the holiday decision-making process, and what constitutes an important part of an individual's or family's opportunity set.

Many of the studies examining activities undertaken by tourists (see eg. Cooper, 1981; Greenwood et al, 1989) have listed the activities undertaken, often in order of frequency. Other studies conducted (see eg. Raaij and Franckcn, 1984) have
highlighted the importance of various factors in the holiday decision-making process, but few (if any) have attempted to combine these two areas. The Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin cases, both emphasise the pre-holiday, holiday and post-holiday consumption phases, and the research design sought to elicit data which focused on the integration between these three phases. Within the Southcoast study it became evident that the pre-holiday decision-making phase was one dominated by the notion of previous experience, in that 43% of the respondents had visited a Butlins Holiday World before.

The closed response questionnaires used within this research design were able to tackle the disparate component of decision-making for holidays. As a complex and multi-faceted process however, qualitative data (examining the dynamic in detail) was also necessary. The importance of sport, whether it be through built facilities, or provision of opportunities within a given holiday type, is directly related to the profile of activities engaged in prior to and after the holiday experience. This process, therefore is a significant indicator of sports-related tourism, and one of the determining factors in activity behaviour types. It also focuses on the importance attached to facilitating active participation, and providing opportunities to overcome the existing (and latent) barriers and constraints to participation. This is particularly crucial in the early stages of the consumption process. The four empirical case studies emphasised the full range of inputs within the decision-making process from sporting activities having absolutely no impact, through to the total determination of the holiday choice (including holiday type, destination, accommodation, duration etc).

As evidenced within the elite athletes case, the decision to travel for competition and training was frequently made by other parties, on their behalf. In the other cases, autonomy in decision-making varied within and between the samples. This was illustrated in the Southcoast World study by the issue of joint or individual responsibility for the holiday decision. The importance of the variable of sex, should also be taken into account, particularly with respect to the sharing (or otherwise) of the holiday decision. Within the Southcoast World study, males certainly took more overall responsibility for the final decision, although a considerable amount of decisions made by respondents were done so jointly. The fact that many of the sports opportunities available at the centre would be utilised by others within the family unit, who took no part in the decision to choose Butlins, emphasises the differentiation between 'customer' and 'consumer' made in Chapter Two: I.

This brings into focus the importance of the detachment from this process of certain individuals, who may have an indirect influence on the decision, but not through direct
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negotiation. The consumer behaviour literature (see eg. Engel et al., 1990; Foxall, 1995; Solomon, 1999) acknowledges the significance of consumers (the best example of which is dependent children) who benefit from the consumption of a product or service, but take no active part in the decision to buy, or the purchase itself. They remain passive through the first stage of decision-making, and have little if any bearing on the final phase of post-purchase reflection, and the decision whether to repeat the experience, or not. It was not within the remit of this research to examine the interrelationship from the children's perspective, as consumers. The indicator of the decision-making process does highlight however, their relevance to sports related tourism patterns. It can be evidenced from the findings, both within and between the cases, that the pattern of decision-making is closely related to behavioural types.

Within the World Athletics Cup case study, there was a clear profile of individuals committed to travelling to spectate at such events (the connoisseur observer or dedicated spectator). Equally there were a significant number who did not include spectating at sports events as an important part of the decision-making process, but considered such events as an enjoyable component, if the location and timing coincided with their other travel desires.

All the cases highlighted the importance (or otherwise) of the availability of sport, whether through participation or spectating, to the holiday decision-making process. The cases illustrated a variety of responses to this, with the Southcoast World case suggesting that the provision of sports facilities at Butlins was not a particularly important part of the decision to choose this holiday type. Instead, the most important attributable factor, was previous visits taken to a Butlins Holiday World. For the Twr-Y-Felin case, there was a far greater importance placed on the availability of outdoor pursuits, as a main determinant of the respondents' choice of Pembrokeshire as a holiday destination. Nearly 75% of the respondents (n=167) expressed this type of provision as the most important factor within their decision-making process. Only 25% (n=65) assessed its importance as 'insignificant'. Age, however proved to be an intervening variable, with the significance being rated higher among the younger cohorts. This pattern is the obverse of that found within the Southcoast World study. The main purpose of the trip to London was unequivocally the World Athletics Cup, although these factors were not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The holiday experience recorded at Twr-Y-Felin (expressed through the on-street and postal questionnaires) was directly related to the availability of outdoor activities as the main purpose. These expectations were mostly satisfied, as indicated by the positive response to the likelihood of a return visit to Pembrokeshire as an area, and Twr-Y-
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Felin, more specifically. For the elite athletes, the decision to visit certain destinations (both domestic and international) were made, in the main, by others. The competition venues were obviously pre-determined by the various Governing Bodies, and the training venues were often decided upon by the athlete's coach. In the latter case, the criteria used were: standard of the facility; food; accommodation; and (most importantly for international destinations), climate. The availability of such provision was clearly a determining factor in the successful engagement in the activities, but on this occasion the individual often had limited direct control over the decision-making process.

9.2.2: Reasons For Non-Participation and Non-Continuation in Activities

The central indicator of participation in activities whilst on holiday, as well as regularity of participation on returning home (prior and post holiday participation patterns), is discussed in section 9.4, when the specific aims and objectives of the research are reviewed. The interrelationship between sport and tourism is characterised by the reciprocal process of participation (or spectating) in sporting activity which generates tourism activity, or alternatively sports activity at a range of levels and intensities, arising through involvement in some form of tourism activity. The discrepancy however, between intention to participate and actual participation patterns is vital in our understanding of the interrelationship. (No parallel empirical research has sought to investigate this 'reality' gap as far as spectating profiles are concerned).

"I must admit I had all the great ideas of taking advantage of the facilities, both indoors and outdoors, and in ten days all I've managed is a couple of frames of snooker with a guy I met on the first day". (Mark: Southcoast World Focus Group).

This 'gap' is often most clearly demonstrated by the perceived importance attached to the availability of facilities for sporting opportunity whilst on holiday, and hence a vital component within the decision-making process (discussed in section 9.2.1), and the actual participation patterns which are found to exist when on holiday. This is also the same for intention to continue the activities after the holiday experience has been consumed.

The empirical evidence has highlighted many of the reasons provided for non-participation and non-continuation, even for those individuals whose intention to participate at the outset was extremely high. It is important to note that the barriers to participation during a holiday and continuation following it, are not necessarily unique to the tourism setting, but are often typical of general barriers or constraints to leisure
(and specifically sports participation) which have been reported elsewhere (See eg. Kay & Jackson, 1988; Jackson et al., 1992). Particular to the holiday experience however, is the disposable time available for participation; and availability of facilities often in close proximity. This reflects the findings of the recent empirical work of Gibson et al (1998) on profiling the active sports tourist.

Many reasons therefore, were given by respondents through all of the cases for non-participation in activities. This was also seen to be true for those individuals who had high prior expectations of participation whilst on holiday. These reasons followed a similar pattern however. For example, the time and energy commitment required by some individuals for child care responsibility and supervision was commonly used as a reason for non-participation. For many individuals (as evidenced by the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin cases), the need for relaxation during a holiday and participation in any form of physical activity, was not perceived as synonymous, but sometimes directly conflicting. Often, other forms of more passive entertainment were adopted instead.

Work and family commitments were frequently given as reasons for non-continuation in activities on return home.

"I think I go back home after every holiday and make New Years resolutions. But I don't think I'll be playing football or going swimming or any activity when I get back, except an odd kick about in the back garden with my children, if I'm not too tired after work". (Pete: Southcoast World Focus Group)

For the elite athletes, the fear of injury and commitment to their 'work' was put forward as a main reason for non-participation and continuation in activities, other than those related specifically to their athletic discipline.

"I tend not to play other sports as I'm usually too tired after my athletics training. There is also the risk of injury. I do a bit of swimming, but really when I'm away I believe I'm there specifically to train". (Angela Davies: Elite Athlete Case Study).

Due to the nature of their athletic involvement, many of the athletes welcomed any opportunity to engage in non-sport activity, in order to relieve the boredom which was associated with both training and spare time outside of competition and training. A further constraint was found to be the lack of availability of other people to take part
with in chosen activities once home. The holiday destination was often perceived as having a critical mass of people to play team games with, and appropriate facilities within a defined geographical area, hence making the activity relatively easy to organise.

An interesting pattern to have emerged from the World Athletics Cup case study, was that relatively little participation was undertaken in the sports watched, and this was especially the case for the older age cohorts. Only 9% (n=36) of the over 55 age cohort 'regularly' participated in the sport(s) they chose to spectate, compared to 67% (n=72) of the under 16 age group, and 38% of the 17-24 cohort. This trend is consistent with the work undertaken on fandom, and related aspects of spectator behaviour (see Burca et al, 1996), in which vicarious consumption is evidenced. The spectating role, in some ways, compensates for non-participation in the same or similar sports.

9.2.3: Group Composition

The sport and tourism-related secondary data sources analysed do not contain categories which elicit data on the composition of groups in which individuals are participating. Group composition is an important characteristic within tourism profiles, and patterns within sports participation, especially sports-related tourism. The nature of the tourism experience, which is frequently a group endeavour, means that it is vital for an effective study of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, to trace the context in which the participation (or non-participation) is occurring.

All of the empirical case studies elicited data on the structure of groups, in terms of the tourism profile, and the importance (if any) of participation patterns, including regularity and intensity. The established links between the social dimension of sporting activity and holiday satisfaction, as well as continuation (or non-continuation) at home, are important in highlighting the exact nature of the proposed interrelationship. This is particularly important when one considers that much of the motivation literature (for both sport and tourism) has indicated the social dimension as one of the most crucial elements in determining overall satisfaction levels. From the Twr-Y-Felin study, 69% of the participation in chosen activities was undertaken 'with others'. Of this total, 55% (n=120) involved participation with family members.

A similar pattern has been observed within the activity holiday market. The importance of group composition is dependent upon the type of activities undertaken. For example, the elite athletes and many of the respondents within the Twr-Y-Felin 'postal' and 'on street' questionnaires, exhibited a solitary and highly individualistic pattern of
participation, due to the demand and nature of their chosen activity. The Southcoast World study however, illustrated that for those who participated regularly in on-site activities, the social dimension was crucial, in terms of enjoyment and the feasibility of the sports being undertaken.

The responsibility to others within the group has been discussed, and as the composition of the groups within the Southcoast World, Twr-Y-Felin and World Athletics Cup cases were all predominantly family and friends (certainly within the first two), participation and spectating was engaged in out of a sense of duty and responsibility to others. This was an important indicator within the research, not just in terms of the composition of the holiday party, but also the nature of the activities undertaken, either accentuating the social dimension, or involving solitary participation. Across the cases, a link was identified between the composition of the group taking the specified holiday and the type, regularity and intensity of the activity undertaken, whilst away on holiday. The issue of 'reluctant spectating' which has been alluded to already, has been mirrored with regards to participation profiles within some other group structures. In the Southcoast World case, for a significant number of the individuals, any activity undertaken was done so as part of their child care responsibilities, and/or to keep their spouse or partner happy. This represents another example of reluctant sports tourism, and is also reflected to some extent in spectating. The World Athletics Cup was not primarily spectated by individuals on their own, but rather with others. Almost 45% of the sample (n=986) attended the event with family members (very similar to the participation profile in the Twr-Y-Felin case for chosen activities), and 38% (n=842) attended with friends.

A further behavioural characteristic identified, was the watching of others (mainly those within the individual's direct holiday group) participate in their chosen activities. This was perceived as an important part of the holiday experience and subsequent level of enjoyment.

"I walk around the camp watching other people playing various sports and that tires me out. It's nice to see that activity happening though and it is part of being here." (Pete: Southcoast World Focus Group)

The Twr-Y-Felin and the elite athletes cases both included references to a considerable level of solitary activity whilst away. In the former, many of the outdoor activities were solitary and individualistic by nature (31% of the sample engaged in activities whilst away on their own), and could not be undertaken with others, even if the individual had not travelled to Pembrokeshire alone. There is somewhat of an anomaly however, in
that companionship and the social dimension were ranked highly in terms of perceived importance to the holiday choice, but this related most probably to the pre and post activity aspects of the holiday, which could have been elicited using a focus group or in-depth interview method. For the elite athletes however, the training regimes and competition commitments, were often not enjoyable, and meant that they were participating on their own, with only remote guidance from their coach. It should be noted that the elite athletes also enjoyed a high proportion of their training time (particularly, but not exclusively within the UK) with others, in a team situation. The national training weekends are a good example of this group activity.

9.2.4: Sport and Tourism Lifestyle

The established sport and tourism profiles of individuals within the empirical case studies, through characteristics, such as age, sex, socio-economic class, and stage in the family life cycle, are vital in understanding the pivotal role of the sports tourism interrelationship. The integration of tourism profiles with other variables within this study, particularly group composition, decision-making processes, expenditure patterns and non-participation and non-continuation of activities, is also important in developing an enhanced understanding of the interrelationship between sport and tourism. This in turn helps the process of constructing a lifestyle, incorporating a range of behaviours over time, and in different contexts.

All of the cases included the indices which together constituted a general (sports) tourism profile of the respondents. These included the gathering of information on other holiday types taken, destination choices and short trips. The pattern which clearly emerged was one of similarity and continuity. Those individuals who engaged in holidays with a significant activity component, would also carry out activities whilst taking other holidays (and day trips) throughout the year. This was found to be true even if the participation or spectating of the specific sports was not the main determinant of the holiday choice.

The elite athletes provided an interesting alternative view, in that their work commitments (ie. activity in terms of training and competing in track and field athletics) could not be differentiated from other holidays taken (domestically and internationally), because often they were one and the same. Any other holidays taken by the athletes usually involved no athletics-specific training, but due to their high level of fitness, nearly always involved some form of activity (providing it did not pose an injury risk or did not adversely affect their training following the holiday).
"If there are any facilities there to do sports, then I would have to try them. It is like a drug to me. I have to keep active at all times". (Paul Hibbert: Elite Athlete).

In the main, self-catered accommodation was favoured by the athletes (despite not always having autonomy over the decision-making process) because of the freedom this allowed in terms of eating around training and competition regimes. Many of the athletes attempted to indulge (wherever possible, and acceptable to coaches/team managers) in 'typical' tourist endeavours, such as eating out, socialising, sun bathing and sightseeing. Once again, this profile was considered as secondary to the primary purpose of the trip, namely training and/or competition in athletics at an international level. A smaller number of the athletes (and primarily the junior and intermediate level athletes) considered sightseeing, and participation in cultural visits as ideal opportunities, too good to be missed, particularly when competing or training in traditionally scenic international tourist destinations (eg. Sydney, for the World Junior Athletics Championships, or Johannesburg for warm weather training).

Many of the other holidays taken by the athletes were largely determined by their commitment to athletics. Disposable time and money, (particularly for those athletes who were not receiving any forms of funding), were therefore constraints to constructing an otherwise typical tourism profile. This also explained the lack of short breaks taken by the athletes, which included spectating at sports events (not just athletics), because time was considered to be short, dominated by competition in the summer and training in the winter months.

A significant number from the World Athletics Cup sample reported that their general holiday profile regularly included spectating at events of all sizes, either on a domestic or international level. Furthermore, for a significant number of the respondents, the pre-event arrangement for attendance at the World Athletics Cup closely resembled any other non sport-based tourism activity, as exemplified by the extensive use of professional outside agencies.

9.2.5: Levels of Associated Expenditure

Determining the significance of sports tourism, in terms of economic value and volume, was one of the specific objectives within this current study. The only empirical case study within this research, to explicitly gain data on associated levels of expenditure, in terms of spending patterns from residents and non-residents, was the World Athletics Cup. The other cases, however, included implications for associated expenditure
patterns, and particularly alluded to future potential in this area. It is important to emphasise the direct nature of such expenditure. Within the other cases, although such levels of expense were clearly incurred by many of the respondents, the exact amount was difficult to quantify. Within the Twr-Y-Felin case study for example, the costs associated with the specialised kit and equipment for such outdoor activities are extremely high, as indeed is the hiring of equipment and/or tuition required for many of the water-based and dangerous pursuits. This was not quantified within the study framework, but would constitute an important further area of research (Chapter Ten), especially in tandem with the findings of Gibson et al (1998). The study of elite athletes identified a high level of domestic and international travel, with obvious associated levels of expenditure (both direct and indirect). A quantification of this would have supported the other cases.

The Twr-Y-Felin case emphasised that for many respondents, activity breaks constituted their main annual holiday, as well as dominating the profile of other short and long trips engaged in each year. This sports-related tourism activity, although difficult to accurately measure, does infer a significant economic as well as tourism contribution. This was an important strand to have become evident throughout the cases, but was highlighted most overtly within the World Athletics Cup study. The direct and indirect expenditure patterns for respondents and non-respondents have been outlined previously. Over 60% of the sample paid to stay in commercial accommodation for at least one evening. The costs associated with travel (particularly internationally), as exemplified by the Grand Prix circuit, are considerable when the travel, ticket price accommodation, food and drink, and souvenirs costs are aggregated.

9.3: The Sports Tourism Continuum

The concept of the sports tourism continuum may be constructed in order to provide a coherent and integrated framework in which to evidence the sports tourism interrelationship. The notion of a continuum, along which groupings (or types) of sports tourism behaviour are placed, can be conceived of as an extension of the profile building and typological accounts outlined in section 9.1. The literature on the motivation for tourism and sport separately has informed this research in that the rationale for involvement is largely contingent upon a series of personal and societal factors, and perhaps more significantly to be activity-specific and context specific. The role of the proposed continuum, therefore, is to embrace such dynamism (as far as any model allows), and to chart and simplify this otherwise impossibly complex field, in order to enable broad scale analysis and 'guide' further more focused research.
The sports tourism continuum (Figure 9.1), although illustrating static snapshots at which certain behavioural characteristics can be located, does allow for individuals to be dynamic (over time and space) and move backwards and forwards through the continuum. In an attempt to evidence the interrelationship between sport and tourism, this continuum facilitates enhanced understanding of the range of types of sports tourism behaviours (as shown within and between the four empirical case studies). Within this research framework, based on a series of interrelated case studies, it has not been possible to adopt a longitudinal approach. This would track the dynamic movement of individuals across the broad range of types identified within the continuum, and has been referred to in Chapter Ten, as an area of further research. The strength of the approach, however, remains the fact that this is an attempt to empirically evidence the interrelationship, and the characteristics which exist within individuals at the main points identified on the continuum. It is these behavioural types, located on the continuum, that will now be discussed.

**Figure 9.1: The Sports Tourism Continuum**

A criticism of this proposed continuum is that it is only one dimensional and, as such, does not possess the necessary analytical detail to make accurate dynamic inferences of individual behaviour. This could possibly be achieved through the development of a more complex two or three dimensional model using cluster or factor analysis. However, this conceptualisation is considered to have sufficient detail and breadth through the empirical material generated, to test and support previous observations about the field of sports-related tourism, and make some additional observations and recommendations on where further work can be applied.
9.3.1: The 'Incidental' Sports Tourist

The first point, at one extreme of the sports tourism continuum has been labelled 'incidental', and relates to behavioural characteristics found most commonly in respondents sampled in the Southcoast World study.

"I watch others doing things and read my paper: that suits me. My girlfriend is more active and has gone to a couple of aqua aerobics sessions organised by the camp, but these are not my idea of a holiday really". (Tony: Southcoast World Focus Group).

The lack of importance attached to the sporting dimension dominates this profile, especially in the planning stages of the tourism activity. This lack of commitment to physical activity, is not rare within usual sports participation profiles, and so this would be expected to be translated to some extent within tourism profiles. In some ways, this group becomes one of the most interesting to study, since when facilities and opportunities for sport are provided in a holiday setting, they are utilised, to varying extents.

However, for those individuals within this 'incidental' category, the availability of sporting opportunities and facilities does not constitute a key component of the holiday decision-making process. This relates to both spectating and participating, whereby the individual will be motivated to be involved casually for novelty only, with little or no chance of repeating the experience. Holidays are taken for a variety of other purposes, but a surprising proportion of these tourist types become active whilst on holiday, where this is far more unusual at home. This individual usually becomes involved out of duty to dependents, family members or friends, or because of the carefree nature of holidays, particularly beach activities, which are somehow separated from home life and associated self-images. This fact was illustrated on numerous occasions throughout the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin studies, in which the activities of swimming and walking, were undertaken exclusively as an integral part of an individual's responsibilities to dependent children. For example, in the focus group discussions within the Southcoast World study, Stuart remarked that:

"I do more than I probably realise, because I'm always playing with the kids or in the pool with them, but none of that is my own time and not really organised. It just happens when you have to look after the young ones."
This was mirrored, to a lesser extent, within the World Athletics Cup case study, whereby some of the adult respondents were attending the event purely because one or more of their children wanted to spectate, and it was not considered appropriate to allow them to come on their own, or only with friends. This may be labelled as 'incidental spectating' in which the main purpose of the visit is related to someone else's activity patterns. 'Incidental' event spectators were drawn because of the desire of others to attend the events. Examples included parents attending because children wanted to attend, or family members travelling to the event and attending with more dedicated sports tourists.

In terms of individuals participating casually on one-off occasions, the pioneering work of Jackson and Glyptis (1992: 10) suggested that there are enormous opportunities for translating such "brief flirtations" with a sport, into more sustained levels of participation and that this provides opportunities for the growing sports development process (Chapter Two: II).

The Southcoast World study emphasised that some respondents used the holiday as an opportunity to take part in an activity for the first time, with little likelihood of this activity being continued once home. This was referred to extensively within the focus group discussions. For example, Pete commented:

"Work and family mean that any spare time I get is spent in the garden or down the DIY place. I would love to go and join a five-a-side league down the local leisure centre, particularly after having played a fair bit here, but it never seems to happen. Maybe I will this time".

This example, which is indicative of others is perhaps more towards the 'sporadic' sector of the continuum than the previous example, but remains 'incidental'. It does illustrate however how there are differences even within these categories on the continuum. The incidental sports tourist category is an extremely diverse one, and hence difficult to measure. Participation in activities (especially those at a low intensity) whilst on holiday are often problematic to include within an analysis, but they nevertheless represent forms of active tourism, albeit at its weakest.

9.3.2: The 'Sporadic' Sports Tourist

The next major point identified on the continuum, labelled 'sporadic', has a number of differentiating characteristics from the above. For example, the concept of opportunistic participation (or spectating) is vital to appreciating the nature and scope of this category of sports tourist. For sporadic sports tourists, although their main holiday each year...
will not be centred around sport, they will participate, and in addition may have day trips and/or short break holidays throughout the year, involving some kind of 'flirtation' with sporting activity. Their participation is 'sporadic', but more pre-planned than 'incidental'. The concept of 'opportunism', in which the provision for participation or spectating during a holiday, would be perceived by the individual as an ideal opportunity. Such provision did not motivate the individual exclusively to choose the holiday, but nevertheless may have had considerable impact on activities undertaken during, and sometimes after the holiday. The participation in sport at whatever level therefore, must not be ignored in terms of its impact on the overall holiday experience, or indeed likelihood of return visit, and future participation (or spectating) in the chosen sport.

The original academic interest in the area of sports related tourism (reviewed in Chapter One and Chapter Two: III) was based upon this notion of a considerable level of brief and sporadic participation in sport whilst on holiday, which is not repeated at home. As such, this category on the continuum is an important one in understanding the initial behavioural shift which may be required to develop such activity, at least to an 'occasional' level. This may be equated to the shift from the 'Foundation' level to 'Participation' level within the sports development continuum (Chapter Two: II).

A further characteristic of 'sporadic' participants (and spectators) is the fickle and highly fragile nature of their demand for sports-related tourism products. Due to the lack of commitment also evidenced within the 'incidental' category, and the largely unimportant part sport plays within the holiday decision-making process, take-up of sporting opportunities, and continuation, is uncertain. The profile is one dominated by a low boredom threshold, and a preference for other non-sport opportunities made available at the same time. It would also appear, certainly from evidence reported from the focus group discussions in the Southcoast World study, that participation in groups, and the associated social dimension, is an important motivator for individuals falling within the 'sporadic' category of behaviour.

An illustration of this fragility in demand for spectating behaviour, can be provided by the World Athletics Cup study. Although the majority of the sample had attended sports events regularly, particularly athletics-specific events, there were also a significant number who were attending an athletics event for the first time, using the fact that a prestigious event was being staged in London as an ideal opportunity. For this cohort, the poor perception of the facility and organisation of the event (which has been detailed in Chapter Seven) could have provided a sufficiently negative impact, so as to curtail...
any future attendance at such events. The significance of constraints, particularly for extreme 'sporadic' consumers, should not be ignored in trying to build support for sporting activities and spectating.

9.3.3: The 'Occasional' Sports Tourist

The terms 'occasional' and 'sporadic' have both been used quite extensively within the available literature on sports-related tourism (see Chapter Two: Section III), and are often used interchangeably. This research contends, however, that the two are not necessarily one and the same, and indeed several determining characteristics of this behavioural profile do in fact differentiate these two points on the proposed continuum. One of the main dimensions related to the differences evident, is the decision-making process (Section 9.2.1).

The 'occasional' sports tourist will occasionally undertake a sports-oriented holiday, but other significant activities will also be regarded as important elements of the decision-making process and subsequent holiday experience. Sport may be engaged in regularly during holidays or trips taken for other reasons. Equally, the 'occasional' sports tourist may, at the more 'committed' end of this spectrum, take trips which are oriented almost totally to a sports activity, but will not do this with the regularity which would take him or her into the next category.

This individual would most likely be interested and motivated to spectate at one, or a limited number of sports. In addition to this, the hosting of a significant event, within their holiday destination region, although not proving to be the main purpose of the trip, would be considered as an opportunity not to be missed, and perceived as an integral part of the holiday experience and hence enjoyment. Once again, as with the sporadic sports tourist the concept of opportunism is a crucial one in their tourism behaviour. The availability of sports-specific facilities, for example golf, may not have necessarily dominated, or have been involved in the opportunity set for the holiday destination choice, but still are taken advantage of on occasions, sometimes on just a one-off basis.

"I remember as a kid playing in the soccer skills camp run by a Tottenham Player and hadn't been back since. My mates kept telling me how much they (the camps) have changes during the years, so I wanted to find out for myself". (Stuart: Southcoast World Focus Group).
This category tends to evidence more on-going commitment to sports-related tourism activity, than the sporadic participant. Although constraints to participation would prove restrictive to this group, as the active behaviour is by no means inculcated in their tourism profile, and many other forms of tourism activity are also undertaken. As with broader leisure constraints work (See eg. Kay & Jackson, 1989; Jackson et al., 1992) it is found that the less regular the participation, the more likely barriers to participation will prevent the activity. This point on the continuum would typically see individuals having a wide portfolio of sport and tourism experience, but not necessarily at the same time. This reinforces the fact that the continuum could be conceived of as dynamic, in that any individual can move along the continuum according to time and life situation. The variable of lifestyle is isolated within the consumer research to be most significant, certainly in terms of winter sports and the broader activity holiday market (Mintel 1997 & 1998).

Within the Twr-Y-Felin study, a significant identifiable sub-group within the respondents were 'occasional' activity holiday takers, who only occasionally participated at home in the sports offered by the centre. For some of these, the activity was not the dominant concern of the holiday, but they nevertheless took up these opportunities so that it became a key element of the holiday. Such people would always be likely to act in this way on holidays where the opportunity arises. The variable of age was once again found to be significant. Only 20% of the youngest cohort were not intending to continue their chosen activities on returning home, compared to more than 70% of the over 55 age cohort.

9.3.4: The 'Regular' Sports Tourist

Another major stage identified along the continuum, which falls between the occasional and the dedicated sports tourist, may be labelled 'regular' sports tourist. Considerable evidence was accumulated within the empirical case studies for this behavioural type. Within the Twr-Y-Felin study, the most active (in terms of regularity) were the 25-44 age group, male and in the higher socio-economic groupings. This result reflects the data on participation patterns in sport generally, and activity holidays more specifically, reviewed in Chapter Three.

This individual undertakes holidays and trips on a more regular basis, in which the sport component dominates the decision and the activity profile whilst away. However, other, unrelated activities would also be carried out whilst on holiday, and so the balance has changed between these activity types, in comparison with the 'occasional'
participant. As a direct comparison to the respondents within the Southcoast World study, those questioned within the Twr-Y-Felin 'on-street' questionnaire were regular participants, and in fact only 10% of the sample were engaging in their chosen activity for the first time. Furthermore, nearly half of the sample were positive that the activities would be continued on their return home, although this was found to diminish with age. Nearly 70% of the sample (n=138) participated in their chosen activity at home either 'regularly' or 'very regularly'. This is a vital aspect of holiday choice, and the cycle which results is one of the availability of sports opportunities maintaining its perceived importance within the opportunity sets, and the decision-making process.

The commitment shown by individuals to their particular sport, or sport in general, at this point of the proposed continuum, is likely to be sufficient to withstand most changes in life situation and other holiday types increasing in broad appeal. Regular sports tourists maintain an open-minded approach to the importance sports-related tourism activity has within their overall lifestyle, but it tends to impinge regularly on the tourism decision process. The issue of disposable time and money may constrain such patterns of participation, but not as much as at earlier stages on the continuum. Regular spectating at sports events would continue until the point at which travel and associated costs became prohibitive. This point would probably be reached somewhat earlier, than with those individuals following events in a 'dedicated' manner, both domestically and internationally.

Within the World Athletics case, regular (largely domestic) attendance was evidenced by the fact that over 300 of the respondents (12% of the sample) attended the other Grand Prix circuit athletics meetings, prior to the one-off Crystal Palace event. This case found spectators at varying levels of regularity and 'fidelity' (i.e. longevity in this type of activity), who attend either athletics, or a variety of other high profile events, that are of interest on a regular basis. This suggests a regularity of participation by a significant number within this sample; a smaller percentage of whom then attended the Grand Prix circuit (and other events, including the Commonwealth Games in Canada). This latter pattern of spectating would more readily be included within the 'dedicated' sports tourism category.

9.3.5: The 'Dedicated' Sports Tourist

These individuals take holidays which may be perceived as sports-related on a more regular basis, to the extent that most of their tourism behaviour is dedicated to one or a number of sports. Participation for this individual is usually in one dedicated sporting
activity which is considered to constitute the main purpose of the main holiday or trip, and the destination choice. This individual (spectator or participant) has a propensity to travel widely, either domestically or abroad, and tends to spectate at events of all sizes. This individual may be dedicated to one sport or may spectate at several. The large scale events would include multi-sports events such as the Olympic Games, as well as the single sport events, including the Football, Rugby and Cricket World Cups, or at the increasing number of 'regular' European events, eg. in football. This event-based tourism increasingly involves international travel.

The profiles of some of the athletics spectators, exemplified this committed and dedicated lifestyle. Nearly three quarters of the World Athletics Cup sample (n=1688) reported that they had visited sports events either 'very regularly' (monthly or more often) or 'regularly' (a few times a year), and over 40% had specifically visited London, the host area, for a sports event in the previous twelve months. This was not consistent across age cohorts however, with a greater spectating frequency among the older age groups, than the younger (although this pattern was reversed for participation in related sports).

A sub-sample of 'dedicated' sports spectating travellers (which intuitively must exist for most sports), was isolated from the total case study sample. A proportion of respondents listed a number of the year’s Grand Prix athletics events in a number of countries within their recent travel behaviour. The use of professional agencies and the purchasing of tickets, weeks before the actual event, may both be considered as important indicators in identifying the dedicated spectator profile.

Many of the 'postal' respondents from the Twr-Y-Felin case study clearly represented regular sports tourist or a dedicated/committed activity holiday profile. For example, 85% of the sample participated in their main activity either 'very regularly' (monthly or more) or 'regularly' (a few times a year). They linked this participation with holidays taken, often including other holidays undertaken throughout the year. Activities of some type generally constituted a significant part of the experience, if not the main purpose of the trip. This however, is not consistent across the variables of age, sex and socio-economic status. For example, in the postal questionnaire, 17% of the Twr-Y-Felin respondents within the lower income groupings had taken an activity holiday very regularly, compared with 57% within the higher income groupings.

This evidence from the Twr-Y-Felin study supports data provided by the commercial market research surveys reviewed. A significant percentage of the sample (34%)
considered an activity break as their main holiday each year; this clearly puts them into the dedicated sports tourism category. It should be noted however, that such dedication does vary according to the level of performance in the chosen sport, and is consistent with the sports motivation literature (Chapter Two: II). Those perceived to participate at an 'elite' level (20% of the sample: n=46) generally showed a more dedicated propensity to engage in activity-based holidays as a main annual break, than those performing as 'beginners'. The same is not the case with spectating, which does not demand a high standard of participation to generate dedication to sports oriented travel to spectate.

9.3.6: The 'Driven' or 'Determined' Sports Tourist

At this stage of the continuum, the participation (or spectating) in the sports activity determines the tourism behaviour patterns. An example is for professional sports people and professional sports circuits. The sports tourist behaviour of the elite athletes cohort in the last case study, would be considered to exceed the levels of sports tourism activity of those perceived within the dedicated tourists. The elite athletes provide an example of what may be termed 'driven' sports tourists, despite their frequently expressed reluctance to be considered as such. This study examined the tourism generated through elite level sports participation, competition and training, where involvement 'determines' the extent, nature and destination of travel, and limits other forms of travel. The main purpose of their tourism activity is competition or training, and in many ways this parallels the profile of business tourists, with other 'incidental' activities during the trips being secondary to the prime purpose associated with their 'work'. They remain tourists however, and can be conceived to be at one extreme of the continuum, because their travel is 'determined' by sport. They may not necessarily enjoy the activity, destination or the trip, and again the best comparison here is with business tourists. The nature of the travel associated with elite level participation and training, and the perceptions, and attitudes from the athletes (both negative and positive), certainly suggest a determined and driven form of sports tourism behaviour.

The fundamental characteristic of the driven sports tourist is the element of choice, which is often lacking here, but exists elsewhere. Thus, even those individuals who may be considered to fall within the extreme boundaries of the dedicated sports tourist, for example those who spend all their time and money following the Athletics Grand Prix circuit around Europe, are motivated by the love of their chosen sport. They are in a position to alter that spectating profile and become more or less dedicated over time and to choose particular destinations/events that they wish to visit. The responsibility
inherent in representing your country at any sport, often negates this freedom, especially as far as tourism patterns are concerned. It is not necessarily the case that the athletes' experience of domestic and international travel is always a negative one, but rather that the element of 'doing' their job (as would be the distinguishing element within business tourism), dominates the overall experience. It may be possible that at various times, the athletes may exhibit behaviour akin to less determined forms of sports tourism activity, for example trying an activity for the first time, providing there is no risk of injury, but these appeared in this study to be the exception to the rule.

It could be argued that respondents within the Twr-Y-Felin case, who were performing at an elite level in their chosen outdoor activity, could be conceived of as being determined sports tourist, although not to the same extent as the elite British athletes. This cohort were certainly found to use available holiday opportunities to participate, and for many who had a recognised training certificate, a significant amount of their leisure time would be filled with commitment to facilitating others' participation in outdoor activities. This would necessarily involve travel (and overnight stays), and as such can be compared directly with the 'work' nature evident in much of the elite athletes travel.

9.3.7: Overview

The 'types' of sports tourism identified at various points on the continuum have been outlined, with evidence drawn from the four major case studies, and identifying certain categories of behaviour. Table 9.1 summarises each of these types in relation to the various indices (examined in Section 9.3), used within the case studies. The purpose is to illustrate the existence of Weberian Ideal Types in order to construct a profile of different sports tourists. Accepting the limitations implicit in any such representation, the key strength of this approach remains the development of a typology of sports tourism behaviour.

This chapter has concentrated on the pivotal role of the consumption of activities such as sport and tourism as important (or less important) elements of an individual's lifestyle. A typological approach such as the one proposed here, necessarily embraces the concept of lifestyle.
### Table 9.1: Characteristics of the Sports Tourism Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Decision-Making Process</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Non Participation</th>
<th>Group Profile</th>
<th>Lifestyle</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INCIDENTAL</td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>Out of duty to others</td>
<td>Not relaxing, nor holiday like</td>
<td>Family groups</td>
<td>Sport is insignificant</td>
<td>Minimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPORADIC</td>
<td>Relatively unimportant</td>
<td>If it is convenient</td>
<td>Easily constrained/put-off</td>
<td>Family and friends</td>
<td>Non-essential element</td>
<td>Minimal except for 'one-offs'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCASIONAL</td>
<td>Can be a determining factor</td>
<td>Welcome addition to the tourism experience</td>
<td>Other commitments</td>
<td>Often individual -especially business tourists</td>
<td>Conspicuous consumption</td>
<td>High on occasions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REGULAR</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Significant part of enjoyment</td>
<td>Money/time become prohibitive</td>
<td>Group or individual</td>
<td>Important part</td>
<td>Considerable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATED</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>Central to the experience</td>
<td>Due to unforeseen barriers</td>
<td>Individuals and Groups (of like minded people)</td>
<td>A defining element</td>
<td>Extremely high and consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRIVEN</td>
<td>Very Important (little autonomy)</td>
<td>Sole reason</td>
<td>Through injury, or fear of injury</td>
<td>Elite groups or solitary</td>
<td>The profession</td>
<td>Extremely high-but often funded by others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indices used within this framework are by no means exhaustive (or indeed mutually exclusive), and a series of others could be included. For example, Gibson et al (1996), although providing a descriptor of the 'Active Sports Tourist', rather than a range of such tourist behaviours, consider age, socio-economic grouping and gender within their typology. The literature has confirmed the significance of such factors within consumption patterns, particular of sport and tourism activity. However, the current research aimed to categorise, in very broad terms (against behavioural rather than individual factors), the range of sports tourism types. This is more akin to the approach adopted by Standeven & De Knop (1999), and the Tourism Sport International Council (1996). The next stage should necessarily de-construct the types, and ascertain (through more empirical work) the various layers within each type, including more detailed analysis of influential variables (such as age, gender etc).

Due to the Weberian nature of the categorisation, individuals may readily perceive themselves (matched against the criteria given) as located within more than one type of sports tourist. An individual could, for example, consume sport through spectating,
and for the amount of travel this generated they may be considered as a 'Dedicated Sports Tourist'. The same individual may, however, in purely participation terms, may be considered as an 'Incidental Sports Tourist'. Furthermore, individuals may find themselves moving dynamically between the types dependent upon family commitments, employment situation, level of disposable income or health and well-being status etc.

An issue which emerged from the data was that of 'opportunism', which is particularly relevant and impacting towards the incidental end of the continuum. A considerable volume of sports tourism activity may be undertaken as a result of opportunities being made available to the individual, and not as a direct result of planned consumption. The likelihood of these opportunities and spontaneous behaviour occurring may be enhanced, for example, by an increased supply structure (eg. more medium sized sports events), which appears an identifiable trend for the coming years.

A number of patterns become evident from the matrix. Firstly, the increasing importance of sport in the decision-making of individuals (the initial phases of the consumer behaviour process) from incidental through to driven types of sports tourism. Secondly, the rationale for participation becomes stronger through the continuum. It could be argued however, that the domination of a driven or determined sports tourist's lifestyle by participation in their activities, removes the element of autonomy and choice. Ironically this is also a characteristic of some incidental sports tourism behaviour, where participation in physical activity is done out of a sense of duty and responsibility to others.

In the case of elite athletes, they could be performing sometimes on behalf of their coach, country etc, despite the fact that the motivation literature suggests that such extrinsic forms of reward would not sustain a high level of performance, and ultimately may lead to non-adherence and drop-out. Thirdly, constraints (or barriers) to participation are perceived as convenient excuses at the incidental end of the continuum, and minor barriers may be come major obstacles to an individual's participation in some activities. The impact of such constraints (both individual and structural) decrease as an individual moves through the continuum, until the dedicated and driven types, for whom non-participation occurs only in significantly constrained circumstances, and is forced through necessity.

Conceivably, many more patterns can be established between (and within) the types identified. The purpose of this study remains to exhibit this categorisation in a form which enables future scrutiny and expansion through more detailed study of specific
areas along the continuum, or for the particular sports. As always, the significance of empirical data is to support or deny the existence of such types.

**9.4: Reflection on the Research Aims and Objectives**

The introduction to this study (Chapter One) highlighted that sport and tourism, as relatively recent phenomena, have been examined individually, both in terms of their demand characteristics and supply structures, and yet sports tourism as a product remains at a relatively immature phase of its development. It is not perhaps surprising therefore, that a primary rationale for this study, has been to examine the linkages between sport and tourism, in order that both academic (understanding) and commercial (developmental) benefits may accrue.

The research has attempted to evidence more fully the interrelationship between sport and tourism through the design and development of four empirical studies to further demonstrate its significance, and provide a more detailed explanation of various behavioural types observed within the sports tourism interrelationship. In general terms, this research has aimed to enhance understanding of this particular sub-sector of the tourism industry. Reflecting on each of the primary aims of the study in retrospect helps to summarise some of the key findings:

i) To examine the volume, range and significance of sports-related tourism.

The significance in volume terms of sports-related tourism has been emphasised particularly through event tourism (World Athletics Cup) and elite sport (British Athletes) case studies. Highlighting the very significant number of people whose tourism activity is sport-oriented or sport driven. The Twr-Y-Felin database questionnaire also further indicated the volume potential of activity holiday participants. The volume relates primarily to the number of individuals involved in sports-related tourism activity, in whichever form it may take. The empirical case studies have evidenced not only areas in which the interrelationship between sport and tourism has generated a considerable volume of tourism activity, but also those areas in which enormous potential for tourism generation exists. The existing demand characteristics highlighted by the case studies, evidence a significant volume of travel and tourism generated through sport (whether through participating or spectating).

The range of sports-related tourism has been illustrated by the various behavioural types identified along the sports tourism continuum. The four case studies have generated examples not only at the six indicative points on the continuum, but also shed...
light on the points in between. Understanding of the nature of the interrelationship between sport and tourism has been enhanced by these exemplars. This research has thus provided empirical evidence of the existence of the interrelationship across a range of behaviour types and lifestyle patterns.

It is clear that in terms of both economic significance and participation volume (and therefore social significance), the interrelationships between sport and tourism are worthy of greater empirical investigation and analysis. The two leisure sectors of sport and tourism are participated in by large numbers of people from different socio-economic backgrounds, in different settings both at home and abroad, and in addition have considerable economic implications.

The significance of sports-related tourism has been measured in a variety of ways within this study, including its social and economic impacts. The four case studies have generated a significant amount of empirical data, which at different levels has highlighted the value and significance of sports tourism, and has provided useful new data on this relatively new and growing pattern of tourism consumption.

The economic significance has, for example, been illustrated by the direct and indirect spending at the World Athletics Cup, and is shown to be considerable, even though this is a 'medium scale' event. The economic significance of the activity holiday market has also been evidenced, both by the case study and the secondary data analysis (Chapter Three), which dealt specifically with the market worth of activity holidays in the UK. Empirical evidence to support these assessments has been provided by the Twr-Y-Felin case study, in which the significance of outdoor activities to the tourism generating potential of the County of Pembrokeshire, had been identified.

The significant tourism generating effect of elite sport, and athletes in pursuit of training and performing at the highest level, has been shown on both a domestic and international level, and this type of study has rarely been undertaken before. In addition to this, the research has alluded to the currently untapped market of individual performer and team travel to engage in sport, not just at an elite level, but at all other levels of performance. This can be seen to have growing significance in terms of international tourism activity.
ii) To examine the relationships between individual's sports-related tourism activity, and their prior and post sports participation pattern.

It is important before reviewing the extent to which this specific objective has been met within this research, to reiterate the claim made by De Knop (1990) that there is an acute need for more behavioural studies detailing the significance of this type of tourism to the individual, particularly with respect to its relationship to leisure behaviour patterns at home. Although there remains little direct evidence on the extent to which sports activity generally contributes to the holiday/destination decision, even less emphasis has been placed on the reasons for patterns of activity whilst on holiday.

In particular, analysis from the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin case studies has highlighted the importance (or otherwise) of participation in an individual's chosen activities in the holiday decision-making process, and the relationship that exists with holiday type, destination choice and the importance of sports provision within the host environment. The continuation and non-continuation of activities following the holiday experience, has been emphasised within this research as an extremely important aspect of the interrelationship between sport and tourism. The potential for sports development opportunities, have been discussed, but the pivotal role played by activity participation levels at home and future holiday decision-making processes, was difficult to ascertain within research focusing on a series of single case studies. The only indicators that could be utilised were the likelihood of return in both cases. For the Twr-Y-Felin postal questionnaire, there was a favourable picture with respect to return visits to Pembrokeshire, and specifically to undertake programmes (residential and non-residential) at Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre.

The focus group discussions within the Southcoast World study produced a mixed picture in terms of the relevance of availability of sports activities to future holiday decision-making. A longitudinal, multiple case design would more successfully address this issue, which is an important one for future planning for future sports-related tourism activity, is to be responsive and effective.

The continuation of chosen activities following the holiday, in the main, was valued more highly in the Twr-Y-Felin, than Southcoast World sample. In the former, barriers to participation were largely attributable to the lack of specialised kit/equipment and facilities at home, whereas for the latter, barriers to home participation were considered to centre on domestic and work obligations and responsibilities, and apparent lack of disposable time (and energy). The case studies sought to establish
patterns between the sports-related activity and participation in activities before and after the holiday experience.

iii) To evaluate the characteristic profile and sports activity profile of those individuals participating in sport through tourism activity and those involved in tourism through sport.

The participation profiles for both sport and tourism individually are well established, but in the main, the analysis of secondary data surveys, has evidenced that empirically generated participation profiles of the sports tourism hybrid, are scarce. Those surveys which do seek to provide data, tend to generate an ambiguous picture, particularly with respect to definitions and indicators, making cross comparison problematic. There seems little doubt that additional work in this area would enhance collective understanding of the exact nature of the sports tourism interrelationship.

An evaluation of the sports activity lifestyle profile was included in all four empirical cases studies, to varying degrees. This is considered to be a vital component in extending current knowledge and critical understanding of the interrelationship between sport and tourism. The profiles were constructed using a combination of variables including: activity type, regularity (and intensity) of participation and perceived importance to overall enjoyment of the holiday experience, as well as a range of socio-economic and demographic variables.

The profile of elite British athletes was somewhat different from those profiles produced within the other three case studies, in that the participation in their chosen activity, as well as non-sporting activity whilst away from home, was completely dominated and determined by performance at this level, and the pressures imposed on the individual by training and competing at an international level. There was little choice exercised by the athletes themselves, and decisions on activities undertaken, regularly linked to satisfaction, were all determined by the nature of their 'work'.

The participation pattern of sport (at varying levels along the continuum) whilst engaged in tourism and the importance of this to the holiday decision-making process, have also been highlighted. The World Athletics Cup, and the elite athletes cases have produced patterns of spectating and participation respectively as generators of tourism.

For the other cases, there was clearly a greater degree of autonomy of decision-making in terms of activities undertaken, when, where, for how long and with whom. In the Southcoast World study, for example the characteristic profile of activities undertaken
ranged from passive 'watching' of others engaged in their chosen sports (whether it be individuals within the group, or other holiday makers), through to those who participated in certain activities (predominantly swimming) out of duty to others, and finally to those who utilised the facilities available as an important aspect of their holiday experience, albeit it a smaller group. Within one case, therefore, a range of participation profiles has been established, which can be placed at various points along the proposed sports tourism continuum, but more twoards its 'incidental/sporadic' end. The Twr-Y-Felin sample (both 'on-street' and 'postal') generally evidenced a more regular sports participation profile in the main, both for activity holidays, and associated short trips engaged in by the individuals. Here, sporting activities would invariably constitute a main or significant purpose for the trip.

iv) To examine the nature of spectating as a component of sports tourism activity, particularly behavioural patterns, and related sports participation.

The World Athletics Cup, because of its concentration on consuming sport through spectating, rather than participation has generated the empirical evidence in an attempt to meet this research objective. This element of the sports tourism relationship is an integral and highly significant one (in both economic and social terms). Clearly the event case evidenced, through a rich amount of empirical data, the high level of tourism generated through spectating at medium-sized sports events. The profile of individuals spectating in sport, and deriving a characteristic profile, as illustrated within the World Athletics Cup has included tourism generated by attendance at sports events (predominantly, but not exclusively athletics) on both a domestic and international level.

The associated spending patterns (especially by non-London residents) added to the economic significance attached to visiting London for this particular event, and a whole range of other factors have to be taken into account, if an improved understanding of the behavioural patterns of (in this case) athletics spectators, is to be gained. These indicators include travel arrangements (the use of professional agencies); method of travel; commercial accommodation used; purchasing of tickets and so on, which together produced a spectator profile, which could conceivably be applied to the spectating profiles of other sports. The profile which was established within the study, suggested that significant number of the respondents would be considered as regular or dedicated sports tourists. The relationship of age and sex to participation (in the activities spectated) over a specified time period, supported the patterns which emerged in the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin cases.
9.5: Final Comments

The broad conclusions which have been drawn from the four detailed empirical case studies, together with the links established between the cases, have resulted in an enhanced understanding of the nature, value, volume and significance of the sports tourism interrelationship. The linkage underpinning this relationship has been conceptualised by the framework of the sports tourism continuum, and associated typology, which has assisted in disaggregating and illustrating what is otherwise a significantly complicated area of tourism activity. It is also one which has rarely been studied empirically in this systematic way.

The work has included purely incidental sports participation or spectating whilst on holidays, through a range of people types who take holidays which either involve a high degree, or are dedicated to sport. The extreme end of the sports tourism continuum identifies the consistent sports tourist, whose tourism behaviour is dominated, sometimes driven exclusively, by sports participation and/or spectating. The profiles of sports tourists along this continuum have been established and analysed, for the first time in one study through a variety of empirical data. The research has highlighted that sports tourism behaviour varies not only along the proposed continuum, but within each recognised area of the continuum, including several other layers of behavioural factors including frequency, nature and intensity of the activity. The final chapter, summarises some of the primary applications of this research, and provides areas for further research in the future.
CHAPTER TEN
AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

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10.0: Introduction

Chapter Ten reflects upon the case study approach adopted, and the opportunities and limitations of conducting fieldwork in partnership with organisations are discussed. This chapter also outlines the application of the findings, detailed in Chapter Nine. Particularly emphasis is placed upon those results and conclusions which have emanated from each of the case studies, and pointed towards the need for further research. In addition, the conceptualisation of the sports tourism interrelationship as producing a continuum of sports tourist types, has produced areas worthy of further investigation.

Understanding of the sports tourism interrelationship would clearly be enhanced from further complementary studies to identify, research and report other types of sports tourism behaviour, so that its significance both as a form of leisure behaviour and a commercial opportunity are better understood and quantified. The proposed continuum provides a fruitful framework around which further research could be developed.

10.1: Applications and Significance of the Research

As noted, the existing research literature on sports-related tourism, although still lacking comprehensive volume and value estimates, also rather neglects the importance of the interrelationship between sport and tourism for the individual. The case studies reported here encapsulate, and more clearly illustrate, what is a complex phenomenon. The focus of this research has been demand and consumption styles, and the ways in which sports tourism acts at an individual level. However, this has had obvious relevance to sports tourism production, since better understanding of consumer profiles and behaviour necessarily have management and planning implications.

The relationship between the supply side and the demand characteristics of this relatively new sub-sector of tourism behaviour, is manifested at different levels. Empirical study of the nature and likely volume of travel associated with this sub-sector, can help in the planning and management, and tourism product development for organisations of all sizes. In addition to this, the value of sports tourism behaviour, exhibited at the individual and aggregate levels, can be positive commercially and for economic regeneration. The tourism package, which is composed of varying elements, will increasingly have to include facilities for sporting activity, as interest in health-related fitness at home, and in active tourism increases. The information produced from case studies of this kind can clearly enhance management decision-making and tourism planning processes.
The first three case studies involved some degree of partnership with organisations working in the field. Despite the fact that the empirical research was conducted within a theoretical framework, it had many practical constraints, and ultimately applications. The problems and opportunities associated with gaining access to the various data sources, and securing co-operation from such organisations, have been discussed in Chapter Four.

The marketing management team at Butlins were involved with the study from its initial discussion stages and commented on the design of the questionnaire and focus groups, and the final implementation. A national 'guest survey' is conducted annually by Butlins Holiday Worlds at all of their centres in the UK, but few categories asked specific questions, either on the activities undertaken by the guest whilst at the Holiday Worlds, or on the importance attached to the availability of such facilities within the holiday decision-making process. The data from this study was therefore viewed as adding value to the established database of information, which concentrated on 'value for money', quality of service and other management and performance indicators. In their continual product development, Butlins will need to assess the importance attributed to, and success of, their sports programmes. The CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme, and the attempt to stimulate 'off-centre' facility use, are two good examples of where market research data of the type generated within this study, can help the management process.

The profiles of these holiday makers, in terms of their active (or non-active) tourism behaviour at such centres, has often been neglected in the literature and research. Consequently, this case study at the largest of the Butlins Holiday Worlds, provided some fundamental answers to questions which had been frequently asked, but rarely tackled.

The owners and management of Twr-Y-Felin requested to be involved at all stages of the research design and implementation of the empirical work. Although they conduct a bi-annual survey of all members on their database, this primarily acts as a direct mail opportunity, promoting forthcoming programmes and events. Former customers are requested to rank the centre in terms of 'value for money' and are asked to provide suggestions for future activity programmes they would like to see provided at Twr-Y-Felin. Little information had been generated from the membership with respect to indicators such as other activity holidays taken, ownership of kit and equipment, and participation at home. All of these indicators have been covered within the current research framework.
Evaluation of the profiles of those individuals from the database of the Twr-Y-Felin outdoor activity centre, provided important information for the management in terms of holiday profiles of their users; ownership of equipment; possession of coaching qualifications; other holidays taken and the likelihood of a return visit to Twr-Y-Felin. Data on these areas was particularly useful for the management in their future development. On a wider level, the management were also keen to receive information on tourism flows within the St. Davids region, and the general activity profile (including accommodation used; length of stay and group composition). The Pembrokeshire Business Initiative (PBI) requested access to this information as an adjunct to their large scale survey on visitor profiles within the County.

This case study provided significant research benefits in examining the activity holiday market, based on a well established and recognised outdoor activity centre, located in an area of Wales, renowned for its provision of outdoor pursuits. The available secondary data (predominantly quantitative) on activity holiday makers, although going some way towards charting this increasingly popular and substantial sub-sector of the tourism industry, has not facilitated the mapping of behavioural patterns of such sports-related tourists. This was achieved within this framework, by a combination of the 'postal' and 'on-street' questionnaires.

Regarding the event tourism research case study on the World Athletics Cup, the accreditation received from the BAF for access for the entire research team to the event made the research feasible and assisted in generating a large sample for the event study. It also signalled the interest of the National Governing Body (and in turn the management of Crystal Palace athletics stadium) in the research. Both organisations were interested not just in the volume of tourism directly and indirectly resulting from the staging of this particular event, but also in the value of spectators; their perception of 'value for money' and associated satisfaction with this event.

The involvement of the BAF at all stages of the planning for the World Athletics Cup survey, and the considerable feedback received from the spectators, emphasised the significance of a number of practical, economic and tourism factors. In terms of the practical (organisational) factors, the issues of: car parking; signage to the event; ticketing arrangements; and stadia facilities (especially toilet and refreshment provision); and advertising and promotion of the event, should be considered in the future. The direct expenditure profile, particularly of the category of expenditure by individuals actually at the event, has varied applications. The demand associated with the purchase of food, drink and souvenirs at the event can be met more effectively if previous levels are understood. The indirect expenditure, including travel in and around the host area
and the use of various form of accommodation, has considerable applications for the tourist providers within the host region.

The existing literature, and research conducted in recent years, has largely ignored the role of small scale and medium-sized events (such as The World Athletics Cup). This has been addressed within this current research. This empirical case study has, in a fundamental way, generated a significant volume of empirical data on sports tourist behavioural patterns, through spectating at such an event. This has been most effectively illustrated by the quantification of spending made at the event, from residents and non-residents alike, which provided economic data, which will act as a useful comparative index, for future events of similar size and nature.

The fourth case study, examining the profiles of elite British athletes did not have direct association with an organisation, but clearly the full co-operation of the individual athletes in the sample was necessary. The data expressed within the interviews of elite athletes illustrated how the athletes' coaches (and other sports science support staff, such as psychologists) need an understanding of the behavioural patterns of their athletes whilst away competing and training. It is also vital that their thoughts about the activities, and the associated anxieties of staying away (often for prolonged periods of time) sometimes as 'reluctant tourists', but certainly as 'restricted tourists', are understood. The whole concept of 'driven' or 'determined' tourists, akin to business tourism, is a furtive area for further research. The existing literature on sports-related tourism has been shown to be scarce and patchy in many areas. This weakness is particularly evident for this cohort of sports tourists. This case study has made an original contribution to providing a significant amount of data (qualitative and quantitative) in charting the volume and value of sports tourism for such individuals, which had not previously been examined.

10.2: Areas of Further Research

Expanding upon the empirical data collected from the Butlins case study, it would be beneficial to conduct a similar study at other holiday centres within the UK. Other holiday centre providers, such as Pontins and Warners, would facilitate a comparative analysis, particularly focusing on the role of sport within the holiday decision-making process, and incidental and sporadic participation in activities whilst on holiday. It would also be relevant to examine the role of sport within different holiday centre products, such as Center Parcs and Oasis. The marketing approach adopted by the latter organisations is to promote a diversity of sports and recreational activities within a climate-controlled environment; this is one point of added value. Differentiation is also
Areas of Further Research

Chapter Ten

achieved through price of such a holiday, which is targetted at higher socio-economic groups. In addition, there are similar overseas destinations and a further differentiated product in the 'club' holidays offered by several commercial operators, in Mediterranean destinations, all of which have a significant sports facility content. The perceived importance attached to sport in such product offers and the importance (or otherwise) this has on the decision to take a domestic holiday, is a potentially important area of study. An area which is rarely researched by the companies concerned, but which is important in terms of both tourism profiling and sports development, is the extent to which such holidays are the result of residential area leisure patterns, and the extent to which the holiday affects subsequent participation. A series of interviews could be conducted with the guests concentrating on prior and post holiday participation rates.

The detailed study of the activity holiday market could be expanded through the use of a longitudinal approach. The profile of the respondents (from the accessed data base, for example) could be examined over a specified period of time, in order to establish a life history profile. There is a plethora of activity holiday providers in the UK (Chapter Two: Section IV), including those specifically supplying the children's market. This client group is worthy of empirical investigation, not least because of the importance of the early introduction to certain activities by significant others, and the influence on continued participation in their chosen activities. This fits directly into the sports development continuum proposed by the Sports Council, tracking participation through to elite level performance, or merely into continued recreational performance into older age groups. There also remains the need to generate data on a much larger scale, specifically examining the activity holiday market, in terms of its volume and significance. This would need to be conducted firstly in the UK context, and secondly as a comparative study with other European countries. Secondary data analysis (Chapter Three) has clearly illustrated a lack of such specific survey data, and understanding, beyond commercial estimates, which vary widely.

The study of event-based tourism, and more specifically the generation of tourism activity through spectating at medium-sized events, has considerable scope for further research. Further research is clearly warranted on spectating as sports tourism behaviour, which has increased rapidly in recent years. This has been as a result of many factors including more global and domestic travel generally, increased awareness of events through improved television coverage world wide, and the proliferation of commercial operators, including those specialising in sports-oriented travel within their product range.
The empirical data collected from the study of the World Athletics Cup, which was clearly a sports-specific study, could be compared with similar data generated from other sports-specific championships, held on a similar scale. The profile of the athletics supporter could then be compared and contrasted with the profile of spectators at other sports.

Within detailed case studies, there are a multitude of variables which can be examined in detail. For example, the economic impacts could be concentrated upon, or alternatively the socio-cultural impacts of staging such a medium-sized event. To date, most work has concentrated on mega or large scale international events, when clearly medium scale events are more within the range of most potential host cities. Such work could then be located within the broader framework of understanding the generation of tourism through sports spectating, which has clear relevance to the regenerative work of many cities and regions. The role of spectating at sports events of all sizes (but particularly large scale multi-sports events, such as the Olympic Games, or large scale single sports events such as the Football, Cricket and Rugby World Cups) in the generation of international tourism activity, needs to be examined in terms of a better understanding of tourism. Furthermore, incidental spectating, not necessarily the main purpose of the trip, as evidenced here, is worthy of more investigation, as is attention to regular sports programmes, rather than one-off events eg. Football Leagues, Rugby Leagues, Tennis and Golf Circuits etc. The benefit of such studies would be the production of typologies of various sports travellers (see eg. the existing golf typologies in Chapter Two: Section III).

The intensive nature of some sports tourism, has been exemplified by the elite British athletes study, which has considerable potential for further complementary research. Comparative studies examining elite athletes in other sports would supplement the data produced from the current study. An area not covered by the study design (only alluded to within the interviews) was the expenditure associated with such patterns of travel, both domestic and international, involved with commitment to training and competition. Hotel operators and travel agents/specialised tour operators have a significant opportunity to exploit this particular market segment and the revenue generating possibilities of the elite sports tourist. This can be lucrative, especially during the traditional off-season period. The considerable body of people who travel with athletes during their training and more particularly their competition, have significant economic benefits for the host destination.

The study examined such travel on an individual level, but there have been no studies examining the aggregate levels of travel across a range of sports, which from this pilot,
would be considerable. For example, this would include not only elite level performance, but sports teams of all standards on tour with the main purpose of the trip being participation in their chosen sport(s), or similar studies for individual not team sports. This travel, both within the UK and abroad, could be evaluated in two parts: firstly, the short break, often weekend travel (3 nights or less); and secondly, the longer sports tour holidays (4 + nights). The direct and indirect levels of expenditure should be of particular interest within such a research design. As in this study, the best results are achieved through a combination of qualitative and quantitative data. The former proved particularly valuable here in uncovering other elements of tourism activity and spending, and probing areas of enquiry such as activity profiles whilst away and pre and post tour sports participation patterns.

10.3: Summary

The primary significance of this work has been to evidence and then conceptualise the field of sports-related tourism. As both active interest in sports tourism and research interest grows, it was seen as beneficial to attempt to clarify, but also draw together the strands of what can otherwise be a very diverse field. The method through which this was achieved, was to conduct a series of empirical studies, examining a range and breadth of sports tourism behaviour types. The aim of this approach was to identify the differences within sports tourism behaviour, but at the same time to evidence (through substantial empirical case study data), that they are all related as different sub-types of one growing area of tourism demand behaviour. The researcher sought at the same time to provide individual detail on six of these sub-types, conceptualised to fall along a sports tourism continuum, to show the type of work and understanding that could be achieved. In addition, further work in this field has been highlighted, with its potential contribution to a wider overall understanding of the sports tourism phenomenon, emphasised.

A series of management applications resulting from the four case studies, have also been identified. The applied nature of the research is attributable to the case study approach adopted, and the production of a wealth of empirical data, on what are important management (as well as theoretical) indices and variables. It can be suggested therefore, that the two areas of theoretical and applied research are not necessarily entirely inseparable in this current context, and some overlaps do add value to the industry. Since the case studies were largely exploratory, they have generated numerous areas for further research. These areas have either emerged directly from one of the individual case scenarios, or from the general relationships across, and between the cases. These specific and general areas are worthy of more detailed empirical
Areas of Further Research

Chapter Ten

investigation in the future, in order that the volume, value and significance of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, can be further conceptualised and thus, further understood.
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REFERENCES


REFERENCES


REFERENCES


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REFERENCES

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DESCRIPTORS

APPENDIX ONE: Types of Sport Tourism (De Knop & Standeven, 1998)
Categories of Tourism Sport (Tourism Sport International Council, 1994).

These two proposed categorisations of sports tourism were referred to in Chapter Two:
Section II and although not based on empirical evidence, do nevertheless provide a
framework in which the discussion of sports-related tourism supply and demand can be
located. De Knop & Standeven (1998) provide a framework for categorising sports
tourism, making the immediate differentiation between holiday and non-holiday
business, and passive and active sport, which facilitates the inclusion of spectating at
sports events. The only behavioural types which have been suggested relate to
spectating and the 'connoisseur' and 'casual' observer, but no similar typology is
provided for participation.

The Tourism Sport International Council (TSIC) have provided a framework which
lists exemplars from five key supply areas in which sport and tourism are interrelated
namely: attractions; resorts; cruises; tours and events. This categorisation is very
closely related to that proposed by Redmond (1991), which is discussed at length in
Chapter Two: Section II.

TSIC has among its aims:

- to promote the role of sport in the tourism industry;
- to link tourism and sport organisations, groups, and other sectors which are directly
  and indirectly related to tourism sport.

APPENDIX TWO: Interview Transcript (Clive Johnson, Head of Marketing:
Butlins Holiday Worlds UK).
Questionnaire (Self-Completion) and Explanatory Letter.
Schedule for Focus Group Discussions.

All of the information included in this appendix relates to the Southcoast World Case
Study (Chapter Five). The interview with the Head of Marketing for Butlins Holiday Worlds UK, was useful in generating background information on the recent
development within the centres throughout the UK, and to ascertain, from the
management, the level of importance attached to the provision of sport within the
Butlins portfolio. A copy of the self-completion questionnaire (with coding boxes
applied) and the letter briefly explaining the aims of the research and the nature of the
questionnaire, which was given to all respondents prior to completion, are included. Finally, the schedule which was used for both focus group discussions is included.

APPENDIX THREE: Interview Transcript (Andrew Middleton, Owner: Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre).
Organisational Chart: Twr-Y-Felin Plc.
Map: Pembrokeshire Outdoor Activity Centres.
Questionnaire (On-Street Administered and Postal Self-Completion).

This appendix relates to the Twr-Y-Felin Case Study (Chapter Six). The interview with the Owner of the Outdoor Activity Centre was beneficial in contextualising the centre (its organisational structure is illustrated), within the specific geographical area (see Map 1 showing other outdoor activity centres in the County), as well as the links established with the National Tourist Board, and the Pembrokeshire Business Initiative. The two questionnaires (and coding schedule) which were adopted for this case study are included, in addition to the accompanying letter for the postal, self-completion questionnaire.

APPENDIX FOUR: Questionnaire (Self-Completion).
Coding Schedule.

This appendix contains the questionnaire completed by spectators at the World Athletics Cup at Crystal Palace (Chapter Seven), along with the coding schedule necessary for the data analysis. The questionnaire included a brief description of the research, along with the statements regarding an incentivised prize draw, and so there was no need for additional information to be given to the respondents.

APPENDIX FIVE: Pilot Case Study (Priory Rackets Club, Edgbaston).

This appendix includes a brief description and analysis of a case study undertaken on a group of intermediate and elite squash players from the Priory Club in Edgbaston, who were attending an intensive two weeks of sports coaching at Club La Santa, Lanzarote. Although the results achieved from this case were not substantive, they did highlight many important points for the other empirical case studies central to this research. In addition to these vital practical and methodological pointers, it also alluded to many characteristics of sports tourists at this level of performance, and hence was beneficial in the preparation stages for the final case study, examining a cohort of elite British athletes.
APPENDIX SIX: Interview Schedule.
Time-Space Budget Diary.

This appendix relates to the methods adopted within the elite athletes case study (Chapter Eight). The schedule used to conduct all of the semi-structured interviews is included as is the annotated calendar (and explanatory letter) used to compile the athlete's time-space budget diary. This illustrates the process the researcher requested the athletes to go through, in order to accurately quantify their travel commitment for training and competition in the UK and Abroad, over a one year period.
TYPES OF SPORT TOURISM:
De Knop & Standeven (1998)

CATEGORIES OF TOURISM SPORT:
Tourism Sport International Council (1994)
CATEGORIES OF SPORTS TOURISM (De Knop & Standeven 1998)

Tourism
  Relevant to Sport
    Holiday
      Active Sport
        Activity Holidays
        Single Activity
          - Sport
          - Adventure
          - Health
      Passive Sport
        Holiday Activities
    Non-holiday Business
      Active Sport
        Connoisseur Observer
      Passive Sport
        Casual Observer
        Active Sport on business
        Passive Sport on business
CATEGORIES OF TOURISM SPORT

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<td>YACHT CHARTERS</td>
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<td>BAREBOAT CHARTERING</td>
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TOURISM SPORT INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL 1994
Interview Transcript
Meeting with Clive Johnson,
Head of Marketing, Butlins Holiday Worlds UK

1) Background Information on Butlins Holiday Worlds.

Can you give me a little background information on Butlins, its competitors, and the role of Rank plc?

"Rank plc purchased Butlins back in 1972 and between 1986 and 1990 it invested £200 million as improvement to stock, which was out of date. I would not say that there has been an image change, however, but rather an improvement to meet the changing needs of the same market, i.e. CI, D's etc.

Butlins is a volume business. It is different to Center Parcs, which does not have eg. 9000 on site at any one time. So a built facility catering for this number of people is just not feasible, so you have to be imaginative. Simplicity is the key.

We are not competing for the same market as Center Parcs, which is in a dual position of having sport and the environment.

Over 90% of Butlin's business is loyal 'Butlinites', who continue to return year after year, and so this is secure, and there is no need for marketing to this group. They come through word-of-mouth, which is very effective. The other 10% of our market is profit, and that is where the imagination comes into it and where the hard work is required.

Butlins annual gross turnover is £130 million, of which £80 million is from the tariff and the other £50 million from takings on site. Every year Butlins conduct an internal entertainment review, which now includes the sports provision element and we are awaiting the results of the latest survey."
2) Sport at Butlins Holiday Worlds.

How important do you think sports provision is to Butlin's Customers?

"Sport is used to add credibility to the defensive stance, eg. 'we are going to Butlins and it has a multi-gym, leisure pool, 5-a-side soccer etc.' in order to get away from the old prison or concentration camp image. Previously Butlins has not been known for its sports provision, except maybe darts and snooker.

To be honest sport in general is not at the top of the marketing agenda or in the forefront of our efforts. However our perception is that sport is pertinent to kids, but less important to adults."

3) Sports Festivals and Theme Breaks.

I understand that Butlins have organised some weekend sports festivals. How are these run, and how successful have they been?

"We tend to get involved with dedicated sports events, particularly football which is run at Easter in Scotland and England and these get over 5000 participants each. Targeted at schools, this is easy to organise, just need to gain access to enough local football pitches. Access to facilities, is the basis for the selection of sports.

The National Festival of Cycling was also easy to organise as most people have their own bikes. CCPR brought all the National Governing Bodies together and the concept was to try each others style (or code) of cycling. Over 800 took part in the first year and we hope to keep improving on this number.

We identified American Football as a growth sport, particularly for the kids. It is easy to stage a match and run coaching sessions and get celebrities, but not a very cost-effective way of marketing. Hence the CCPR became involved through club membership promotion.

Butlins offer a programme of winter festivals including sports and celebrity weekends. For example, movement and dance was our biggest draw last winter season, with an Easter Dance Festival which attracted over 5000 people. This was such a success that a position within the company was created for Business Development Manager: Movement and Dance."
I) Off-Centre Leisure and Sport Scheme

Why have you recently decided to offer your customers facilities outside of your centres?

"This is an information and advice service offered by Butlins, primarily to add value to the holiday experience, i.e. away from the concentration camp ethos of not being allowed out. No booking service or reductions are allowed due to legal responsibility for accidents.

We have had a very low take-up for this service. I'm not that concerned because although it is against the idea of keeping people on-site, and therefore reducing spend, often the nice guy image and added value is more important. This is part of the process of impact on business. It is not always volume related, as take up numbers are low, but business impact is potentially high."

5) CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme

Can you briefly outline the importance of the National Pentathlete Scheme to Butlins?

"The re-launch of the Pentathlete Scheme, which costs Butlins £70,000 a year working in partnership with CCPR was a huge part of our promotion (particularly through the brochures) in the early part of the 1990s. Over 1500 kids completed the scheme last year. This working relationship with CCPR is vital for access to databases and their help with the weekend sports festivals I mentioned earlier."
FOCUS GROUP SESSIONS

Composition of the Groups

The intention is to select 8-12 people and conduct two separate sessions. Ideally the group should reflect the wider characteristics, as identified by Butlins market research. So the groups should be balanced with respect to the parameters of age, sex and occupation. In addition, it might be of benefit to include a mixture of first time visitors to Butlins alongside return visitors.

Aims of the Focus Groups

It is the primary aim of these focus group sessions to elicit information on three levels:


The importance of the availability of sport and recreation opportunities in the decision-making process to take the holiday. The decision to take a holiday at Butlins may have been taken for the individual concerned only, for a partner as well or for a family or other group.

2) Sports Activity Whilst On Holiday.

Once at Butlins, what sport and recreation opportunities have actually been taken up, both for the individual and other member(s) of their group (where applicable). What is the frequency and intensity of this participation? How did this actual participation compare with the intended participation prior to coming to Butlins.

3) Residual Impact Of Sports Tourism.

What will the participation patterns be once having returned home, particularly with regards to sports/recreations taken up for the first time, or rediscovered at Butlins? What role will the availability of sport and recreation play in the individual's future decision-making process for holidays generally and more particularly return visit to Butlins?
Butlins are currently working with Loughborough University to conduct a survey looking at the role of sport at their Holiday World throughout the UK.

Thank you for taking time, during your holiday here at Bognor Regis to complete this questionnaire. It is very straightforward to answer and contains four sections:

**SECTION ONE:** questions on your choice of holiday and previous visits to Butlins.

**SECTION TWO:** questions on the types of sport (if any) you have participated in during this holiday and at home.

**SECTION THREE:** questions on your awareness of the CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme.

**SECTION FOUR:** questions related to your current situation and personal details.

The questionnaire should only take approximately five minutes to complete. It is anonymous and the results will be used for the purposes of this survey only. Please ensure that you return your completed questionnaire in the marked boxes at reception, before your departure.

Thank you once again for your help with this survey.

Enjoy your holiday.
PART ONE: YOUR VISIT TO BUTLINS

Please answer the following questions so we can find out something about your decision to come to Butlins this year and your other holiday choices.

1. How many times have you visited a Butlin's Holiday World in the last five years?
   - never - (first visit) ☐
   - twice before ☐
   - more than twice ☐
   - once before ☐

2. Where did you find out about Butlin's Holiday Worlds for this holiday?
   - brochure ☐
   - travel agent ☐
   - TV advertisement ☐
   - magazine ☐
   - newspaper ☐
   - friends or relatives ☐
   - radio ☐
   - other ☐
   - specify -------------------------------

3. How long ago did you book this holiday?
   - less than one month ago ☐
   - between 3-6 months ago ☐
   - between 1-3 months ago ☐
   - more than 6 months ago ☐

4. How long are you staying at Bognor Southcoast World?
   - 3 night weekend ☐
   - 7 night full week ☐
   - 4 night midweek ☐
   - more than 1 week ☐

5. Who have you come here on holiday with? (please tick all boxes that apply)
   - alone ☐
   - friends ☐
   - husband/wife/partner ☐
   - family and friends ☐
   - own children ☐
   - organised club or group ☐
   - other family members ☐
   - other ☐
   - specify -------------------------------

6. Is this your main holiday this year?
   - yes ☐
   - no ☐

7. Which of the following UK holidays have you taken within the last three years?
   - k= Catering Holidays ☐
   - holiday centre/village/camp ☐
   - camping ☐
   - caravan-touring or towed ☐
   - caravan-static ☐
   - abroad ☐
   - youth/student hostel/school ☐
   - second home ☐
   - cruise ship ☐
   - private house (taking visitors) ☐
   - boarding house/guest house ☐
   - staying with friends/relatives ☐
   - none of these ☐
   - other holiday ☐
8. Did you have full or joint responsibility for deciding to book this holiday or did someone else?

- Full
- Joint
- Other person (please go to question 11)

9. How important to you were the statements below when you booked a UK holiday?
(please circle one number for each statement)

1 is 'Very Important' and 5 is 'Not Important at all'

- We've been before: 1 2 3 4 5
- Good entertainment: 1 2 3 4 5
- Good value for money: 1 2 3 4 5
- Good base for visiting the local area: 1 2 3 4 5
- Safe/controlled environment: 1 2 3 4 5
- Indoor facilities if the weather is bad: 1 2 3 4 5
- Lots of things for the children to do: 1 2 3 4 5
- Evening entertainment for all ages: 1 2 3 4 5
- A range of accommodation to choose from: 1 2 3 4 5
- Enjoy food of a high standard: 1 2 3 4 5

10. For the same statements, what is your opinion of Butlins for each one. Please only think about this holiday if you have been to Butlins before.
(please circle one number for each statement)

1 is 'Very Important' and 5 is 'Not Important at all'

PART TWO: SPORT AT BUTLINS HOLIDAY WORLD

We would like to find out something about the kinds of sports activities you are interested in both during your holiday and when at home.

11. Which of the following activities have you taken part in during your stay at Southcoast World, and which do you intend to do (if any) before returning home?

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<tr>
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12. Are there any sports activities which you have 'had a go at' for the first time or tried again during your stay at Butlins? Please include sports that you have never tried before and also sports which you had stopped doing before you came here.

yes □ no □

(please list sports)

(if no go to question 13)

1. ...........................................

2. ...........................................

3. ...........................................

12a. Of these sports activities outlined, are there any which you intend to carry on doing when you return home? If so please list them below. Tick one box for each sport to show whether you expect to continue taking part in regularly or occasionally.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>continue regularly</th>
<th>continue occasionally</th>
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1...............................
2...............................
3...............................

13. How important to you is the sports programme at Butlins in terms of the enjoyment level of your holiday?

very important | quite important | neither | not very important | not at all important

14. How important are the following aspects of the Butlin's sports programme? (please circle one number for each item.)

1 is 'Very Important' and 5 is 'Not Important at all'

Selection of different sports available 1 2 3 4 5
Taking part with friends/family 1 2 3 4 5
Trying a new sport 1 2 3 4 5
Wining a competition 1 2 3 4 5
Chance to meet others 1 2 3 4 5
To improve/get coaching 1 2 3 4 5
Taking part in healthy activity 1 2 3 4 5

15. Have you, or any member of the group you are with, taken part in sports activities 'off-centre' during your stay here?

yes (go to question 16) □
no (go to question 17) □

16. Did you find out about these facilities through Butlins?

yes □
no □
PART THREE: ABOUT THE CCPR NATIONAL PENTATHLETE SCHEME

17. Have you heard of the CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme at Butlins?
   yes □ (please go to question 18)
   no □ (please go to question 21)

18. Had you heard of the CCPR National Pentathlete Scheme before you came to Butlins?
   yes □ (please go to question 19)
   no □ (please go to question 20)

19. How important was this to you in booking your holiday at Butlins?
   very important □  quite important □  neither □  not very important □  not at all important □

20. Have you or any member of your party taken part in the award scheme?
   yes □  no □

21. Would you like to see more structured sports coaching sessions provided at Butlins?
   yes □  don't know □  no □

22. In recent years Butlins have organised football, aerobics/dance and cycling festivals, would you consider coming back to Butlins for a weekend festival of sport which would be aimed at all members of the family?
   yes □ (go to Q23)  don't know □
   no □ (go to Q24)

23. If yes, which of the following sports in particularly would you like to see included in a weekend's programme?(you may tick more than one)

Table-tennis □  Badminton □
Archery □  Swimming □
Bowls □  Keep-fit/Aerobics □
Snooker □  Trampolining □
Fencing □  Darts □
Fishing □  Soccer □
Horseriding □  Tennis □
Basketball □  Golf □
PART FOUR: ABOUT YOU
Finally so we can find out what sort of people like to take part in different activities at Butlins, could you please tell us some things about you?

24. Are you male □ female □

25. Which of the following age categories do you belong to?
- 16 or under □ 25-34 □ 45-54 □
- 17-24 □ 35-44 □ 55 or over □

26. Are you?
- Housewife □
- Retired □
- Student □
- Full-Time Employed □
- Unemployed □
- Part-Time Employed □
- Self-Employed □

27. Can you please indicate which category you come under for annual income?
- Up to £9,999 □ £25,000-£29,000 □
- £10,000-£14,999 □ £30,000-£34,999 □
- £15,000-£19,999 □ £35,000-£35,999 □
- £20,000-£24,999 □ £40,000 and over □

28. Can you tell me how satisfied you are with your holiday?
- very satisfied □
- quite satisfied □
- not very satisfied □
- not at all satisfied □

29. How likely is it that you will come to Butlins again?
- very likely □
- quite likely □
- not sure □
- not very likely □
- not at all likely □

30. Finally, in comparison with other UK holidays, how would you rate Butlins in terms of value for money?
- Butlins much better value □
- Butlins is a little better value □
- About the same □
- Butlins is a little worse value □
- Butlins is a lot worse value □

Thank You! That completes the questionnaire.
Please return it to main reception before your departure.
INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT
Andrew Middleton: Owner Twr-Y-Felin
Outdoor Activity Centre

ORGANISATIONAL CHART
Twr-Y-Felin Plc

MAP
Outdoor Activity Centres in Pembrokeshire

QUESTIONNAIRE
'On-Street' Administered
&
Coding Schedule

QUESTIONNAIRE
'Postal' Self-Completion
&
Coding Schedule
Interview Transcript
Meeting with Andrew Middleton,
Owner Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre, Pembrokeshire

1) Background Information on Centre

Date Established

"The Centre has been open for just over 9 years."

Structure of Staff Team (Chart 1 shows the organisational structure of TYF plc)

"The Centre has 8 or 9 instructors including 2 senior instructors and various staff working in the different units of the business."

Facilities/Programmes Available

"The Centre offers a range of outdoor activities, the programmes are delivered through the various sections of the business."

Competition (Map 1 illustrates the competitors to TYF within the County of Pembrokeshire.)

"There are a number of large-scale outdoor activity providers in the county. There is substantial co-operation, however between the different centres. This has included the setting up of two joint initiatives: Pembrokeshire Outdoor Safety Charter; and the Pembrokeshire Outdoor Safety Initiative. The aim of these is to share information on near misses and to learn from mistakes made. The Charter involves itself with environmental friendliness through customers in the National Park area."

Are you a member of the British Activity Holiday Association (BAHA)?

"The Centre was one of the original founder members of this Association, but has subsequently ceased its membership."

Financing of Operations. Do you receive any public monies, either Sports Council or Local Authority. Do you have Trust Status?

"The Centre has always been run on a commercial footing and it has provided the centre with the necessary stability in terms of it not being dependent on Government policy change. The Centre therefore runs very few funded courses. It:
receives no money from Sports Council. I would consider the idea of an educational trust as a section of the business, which would give tax advantages."

Number of Users. Do you have a computerised booking system?

"Over and above the courses run through the various sections of the business, the Centre takes 40-70 customers off the street through their booking office to do various activities and a further 30-40 hire surf boards at White Sands. The Centre has a very comprehensive database of over 2000 of its customers, which includes information on level of participation (rated from 1-10), improvement in chosen activity, repeat visits to the centre and so on. I would estimate that 70% remain active."

What are your opening times and periods? Occupancy Patterns

"This depends on the different sections of the business. For example the Management Development is open for 10 months of the year, the HND course is obviously run in parallel with the academic term times. Immediately following August Bank Holiday business slows down remarkably in St. Davids."

Do your programmes vary between the winter and summer periods?

"Depends on the various sections again. For example the Management Development activities carry on throughout the winter months, whilst the Adventure Days do not."

Characteristics of Users (individuals/small groups/large parties)

"Socio-Economic Groups A-B1 and largely professional."

Catchment Area

"Pembrokeshire-wide, we must now realise that we are competing and attracting on levels of a global market. For the price of one week's activities at the Centre, an imaginative person could travel half way round the world."

2) Programmes of Activities

How is the Centre promoted and marketed. What % of the overall budget is allocated to this activity?

"The Centre relies very heavily on word of mouth and recommendation by previous customers. The Centre has advertised in Tourist Board brochures but, with limited results. Which is ironical when you consider that at the same time as
the Tourist Board insisting that 1 in 4 holidays involve some form of activity, only a few pages were dedicated to the activity holiday business."

"The Centre is attempting to link up with B & B accommodation to offer their visitors the activities at Twr-Y-Felin. This could be the promotion of Climbing Weekends. At the end of the day, it doesn't really matter where people stay. This involves us printing the brochures for the accommodation. The Centre has been featured on TV, including Blue Peter twice, Activate and on Radio 5 Live. This has primarily been due to the activity programmes offered to children. In the leaflets outlining hiring prices etc for their activities we use the initials TYF in the slogan, 'Tell your Friends'."

What links are there with local and regional sports specific clubs, scout groups, schools and colleges etc?

"The school groups are very well catered for by Sealyham Activity Centre nearby. TYF with the running of the HND Sports Science Course in Outdoor Pursuits has very good links with the local Pembrokeshire College."

Are management development courses run and how are links developed with local and regional firms?

"This is all taken care of within the remit of the Pembroke Management Development Section."

Is emphasis placed on short stays (one, two day or weekend breaks) or on more extensive programmes?

"The target market is with long courses, but the Centre takes in a lot of its business through casual usage."

Who decides on the content and balance of the activity programmes?

"The Senior Instructors chose locations, content etc."

3) Future Developments

What plans do you have for introducing new or updating old facilities and programmes?

"The Centre has plans to modernise the accommodation which was purpose built for activity holiday makers, but is virtually useless as B & B accommodation. With updating it is hoped that this market can be entered into particularly during
the quieter months. From August. The Centre is to look for a grant from the Welsh Tourist Board."

Do you consider the centre to have a community development and educational role?

"I am absolutely committed to getting the local community involved in promoting the benefits of active holidays."

What impact(s) do you think the increased emphasis on outdoor activities within the National Education Curriculum will have?

"Proliferation of access courses such as BTEC and HND will have positive spin-offs. At present I think that the benefits of running the HND have not been as great as they might have been. Although several of the students have been kept on as instructors at the Centre."

In the future will you be targeting new groups or remaining with established clientele?

"The target market is clearly the courses, but I have a vision to make the centre and the programmes it offers more suitable for young families."

Any Other Information?

"I have witnessed a substantial quantity change in the 9 years or so the Centre has been here, which has largely been due to the wider accessibility of kit for the various activities. This is borne out by the fact that the majority of visitors now bring their own kit and equipment."

"I really hope that customers become more inquisitive with regards to the standards of instruction they will receive as openness will provide the right education particularly following such tragedies as Lyme Regis."

"In terms of tourism more generally, St. Davids will become part of a £6 million historic towns scheme, which will mainly develop local infrastructure for the increased tourism flow. This will obviously have positive impacts for the Centre. Finally the Pembrokeshire area has enormous unfulfilled tourism potential. I am a little disappointed however to see money spent on attracting more coach tourism during the months of May and June. The older profile of such groups means associated visitor spend is negligible in comparison with other forms of tourism."
Map 1

Outdoor Activity Centres in Pembrokeshire

* Mathry-Preseli
  M/Bikes/Kayak/
  Coasteering

* Sealyham A.C.
  Multi-Activity
  Schools: Low-Level

* TYF
  Multi-Activity

* Solva
  Sailing

* Newgale
  Surf Hire & Lessons

* Broad Haven
  W/Surf & M/Bike

* West Wales
  Wind Surf

* Dale
  W/Surf & Surfing
  M/Bike & Canoeing

* Haven
  Watersports Project
Loughborough University of Technology in partnership with the Twr-y-Felin Activity Centre, St.Davids are conducting some research looking at participation by holidaymakers in outdoor activities.

Your answers will be treated with the strictest confidence and used only for the purposes of this research project.

1. Do you live in Pembrokeshire?  
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]  
   Go to Question 6

2. Where do you live?

3. Are you on holiday in Pembrokeshire?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

4. How long are you staying in Pembrokeshire for?
   1 day [ ]  4-7 days [ ]
   2 days [ ]  8-14 days [ ]
   3 days [ ]  More than 2 weeks [ ]

5. What type of accommodation are you staying in?
   B & B [ ]  Caravansite [ ]
   Youth Hostel [ ]  Hotel [ ]
   Campsite [ ]  Twr-Y-Felin [ ]
   Other (please specify) [ ]

Note for Interviewer only

   Male [ ]  Female [ ]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Done Already</th>
<th>Intend to do</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canoeing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orienteering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abseiling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rock Climbing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Surfing</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mountain Biking</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wind Surfing</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Are you taking part in your chosen activity on your own or with others?

- own  
- with others

With whom are you taking part? (please tick all relevant boxes)

- Wife/Husband
- Boy/girl Friend/Fiance
- Friend(s)
- Other Family
- Club/School/College
- Work Colleagues
- Other (please specify) 

Is this the first time you have tried this activity?

- Yes  
- No
10. How often in general do you take part in your chosen activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>very regularly (monthly or more)</th>
<th>regularly (a few times a year)</th>
<th>occasionally (once a year)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i)</td>
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<td>(ii)</td>
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<td>(iii)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(iv)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Will you be continuing these activities when you return home?
   Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't Know [ ]

12. Do you have your own equipment/kit?
   Yes [ ] No [ ] Some [ ]

13. Was the availability of outdoor activities the main reason for your visit to Pembrokeshire?
   Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't Know [ ]

14. Have you previously been on an activity holiday?
   Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't Know [ ]
   Go to Question 16

15. Where was this holiday and what activities did you take part in?

   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________

16. Can you please tell us how important the following factors are in your holiday choice?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>factor</th>
<th>largely unimportant</th>
<th>very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>novelty of experience</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>challenge (physical and mental)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>companionship/social dimension</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical fitness/wellbeing</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relaxation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adventure</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Will you be returning to Pembrokeshire in the future?
   Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't Know [ ]
18. Had you heard of Twr-Y-Felin Activity Centre before your visit today?

   Yes    No

19. How did you find out about Twr-Y-Felin?

   Tourist Information Centre    Radio
   Word of Mouth    TV
   Newspaper    Tourist Board
   Other (please specify)

20. Would you consider taking part in an accommodation-based course organised by Twr-Y-Felin in the future?

   Yes    No    Don't Know

21. Are you aged?

   16 or under 35-44
   17-24  45-54
   25-34  55 or over

22. Which of the following best describes your current situation?

   Full Time Employed    Housewife/husband
   Part Time Employed    Student
   Self Employed    Retired
   Unemployed

23. Can you please indicate which category you come under for annual income?

   Up to £9,999    £25,000-£29,999
   £10,000-£14,999    £30,000-£34,999
   £15,000-£19,999    £35,000-£39,999
   £20,000-£24,999    £40,000 and over
CODING SCHEDULE: TWR-Y-FELIN

Q2 Where do you live?

| 1  | Clwyd       | 2  | Dyfed       |
| 3  | Mid Glamorgan | 4  | South Glamorgan |
| 5  | West Glamorgan | 6  | Gwent       |
| 7  | Gwynedd      | 8  | Powys       |
| 9  | Scotland     | 10 | Greater London |
| 11 | Avon         | 12 | Bedfordshire |
| 13 | Berkshire    | 14 | Buckinghamshire |
| 15 | Cambridgeshire | 16 | Cheshire    |
| 17 | Cleveland    | 18 | Cornwall    |
| 19 | Cumbria      | 20 | Derbyshire  |
| 21 | Devon        | 22 | Dorset      |
| 23 | Durham       | 24 | East Sussex |
| 25 | Essex        | 26 | Gloucestershire |
| 27 | Greater Manchester | 28 | Hampshire |
| 29 | Hereford & Worcestershire | 30 | Hertfordshire |
| 31 | Humberside   | 32 | Isle of Wight |
| 33 | Kent         | 34 | Lancashire |
| 35 | Leicestershire | 36 | Lincolnshire |
| 37 | Merseyside   | 38 | Middlesex |
| 39 | Norfolk      | 40 | Northamptonshire |
| 41 | Northumberland | 42 | North Yorkshire |
| 43 | Nottinghamshire | 44 | Oxfordshire |
| 45 | Shropshire   | 46 | Somerset |
| 47 | South Yorkshire | 48 | Staffordshire |
| 49 | Suffolk      | 50 | Surrey      |
| 51 | Tyne & Wear  | 52 | Warwickshire |
| 53 | West Sussex  | 54 | West Yorkshire |
| 55 | Wiltshire    | 56 | Ireland     |
| 57 | Other Europe | 58 | Other World |

Q5 Other Type of Accommodation

| 7  | Self-Catering Apartment/Cottage |
| 8  | Combination of Accommodation   |
| 9  | Other                           |

Q6 Activities Taken Part In

| 01  | Walking             |
| 02  | Swimming            |
| 03  | Coaststeering       |
| 04  | Running/Jogging     |
| 05  | Fishing             |
| 06  | Wind Surfing        |
| 07  | Golf                |
| 08  | Scuba Diving        |
| 09  | Horse riding/Pony Trekking |
| 10  | Cricket             |
Q10   How Often Do you Take Part?

10   Walking
11   Swimming
12   Coaststeering
13   Running/Jogging
14   Fishing
15   Wind Surfing
16   Golf

Q12   Do you have your own equipment?

4   Not Applicable

Q15   Activity Holidays

<p>| | |</p>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Walking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Skiing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Sailing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Climbing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Windsurfing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Canoeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Diving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Mountaineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Cycling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>PGL/Scouts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Camp America/Other USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Lakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Peak District</td>
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<td>05</td>
<td>North York Moors</td>
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<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Brecon Beacons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Snowdonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Pembrokeshire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Scotland Lakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>New Forest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>North Wales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Dartmoor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Scotland Mountains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Other Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Butlins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Center Parcs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Other UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q19   How did you find out about TYF?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Been Here Before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Live Here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Leaflet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Video</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
October 1996

Dear

Research with Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre, Pembrokeshire.

Loughborough University have been conducting some research with Twr-Y-Felin Outdoor Activity Centre, in St. Davids, Pembrokeshire for nearly two years and it has now reached its final stage. Your name and contact address was issued to us from the management team at the centre, who gave permission for a questionnaire to be sent.

The questionnaire enclosed aims to find out about your recreation activities at Twr-Y-Felin and your pattern of leisure behaviour at home. Please answer all the questions and feel free to make any additional comments and attach on separate paper. All the information will be treated in the strictest confidence.

We sincerely hope that you do not mind having this sent through to you. A pre-paid addressed envelope has been included, so returning the questionnaire will not cost you anything, except of course a few minutes of your time. Please send the questionnaire back promptly, so the analysis can be completed and the centre provided with information that will help them to develop their facilities and programmes in the future.

If you have any questions about this research, then please do not hesitate to contact me either at work (01509) 223292 or at home (01509) 219439.

Thank you in anticipation for your help.

Yours sincerely

Martin Reeves BA (Hons), MSc
Project Co-ordinator
TWR-Y-FELIN QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire aims to find out about your recreation activities at Twr-Y-Felin and your pattern of leisure behaviour at home. Please answer all the questions and feel free to make any additional comments and attach on separate paper. All the information will be treated in the strictest confidence.

1. When was the last time you took part in an activity-based holiday or short break at Twr-Y-Felin?
   - One month ago
   - 6-12 months ago
   - 1+ years ago

2. How regularly in general would you say that you take part in sports or outdoor pursuit-based holidays or short breaks, either at Ywr-Y-Felin or elsewhere?
   - Very Regularly (monthly or more often)
   - Regularly (a few times a year)
   - Occasionally (once a year or less)

3. What activities do you usually participate in whilst at Twr-Y-Felin or elsewhere (tick more than one box where relevant)?
   - Canoeing
   - Sailing
   - Kayaking
   - Mountain Biking
   - Orienteering
   - Wind Surfing
   - Abseiling
   - Rock Climbing
   - Other Sports
   - Surfing
   - Other (please list below)

4. Will you be returning to Twr-Y-Felin or elsewhere for an activity-based programme within the next five years?
   - Yes Definitely
   - No
   - Yes Probably
   - Not sure yet

5. With whom do you usually take part in your chosen activities (you may tick more than one)?
   - Wife/Husband
   - Boy/Girl Friend
   - Other Family
   - Friend(s)
   - Work Colleagues
   - Club/School/College
   - Other
6. Whilst at home, how often do you take part in your chosen activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Option</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Every Day</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several Times a Week</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several Times a year</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. At what level do you participate in your chosen activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Option</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginner (casual participant or first timer)</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate (regular participant and good club standard)</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite (regular participant and county or above standard)</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. At what age did you first take part in your primary outdoor activity or sport(s)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Option</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5 years</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
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<td>16-20 years</td>
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<td>36-40 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>41-45 years</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>46+ years</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

9. Who introduced you to your primary outdoor activity or sport(s) (you may tick more than one)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction Source</th>
<th>Option</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Relatives</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Teacher</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Club</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yourself</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. At what level do you currently participate in your chosen activity/sport?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Option</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More than when first introduced</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than when first introduced</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same as when first introduced</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Do you have your own equipment/kits?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>(please answer question 11a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11a. Please outline briefly the type of equipment/kits you have which enables you to participate in your chosen activities.

[Blank space for answers]
12. Do you currently hold any formal outdoor activity or other sports instructor/coaching qualifications?
   Yes ☐ (please answer question 12a)
   No ☐
   In process of ☐

12a. Please give brief details of the qualification and at what level it has been attained.

13. Is an activity-based break your main holiday each year?
   Yes ☐
   No ☐ Sometimes ☐

14. Which of the following have you taken within the last five years? (please tick all boxes that apply)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long Holiday</th>
<th>Short Break</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK Camping/caravanning</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Self-Catered</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Camping/Caravanning</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Self-Catering</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Hotel-based</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign sun/beach hotel</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other type of holidays (please provide details)</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Within the past 12 months have you gone on leisure day trips (this does not include business trips or visiting friends and relatives)?
   Yes ☐ (please answer question 15a)
   No ☐
15a. Did you participate or spectate in any of the following whilst on these day trips? (please tick more than one box where relevant)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participated</th>
<th>Spectated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indoor Sports</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Sports</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking/Rambling</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Sport</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. Are you?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Which of the following best describes your present situation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Situation</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time employed</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time employed</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife/husband</td>
<td>□</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. Can you please indicate which category you come under for annual income?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual Income</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to £9,999</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>£25,000-£29,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£10,000-£14,999</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>£30,000-£34,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£15,000-£19,999</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>£35,000-£39,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£20,000-£24,999</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>£40,000 and over</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. In total, how many cars does your household have?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Cars</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More Than Two</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. Are you aged?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 or under</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>35-44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-24</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>45-54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>55+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That concludes the questionnaire. Thank you for your time and patience in completing the questionnaire. Please return the form in the pre-paid envelope.
WORLD ATHLETICS CUP
QUESTIONNAIRE
Self-Completion

CODING SCHEDULE
### Chances for you to Win! Win! Win!

**At The World Cup at Crystal Palace today**

Would you like the chance to win......a signed copy of world record holder Sally Gunnell's new book? Tickets to great athletics events later in the year? Vouchers to spend at a sports shop near you? Enter our free draw by answering the questions on this form and telling us about your visit to the stadium today. The first 10 names selected will win the prize of their choice from the above. Please answer the questions below by circling a number for each answer that applies to you, or writing in the relevant details.

#### Your visit here today.....

1. Do you live in the London area?
   - Yes
   - No
2. Where do you live?
   - City/Town/Village
   - County
   - Country (if not UK)
3. Where have you travelled from today, (if different from home address)?
   - London District
   - Other City/Town/Village
   - Country (if not UK)
4. How often do you visit London?
   - This is my first visit
   - Occasionally (once a year or less)
   - Regularly (a few times a year)
   - Very regularly (monthly or more often)
5. Is visiting this event your main reason for being in London?
   - Yes
   - No (please specify below main reason for visit)
6. Who have you come here with today? (Circle one or more answers)
   - Alone
   - Friends
   - Family
   - Business colleagues
   - Other...
7. How many people are there in your group, here today?
   - Number of adults (aged 16 and over):
   - Number of children (under 16):
8. What were your main methods of travel here today? (Circle one or more answers)
   - Car
   - Bus
   - Coach
   - Train
   - Other (please specify):...
9. How far have you travelled to come here today?
   - 1-10 miles
   - 11-20 miles
   - 21-30 miles
   - 31-60 miles
   - 61 + miles

#### The World Cup at Crystal Palace.....

10. Have you attended sporting events in London before?
   - Yes
   - No
11. How often in general do you attend sporting events?
   - Very Regularly (monthly or more often)
   - Regularly (a few times a year)
   - Occasionally (once a year or less)
12. Please name the sporting events and venues you have been to in the last year
13. Do you also play the sport(s) that you watch?
   - I regularly play the sport(s) I watch
   - I occasionally play the sport(s) I watch
   - I never play the sport(s) I watch
14. When did you last visit an athletics event?
   - 1 month ago
   - 2-6 months ago
   - 6-12 months ago
   - 1+ years ago
15. How long ago did you purchase your ticket(s) for the World Cup event?
   - Bought ticket today
   - Bought ticket 1-7 days ago
   - Bought ticket 8-14 days ago
   - Bought ticket more than 2 weeks ago
16. How did you find out about the event?
   - Newspaper (please specify:)
   - Radio
   - Television
   - Roadside poster
   - Banners
   - Leaflets
   - Athletics press
   - Someone told you about it
   - Other (please specify):...
17. Has visiting this event included you staying away from home in:
   1. A hotel
   2. With friends/relatives
   3. Guest house/B&B
   4. Other accommodation (please specify) ........................................................

18. If you are paying for your accommodation, please state name/location of hotel/guest house etc.

19. How much money are you spending on these items during your visit to the World Cup?
   Please estimate how much you expect to spend in each of these categories as accurately as possible, and indicate how many people that expenditure is for.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>£</th>
<th>For how many?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admission tickets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car parking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overnight accommodation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel in/around London</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/drink at the event</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food/drink elsewhere in London</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs at the event</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping in London</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other entertainment in London</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other spending during this visit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to London</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. Are you attending all three days of the event?
   1. Yes
   2. No

21. Did you use any outside agency or organisation to aid your trip planning or ticket purchasing etc?
   1. Yes (Go to Q.22)
   2. No (Go to Q.23)

22. Which agency/organisation did you use?
   Please give name: ........................................................

23. What is your opinion of the event in terms of Value For Money for the ticket price?
   1. Very Good
   2. Good
   3. Average
   4. Poor
   5. Very Poor

24. How do facilities at Crystal Palace compare to those at other similar stadia you have been to?
   1. Much better
   2. A bit better
   3. About the same
   4. A bit worse
   5. Much worse
   6. Don't know much about other similar stadia

25. Are you aged:
   1. 16 or under
   2. 17-24
   3. 25-34
   4. 35-44
   5. 45-54
   6. 55+

26. Are you:
   1. Male
   2. Female

27. Which of these best describes your present situation?
   1. Full-time employed
   2. Part-time employed
   3. Self-employed
   4. Housewife/husband
   5. Student
   6. Retired
   7. Unemployed

Thank you for your help!
Please put your completed form in the boxes provided at the exit gates or post to:
Martin Reeves
Dept.of PE, Sports Science & Recreation Mgt.
Loughborough University
Loughborough
LE11 3TU
to arrive by Friday 30th September 1994.

To enter the free prize draw, please write your name and address in the box provided. All winners will be contacted by Friday 14th October 1994.
CODING SCHEDULE: WORLD ATHLETICS CUP 1994

Q1. London Area Postcodes
01  W  11  HA
02  NW  12  UB
03  N  13  IG
04  WC  14  RM
05  EC  15  DA
06  E  16  BR
07  SE  17  KT
08  SW  18  TW
09  SM  19  WD
10  AL  20  EN

Q2. Live Outside of London
01  Avon  23  Kent
02  Bedfordshire  24  Lancashire
03  Berkshire  25  Leicestershire
04  Buckinghamshire  26  Lincolnshire
05  Cambridgeshire  27  Merseyside
06  Cheshire  28  Middlesex
07  Cleveland  29  Norfolk
08  Cornwall  30  Northamptonshire
09  Cumbria  31  Northumberland
10  Derbyshire  32  North Yorkshire
11  Devon  33  Nottinghamshire
12  Dorset  34  Oxfordshire
13  Durham  35  Shropshire
14  East Sussex  36  Somerset
15  Essex  37  South Yorkshire
16  Gloucestershire  38  Staffordshire
17  Greater Manchester  39  Suffolk
18  Hampshire  40  Surrey
19  Hereford and Worcestershire  41  Tyne and Wear
20  Hertfordshire  42  Warwickshire
21  Humberside  43  West Sussex
22  Isle of Wight  44  West Yorkshire
23  Wiltshire

46  Wales  47  Scotland
48  Ireland  49  Other Country in Europe
50  North America  51  Elsewhere in the World
52  Channel Islands

Q3 Travelled from today
99  If within the London Postal Districts
---  Above numbers if outside London Postal Districts

Q5 Main Reason for Visit to London
01  Work/Business  03  Study Tour
02  Visiting Friends or Relatives  04  Other Social Events
05  Not Stipulated  06  Holiday

Q6 Who have you come here with today: other categories
01  Not stipulated  03  Sports/Other Club
02  School/College/University  04  Boy/Girl Friend/Fiancé
05  Combination of three
Q8 What were your main methods of travel today?
9 Combination of three or more forms of transport
10 Airoplane
11 motorbike
12 minibus
13 Bicycle

Q11 How Often in general do you attend sporting events?
4 Have never visited a sporting event before/this is my first visit

Q12 Sports Events visited in the last year

01 TSB International Challenge
02 McVities Challenge
03 Grand Prix Athletics Meetings (in UK)
04 Grand Prix Athletics Meetings (abroad)
05 AAA Championships
06 AAA Indoor Championships
07 English Schools Athletics Championships
08 European Indoor Championships
09 National Cross Country Championships
10 Europa Cup Final
11 Commonwealth Games
12 London Marathon
13 Football League
14 Ice Skating
15 Local Football
16 Local Athletics/road races
17 Rugby League
18 FA Cup Final/semi-final
19 County Cricket
20 Tour de France
21 National Swimming Championships
22 Wimbledon
23 Stella Artois Tennis
24 All England Badminton
25 Grand Prix (Motorracing)
26 Grand Prix (Motor bikes)
27 Masters Golf
28 Open Championship
29 Horse Racing
30 Speedway
31 Greyhound Racing
32 Basketball
33 Gymnastics
34 Ice Hockey
35 Ice Jumping
36 International Football
37 Local Athletics/road races
38 Challenge Cup Final
39 Middlesex 7's
40 International Cricket
41 City Cycle Races
42 American Football

43 Eastbourne Tennis
44 Fun Runs
45 Charity Shield
46 Other Local Sports
47 Not Stipulated
48 Other Tennis Champs.
49 Rugby Union
50 Beckenham Tennis
51 Swimming Champs.
52 Hockey
53 World Championships
54 European Championships
55 Boxing
56 Golf
57 Other Tennis Champs.
58 Netball
59 the Boat Race/Henley
60 London Youth Games
61 World Snooker
62 other
63 any other international

Sports Venues Visited in the last year

01 Lower Don Valley Stadium
02 Alexander Stadium
03 Meadowbank
04 Gateshead
05 Crystal Palace
06 Birmingham Indoor Arena
07 NEC
08 Zurich
09 Brussels
10 Nice

20 Ponds Forge Centre
21 Other County Cricket
22 Local Sports Venues
23 Queens Club
24 Wentworth
25 Wembley Indoor Arena
26 Racing Courses
27 Silverston
28 Brands Hatch
29 Donnington
A list of various venues and events:

- Nice
- Helsinki
- Victoria, Canada
- Football League Stadiums
- Rugby League Stadiums
- Trent Bridge
- The Oval
- Headingly
- Edgbaston
- Wimbledon
- Oslo
- Old Trafford
- Local Athletics Venues
- Great North Run
- Turnberry
- Telford
- Speedway
- Other Golf
- Any Other Venue

Questions:

Q13 Do you play the sports you watch?
I used to

Q14 When Did you last visit an athletics event
- Never
- Less than one month ago

Q15 Purchase Of Ticket
Did not pay for ticket

Q16 How Found Out About Event: Newspaper Information
- Daily Telegraph
- The Times
- The Independent
- The Guardian
- The Financial Times
- The Observer
- The Sun
- The Daily Mirror
- The Daily Express
- The Daily Mail
- Today
- The Daily Star
- The Sunday Times
- Independent on Sunday
- International Newspaper

- Mail On Sunday
- Sunday Observer
- The News of the World
- The Sunday Mirror
- Express On Sunday
- The Sport/Sunday Sport
- Radio Times
- TV Guides
- Local Newspaper
- Time Out
- Evening Standard
- London Newspapers
- London Magazines
- Yes, but not stated

How Found Out About Event: Other Sources of Information
- Crystal Palace Information
- Sports Tour Organisations
- School/College/University
- Previous Athletics Event
- Not Stipulated

- Europa Cup Final
- Combination
- Business Associate
- Sports Club/Social Club
- Other
Q17
Other Forms of Accommodation
01 Motel
02 Caravan
03 Boat/Barge
04 Youth Hostel
05 Holiday Park
06 Halls of Residence
07 Farmhouse
08 Campsite

Q18
Location of Paid Accommodation
London Area Postcodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>NW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>WC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>EC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
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<td>WD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>EN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Other Kent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Other Essex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Other Middlesex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Other Surrey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Other Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Not Stipulated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q19
Visitor Spend: Other Spending during Visit To London

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Athletics/Sports Clothing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Other Athletics Merchandise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Travel to/from London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Food/drink en route</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q22
Agency / Organisation used for trip

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Center Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Track and Field Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Ticket Stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Crystal Palace Booking Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>British Athletics Supporters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>London Travel Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Not Stipulated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>BAF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Friend/Relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>School/college/university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Local Sports Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>London TIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Don't Know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>AllMatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Concert Travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Local Travel Agents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Keith Prowse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Local Travel Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Don't Know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Not Stipulated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PILOT CASE STUDY

Priory Rackets Club, Edgbaston
Pilot Case Study: The Priory Rackets Club, Edgbaston.

Introduction

An opportunity was made available early in the research process to pilot a questionnaire on an group of squash players from the Priory Rackets Club in Edgbaston, Birmingham. A group of 25 members were participating in a two week sports holiday at Club La Santa, Lanzarote. The main purpose of this holiday was to receive intensive squash coaching from the professional player travelling with the group. The particular package offered by Club La Santa attracts higher socio-economic groupings than Butlins. The facilities and staff support are of a very high standard and the programme of activities are provided on an all-year round basis and is tailored to elite athletes in training at one end of the spectrum, and first timers or beginners wishing to start and improve their chosen sport at the other.

Design of Methods

The questionnaire included a combination of closed response questions, and open-ended questions, enabling the respondents to make broader comments about their motivation for taking such a holiday. The questionnaire was distributed to all 25 members, and collected by one member of the group, known to the researcher, who also briefly explained the aims and objectives of the research. This resulted in 20 usable questionnaires returned at the end of the two weeks. This spectrum of abilities is clearly reflected in the group under study and hence the following questions were addressed:

Do the respondents continue participation in their sport(s) having returned from the centre, and to what level and intensity?

Do the respondents usually include the availability of sport as one of the most important factors in their holiday decision-making process?

Do the respondents watch (live, not on TV) their chosen sport, and if so at what level and at what frequency?

Does the respondents short break and day trip profile reinforce the propensity to participate in sport, as evident during their main holiday?
Data Analysis

The results are summarised below in two categories. Firstly, the data relating to the qualitative open-ended questions; and secondly, the closed response, quantitative questions.

Qualitative Comments

1) How important was the opportunity to participate in sport whilst at Club La Santa in your decision and why?

"I came to Club La Santa so I felt it was important to participate. A chance to get fitter."

"Very important, because I wanted to go on an activity holiday rather than lazing around in the sun, or sightseeing."

"This was all important—I usually take golf holidays."

"I think if you come to Club La Santa, then it would be silly not to participate because everything here is geared up to sport."

"It was an absolute top priority, because my current lifestyle does not allow sufficient time for exercise."

2) Can you explain the main reasons for your choice of this particular destination?

"Seeing various levels of sporting ability and also having coaching readily available."

"To meet with people, socialise and become a little fitter."

"The main attraction was doing a wide range of sports in lovely surroundings and in a warm climate."

"To participate in different sports and also to be a part of an organised 'sporting holiday' with like-minded company."
"It is sunny in November at this destination and it has an excellent reputation as a multi-disciplinary sports holiday venue to be enjoyed by serious professionals and amateurs alike. Going on holiday with a good crowd of like-minded people."

3) In what ways does the holiday directly benefit your chosen sporting activity?

"It gives you more time to play the sport and so hopefully your performance will gradually improve."

"I am mainly a swimmer, but am not training this week, as there is no competition until next year, so I have the opportunity to try a wide variety of sports while I'm here."

Quantitative Results

Respondent Profiles

The age of the sample ranged from 25-45, with the average age of the group being just under 36 years. Every member of the group was single and the occupations cited by the group were predominantly within the higher socio-economic groupings of A B & C1.

Previous Visits

Of the group sampled 35% (n=7) had visited Club La Santa at least once previously, while 65% (n=13) had never been to the resort before.

Awareness of Club La Santa

The majority of the group (n=12) had found out about the resort from their local squash club and/or the resident squash professional (60%). The remainder of the group had been given information on Club La Santa, by either relatives, friends or an actual Club La Santa representative.

Reasons for Choosing Club La Santa

When questioned as to the main reasons for choosing Club La Santa, the favourable climate was mentioned by 75% (n=15) of the respondents and 55% (n=11) mentioned the availability of a wide range of sports as their main reason. Other reasons given were
the fact that it was part of an organised sports holiday with a group of like minded people (n=3); the general high standard and reputation of facilities at the Club (n=2) and to get away from the work situation (n=1). The group members were invited to give more than one reason.

**Current Level of Participation in Chosen Sport**

The level at which the person was currently playing their adopted sport, produced a result of 80% (n=16) playing at what they perceived to be an intermediate level with the remaining 20% (n=4) at an elite level of performance. Not one member of the group perceived themselves as a beginner. As this was a pre-selected group of squash players, this particular outcome was to be expected.

**Previous Sports-Related Holidays Taken**

Of the four people who had been on a similar sports-related holiday previously, and two had been to Club La Santa participating in a range of sporting activities. One had visited Club Mediterranee to specifically learn water-skiing and the other had regularly attended activity centres both in the UK and abroad, primarily participating in outdoor water sports.

**Continuation of Chosen Activities**

When asked the crucial question of continued participation post holiday, the vast majority (75%) were found to continue their sport when they return home, while for the remainder it was dependent on the type of sport they had participated in. No one responded negatively to this question. In terms of playing their chosen sport in the future, the responses were virtually divided between the 'play about the same' and 'play more' responses'. Once again there was no response indicating less participation in the sport.

**Perceived Benefits of Sports-Related Holidays**

The direct benefits resulting from participation in such a sports-related holiday were perceived to be predominantly two fold. Firstly benefits related directly to the sport or sports, such as advanced coaching (n=8); practice which is relatively undisturbed (n=5). Secondly, a series of benefits related to improvement in general health and fitness achieved through the availability of such a wide range of facilities and opportunities.
Enjoyment of the Holiday

With the exception of just one of the group (which coincidentally happened to be the travelling professional squash coach, who had been responsible for organising the holiday) the remainder of the group did not think that the standard an individual plays their chosen sport at, should necessarily affect the level of enjoyment of their holiday.

Group Composition

All of the group normally take their holidays with friends, relatives or family and all but one of these suggested that those whom they take the holiday with also participate in some form of sport during the holiday. The same response was recorded when asked whether this participation was together as a group, (although this was considered in some cases to be largely dependent upon the sporting activity in question).

Summary

The questionnaire included the contact address of the respondent and thus the ultimate aim was to extend this fieldwork to follow-up these respondents in order to develop a more accurate and comprehensive activity profile for this group. The researcher followed-up the respondents requesting in-depth interviews, but they were not forthcoming. This may have been attributable to the nature of their occupation, because geographically, they all resided within a twenty mile catchment area of central Birmingham, and so the distance to conduct the interviews would not have been a constraint.

Nevertheless, this small-scale survey produced some extremely useful 'snapshot' evidence of sports-related tourism, for this cohort of squash players. In addition, and perhaps more importantly the questions relating to activities undertaken during and after the holiday; importance of various factors in the holiday decision-making process; and enjoyment of the holiday were effectively piloted for use within the Southcoast World and Twr-Y-Felin case studies. Finally the sampling of a dedicated group of relatively high performance squash players, was a useful pilot for the analysis of the cohort of elite level British athletes.
SPORS TOURISM

The area of sports related tourism has largely been ignored by both academics and practitioners alike but you could be of great assistance in redressing this imbalance. The Department of Physical Education, Sports Science and Recreation Management at Loughborough University is currently engaged in a three year research project examining the role of sport in people's holidays.

We are very interested in looking at the motivations, expectations and experiences of people who make a decision to go on sports related holidays and how these change during and immediately after the holiday.

As you have chosen to take a holiday at Club La Santa, this makes you a 'Sports Tourist' and, as such, you can be of enormous help to our research.

We appreciate that as you are on holiday the last thing you will want to do is spend time completing a lengthy and tedious questionnaire. However, if you were able to spare 5 minutes or so answering the questions on the attached pages, then we would be extremely grateful.

The information provided will be used only for the purposes of the research outlined. We have asked for your name and contact address, however if you wish to remain anonymous, then that will be respected. The intention is to contact you again at some stage in the new year to explore some of the issues in more detail, however if you do not wish to be contacted please make this known on the form.

Once you have completed the questions, you can give the form to Lesley Randolph who is a member of your party at La Santa and works in the Department of PE, Sports Science and Recreation Management.

If you wish to find out more about this research, then you are most welcome to contact us at the Department.

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation, it is very much appreciated.

Enjoy your sport and enjoy your holiday!

Dr. Guy Jackson & Martin Reeves MSc
QUESTIONNAIRE

All of the information provided in this questionnaire will be treated in the strictest confidence and used only for the purposes of this research. Please answer the questions as fully as possible and use both sides of the paper if necessary. You may also attach additional sheets if required.

NAME ..................................................................................

ADDRESS ....................................................................................................
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1. DETAILS ON YOUR HOLIDAY AT CLUB LA SANTA

Have you been to Club La Santa Previously? yes/no

How did you first find out about this resort?

Can you explain the main reasons for your choice of this particular destination?
How important was the opportunity to participate in sport whilst at Club La Santa in your decision making and why?

What level would you say you currently play your chosen sport at? Beginner / Intermediate / Elite. (Please delete as applicable)

2. DETAILS ABOUT YOURSELF

Age .............

Occupation............................................................

Marital Status .................................................

3. DETAILS ABOUT YOUR HOLIDAY CHOICES

Have you been on a similar sports related holiday before? yes/no

If Yes, where were these holidays taken and what sports did you participate in?

Do you continue to play your holiday sport when you return from your holiday?
In what ways does the holiday directly benefit your chosen sporting activity?

Do you tend to play your chosen sports more/less or about the same following your holiday?

Do you think that the standard an individual plays their chosen sport/s effects the level of satisfaction and enjoyment of their holiday?

Are your holidays usually taken on your own or with partners and family?

If you usually take these holidays with others, do they normally participate in sporting activities as well?

If yes, do you normally participate together?

THAT Completes THE QUESTIONNAIRE!

Please return this completed form to Lesley Randolph before you depart.

Thanks once again for all of your help.
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
Elite British Athletes

TIME-SPACE BUDGET DIARY
Calendar Sample
CASE STUDY: ELITE BRITISH ATHLETES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SECTION ONE: PERSONAL DETAILS / SPORTS BACKGROUND

• What representative honours do you have?
• How long have you been participating in athletics?
• Who first introduced you to athletics?
• Do you have a full-time job?
• Do you participate in any other sports and if so to what level?
• How many times do you train each week?

SECTION TWO: TRAINING CAMPS AT HOME AND ABROAD

• When was the last time you attended a training camp?
• When are you next travelling away for training and/or competition?
• Please list the places you have visited in order to train and state how long you stayed at each place?
• Have you ever been to Club La Santa in Lanzarote or the Australian Institute of Sport or any other purpose built centre for sport-specific training, particularly during the English winter?
• Have you paid for these camps, or were they funded for you?

SECTION THREE: ACTIVITIES WHILST AWAY TRAINING

• Apart from your specific training activities, what else do you tend to get involved in whilst away?
• For example do you play other sports recreationally/ for fun, such as swimming, or cycling?
• Do you tend to go sightseeing such as local attractions, museums?
• Do you eat out at local restaurants, go to theatre, disco etc?
• Do you sunbathe or swim at the beach?
• Do you travel mainly on your own or with other athletes/coaches?
SECTION FOUR: OTHER HOLIDAYS

• Do you, in general take other holidays during the year?
• Do you normally go for sun, sea and sand package holidays?
• Do you still train whilst taking a holiday?
• Do you play other sports for recreation/fun?
• Do you normally go on holiday with friends/family/partners or others?

SECTION FIVE: GENERAL

• Have you ever been on a holiday, either at home or abroad specifically to learn or improve a sport, such as tennis or golf?
• Do you spectate at the events you are taking part in?
• Have you ever travelled (involving an over night stay) either in the UK or abroad to spectate at a sports event, at which you were not taking part?
• Do you ever go on day trips which are mainly activity based, whether participating or spectating, e.g to watch a football league match?
Dear Athlete

Thank you first of all for agreeing to be interviewed to help with the research project here at Loughborough University. As you know the interview will be tape-recorded, and should last between twenty and thirty minutes. Immediately following the interview you will be asked to complete a calendar diary of your main training and competition commitments for the coming year (from October to next September).

Don't be concerned if this seems confusing, as the researcher will be present to explain or clarify anything for you. As you will see, many of the key regional, national and international meetings have already been highlighted to jog your memory. It is of particular relevance for this research to find out how much of your travel for training and competition will involve an overnight stay, away from where you usually live.

The researcher will provide you with different colour pens to mark on the various commitments you have. Additional notes will also be made as you complete the calendar diary, in terms of nature of the training and competition, and confirming the exact destination (especially if it involves international travel).

Thanks once again for your co-operation in the research, and the very best of luck with your athletics this year.

Martin
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**December Events:**
- Christmas Day: 25th December
- Boxing Day: 26th December
- New Year: 1st January
- Spring Term Begins: 4th January

### January 1996

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**January Events:**
- New Year Bank Holiday: 1st January
- Spring Term Begins: 4th January
- Winter Break: 21st January
- Winter Break: 28th January
- Midland Games: 29th January
- National Open: 30th January

Other Events:
- Grand Prix: 7th January
- Spring Term Begins: 14th January
- Midland Games: 21st January
- Winter Break: 28th January

**Note:** The calendar includes holidays and breaks for the academic year 1995-1996.
### February 1996

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**UNIVERSITY CLOSED**
## August 1996

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