

Women Who Play While They Are Away:

Exploring the Assumptions of Sport Tourism

Doctoral Dissertation by
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Women Who Play While They Are Away: Exploring the Assumptions of Sport Tourism

By

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation

Edmonton, Alberta

Spring 2009

Examining Committee Signature Page

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to Pat Forbes, Jean Weighill, Patty Biro, Moria Colbourne, and all the other women in the Christie and Forbes families. You provided the best role models a girl could ask for and a solid education in the responsibility of giving back.

Abstract

While the act of travelling to participate in or watch sporting events has been occurring for hundreds of years, the phenomena of sport tourism has only received significant academic attention in the past two decades. Much of the existing literature has focused on the conceptual development and description of ‘what sport tourism is’ and ‘who sport tourists are’, resulting in a solid foundation for future exploration that is largely dependent on untested assumptions.

The work contained in this dissertation explores three relatively untested assumptions of existing sport tourism research, while also addressing an imbalance in our knowledge about female sport travellers. The first study uses data on Canadian domestic travel to investigate the perception that spectators are inherently different than participants. The second and third studies focus on a the specific sporting context of the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies [Field] Hockey Festival (Festival) held in Nadi, Fiji, and explore the postulations that: a) sport must be a primary motivation for ‘sport travel’ and b) sporting festivals can result in vacationing and regional travel beyond the initial event.

The results of these explorations support two of the assumptions but not the third. It was shown that spectators and participants (at a macro level) are more similar than different, and that other intervening factors such as age, gender, and trip duration were more likely to explain differences than was mode of sport consumption. The exploration of motivations revealed that while sport may be a ‘driver’ of participation, the opportunity to satisfy social and learning motives was more important to the women than activity participation. However, it was further discussed that the root of this issues is less

to do with the centrality of sport and more to do with the conceptualization of *motivation*. The exploration of the vacation behaviours of the female festival participants revealed that over half of all study participants vacationed before or after (or both) the Festival, thus supporting this assumption. However, it would appear that distance decay theory and economic psychology also play a role as while more women from New Zealand participated in the festival, women from Canada and Australia were more likely to add-on vacation time and to stay longer.

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Table of Contents

University of Alberta Library Release Form	i
Women Who Play While They Are Away: Exploring the Assumptions.....	ii
Examining Committee Signature Page	iii
Dedication	iv
Abstract	v
Acknowledgements.....	vii
Table of Contents	viii
List of Tables	xi
List of Figures	xiii
Chapter 1 - Introduction.....	1
Assumptions of Sport Tourism Inquiry	1
Assumption I: Spectators do not equal Participants	2
Assumption II: Primary or Secondary – Questioning the Role of Sport as a Motive.....	4
Assumption III: Regional Benefits of Sport Travel	6
Assumption IV: Sport Traveller Equals Male Traveller.....	8
Women Who Play While Away – The Dissertation	10
Women Who Play While Away – The Researcher.....	11
References.....	15
Chapter 2 – Active & Event Sport Travel: Looking Beyond Sport Consumption	19
Literature Review.....	21
Methods.....	27
Data Analysis	28
Results.....	31
Spectators & Participants	31

Excursionists and Tourists	34
Male and Female Sport Travellers	38
Life Span and Sport Tourism Participation	44
Discussion	55
Conclusion	57
Limitations & Future Research	58
References	60
Chapter 3 - Moving Beyond the Average: Women’s Motivations for Sport Travel	65
Literature Review.....	67
Exploring Leisure Motivations	67
Motivations of Active Sport Travellers	69
Exploring Women’s Leisure Participation.....	70
Method	73
Sample, Study Instrument, and Measurement	73
Data Analysis	75
Results.....	76
Discussion	84
Conclusions.....	89
References.....	92
Chapter 4 - Since We’re Already Here!: Add-on Travel of Female Sport Travellers	99
Travel Context: Destination Fiji	103
Sport Context: Golden Oldies Field Hockey	104
Methods.....	106
Data Analysis	107
Results.....	108

Add-on Travel and Timing of Travel.....	110
Add-on Travel and Country of Origin	114
Conclusions and Discussion	118
Implications for Planning & Practice.....	122
Limitations and Future Research	123
References.....	125
Chapter 5 – Looking Back & Moving Forward: An Applied Research Agenda.....	130
The Assumptions	130
Feminist Reflections	134
Moving Forward: An Amended Framework for Sport Travel Research.....	135
An Amended Framework for Research	136
From Framework to Research Agenda	139
Sustainability.....	139
Subculture	140
Feminist Inquiry.....	141
References.....	142
Appendix A : Canadian Travel Survey Questionnaire (2003).....	144
Appendix B: Fiji Questionnaire	147

List of Tables

Table 2-1: Coefficient of Variation and Minimum Sample Sizes	30
Table 2-2: Spectators and Participants from Single (1) Adult Households-Differences ..	32
Table 2-3: Additional Tourist Activity Participation of Spectators and Participants	33
Table 2-4: Age of Spectator and Participant Excursionists	35
Table 2-5: Trip Expenditures (CAD) of Spectator and Participant Tourists	36
Table 2-6: Trip Expenditures (CAD) of Spectator and Participant Excursionists.....	36
Table 2-7: Percentage of Sport Travellers Who Participated in Additional Activities.....	37
Table 2-8: Number of People from the Same Household on Vacation	39
Table 2-9: Gender Differences in Trip Purpose.....	40
Table 2-10: Differences between Male Spectators and Male Participants	41
Table 2-11: Differences Between Female Spectators and Female Participants	42
Table 2-12: Household Expenditure (CAD) of Female Spectators and Participants.....	43
Table 2-13: Household Expenditure (CAD) of Male Spectators and Participants	43
Table 2-14: The # of Children in Households Compared to the # of Adults.....	46
Table 2-15: Late Adult Spectator and Participants who did not Participate.....	49
Table 2-16: Socio-demographics of Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood – Spectators	49
Table 2-17: Socio-demographic of Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood – Participants ...	50
Table 2-18: Differences in Household Travel Party Composition by Life Span.....	52
Table 2-19: Participation differences in Additional Travel Activities.....	54
Table 3-1: REP Scale Domains, Items, and Cronbach’s Alphas	77
Table 3-2: Recreation Modes Scale Domains, Items, and Cronbach’s Alphas	78
Table 3-3: Analysis of Variance on REP by Nationality	79
Table 3-4: Analysis of Variance on REP by Cluster Membership	79
Table 3-5: Cluster Means for Each REP Domain Compared to Mid-Point of 3.00	80
Table 3-6: Cluster One – Highly Motivated – REP Domain Means (ordered)	81
Table 3-7: Cluster Two – Moderately Motivated – REP Domain Means (ordered)	81
Table 3-8: Analysis of Variance on Recreation Mode by Cluster Membership.....	82
Table 3-9: Cluster Means for Recreation Mode Compared to Each Other.....	82
Table 3-10: Percentage of Players in Each Life Span Stages Within Clusters.....	83
Table 3-11: Percentage of Each Nationality Between Clusters	83

Table 3-12: % of Players Who Holidayed in Differing Periods Within Each Cluster	83
Table 3-13: % of Players Participating in Select Activities During the Festival.....	84
Table 4-1: Approximate household income by timing of vacation	110
Table 4-2: Timing of travel by women's country of residence (%)	111
Table 4-3: Destination of additional travel by time of vacation (%)	112
Table 4-4: Activity participation in the periods before and after the festival.....	113
Table 4-5: Activity participation during the festival by add-on travel group	114
Table 4-6: Destination of Additional Vacation by Country of Residence.....	116
Table 4-7: Analysis of variance on duration (days) by country of residence	117
Table 4-8: Duration (days) of add-on vacations by timing and country of residence	118
Table 4-9: Duration (days) spent on vacation by country of residence and timing.....	118

List of Figures

Figure 2-1: Travel Party Size of Spectators in Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood.....	51
Figure 2-2: Travle Party Size of Participants in Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood.	52
Figure 4-1: Primary Areas of Tourist Visitation in Fiji	104
Figure 4-2: The number of Golden Oldies Festivals Attended (%)......	109
Figure 4-3: Household income of Australians, Canadians, and New Zealanders	111
Figure 4-4: The Most Popular Destinations for Extended Vacations	116
Figure 5-1: Framework for sport tourism research	136

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Active sport travel has, for the most part, been identified as the domain of men (Gibson, 1998a), resulting in women being relegated to the position of the subordinate other. This focus on males is problematic for a number of reasons. First, as Gibson has shown the average profile of active sport travellers as “male, affluent, and college educated” (p. 155) is typical, but does not always apply universally across all sport specific travel markets. Secondly, this profile hides the substantial level of involvement by women within sport travel (c.f., International Olympic Committee [IOC] & World Tourism Organization [WTO], 2001; Weighill, 2003). Thirdly, the continued identification of sport participants and sport travellers as men contributes to the notion that women are not interested in being active, and thus are not likely to participate in active leisure travel. The net result of this focus on male sport travel is the potential for under- or poor-development of opportunities for women and, in extreme cases, the complete discounting of women as a prospective and viable sport tourism market.

The overarching purpose of this dissertation and the papers contained within is to address the lack of empirical research that acknowledges women as sport travellers and which explores their involvement. In addition, each of the research papers is focused on exploring four relatively untested assumptions existing in current sport tourism literature. The first of the three studies takes a macro perspective and explores Canadian domestic travel, while the other two studies examine women’s sport travel within the specific context of the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies [Field] Hockey Festival (Festival).

Assumptions of Sport Tourism Inquiry

While the relationship between sport and tourism has a long history (Weed & Bull, 2004), it is only within the last two decades that it has received increased attention by academics (Gibson, 2006). During the 1990s and early 2000s, much of this attention was focused on the conceptual development and the delineation of sport tourism markets. The work of researchers such as Hall (1992), Gammon and Robinson (1997), Gibson (1998b),

Standeven and De Knop (1999), Hinch and Higham (2001), Delpy Neirotti (2003), and Weed and Bull (2004) lead to a very broad understanding of the “confluence of sport and travel” (Hinch & Higham, 2004, p. 18). However, as the volume of sport tourism literature increases (c.f., Gibson, 2006) so does the call for research that: a) more clearly delineates what is counted as sport tourism, and b) moves beyond generalized descriptions of sport tourists to explanations of their behaviour and motivations (Gibson, 2006; Weed & Bull, 2004).

The following review of sport tourism literature provides the thematic background for this dissertation and the analysis of data¹. As suggested by the section heading, it is postulated that there are assumptions within the conceptual development of sport travel that have not been investigated or have received little attention through empirical studies. The three primary assumptions that form the basis of this dissertation and which are discussed in the following sections include: a) spectators are inherently different than participants, b) sport is the ‘primary’ motivation for participating in sport tourism experiences, and c) sport festival participation results in ‘add-on’ vacation time beyond the primary sport experience.

Assumption I: Spectators do not equal Participants

There have been numerous attempts to define sport tourism, some of which (Hinch & Higham, 2001; 2004; Weed & Bull, 2004) are based on melding definitions of ‘sport’ and ‘tourism’. These classifications share many commonalities including the acknowledgement that ‘sport’ and ‘tourism’ are social and cultural phenomena, and thus, definitions singularly and collectively are contested. Others (e.g., Gibson, 1998b) have constructed definitions through the synthesis of sport tourism research. At the heart of these is the notion that sport travellers² can either be *active* or *passive*, with *active* most often being characterised by activity participation and *passive* relating the experience of spectators. Gibson, building on the foundational work of Gerald Redmond, adds the

¹ The research that forms this dissertation was originally conceptualized and conducted in 2003 – prior to the publication of many of the sources examined in this chapter.

² The term sport travellers is used to capture both excursionist (day trippers) and tourists (over-night travel).

category *nostalgia sport tourism*, which recognizes the unique contribution of sport museums and the venerating of historic sporting venues (i.e., St. Andrew's golf course) or sporting events.

Another aspect of the 'definition' discussion is the general purpose of the travel; should business travel as well as leisure travel be counted? Gibson (1998b) clearly indicates that sport tourism is "leisure-based travel" (p. 49), while Delpi Neirotti (2005) and Higham (2005a) both include business travel (i.e., professional athletes, team managers, etc.) as part of their overall view of sport tourism. The acknowledgment of professional sport (and arguably elite competitive sport) as a segment of the sport tourism market is not new; however, its contribution is generally viewed as a sport travel product for spectators.

Hinch and Higham (2001) conceptualize sport tourism as multi-dimensional with sport as "a central attraction within the activity dimension of tourism" (p. 45). Within their model, sport is also viewed in relation to the "spatial and temporal dimensions of tourism" (p. 45). Weed and Bull (2004) provide another perspective that suggests that "sports tourism be viewed as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from the unique interaction of activity, people and place" (p. 45). Offering yet another viewpoint, Higham (2005b) has stated that "sport tourist experiences vary along active-passive, social-competitive, professional-amateur, and success-participation continua" (p. 288).

Amongst these various views on sport tourists, there is one overarching assumption: spectators (passive) are different than participants (active). While this distinction makes intuitive sense in relation to mode of sport consumption and professional/elite sport, there is little research that explicitly compares the travel behaviours and socio-demographic characteristics of active participants and spectators. Thus, the inherent differences between spectators and participants related to modes of tourism consumption, remains a mostly untested assumption of sport tourism inquiry.

Assumption II: Primary or Secondary – Questioning the Role of Sport as a Motive

An additional definitional element that has received varied attention by researchers is the role of sport as ‘driver’ (i.e., motive) or central activity within the overall travel experience. Using the theory of ‘serious leisure’ as a means of exploring different levels of sport involvement, Hall (1992) suggests that there are activity participants and players, with the latter being more dedicated and competitive. An important implication of this is that sport tourism marketers need to promote different elements of sport tourism to each group as the nature of their experiences, and thus their motivations, will differ.

Gammon and Robinson (1997) argue that there are sport tourism and the category of tourism sports, each with a ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ definition. Like the previously discussed perspectives, Gammon and Robinson include active and passive participation; however, they add the following criterion: “sport is the prime motivation to travel, though the touristic element may act to reinforce the overall experience” (p. 14). The ‘hard’ definition of sport tourism is based on participation in or watching of organized competitive sport, whereas ‘soft’ sport tourism includes involvement in sport at a recreational level. Similarly, tourism sports include involvement in sporting activities while on vacation; however, in this instance the participation is a secondary aspect of the overall trip. Revisiting their framework of sport tourism, Robinson and Gammon (2004) reiterate the need to examine the motivations of sport travellers but further indicate that “it is still relatively unknown in what ways sport and tourism motives combine and interact and how this might affect consumers’ expectations and satisfactions” (p. 231).

The significance of the motivation discussion is clear in both the conceptualization of sport travel and in the development and management of sport travel experiences. Many of the prolific academic writers (e.g., Delpy Neirotti, 2005; Gibson, 1998b; Higham, 2005a; Weed, 2006) have identified that sports events (i.e., spectatorship) are the most researched areas of sport travel. Thus, much of what we know about motivations for sport travel relates to people watching sports events and as Gibson, Willming and Holdnak (2002) indicated, much of that literature pertains to fandom and not to the touristic behaviours of spectators.

Activities like skiing and golf have long been examined as activities that tourists participate in, though empirical investigation of the active sport travel motivations is still in its infancy. Other active sport travel opportunities, such as competitive cycling (Bull, 2006) and Masters Games (Ryan & Lockyer, 2002; Ryan & Trauer, 2005) are only beginning to receive increased attention.

Much of the research on active sport travellers focuses on the experiences of adults participating in events like the Masters Games. Ryan and Trauer's (2005) work on the 2002 World Masters Games in Melbourne, Australia provides insight into the importance of not only competition but socially friendly environments. Similarly, the work of Gillett and Kelly (2006) on the 2005 Australian Masters Games shows that while socializing was key for some athletes, the sport experience (i.e., competition) was of more importance for others. Their study also reveals that non-local (i.e., tourist) participants felt a stronger expressed need for socializing when attending games away from their home locale. Ryan and Lockyer's (2002) study of the 2000 South Pacific Masters Games has similar findings, with social aspects of the games being "relatively important" (p. 263). However, "a major motivation for participation is a sense of challenge and fun" (p. 263). Similarly, Bull's (2006) investigation of competitive cyclists found that while the sport aspects (i.e., the race and competition) "were the paramount factors" (p. 271) of the experience, other travel features such as visiting new locales and spending time with friends and family "were far from insignificant" (p. 271).

As perhaps the only in-depth investigation of female active sport tourists, Green and Chalip's (1998) investigation of the experiences of female touch-footballers provides a solid foundation for the exploration of women as sport travellers. The results of their study suggest that the act of playing football is most likely not a sufficient motive for participation; rather, participation is driven by the opportunity for the women to celebrate a subcultural identity that is shared with other players. In addition, the women who participated in the Key West Women's Flag Football tournament placed a high value on the social aspects of the event. This facet of the experience was of such importance that

some felt that the tight schedule of the event negatively impacted on the women's opportunities for informal socializing.

Despite the increasing attention to motivations for active sport travel, there remains a limited understanding of the role of sport within that experience. Further, as much of the existing knowledge is based upon participation in sporting events that emphasize competition (or at least recognizes achievement); it remains unclear whether participants of more recreational sporting events will be similarly motivated. Therefore, a largely untested assumption of sport tourism inquiry is that sport (i.e., activity) participation is the primary motivational factor for involvement.

Assumption III: Regional Benefits of Sport Travel

The primary focuses of event based sport tourism are the spectator experience (Delpy, Bosetti, & Teed, 2001; Gibson et al., 2002) and the economic and strategic benefits of hosting mega-events such as the Olympics (Delpy Neiroti, 2005). However, despite the suggestion that sporting events have the ability to not only attract visitors but to promote exploration of the host's geographic region (Getz, 1991), there has been little empirical research that explores this and less that examines community and regional benefits of small scale sports events (Higham, 1999).

Getz (1991) states that "events can be used in conjunction with other attractions to heighten overall destination appeal" (p. 6). Similarly, Lue, Crompton, and Fresenmaier (1993) argue that the appeal of a combination of events and attractions within a single route or area can induce travel in situations where a single attraction may not. Tourists also tend to look for a combination of destinations and attractions within close proximity in order to satisfy a variety of travel needs while also negotiating a series of travel constraints. This suggests that communities can leverage sporting events in combination with other attractions or key destination features as a means of not only attracting participants but also promoting further exploration and travel. However, Trauer, Ryan, and Lockyer (2003) caution that participants may be "focused on the nature of the event and, thus, only small proportions may be persuaded to stay longer in the vicinity to visit

other attractions” (p. 281). In contrast, Nogawa, Yamaguchi, and Hagi (1996) suggest that sporting events can be intentionally designed to influence sport tourist behaviours, including: a) increasing duration of stay, b) additional activity participation, and c) spending patterns.

In order to maximize the economic benefits of a sporting event, the hosts must attract visitors from outside the immediate area (i.e., introduce “new” money into the destination) and need to encourage them to stay as long as possible. The challenge of attracting these individuals has been documented within the literature on travel flows and reflects the distance decay concept whereby there is a negative relationship between distance and the probability of travel (i.e., the greater the distance the less likely people will make the trip; McKercher & Lew, 2003). However, it has been clearly argued that sporting events have the ability to induce travel (Getz, 1991) and thus prompt participants to negotiate the psychological and financial constraints associated with travel distance (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson, & Walker, 2005).

Research on travel patterns (Lue et al., 1993; McKercher & Lew, 2003; Oppermann, 1995) and economic psychology (Crotts & van Raaij, 1994) reveals that while fewer visitors will travel from great distances (at greater costs), those who make the trip are willing to incur higher destination related travel expenses (i.e., additional vacation time or participation in an activity/event). Further, it is argued that visitors view increased spending as a rational decision, justified by the high investment associated with transportation to that particular destination. The findings of Preuss, Seguin, and O’Reilly’s (2007) investigation of visitors to the Commonwealth Games support this contention in that individuals who travelled further stayed longer and spent more money. Similarly, Getz (1991) found that, in general, event attendees are more likely to stay longer and spend more money than other types of tourists. These findings suggest that while event planners are more likely to have participants from the closer markets, it may be the sport tourists from further away that provide greater economic impact for the region.

Within the realm of sport tourism research there is an increasing amount of literature extolling the benefits of hosting major events. However, Preuss et al. (2007) indicate that “there remains some uncertainty regarding the tourism-related benefits a region experience as a result of hosting a major sport event” (p. 8). Further, there is also growing interest in the leveraging of sporting events and the bundling of sporting events with destination attributes (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004; Funk, Toohey, & Bruun; Getz, 2008; Green, 2001; Scott & Turco, 2007), though much of this literature relates to expanding the attendance at the primary event and not the promotion of additional or regional travel.

“Just as attractions can bring visitors to the destination, the destination can provide attractions that bring visitors to an event and that persuade event visitors to stay beyond the period of the event” (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004, p. 269). Despite the conviction of this statement, there is little evidence in the published research on sport tourism that supports it. One exception is Bull (2006), who found that some competitive cyclists either choose destinations for holidays based on the availability of a race or build racing opportunities into ‘non-racing’ (e.g., family) holidays. However, the assumption that of sporting events – particularly those where active participants are the primary target – to induce travel beyond the actual event is not fully tested.

Assumption IV: Gender Analysis in Sport Tourism

Early sport tourism inquiry resulted in an average description of sport tourists that while statistically accurate, was somewhat misleading and limited in usefulness. An examination of published research on the characteristics of the active sport travel market reveal that, on average, sport travellers are male, 18-44 years old, college educated, and relatively affluent (Delpy Neirotti et al., 2001; Gibson, 1998a; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; IOC & WTO, 2001). Closer investigation shows that the male domination of sport travel does not apply to all activities nor to all cultural groups. For instance, Gibson (1998a) states that in North America women are more likely than men to cross-country ski. Similarly, researchers generalizing German, Dutch, and French outbound sport travellers as male also show the gender split for some sporting activities was as close as 4% (52% male to 48% female; IOC & WTO, 2001).

The continued generalization that males comprise the sport traveller market not only diminishes the role of women as sport travellers but is also misleading for sport tourism planners and developers. Specifically, the focus on men perpetuates the idea that women are uninterested in sport or physical activity when in reality women have participation levels that are often close to those of males. However, as sport tourism has developed as a field of study, the status of women within sport tourism research has also evolved.

Henderson (1994) has suggested that within leisure studies, the study of women's leisure has progress from the complete invisibility of women to inquiry that examines the how gendered knowledge is created. Examinations of the sport tourism literature would suggest that it is progressing through a similar path and has moved beyond the stage of complete invisibility to that of the examination of "dichotomous/sex differences" (Henderson, p. 2). Much of the work previously discussed provided superficial comparisons of gender differences related to participation rates; however, other work such as that of Gibson and Yiannakis (2002), provides theoretically grounded explanations of gender differences. The progression of sport tourism analysis to the gender differences stage, particularly the more theoretically grounded examinations, is a definite improvement. However, further evolution that embodies a more feminist approach is required.

One of the only examples of sport tourism inquiry entirely focused on women's experiences is Green and Chalip's (1996) investigation of a women's flag-football tournament in Key West. This "woman-centred" (Henderson, 1990, p. 2) investigation provides detailed accounting not only of the players' commitment to their sport participation but also the ability of sport to induce women's travel. Further, their study highlights the importance of non-sport factors to the overall experience and provides a starting place for further women-centred research.

It has been shown that the majority of research within sport tourism has focused on events (spectatorship) and on impacts; however, it has been argued that research on the

individuals who are responsible for those impacts is needed (Weed & Bull, 2004). Given that gender has been one of the most ignored aspects of tourism analysis (Momsen, 2002) and sport has historically been seen as the domain of men (Messner & Sabo, 1990), it is not surprising that early sport tourism analysis tended to take an androgynous or male-centred perspective on participation. The progression to more gender comparative analysis can be seen as a natural progress as sport tourism inquiry follows a similar path of evolutions as one of its parent disciplines, leisure studies. However, as discussed above, women centred research is still limited and sport tourism large still viewed as the domain of men, and thus an overarching purpose of this dissertation is the desire to address the lack of women-centred research and the limited knowledge of sport tourism that relates to women.

Women Who Play While Away – The Dissertation

It is intended that this dissertation will help form a foundation for the continued exploration of women's sport travel. Using a format that adheres to the requirements of the Faculty of Graduate Studies at the University of Alberta for multiple-paper dissertations, the remainder of the chapters in this document address the previously discussed assumptions and provide a direction for future sport travel inquiry. Chapters two through four are comprised of individual research papers that include independent literature reviews, methodology and data analysis sections, as well as results and discussions. The final chapter offers a general discussion on the research in relation to the four assumptions of sport tourism literature, as well as a reflection on Hinch and Higham's (2001) framework for sport tourism research as a means of setting a future research agenda.

The three research papers each offer a different perspective on the phenomena of sport travel, while building and expanding on each other. The first paper provides a comparison and overview of the behaviours and socio-demographic characteristics of Canadian domestic sport travellers, testing the assumption that spectators and participants

are inherently different from each other. It also explores the influence of gender on participation, thus adding to our understanding of the gendered nature of sport tourism. However, due to the limitations of the database, little could be determined about the motivations for travel, the role of activity within the trip, or the potential trip phases within the overall experience.

The second research paper responds to the call for empirical investigations on the “why” of sport tourism participation (Gibson, 2006; Weed & Bull, 2004) as well as the limitations of the first paper. Focusing on the second untested assumption – that sport needs to be a primary motivation – this study centres on the reasons that women from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand took part in an international sport festival that was for adults (35+ years old) and recreational in nature. The relevance of this research paper is that it addresses two of the major gaps in our sport tourism knowledge: motivations for participation in active sport travel and women’s experiences in sport travel.

The final paper examines the touristic behaviours of female sport travellers, including participation in Festival and non-Festival activities and additional vacationing either before or after the primary sporting event. Like paper two, the focus of this research paper is women’s experiences; however, it also addresses the largely untested assumption that sport tourism events can promote greater regional tourism. In addition, the focus of this project on a smaller scale event that is hostable by rural communities helps to address the gap in the literature identified by Higham (1999).

Women Who Play While Away – The Researcher

The foundation of any feminist research agenda is the feminist epistemology that not only guides the selection of methodology and methods, but also helps to identify the perspectives and biases of the researcher involved in the process. While at its root, epistemology can be viewed as the “theory of knowledge” (Fetzer & Almeder, 1993, p. 47), Stanley and Wise (1993) provide a more detailed perspective on epistemology:

An ‘epistemology’ is a framework or theory for specifying the constitution and generation of knowledge about the social world; that is, it concerns how to understand the nature of ‘reality’. A given epistemological framework specifies not only what

‘knowledge’ is and how to recognize it, but who are ‘knowers’ and by what means someone becomes one, and also the means by which competing knowledge-claims are adjudicated and some rejected in favour of another/others. (p. 188)

While it is commonly acknowledged that there is no single form of feminism and no single feminist epistemology, Falco (1987) suggests that “feminism has sought to break down the walls which have denied women full recognition for the quality and value of their participation in and contribution to the social life of the mind” (p. xi). Moreover, Hekman (1987) argues that the development of feminist epistemologies “is a comprehensive and radical movement that forces these disciplines [natural and social sciences] to examine the foundation of their conceptions of knowledge and the methodologies on which those conceptions are based” (p. 66). The epistemological stance that best describes the research contained in this dissertation is that of feminist empiricism (Tanesini, 1999). However, as a feminist I do not fit wholly into Harding’s (1991) conceptualization of feminist empiricism but rather approach research from a hybridized perspective of feminist empiricism and feminist standpoint theory.

Feminist empiricism is viewed as a means of addressing the ‘sexist’ and ‘andocentric’ nature of science. At its core, is the questioning of traditional perspectives on objectivity and subjectivity, as well as the more positivistic notions of a single ‘answer’ that relates to the individual through exploration of the collective (Code, 1995; Stanley & Wise, 1993; Whaley, 2001). Harding (1991) states that feminist empiricists have worked to bring feminist principles to existing scientific research that has largely been seen as the domain of the western, white male elite. Code furthers our understanding of feminist empiricism by contrasting it to traditional empiricist (and arguably positivist) epistemology:

Feminist empiricists argue that, far from being as neutral and objective as they themselves claim, traditional empiricists are caught in the androcentric assumptions that govern their knowledge-producing activities. These feminists believe that an unabashedly value-laden yet rigorous empiricism, informed by feminist ideology, can

produce more adequate knowledge than can standard empiricisms ignorant of their complicity in a sex/gender system... (p. 40)

Feminist standpoint theory suggests that the social reality of being female (i.e., the subjugated other) must be fully integrated into science in order to achieve feminist ideals (Harding, 1991). Grounded in Marxist theory, this feminist epistemology acknowledges the unique 'knowing' that is only possible when one is part of the 'known' (Tanesini, 1999). A key aspect of this epistemological stance is the notion that not only are some standpoints 'privileged' but that the standpoint of 'female' does not automatically translate into the ability to 'know' all women. Rather, there are many standpoints, including those predicated on race, sexuality, age, and social status (Harding; Stanley & Wise, 1993; Tanesini). Aitchison (2005) states that "standpoint feminism embraces a number of different positionalities or 'standpoints' that address structural and material disadvantage within society...with each position derived from a different emphasis on the locus of power within society" (p. 212).

The suggestion that the research within this dissertation is conducted with a hybridized epistemological stance of feminist empiricism and feminist standpoint is predicated on not only the methodological choices made for information gathering but also on the 'ways of knowing' that influence the interpretation of the results. More specifically, while the research utilizes quantitative methods of data collection and analysis within a more traditional (feminist) model of empiricism, the selection of those methods, the questions asked (both guiding research and specific questionnaire items), and the interpretations of results are conducted from a feminist standpoint. In this instance, the standpoint was that of a western women's experiences within leisure participation.

In keeping with the ideals of a feminist epistemology, it is necessary to fully disclose the influences on the 'ways of knowing' that impacted on the research process. The primary impetus for the conceptualization and subsequent operationalization of this dissertation is a dissatisfaction with the continued identification of men as 'average sport

travellers'. Furthering my discontent is the fact that the majority of sport tourism literature tends to fit into two categories: a) androgynous studies that ignore gender beyond a description of the sample (if included at all), and b) descriptive comparative studies that acknowledged participation rates that emphasized male participation while placing women's involvement in the subordinate position of 'other' (e.g., IOC & WTO, 2001). Compounding the issue is my self-identification as a female sport traveller.

A key factor influencing the standpoint from which I approach the investigation of sport travel is my educational background within Canadian leisure studies and recreation management. An educational foundation in community based recreation that included exposure to feminist researchers/professors (e.g., Wendy Bedingfield, Karen Fox, Alison Pedlar, Brenda Robertson, and Susan Shaw) motivated me to not only explore the reality of women but also to help improve our leisure options and experiences. As a result, I acknowledge the lack of a single 'female reality' and attempt to explore the shared experience of women within specific contexts with the ultimate goal of influencing practice.

Also, shaping my world view are: a) a rural upbringing on Vancouver Island, British Columbia, b) female family members who participated in elite (national team member and university varsity sport) and community sport that has included extensive team and personal sport travel, c) my participation in competitive sports while a youth/teen, and d) growing up in a family with a matriarchal structure and strong values related to gender equality.

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Chapter 2 – Active & Event Sport Travel: Looking Beyond Sport Consumption

Tourism, as a “leading [economic] growth sector and job creator” (Wilton, 2004, p. 1), is a vital element of the Canadian economy. Sport related travel is only one aspect of the overall tourism sector, but this collection of niche markets (Bull & Weed, 1999) has been receiving increased attention from governments, entrepreneurs, and academics. The strength of sport tourism as a distinct travel market and economic generator has increased in recent decades (Pigeaussou, 2004). The importance of the sport tourism industry in Canada is further evidenced by the mandates of organizations like Sport Canada (Heritage Canada) and the Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, as well as municipal, provincial, and federal politicians who continually use the potential economic impacts of tourist spending as a means of justifying the hosting of sporting events.

Sport and sport tourism involve participants in a variety of ways, from community sport to professional leagues, recreational events to highly competitive tournaments, and highly planned events to individually organized participation. At \$15.8 billion in 2004 (1.2% of Canada’s GDP), the economic contribution of household spending on sport is a significant part of the Canadian economy (Bloom, Grant, & Watt, 2005). Embedded in this total is money spent on transportation and other associated travel costs. Further, with more than 20 million Canadians taking at least one overnight trip that included: a) watching a sporting event (27%), b) travelling with team sports (21%), or c) participating in recreational activities including sports (54%; Tourism British Columbia, 2007), sport tourism is, without doubt, an important area of tourism development and is therefore of scholarly interest.

The academic study of sport tourism has tended to focus on either the conceptualization and segmentation of sport tourism or the empirical investigation of potential social, environmental, or economic impacts (Weed & Bull, 2004). In an effort to better describe sport tourism, and thus sport tourists, scholars have utilized a variety of sport, travel, and socio-demographic characteristics. In her critical review of literature, Gibson (1998a) alludes to potential differences between European and North American

definitions based on the mode of sport consumption, focusing on the North American perspective which includes spectators as sport tourists. The basis of the proposed market division is predicated on the assumption that spectators are inherently different than participants. This particular perspective is echoed in the work of many authors, including Hall (1992), Turco, Riley, and Swart (2002), Deery, Jago, and Fredline (2004), Richie and Adair (2004), Robinson and Gammon (2004), Weed and Bull (2004), and Delpy Neirotti (2005).

Pigeassou (2004) indicates that while division based upon modes of sport consumption and characteristics of involvement are “useful for segmenting the sport tourism market” (p. 287), they are also “second order features which have no legitimacy to characterize sport tourism” (p. 287). In contrast, Getz (2003) argues for research “on particular types of sports events and on the difference between spectating and participating” (p. 55), suggesting that there are important differences to be found based on the type of sport involvement. His suggestion that there may be motivational differences is also put forward by Murphy and Carmichael (1996), who indicate that spectators’ and participants’ travel experiences and motivations are likely to differ. While the division of sport tourists based on mode of sport consumption (active versus passive participation) makes intuitive sense when one is considering professional, elite, or highly competitive sporting events, it remains a relatively untested assumption of sport tourism scholarship – particularly in relation to sporting events and activities that operate on a smaller scale than many of the previously investigated sport tourism events.

There is a growing body of tourism literature that focuses on both spectators and participants. However, the majority is concerned with the exploration of the spectator experiences and economic contributions (Carmichael & Murphy, 1996; Chalip, Green, & Velden, 1998; Gibson, 1998a, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002a; 2002b; Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2000; Irwin & Sandler, 1998). This eclipses the few investigations that aid in our understanding of sport participants (Green & Chalip, 1998; Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996). In addition, the context of most investigations of spectators involve

attendance at elite or professional sporting events, whereas most participant investigations are focused on smaller scale or community based events.

The primary purpose of this study is, therefore, to test the assumption that sport travellers who are spectators are inherently different from sport travellers who are active participants. The basis for the comparison is mode of sport consumption; however, it has been suggested that there are intervening factors such as travel party composition, age, gender (Getz, 2003), and duration of vacation (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, and Hagi, 1996) that may also impact on sport travellers' experiences. Thus, this study goes beyond the simple comparison of spectators and participations to include within- and between-group differences based on trip duration (excursionist or tourist), gender (female or male), and age (life-span stage).

Literature Review

Much of the existing research on sport tourism relates to the impacts of hallmark events (i.e., Olympics, Commonwealth Games, FIFA World Cup), and as such it is not surprising that spectators are a primary focus of existing inquiry. However, Gibson et al. (2002b) note that while “thousands of people travel significant distance to watch their favourite sports on a regular basis” (p. 3), much of the research on these travellers relates to what it means to be a fan rather than their characteristics as sports fans who travel. Those studies that do examine sports fans can generally be separated into two categories: the context of rotating hallmark events (Chalip et al., 1998; Delpy Neirotti, Bosetti, & Teed, 2001; Gratton et al., 2000), and the context of reoccurring events that do not change location (Gibson et al., 2002a; 2002b; Irwin & Sandler, 1998). A notable exception is the work of Murphy and Carmichael (1991), who report on the benefits of an open access sport tournament (BC Winter Games) which functions on a smaller scale and is characterized by free gate admission for spectators. Further, their limited comparison of spectators and participants spending patterns remains one of the only empirical studies that does so. Given the unique nature of the BC Games (e.g., athletes are under 18 years old and spectators are typically family and friends) and the limited scope of the study, the

results provide insight into a very specific sport tourism context, that is likely quite different from many other events.

Weed and Bull (2004) suggest that ‘impacts’, whether they be economic, social, or environmental, have been the primary focus of sport tourism inquiry. Further, Weed (2006) reveals that a significant portion of sport tourism research from 2000 – 2004 is not only focused on event sport tourism but is also concerned with economic impacts. Research on spectators indicates that committed fans (i.e., those with strong team affiliation) may stay longer and spend more money while attending tournaments (Irwin & Sandler, 1998). However, Gibson et al. (2002a) argue that it is the ‘away’ fans at single games that may be more likely to act like tourists. More specifically, they found that when comparing fans who were travelling to watch University of Florida Gators football (NCAA Div. 1), it was those that attended to cheer for the opposing team who were more likely to take advantage of local tourism opportunities. In fact, many visitors with strong ties to the Gators, spent little time and money away from the game-related activities, such as tailgating (i.e., pre-game social celebrations in the stadium parking lot, which can involve barbecuing and drinking products brought to the stadium rather than purchased at the game).

Another aspect related to economic impact that has garnered some attention is that of trip duration. Gibson et al. (2002b) found that approximately half of Gator sport visitors were excursionists (< 24 hours) and, on average, these individuals travelled a shorter distance and spent considerably less money than those who stayed. The majority of overnight tourists stayed at least two nights, though most did not stay in hotels, motels, or bed and breakfasts. Based on their results, Gibson et al. suggest that the true economic benefits of Gator fans who are visitors may be limited. These findings are similar to those of Nogawa et al. (1996), who argue that if event planners wish to increase the economic impacts of events they need to plan them in ways that encourage participants to stay longer. In an investigation of the B.C. Winter Games, an open-access event, Murphy and Carmichael (1991) found that spectators spent slightly less time in the community than did participants (many of whom were tied to pre-organized transportation). In addition,

participants spent more money on souvenirs and those who did not take advantage of the free dorm-style accommodations (mostly adults) paid more for accommodations. Food and beverage was the expense category within which spectators reported higher levels of spending than participants, suggesting that most athletes took advantage of the free meals provided for competitors and sport administrators (e.g., coaches).

A limited amount of work focuses on what motivates people to attend events such as the Olympic Games. Delpy Neirotti et al. (2001) found that while a “sporting interest combined with tourism is a key motivation” (p. 330), there were other factors that also came into play. It appears that for some, an event like the Olympics can be considered a “once-in-a-lifetime opportunity” (p. 330) that people wish to attend, in part, simply to say that they were there. In contrast, Chalip et al. (1998) found that many Americans were motivated to attend in order to watch sports that do not receive as much attention as other sports do by the American media.

Weed and Bull (2004) argue that while impacts associated with sport travel have garnered attention, the people responsible for the impacts have received less attention. Further, while there is a growing body of literature on the characteristics and behaviours of sport tourists who are spectators, there is still limited information available on those tourists that choose to actively participate in sports while on vacation. Notable exceptions to this include research on sport-for-all events in Japan (Nogawa et al., 1996), the Masters Games (Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Ryan and Lockyer, 2002; Ryan & Trauer, 2005), and women’s flag football (Green & Chalip, 1998).

A important contribution of Nogawa et al.’s (1996) study was the segmentation of the sport participants into excursionists and tourists. This distinction, used in subsequent research (Gibson et al., 2002b; Weighill, 2003), acknowledges the contribution of all sport visitors while providing a basis for the further segmentation of sport travel markets. Nogawa et al., were also able to show how sport events were structured in ways to promote both excursionist and tourist behaviours, thus providing event planners with important information for future development.

Analysis of participants in the World Masters' Games reveals that, despite being characterised by the lack of qualifying performance standards, competition is a key element of the overall Games experience (Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Ryan & Trauer, 2005). It has been found that social opportunities are also important in this type of event, although this may not be felt by all. Specifically, Ryan and Lockyer (2002) found differences in the experiences of non-local participants, reporting that socializing was a stronger expressed need for those who had travelled to participate in the Games.

Green and Chalip's (1998) qualitative study of women footballers who participate in an annual flag football tournament in Florida is another significant contribution to the study of active sport travellers. Their findings are noteworthy as they provide one of the only investigations of women as sport travellers, while also revealing key information related to sense of place, identity, and motivations of participation. Specifically, they determined that the place within which the event was located (Key West) was less important than the social space that was created within the tournament. Further, their findings clearly indicate that while the act of playing football was a catalyst for travel, it was the social space that was a primary motivation for participation.

The discussion around gender within tourism and sport research is important as much of the existing literature has tended to treat differences between males and females as inherent sex differences (Swain, 1995). More specifically, the categories of "male" and "female" have been used as descriptive titles that highlight differences in participation rates, motivations, and behaviours. However, the root causes of those differences have rarely been explored or articulated. This study is influenced by the notion of gender as described by Bem (1995) and by the work of scholars (e.g., K.A. Henderson, M.D. Bialeschki, R. Deem, S.M. Shaw, V.J. Freysinger, etc.) who have worked to address the "androgynous" nature of leisure research (Shaw, 2001).

Research into the gendered realities of women's participation in leisure (including sport) has revealed that it is a sphere of life that not only reinforces society's gendered notions (Messner & Sabo, 1990), but that it also provides a space for challenging them

(Freysinger & Flannery, 1992; Green & Chalip, 1998; Shaw, 2001; Weighill, 2001). Further, it has become clear that expectations of women's roles within society have great influence on the leisure behaviours of women. These expectations can manifest themselves in relation to participation in and experiences of leisure. For instance, it has been shown that a woman's ethic of care (e.g., putting the leisure needs of others ahead of one's own needs; Gilligan, 1982), can result in either non-participation in or reduced enjoyment of leisure activities. Perhaps the most pronounced gendered limitations in leisure have existed within the realm of sport.

Sport has long been viewed as the testing ground of masculinity and thus the domain of men (Messner, 2007). As a result, women's participation in sport has historically focused on those activities that emphasize the feminine attributes of grace, style, and beauty (Kidd, 1990; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). In more recent times women's participation in sport is considered not only more acceptable but to a certain degree desirable. However, there are limits to this acceptance, as evidenced by the reduction/removal of masculine attributes of sport such as physical contact in many women's sports (Theberge, 1998) and the view of female athletes as less than ideal, both as women and as athletes (Martin & Martin, 1995). These examples emphasize that despite the increase in funding and opportunities for women's participation in sport, the impacts of a gendered society are not easily mitigated.

The work of Green and Chalip (1998) provides a rare look at the influence of gender within the realm of sport tourism. The uniqueness of this work relates, in large part, to the acknowledgement that being a female (or male) brings with it a list of expectations – particularly in relation to sport – that influence both decisions and experiences. For instance, their examination of female footballers reveals the potential for women to challenge the constraints associated with being “feminine” through participation in sport tourism. The revelation of the importance of female-centred subculture membership and the celebration of that subculture to the sport tourism experience is another major contribution of this work.

Like gender, age is a concept that has a commonsense understanding as well as a socially constructed understanding. The process of aging within westernized societies is viewed as a progressive decline that is predictable and unavoidable (Cruickshank, 2003). The influence of aging on leisure behaviour has been investigated in relation to a variety of aspects including: a) life span – the stage of adulthood one is within and the focus of that stage, b) the social construction of what is acceptable behaviour, and c) the physical realities of health and decline.

Within the context of sport tourism, age is known to have a negative relationship with participation rates (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). Iso-Ahola, Jackson, and Dunn (1994) found that while involvement in sport and physical activity as an adolescent increases the chance that one will participate in similar activities as an adult, participation in active sports generally decreases with age. They also found that women were less likely than men to restart their involvement with team sports post-retirement.

Freysinger and Ray (1994) found that women who participated as adolescents were more likely than non-participants to be involved in sports as adults. Others have found that women with non-competitive orientations are more likely to remain involved in sports as adult players (Scheerder et al., 2006). This may be significant as Hall, Slack, Smith, and Whitson (1991) argue that women's sport tends to reduce the emphasis on aggression and competition that typically characterizes men's sport. However, it may also be the case that women who were able to negotiate the constraints to sport participation as youth are more likely to be able to resist against the limitations of ageist perspectives on sport participation for adults – particularly adult women.

Gibson (1998b), reflecting on literature related to individuals who are activity involved in sport, noted that “the patterns seem to confirm that age, gender, and income (as one indicator of social class) differences are apparent between those American who are physically active and those who are not” (p. 160). She further states that gender and social class have been shown to be factors that constrain and influence individuals leisure behaviour. Within the sporting context it has been determined that education and income

(as measures of social class) are both positively associated with participation in physical activity and one's likelihood to be a spectator at sporting events (Wilson, 2002; Wilson, Kirtland, Ainsworth, & Addy, 2004; White & Wilson, 1999). It has also been found that social class impacts on the type of sport one participates in (Greendorfer, 1978).

Through an examination of Canadian domestic sport travel, this study questions the foundation of sport tourism definitions upon the assumption of inherent differences between sport tourists who are spectators and those who are participants. Trip duration, gender, and age are key intervening factors that potentially affect sport tourists' experiences, and thus are included in both within- and between-group comparisons. While not used as intervening factor in isolation, social class as defined by education and income is used within this study as means of further exploring similarities and differences found within and between groups as defined by mode of sport consumption, age, gender, and trip duration.

Methods

The data used in this study were from the publicly released version of the Person-Trip micro-data file (data liberation initiative) of the 2003 Canadian Travel Survey³ (CTS: now the *Travel Survey of Residents of Canada*; Appendix A) conducted by Statistics Canada. The CTS "is a major source of data used to measure the size and status of Canada's tourism industry. It was developed to measure the volume, characteristics and economic impact of domestic travel" (Statistic Canada, 2008, *Travel Survey of Residents of Canada*, ¶ 1). Person-Trip data provides information on both socio-demographics and travel behaviours. The weighted values are representative of the portion of the Canadian population that matches the sample characteristics of the CTS (Statistics Canada, 2008).

The sample for the CTS is a subset of the Canadian Labour Force Survey (LFS) and includes Canadians aged 15 years and older who live in one of the 10 provinces, are not institutionalized, do not live on First Nations Reserves, and are not full-time members of

³ The 2003 Person-Trip file was selected as it matched the time frame (year) of the other research included in this dissertation.

the Canadian Armed Forces.⁴ In total, those excluded from participation in the CTS represent approximately 3% of Canada's population aged 15 years and over (Statistics Canada, 2008).

The data collection process for the CTS involves surveying members of approximately 15,000 households each month. Using computer-assisted interviewing technology, Statistics Canada employees interview a single member of the selected households, focusing on trips taken by all members of the household in a specific reference month. For each member of the household on a trip, a person-trip entry is created and the socio-demographic and travel behaviours associated with those individuals are included in the data set. Information related to the travel expenditures of respondents is calculated at the household level and is not determined for each individual on the trip, so the weighted values represent the number of households and not the number of trips taken (Statistics Canada, 2008).⁵

Data Analysis

Once all data that did not meet the requirements of one-way travel distance (≥ 80 km), final destination (Canada), and age (≥ 20 years) were removed, the total study sample contained information on 135,904,098 trips taken by Canadians in 2003, of which 29.1% involved spectatorship at a sporting event or actual participation in sport ($n=39,540,430$ trips). The primary purpose of this study was to compare spectators and participants to determine whether they differ beyond mode of sport consumption. To better understand potential within and between group differences, sub-groups of spectators and participants were also examined. The sub-groups were based on the duration of the trip (Nogawa et al., 1996), gender, and lifespan stage as described by Levinson and Levinson (1996). As the purpose was to explore potential differences between spectators and active participants, any trips that involved both activities ($n=3,223,542$) were removed from the study sample.

⁴ Citizens of the Yukon Territory are included in the LFS but excluded from the CTS.

⁵ The weights used for the person-trip file differ from those used with trip expenditures, thus the associated samples sizes should not be compared.

Data analysis was conducted in two primary stages. The first was an initial comparison of the macro segments (spectators vs. participants) in relation to socio-demographics, travel party characteristics, and general travel behaviours. The second stage of data analysis further examined spectators and participants; however, the additional analysis explored potential within-group (i.e., within the spectator or participant group) and between group (i.e., between spectators and participants) differences attributable to specific characteristics. The variables used in this analysis included: a) duration of the trip – excursionist versus tourists, b) gender – male and female, and c) life span category – early, middle, and late adulthood.

As the majority of the data used in this study were either measured at (or subsequently converted to) the nominal or categorical level, chi-square tests were selected as the most appropriate way to explore the data. However, as the size of the full data set is large ($n=135,904,098$), and chi statistics are influenced by sample size (Sheskin, 2004), Aron and Aron's (1999) interpretation of Cramer's V as a measure of association was used to evaluate the strength of tested relationships. They provide adjusted values that correspond with Cohen's original values of small, medium, and large effect. The few dependent variables measured at the ratio level (duration, travel distance, and trip expenditures) were examined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) or independent t-tests depending on the number of groups being compared. However, like the chi-square, t-tests are also influenced by larger sample sizes, so Cohen's d ($d= 2t/\sqrt{df}$) as a measure of effect size was used to judge the results (Zizzi, 2007).

To account for sampling variability, Statistics Canada uses a coefficient of variation (CV) to produce different classes of data as well as restrictions on the release of information. There are a number of different CV tables created for use with the person-trip dataset (e.g., national or provincial, monthly or annually); however, given the purpose of this project, the national level annual values were used. Table 2-1 contains the CV range, Statistic Canada's rating of the data (very poor, poor, fair, or good), and the minimum sample size estimate for each. When individual sample sizes (i.e., a single cell

in a cross tabs) drop below the CV associated with ‘fair’ quality, Statistics Canada restricts the publication of the associated values.

Table 2-1: Coefficient of Variation and Minimum Sample Sizes

CV Estimate	Data Quality Ranking	Minimum n	Minimum n
		Person-trip	Expenditure
0.0 – 16.5	Good	500,000	50,000
16.5 – 25.0	Fair	200,000	20,000
25.1 – 33.3	Poor	100,000	10,000
≥ 33.4	Very Poor	< 100,000	< 10,000

The analysis undertaken for this project required the creation of a number of new variables to allow for comparison. To align with common definitions used in the tourism and sport tourism literature, the following definitions were used in the creation of groups for analysis and the subsequent reporting of results. The term sport traveller refers to all who travelled the minimum one-way distance of 80 kilometres and either attended a sporting event or participated in a sport while on their trip. There is no temporal limiter for the sport traveller group. In contrast, ‘sport tourists’ have the same distance and activity requirements but are also characterized by a temporal limit of at least one night away from home. ‘Sport excursionists’ were day-trippers (i.e., did not spend a night away from home). Spectators include those who attended a sports event but did not actively participate in sport, while participants were actively involved but were not spectators at a sporting event.

Based on the work of Levinson and Levinson (1996), the life span categories used in this study take into consideration the transitional years between stages and the pre-determined age categories within the person-trip file. More specifically, early adulthood includes those 20 – 44 years old, middle adulthood ranges from 45 – 64 years, and older adulthood is 65 years and older. Due to limitations with the pre-existing age categories provided by Statistics Canada, these values differ from those previously used by Gibson and Yiannakis (1996) in their exploration of tourism roles and life span. However, the age groupings do fit within the ranges suggested by Levinson and Levinson.

Results

Spectators & Participants

Exploration of potential differences in the socio-demographic characteristics of spectators (n= 4,805,668) and participants (n= 31,511,220) revealed very few differences. Over 70% of all sport travellers were 25 to 54 years old, and nearly half (46.9%) were women. Spectators (79.6%) were more likely to be married than participants (68.4%) and over 70% of both groups were employed. The only difference with an interpretable effect size (small) was related to the number of children who lived in the respondents' household. Specifically, spectators (45.1%) were more likely than participants (30.2%) to have one or more children living at home ($\chi^2(3, 36316888) = 484202.3, p < .01, V = .115$). Despite spectators being more likely to have children within the household, there were no differences between the groups in relation to the number of adults who lived within the home. As this finding was unexpected, further analysis of spectators and participants controlling for the number of adults within the home (i.e., one adult or two adults) was conducted.

In households that had two adults, it was found that approximately 65% of all sport related trips involved two or more people from the same household. Comparisons of socio-demographic and travel characteristics of trips that are taken by two adults versus one adult revealed that spectators and participants who take trips with two adults in the party only differ with regard to travel party composition ($\chi^2(4, 36316888) = 198423.74, p < .001, V = .102$). Specifically, while the majority of both groups tended to only travel in pairs (spectators 58.6%: participants 62.3%), spectators (22.7%) were more likely to travel as a group of three than were participants (12.8%) who were more likely to travel as a group of four (19.8%).

In contrast, exploration of the socio-demographic and travel characteristics of adults who lived in dwellings where they were the only adult revealed a number of differences. It was determined that spectators: a) were less likely to be from households with only one

adult, b) were more likely to have children in their household and on their trips, c) were less likely to be single (never married), d) had slightly lower education levels, and e) were older (Table 2-2). All differences were found to have small effect sizes.

Spectators and participants were also compared in relation to the duration of their trip and the total distance they traveled (one-way). Analysis using sport traveller type as the independent variable and number of nights and travel distance as the dependent variables revealed significant differences between the groups but very small effect sizes ($d < .2$). Spectators ($M=312.15$ km, $SD=502.14$) and participants ($M=319.56$ km, $SD=499.01$) travelled approximately the same distance and, on average, participants ($M=2.58$, $SD=3.88$) stayed away one more night than spectators ($M=1.53$, $SD= 3.31$).

Table 2-2: Spectators and Participants from Single (1) Adult Households – Differences

	Spectator (%)	Participant (%)	χ^2 (df, n)	V	α
Age Group (Years)			213550.7 (6,1467707)	.121 _a	<.001
20 – 24	13.1*	18.9			
25 – 35	15.2*	23.9			
35 – 44	36.0	23.8			
45 – 54	21.6*	18.3			
55 – 64	p	9.9			
65 – 69	vp	2.1*			
70 – Older	vp	3.0*			
Marital Status			296747.8 (2,14677007)	.142 _a	<.001
Married	56.0	35.9			
Single (never married)	28.2	45.6			
Widowed or Divorced	15.8*	18.5			
Education (highest level)			273847.7 (5,14677007)	.137 _a	<.001
0 – 8 Years	vp	2.0*			
Some High School	p	6.1			
High School Graduate	23.7*	12.0			
Some Post Secondary	p	12.4			
Post Secondary	33.5	34.5			
Cert/Diploma					
University Degree	24.9*	33.0			
Children in Household			582943.0 (3,14677005)	.199 _a	<.001
0	52.3	76.0			
1	14.5*	11.0			
2	26.6	10.4			
3 or More	p	2.6*			
Party Size			744219.9 (5,1467705)	.225 _a	<.001
1	69.9	87.7			

	2	24.7*	6.1		
	3	vp	4.9		
Children on Trip				743569.4 (3, 14677005)	.225 _a <.001
	0	69.9	87.7		
	1	24.7*	6.1		
	2	vp	4.9		
	3 or More	vp	p		

*CV considered to be fair, there may be high sampling variability. p= poor and vp= very poor: sampling variability too high for release; _a = small effect.

Comparisons of trip expenditures (household values) for the two groups also resulted in very small effect sizes ($d < .2$). On average, spectators spent \$333.99 (SD=629.79) per household per trip and participants spent \$320.46 (SD=566.21). Eating out and accommodations accounted for approximately 35% of all expenditures for both groups. An additional 14% of spectators' spending (participants 11%) was on transportation and 9.6% was recreation related (participants 10%).

A review of the additional activity participation of spectators and participants indicated that: a) sport travellers do not participate in many other tourist activities, and b) the only differences between these two groups were related to participation in activities that would be more closely associated with active participation than spectatorship. Specifically, participants were more likely to visit national parks and go sightseeing (small effect). Table 2-3 contains the activities that at least 10% of participants or spectators participated in (for a complete list of possible activities see Statistics Canada, 2007).

Table 2-3: Additional Tourist Activity Participation of Spectators and Participants

Activity	Spectators (%) n= 4,805,667	Participants (%) n= 31,511,220	χ^2 (df, n)	V	α
Visit Friends	27.9	36.5			
Visit Relatives	37.3	38.7			
Shopping	39.3	33.2			
Sightseeing	17.7	32.7	442417.59 (1, 36316887)	.110 _a	<.001
Visit a National Park	5.6*	17.8	458959.32 (1, 36316888)	.112 _a	<.001
Visit Bar/ Night Club	19.0	13.5			

*CV considered to be fair, there may be high sampling variability. _a = small effect.

Excursionists and Tourists

Nogawa et al. (1996) found that the travel behaviours of sport tourists were different than those of sport excursionists. While their analysis focused on participants in sport-for-all events and not spectators, it does raise the question of whether or not spectators and participants would differ in relation to trip duration. Also of interest is the possibility that trip duration, rather than sport consumption, may account for some of the differences seen within and between the groups.

Initial analysis revealed that spectators (53.1%) were more likely to be excursionists, and participants (69.4%) were more likely to be tourists. The difference between these two groups was found to have small effect size ($\chi^2(1, 36316887) = 945907.42, p < .001, V = .161$). To further the exploration of potential similarities and differences between spectator and participant sport travellers, the groups were split into spectator excursionists, spectator tourists, participant excursionists, and participant tourists. Subsequent analysis focused on comparing spectators and participants excursionists followed by spectator and participant tourists. However, as only 33.6% of all trips taken were day-trips, many of the comparisons involving excursionists resulted in small cell sizes (< 200,000) with too much sampling variability for public release (as defined by Statistics Canada).

Within Group Comparisons – Travel Duration

Data analysis revealed a number of socio-demographic differences between excursionists who were spectators and those who were participants. Specifically, there was a greater likelihood that active participants were younger, single, more educated, and from single adult households with no children (Table 2-4: all effects = small). The effect size associated with the distribution of men and women within each group – women comprised slightly less than half of the spectator group (48.4%) and 41.8% of the active participant group – was below the critical value for a small effect ($\chi^2(1, 12205234) = 36355.089, p < .001, V = .055$).

Exploration of the trip behaviours revealed that there were no real differences between spectator and participant excursionists or spectator and participant tourists with regard to the duration of the trip (tourists only) or the one-way travel difference. Spectator ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 4.22$) and participant ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 4.18$) tourists spent a similar number of nights away from home. With regard to travel distance, excursionists (spectators $M = 142.85$ km, $SD = 69.83$; participants $M = 140.74$ km, $SD = 67.56$) travelled 141.18 kilometres away from home ($SD = 68.05$) and tourists (spectators $M = 504.06$ km, $SD = 680.52$; participants $M = 398.52$ km, $SD = 580.16$) travelled 408.38 kilometres ($SD = 591.06$).

Table 2-4: Spectator and Participant Excursionists from Single Adult Households

	Spectator (%) n = 4805668	Participant (%) n = 31511220	χ^2 (df, n)	V	α
Age Group (Years)			415375.10 (6, 12205234)	.184 _a	< .001
20 – 24	p	12.6			
25 – 35	9.9*	22.1			
35 – 44	38.7	28.2			
45 – 54	29.7	20.6			
55 – 64	p	10.0			
65 – 69	p	3.2*			
Marital Status			389763.80 (2, 12205235)	.179 _a	< .001
Married	85.0	65.2			
Single (never married)	8.9*	25.4			
Widowed or Divorced	p	9.4			
Education (highest level)			164278.57 (5, 12205234)	.116 _a	< .001
0 – 8 Years	vp	p			
Some High School	12.3*	6.6			
High School	20.1	15.8			
Some Post Secondary	9.8	9.8			
Post Secondary	33.6	35.6			
Cert/Diploma					
University	22.1	30.7			
Adults in Household			174518.69 (2, 12205234)	.120 _a	< .001
1	p	13.5			
2	51.1	56.5			
3 or more	42.0	30.0			
Children in Household			596367.88	.221 _a	< .001

(3, 12205233)

0	37.7	63.7
1	22.7	14.9
2	33.8	17.0

*CV considered to be fair, there may be high sampling variability. p= poor and vp= very poor: sampling variability too high for release; a= small effect.

While there were no differences in the trip related spending of spectator and participant tourists, their pattern of spending was similar to those of spectator and participant excursionists, between which there were measurable differences. Specifically, it was found that spectators tend to spend more money on food and beverages, and clothing than do participants. These results are not surprising considering the general availability of food and beverages and commemorative/team clothing generally found at sporting events. Table 2-5 details the related expenditures of spectator and participant tourists and Table 2-6 those of excursionists.⁶

Table 2-5: Trip Expenditures (CAD) of Spectator and Participant Tourists

Expenditure	Spectator Tourist	Participant Tourist	<i>t</i> (<i>df</i>)	<i>d</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)		
Transport	96.74 (337.03)	52.94 (239.61)	206.70 (16417833)	0.1020
Lodging	118.93 (236.15)	92.09 (237.58)	133.53 (16417833)	0.0659
Recreation	52.00 (117.85)	40.99 (103.19)	124.29 (16417833)	0.0613
Food/Beverage	115.52 (174.38)	133.75 (133.75)	362.39 (16417833)	0.1789
Clothing	60.01 (169.71)	25.24 (89.68)	411.015 (16417833)	0.2029 _a
Total cost	579.79 (830.15)	425.02 (654.48)	261.41 (16417833)	0.1784

Note: in all cases $p < .001$; a = small effect ($d \geq .2$)

Table 2-6: Trip Expenditures (CAD) of Spectator and Participant Excursionists

Expenditure	Spectator Excursionist	Participant Excursionist	<i>t</i> (<i>df</i>)	<i>d</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)		
Transport	3.37 (29.70)	1.58 (14.66)	112.65 (8586975)	0.0769
Lodging			133.53 (16417833)	0.0659
Recreation	15.00 (45.35)	16.97 (45.78)	50.728 (8586975)	0.0346
Food/Beverage	32.82 (39.34)	19.34 (30.66)	487.21 (8586975)	0.3325 _a
Clothing	19.81 (67.80)	8.83 (39.45)	277.69 (8586975)	0.1895
Total cost	116.97 (119.93)	93.13 (104.16)	271.76 (8586975)	0.1341

⁶To control for differences in expenditures related to trip duration, tourists and excursionists were not compared to each other.

Note: in all cases $p < .001$; a = small effect ($d \geq .2$)

The comparison of excursionists and tourists in terms of participation in additional activities revealed that the majority of differences related to both trip duration (excursionist versus tourist) and type of sport traveller. More specifically, tourists were more likely than excursionists to participate in extra activities and spectators and participants were more likely to take part in additional tourist activities that were related to being a spectator or participant. For example, that participants were more likely to visit National Parks than were spectators is likely related to the activities available in National Parks. Table 2-7 illustrates the differences in the participation rates of spectators and participants in additional tourist activities – all effects can be interpreted as small.

Table 2-7: Percentage of Sport Travellers Who Participated in Additional Activities.

Activity	Spectator Excur. (%)	Participant Excur. (%)	Spectator Tour. (%)	Participant Tour. (%)	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Visit Friends	17.1	23.3	40.2	42.4	1476375.8 (3, 36316887)	.202 _a	<.001
Visit Relatives	30.3	28.5	45.2	43.2	728122.98 (3, 36316888)	.142 _a	<.001
Shopping	29.0	19.6	51.0	39.3	1475726.5 (3, 36316888)	.202 _a	<.001
Sightseeing	p	23.1	29.9	37.0	1347204.3 (3, 36316887)	.193 _a	<.001
Visit National Park	p	12.1	p	20.3	7940301.16 (3, 36316889)	.148 _a	<.001
Visit Bar/ Night Club	11.8	6.1	27.1	16.7	953488.34 (3, 36316889)	.162 _a	<.001

Spectator Excursionists n=2,553,187; Participant Excursionists n=9,652,046; Spectator Tourists n=22,252,480; Participant Tourists n=21,859,174. P = poor data quality; a= small effect. Note: 93.1% of spectator excursionists did not go sightseeing, and 95.0% of spectator excursionist did not visit a national park.

An examination of the within group (excursionists and tourists) differences revealed that within the excursionists more spectators (93.1%) did not go sightseeing ($\chi^2(1,12205233) = 332583.50, p < .001, V = .165$) than participants (76.9%). In contrast,

more participants (98.0%) than spectators (91.3%) did *not*⁷ attend cultural events ($\chi^2(1,12205234) = 282043.79, p < .001, V = .152$). The only difference within the tourist group with an effect size of interpretable value (small) was related to the percentage of spectators (93.8%) versus participants (79.7%) who did not go to a national park ($\chi^2(1,24111655) = 263989.93, p < .001, V = .105$). This mirrored the general differences found between spectators and participants and is most likely related to the types of activities that participants are likely to participate in and the overall lack of sporting events that happen in national parks.

Male and Female Sport Travellers

The exploration of gender differences between spectators and participants was conducted in two stages: a) the comparison of socio-demographic and travel characteristics of males to females within each of the two sport travel categories, and b) a comparison of socio-demographic and travel characteristics of male spectators to male participants and female spectators to female participants. The results revealed that the presence of children within the home and on the vacations may have exaggerated some of the gender differences, so further analysis controlling for these factors was conducted.

There were three gender differences within the spectator group and one within the participant group that were found to have significant results with a small effect size. While the vast majority of all spectators (79.6%) were married, there were differences in the marital status of the remaining spectators ($\chi^2(2,4805668) = 53456.76, p < .001, V = .105$). Male spectators who were not married (approx. 20%) were more likely to be single and never married (15.5%), whereas female spectators were equally likely to be single (10.6%) or divorced (9.5%). Female spectators were also found to be slightly more educated than male spectators ($\chi^2(5,4805667) = 48801.86, p < .001, V = .101$). The final difference between spectators related to household income ($\chi^2(4,28866306) = 47681.97, p < .001, V = .104$), with a greater percentage of men reporting higher household income than women. In contrast, the only difference within the participant group was associated

⁷ The cell sizes for spectators who indicate that they “did” and activity were too small for public release.

with labour force status ($\chi^2(2,31511220) = 364625.63, p < .001, V = .108$). Specifically, more women (23.0%) than men (14.7%) reported that they were not in the labour force (i.e., they were not working or looking for work).

There were no differences in number of children or adults living in the households of male and female spectators or participants; however, there were differences in number of people going on vacation together (from the same household), and for spectators, in the composition of the travel party. As shown in Table 2-8, both male spectators and participants were more likely to be the only member of the household on the trip in contrast to their female counterparts. For spectators, initial analysis also revealed gender differences in relation to the number of children (males less likely to include children) who were involved in the trip ($\chi^2(3, 4805668) = 100130.55, p < .001, V = .144$); however, this difference was most likely related to party size (i.e., number of adults from the household on the trip) as there was not a meaningful difference ($V < .1$) when solo trips were removed ($\chi^2(3,4361167) = 28034.81, p < .001, V = .080$).

Table 2-8: Number of People from the Same Household on Vacation

	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5+ (%)	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Male Spec. (n = 2419499)	36.8	34.6	15.1	9.2	vp	224209.05 (5, 4805668)	.216 _a	< .001
Female Spec. (n = 2386169)	18.9	45.0	20.6	12.3	vp			
Male Part. (n = 16855676)	40.4	32.8	10.9	12.5	3.5	390168.77 (5, 31511217)	.111 _a	< .001
Female Part. (n = 14655541)	29.9	38.0	11.9	15.3	4.8			

vp = very poor; a = small effect.

Behaviourally, males and females within each category were more similar than different. Initially, the only disparities (all small effect) found were within the spectator group and related to the main purpose of the trip, visiting friends, and visiting a bar or nightclub while on vacation. However, further examination of the purpose for the trip, including only the three primary reasons – visiting friends and relatives, pleasure, and

personal – revealed that there was no real difference in relation to trip purpose⁸ (Table 2-9). There were no gender based behavioural or motivational differences within the participant group.

Table 2-9: Gender Differences in Trip Purpose

	Female Spectators (%) n = 2386169	Male Spectators (%) n = 2419498	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Main Purpose of trip*			126657.36 (4, 4805667)	.162 _a	< .001
Visit Friends/Relatives	20.4	24.4			
Pleasure	63.0	52.3			
Personal	12.8	16.1			
Business	p	vp			
Non-Business Convention	vp	vp			
Main Purpose of trip**			40380.57 (2, 4539438)	.094	< .001
Visit Friends/Relatives	21.2	26.3			
Pleasure	65.5	56.3			
Personal	13.3	17.4			
Activity Participation					
Visiting Friends	22.9	32.8	58203.45 (1, 4805668)	.110 _a	< .001
Visit Bar or Nightclub	12.8	25.1	119562.52 (1, 4805667)	.158 _a	< .001

p = poor data quality; vp = very poor; a = small effect. *Purpose includes business and convention travel. **Purpose of trip controlled to only include leisure based travel.

Analysis of gender differences in trip expenditures (tourists only) revealed that on average, men (\$132.65) spent more money than women (\$104.68) on accommodations ($t(1540647) = 73.64, p < .001$ (two-tailed), $d = .2625$). No other expenditure differences were found within the spectator group nor were any found within the participant group.

⁸ Analysis removing business travel and attendance at a convention was conducted due to the comparatively low percentage of sport travelers who indicated either as a primary purpose for travel.

Within Group Comparisons – Gender

The second stage of gender analysis involved the comparison of female participants to female spectators and male participants to male spectators. This analysis revealed that while within each gender group (i.e., male sport travellers or female sport travellers) there were more similarities than differences between spectators and participants, there were more differences within the female group than the male group. More specifically, male participants were slightly more educated, had fewer children at home and on vacation, and were more likely to travel for pleasure than male spectators who were more likely to visit a casino (Table 2-10). In contrast, female spectators and participants differed on household composition, party size, travel party composition, purpose of their trip, and participation rates in three different vacation activities (Table 2-11). There were no within gender group differences in relation to the average duration of trips or the one-way travel distance of sport travellers.

Table 2-10: Differences between Male Spectators and Male Participants

	Male Spectators (%) n = 2419499	Male Participants (%) n = 16855678	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Educational Attainment			214529.89 (5, 19275177)	.105 _a	< .001
0 – 8 Years	vp	2.3*			
Some Secondary	11.3*	6.8			
High School Grad	20.3*	14.1			
Some Post-Secondary	p	10.9			
Post Secondary	37.5	34.8			
Certificate or Diploma					
University Degree	22.4	31.1			
Children in Household			275886.46 (3, 19275175)	.120 _a	< .001
No Children	51.9	68.2			
1 Child	16.9*	13.3			
2 Children	24.8	14.8			
3 or more Children	p	3.6			
Children on Trip ¹			152790.68 (3, 6520770)	.153 _a	< .001
No Children	35.8	23.6			
1 Child	39.4	33.0			
2 Children	18.5*	34.7			
3 or more Children	vp	8.7*			

Purpose ²					
Visit Friends/Relatives	26.3	25.5			
Pleasure	56.3	69.2			
Personal	17.4*	5.3			
			416272.76		
Visiting a Casino			(1, 19275177)	.147 _a	< .001
	10.1*	2.3*			

¹ = only households with children included; ² = only 3 primary purposes of vacation included in analysis; * = Fair; p = poor data quality; vp = very poor data quality; a = small effect.

Table 2-11: Differences Between Female Spectators and Female Participants

	Female Spectators (%) n = 2386168	female Participants (%) n = 14655542	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Adults in Household			274237.95 (2, 17041712)	.127 _a	< .001
1 Adult	9.1*	14.5			
2 Adults	49.2	59.9			
3 or more Adults	41.7	25.6			
Children in Household			235294.56 (3, 17041711)	.118 _a	< .001
No Children	46.7	62.3			
1 Child	22.2*	15.0			
2 Children	26.5	17.7			
3 or more Children	p	5.1			
Party Size (same household)			262737.14 (5, 17041710)	.124 _a	< .001
1 Person (respondent)	36.8	40.4			
2 Persons	34.6	32.8			
3 Persons	15.1*	10.9			
4 Persons	9.2	12.5			
5 or more Persons	p	3.5			
Children on Trip ¹			269906.17 (3, 6800907)	.199 _a	< .001
No Children	17.8*	15.3			
1 Child	55.3	33.4			
2 Children	22.4*	40.6			
3 or more Children	vp	10.7			
Purpose ²			25639.48 (2, 16500158)	.125 _a	< .001

Visit Friends/Relatives (VFR)	21.2*	33.1			
Pleasure	65.5	61.1			
Personal	13.3*	5.8			
Activity					
Visit Friends ³	16.6*	31.2	164619.99		
			(1, 11846838)	.118 _a	< .001
Went Sightseeing	16.3*	34.9	326820.64		
			(1, 17041711)	.138 _a	< .001
Visited a National Park	vp	18.6	318271.92		
			(1, 17041712)	.137 _a	.001

¹ = only households with children included; ² = three primary purposes of vacation included in analysis; ³ = VFR differences controlled; * = Fair; p = poor data quality; vp = very poor data quality; _a = small effect.

Exploration of trip expenditures revealed that, on average, female spectators and participants spent similar amounts within each of the expenditure categories, with the higher spending group varying depending on the expense. While there were differences, none were found to have effect sizes of an interpretable magnitude ($d < .2$). In contrast, male spectators generally spent more on average than male participants; however, only spending on clothing $t(11409197) = 121.30, p < .001, d = .2128$ had a small effect size. Table 2-12 contains the average household expenditures of female sport travellers and Table 2-13 has corresponding values of male sport travellers.

Table 2-12: Household Expenditure (CAD) of Female Spectators and Participants

Expenditure	Female Spectator <i>M (SD)</i>	Female Participant <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df)</i>	<i>d</i>
Transportation	30.11 (195.01)	34.4 (177.16)	-28.28 (11409197)	.0167
Accommodations ¹	104.68 (188.81)	85.07 (223.56)	73.54 (7915288)	.0523
Recreation	23.38 (65.88)	30.93 (83.58)	-108.05 (11409197)	.0640
Food/Beverage	59.51 (91.77)	51.07 (99.33)	99.95 (11409197)	.0592
Clothing	33.84 (117.72)	24.57 (83.45)	121.30 (11409197)	.0718
Total cost of trip	277.32 (478.66)	313.72 (529.42)	-81.14 (11409197)	.0480

¹ = Tourists Only

Table 2-13: Household Expenditure (CAD) of Male Spectators and Participants

Expenditure	Male Spectator <i>M (SD)</i>	Male Participant <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df)</i>	<i>d</i>
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Transportation	62.84 (268.02)	38.66 (216.91)	132.01 (13595610)	.0716
Accommodations ¹	132.65 (273.42)	98.61 (249.70)	114.03 (8502542)	.0782
Recreation	40.60 (105.45)	35.48 (94.72)	65.09 (13595610)	.0353
Food/Beverage	82.72 (155.63)	60.47 (125.99)	209.20 (13595610)	.1135
Clothing	43.10 (136.39)	16.34 (72.64)	392.40 (13595610)	.2128 _a
Total cost of trip	386.14 (721.87)	326.04 (326.04)	120.05 (13595610)	.0651

¹ = Tourists Only; _a = small effect

Life Span and Sport Tourism Participation

Prior to analysis, the sample was divided into the three life span groups: early adulthood (20 – 44 years), middle adulthood (45 – 64 years), and late adulthood (65 years and older). The vast majority of the sample were in the early (60.1%) and middle (32.9%) adulthood stages with older adults only accounting for 7.0% of sport travellers. Like the analysis of gender differences, the potential influence of life span was examined in two stages. The first was a comparison of participants and spectators within each life span group and the second was the exploration of within group (spectator or participant) differences. The sample size for older adult spectators (n = 416,225) was below the “good” data quality standard set by Statistics Canada. Thus, much of the analysis related to older adults reports the percentage of participants who did not do something rather than the percentage that did.⁹

Early Adulthood

There were a number of differences between spectators (n = 2,693,302) and participants (n = 19,131,532) in the early adulthood group (n = 21,824,834). Socio-demographically, there were only two differences: a) the distribution within the age groups contained in the early adulthood category ($\chi^2(2,21824834) = 246129.1, p < .001, V = .106$), and b) the educational attainment of spectators and participants ($\chi^2(5, 21824834) = 327686.3, p < .001, V = .123$).

The age differences result from a higher than expected number of spectators (61.8%) in the 35 – 44 years age group and fewer (24.9%) than expected in the 25 – 34 years

⁹ Reporting the percentage of those who did not do an activity was only possible for variables measured on a nominal scale such as activity participation.

group. Conversely, there were more than expected participants (35.3%) in the 25 – 34 years group and less than expected (45.7%) in the older age group. Educational differences revealed a similar pattern, with more participants (31.3%) than spectators (19.1%) having university degrees and more spectators (23.4%) than participants (13.4%) having ended their formal education with a high school diploma.

The only difference related to the household composition of those in the early adulthood category related to the number of children living within their households ($\chi^2(3, 21824834) = 335536.92, p < .001, V = .124$). Specifically, a greater percentage of participants (52.9%) than spectators (34.6%) had no children living in their homes. For those who did have children, spectators (43.5%) were more likely to have two or more children than were participants (29.1%). This pattern of results and the magnitude of the relationship (small effect) was maintained ($\chi^2(2, 10411374) = 205442.79, p < .001, V = .140$) when the disparity in age is controlled (i.e., only those 35 – 44 year old included), thus revealing the difference in the number of children in the household is not explained by age differences.

The differences in number of children who participated in the vacations ($\chi^2(3, 10773390) = 230557.9, p < .001, V = .146$) accounted for the only difference within the early adulthood group in relation to party size and structure. Including only respondents who have children at home, the results showed that spectators (73.2%), while being more likely to have children, were less likely than participants (81.6%) to include them on their sport vacation. Further, participants (39.6%) were most likely to take two children, whereas spectators would take one child (42.7%).

Behaviourally, spectators and participants who were in the early adulthood stage were very similar. The only differences were related to participation in activities associated with each type of sport travel. Participants (31.9%) were more likely than spectators (17.6%) to go sightseeing ($\chi^2(1, 21824834) = 230566.9, p < .001, V = .103$) or visit a national park ($\chi^2(1, 21824835) = 57615.01, p < .001, V = .109$). More specifically, 94.1% of

spectators did not visit a park whereas only 81.7% of participants did not. A series of t-tests revealed no differences in the distance travelled, trip duration, or trip expenditures.

Middle Adulthood

An analysis of spectators and participants within the middle adulthood category revealed no socio-demographic differences and few other differences. Like those in early adulthood, there were some household and travel party composition differences and variation in the participation rates in associated trip activities. As with those in early adulthood, there were no differences in the travel distance, trip duration, or trip expenditure.

Spectators and participants differed on both the number of adults within the house ($\chi^2(2,11958526) = 151461.2, p<.001, V=.113$) and the number of children living in the house ($\chi^2(3,11958527) = 475659.05, p<.001, V=.199$). While both groups tended to have at least two adults living within the household, spectators (50.5%) were more likely than participants (35.2%) to have three or more adults living at home.¹⁰ In contrast, more than expected participants (51.9%) had two adults in the home and fewer than expected spectators (41.7%) lived in a two adult household. While the majority of spectators (60.6%) and participants (82.1%) did not have children living at home, it was more probable that spectators would have one (20.6%) or two (18.1%) than participants (9.5%:6.8%). To account for the potential influence of the disparity between the number of adults living in spectators’ and participants’ homes, analysis of the number of children within each household was also conducted controlling, for those differences. The results (Table 2-14) show that for households with two and three adults, the differences remained.

Table 2-14: The Number of Children in Households Compared to the Number of Adults

Spectators (%)	Participants (%)	χ^2	<i>V</i>	<i>p</i>
n = 1696141	n = 10262385	(df, n)		

¹⁰ The CTS does not indicate whether these are ‘adult’ children or other members of the household who are adults.

Two Adults			66414.90		
			(3, 6035418)	.105 _a	< .001
No Children	92.1	74.1			
1 Child	vp	vp			
2 Children	vp	vp			
Three Adults			513533.13		
			(3, 6035418)	.339 _b	< .001
No Children	44.0	77.8			
1 Child	29.2*	16.8*			
2 Children	26.3*	p			

_a = small effect; _b = medium effect.

The importance of household structure relates to the composition of spectators' and participants' travel parties. While preliminary analysis revealed a difference ($\chi^2(5,11958527) = 245337.76, p < .001, V = .143$), additional analysis controlling for household compositions revealed no differences.

The travel behaviour differences that existed within the middle adulthood group related to visiting national parks ($\chi^2(1,11958526) = 212021.11, p < .001, V = .133$) and going sightseeing ($\chi^2(1,21824834) = 230566.90, p < .001, V = .140$). Like those in early adulthood, more spectators (96.1%) than participants (82.1%) did not visit a national park and more participants (34.9%) went sightseeing than did spectators (16.2%). While likely linked, at least partially, to the activities associated with being a participant or spectator, it also possible that parents were seeking to visit places that were interesting to their children who were on the trip (Crompton, 1981).

Late Adulthood

There were few differences within the late adulthood group and those that did exist were mostly related to the activities in which they participated. Socio-demographically, the only difference was related to household income ($\chi^2(5,2533528) = 92705.25, p < .001, V = .191$), with the majority of spectators (72.3%) making \$39,999 or less while slightly more than half (52.2%) of participants fell into this category. Unlike those in the early

and middle adulthood groups, there were no variations in the composition of spectators' and participations' household or travel parties.

The other differences between spectators and participants in the late adult life span group related to the primary purpose of their vacation, the visiting of family and friends, and other vacation activities. When only examining the three primary purposes for travel – VFR, pleasure, and personal – it was determined that spectators were more likely to travel to visit family and friends than participants, and participants were more likely to travel for pleasure ($\chi^2(2,1600830) = 214511.11, p < .001, V = .140$). Further analysis revealed that spectators (65.9%) were more likely than participants (39.4%) to visit family ($\chi^2(1,2533528) = 99750.64, p < .001, V = .198$). When attempting to control for trip purpose (i.e., those who travelled to visit family and friends and those who did not), the individual cell sample sizes were too small to release the specific results. However, preliminary explorations support that spectators were more likely to visit relatives ($\chi^2(1,539913) = 28705.91, p < .001, V = .231$) and suggest that both groups were equally likely to visit friends ($\chi^2(1,539912) = 4237.16, p < .001, V = .089$).

There were four travel activities within which there was a disparity in the participation rates between spectators and participants. The differences found relate to participation in activities – visiting a festival, attending a cultural event, visiting a zoo, and going to a bar or night club – that are not necessarily linked to being a spectator or participants. These findings are different than those associated with the activity participation of those in early and middle adulthood groups, as they only differed on activities directly linked to active participation or spectatorship. To address the sample size issues, Table 2-15 shows how many spectators and participants did not take part in the activity. The only other behavioural difference was related household expenditures on clothing during the vacation ($t(1641597) = 188.58, p < .001, d = .2944$), with spectators spending ($M = \$47.78, SD = \114.77) more than participants ($M = \$16.13, SD = \70.47).

Table 2-15: Late Adult Spectator and Participants who did not Participate in Additional Activities

	Spectators (%) n = 416226	Participants (%) n = 2117302	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Visit a Festival	87.9*	94.7	23214.78 (1,2533527)	.102	< .001
Attend a Cultural Event	75.5*	91.9	178424.34 (1,2533527)	.265	< .001
Visit a Zoo	83.4*	96.4	109269.90 (1,2533528)	.208	< .001
Visit a Bar or Nightclub	74.5*	95.9	224827.80(1,2533528)	.298	< .001

* = fair data quality.

Within-Group Comparisons – Life Span

Comparison of life span groups within each group (spectators/participants) revealed a number of differences that were associated with aging. Many of the differences that were found to exist between spectators and participants within the late adulthood group were also found within the spectator group when the three life span categories were compared.

Many of the socio-demographic differences between the life span groups are ones that are commonly associated with aging (Marshall, 2006). Specifically, within both groups (spectators and participants) more individuals in middle and older adulthood were married, the younger groups tended to be more educated, more older adults were not in the labour force, and lived in two adult households. Those in early adulthood were more likely to have children living at home and older adults reported lower household incomes. Tables 2-16 illustrates the within group socio-demographic differences of spectators and Table 2-17 details those of participants.

Table 2-16: Socio-demographic Differences of Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood – Spectators

	Early (%) n = 2693302	Middle (%) n = 1696141	Older (%) n = 416225	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Marital Status				394623.43 (4, 4805668)	.203 _a	< .001
Married/ Common Law	74.7	87.3	80.2			
Single	20.7	vp	vp			
Labour Force Status				1447273.6 (4, 31511220)	.388 _c	< .001
Employed	83.3	75.3	vp			

Not in Labour Force	10.3*	19.7*	91.4*			
				346904.21 (4, 4805668)	.190 _a	< .001
Adult in House						
One Adult	8.9*	p	vp			
Two Adults	55.5	41.7	80.3*			
Three Adults or more	35.5	50.5	vp			
				834316.95 (6, 4805669)	.295 _b	< .001
Children in House						
No Children	34.6	60.6	98.5			
1 Child	21.8	20.6*	vp			
2 Children	34.1	18.1*	vp			
				597299.43 (10, 4805670)	.249 _b	< .001
Household Income						
≤ \$39,999	30.4	23.5*	72.3*			
\$40,000 - \$59,999	21.3	19.5*	vp			
\$60,000 - \$79,999	21.3	14.4*	vp			
≥ \$80,000	27.0	42.6	vp			

a = small effect, b = medium effect, c = large effect, * = fair, p = poor, vp = very poor.

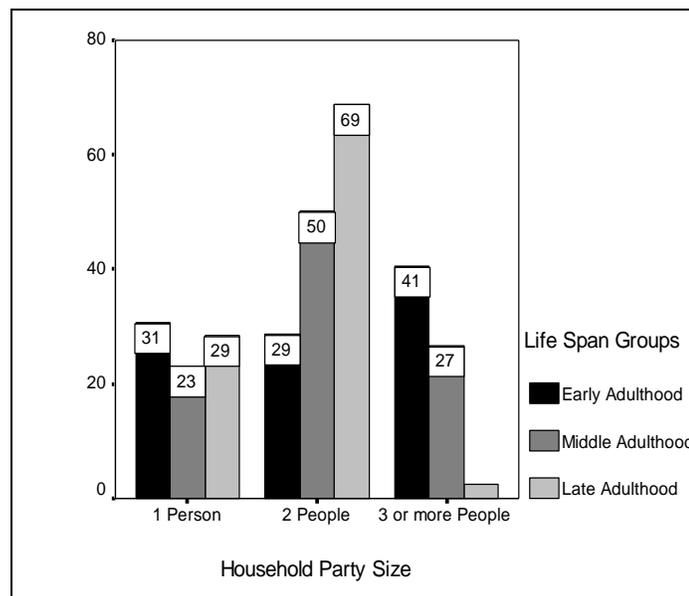
Table 2-17: Socio-demographic Differences of Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood – Participants

	Early (%) n = 2693302	Middle (%) n = 1696141	Older (%) n = 416225	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
				3972219.3 (4, 31511222)	.251 _b	< .001
Marital Status						
Married/ Common Law	60.6	81.2	76.8			
Single	20.7	vp	vp			
	5.2	12.6	21.1*			
				7927413.3 (4, 31511220)	.355 _c	< .001
Labour Force Status						
Employed	85.6	74.3	13.4*			
Not in Labour Force	8.7	22.9	86.5			
				790554.21 (4, 31511219)	.112 _a	< .001
Adult in House						
One Adult	12.9	12.9	20.3*			
Two Adults	61.1	51.9	72.3			
Three Adults or more	26.0	35.2	p			
				834316.95 (6, 4805669)	.295 _b	< .001
Children in House						
No Children	34.6	60.6	98.5			

1 Child	21.8	20.6*	vp		
2 Children	34.1	18.1*	vp		
				597299.43	
Household Income				(10, 4805670)	.249 _b < .001
≤ \$39,999	30.4	23.5*	72.3*		
\$40,000 - \$59,999	21.3	19.5*	vp		
\$60,000 - \$79,999	21.3	14.4*	vp		
≥ \$80,000	27.0	42.6	vp		

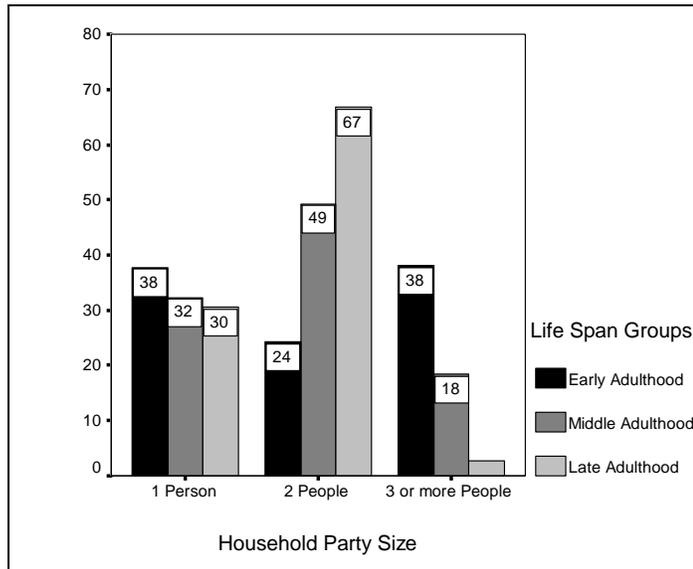
a = small effect, b = medium effect, c = large effect, * = fair, p = poor, vp = very poor.

There were also life span differences within each of the sport travellers groups in relation to party size and composition; however, many of these differences are likely a result of the differences in household composition (sample sizes too small to control for this possibility). The magnitude (medium effect) and pattern of the relationship were similar for spectators ($\chi^2(10, 4805667) = 508490.48, p < .001, V = .230$) and participants ($\chi^2(10, 31511219) = 3373465.20, p < .001, V = .231$). As seen in Figure 2-1, older adult spectators tended to travel in smaller household groups than others. Similarly, Figure 2-2 shows that participants in early adulthood were more likely to travel in larger groups and those in late adulthood in groups of one or two.



Data quality for late adulthood x 3 or more people is very poor.

Figure 2-1: Household Party Size of Spectators in Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood.



Data quality for late adulthood x 3 or more people is very poor.

Figure 2-2: Household Party Size of Participants in Early, Middle, and Late Adulthood.

Considering the existence of differences in the number of adults and children in the households of spectators and participants in different stages of life span, it was not surprising to find similar patterns mirrored in their travel parties. In both groups, those in early adulthood were the most likely to travel without other members of the household and those in late adulthood were most likely to travel with one other person. Despite being the most likely to travel by themselves, those travellers in early adulthood were the most likely to be accompanied by children on their vacations. As can be seen in Table 2-18, the differences related to number of adults on the vacation have small effect sizes, whereas those associated with the number of children showed medium effect sizes.

Table 2-18: Differences in Household Travel Party Composition by Life Span

	Early (%)	Middle (%)	Late (%)	χ^2 (df, n)	V	p
Spectators:				143767.78		
Adults from Household				(4, 4805669)	.122 _a	< .001
1 Adult	45.8	33.2	p			
2 Adults	45.4	55.4	69.6*			
3 or more Adults	8.8	p	vp			

Participants:				556371.62		
Adults from Household				(4, 31511220)	.094 _a	< .001
1 Adult	44.5	49.8	5.8			
2 Adults	35.1	54.9	10.0			
3 or more Adults	30.8	66.8	vp			
Spectators:				500599.88		
Children from Household				(6, 4805668)	.228 _b	< .001
0 Children	52.1	70.6	98.9			
1 Child	27.9	24.2*	vp			
2 Children	15.3*	vp	vp			
Participants:				2956195.00		
Children from Household				(6, 31511220)	.217 _b	< .001
0 Children	61.5	86.3	99.2			
1 Child	14.8	7.5	vp			
2 Children	18.7	5.1	vp			

_a = small effect, _b = medium effect, * = fair, p = poor, vp = very poor.

An examination of the life span and the three primary purposes of travel revealed that there were differences within the spectator group ($\chi^2(4, 4539440) = 234160.56, p < .001, V = .161$), with those in middle (69.7%) and early (58.7%) adulthood being most likely to travel for pleasure and those in late adulthood (50.4%) being more likely to visit family and friends. In contrast, only 18.9% of spectators in middle adulthood and 22.5% of those in early adulthood travelled primarily to visit family and friends. The vast majority of those in late adulthood who did not travel to visit family and friends travelled for pleasure.

Closer examination of who spectators visited revealed that those in the early (31.2%) and late (31.2%) age cohort were equally likely to visit friends; however, those in middle adulthood (21.8%) were less likely to do so ($\chi^2(2, 4805669) = 48264.93, p < .001, V = .100$). In contrast, those in late adulthood (65.9%) were much more likely to visit relatives ($\chi^2(2, 4805669) = 169088.38, p < .001, V = .188$) than spectators in early (32.8%) and middle (37.3%) adulthood.

When exploring possible differences in additional activity participation across the lifespan it was determined that older adults in the spectator group were more likely to

take part in other vacation activities. Specifically, a greater percentage of spectators in late adulthood visited zoos, attended cultural events, and went to bars or nightclubs. Conversely, participants in early adulthood were the most likely to visit a bar or nightclub, while there were no activity related differences within the middle adulthood group (Table 2-19).

Table 2-19: Participation differences in Additional Travel Activities

	Early (%)	Middle (%)	Late (%)	χ^2 (df, n)	V	α
Spectators:						
Did Not Attend a Cultural Performance	93.6	93.7	75.5	172918.28 (2, 4805668)	.190 _a	< .001
Did Not Visit a Zoo	96.0	98.8	83.4	200652.29 (2, 4805668)	.204 _a	< .001
Did Not Visit a Bar or Nightclub	77.6	88.0	74.5	85166.70 (2, 4805668)	.133 _a	< .001
Participants:						
Did Not Visit a Bar or Nightclub	83.5	90.2	95.9	429563.38 (2,31511221)	.117 _a	< .001

_a = small effect.

The fact that there were differences in the spectator group that were not found in the participant group may result in part from spectators in the late adulthood group taking ($M=6.10$ night, $SD = 8.95$) longer vacations ($F(2, 2252478) = 58352.05, p < .001, \Omega^2 = .049$) than spectators in early ($M=2.79$ night, $SD = 2.82$) and middle ($M=3.28$ night, $SD = 3.85$) adulthood. In contrast, any differences between participants in early ($M=3.99$ night, $SD = 4.00$), middle ($M=4.51$ night, $SD = 6.64$) and late ($M=5.23$ night, $SD = 5.68$) adulthood did not result in an interpretable effects size.

Analysis revealed no expenditure related differences, with participants on average spending \$320.46 and spectators spending \$333.99. These findings are surprising since spectators in late adulthood spent more nights on vacation than did participants. However, this may be explained by earlier results which also show spectators being more likely to visit family and friends while on vacation.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was the exploration of the assumption that active sport travellers are inherently different than event sport travellers. Within this investigation, these two groups were considered on the basis of their mode of sport consumption: spectatorship or participation. Despite the commonsense logic of such a division, the results of this study show that mode of sport consumption is not, in and of itself, enough of a delimiter to segment the sport travel market. Rather, additional factors such as duration (i.e., excursionists versus tourists), gender, age, and social class provide greater explanation of differences found in the socio-demographic profiles and travel behaviour (i.e., spending, length of trip, and travel party). In fact, the only consistent behavioural differences related to sport consumption were participation in activities that closely align with a specific type of sports involvement and spending on items more closely related to spectatorship.

Building off the work of Nogawa et al. (1996), spectators and participants were compared using the sub-categories of excursionists and tourists. The results of Nogawa et al.'s work showed that the duration of sport travellers' trips "influence the traveling style and spending patterns of sport tourists" (p. 53). The results of this study support the differences in spending patterns; however, the results also showed that there were minor variations between spectators and participants in relation to where they spend money. More specifically, spectators were more likely to spend money on items more closely associated with the spectator experience, such as food and beverage and clothing. This contrasts the findings of Carmichael and Murphy (1996), who found that participants at open-access sporting events spent more money on event memorabilia than did spectators.

The gendered nature of women's lives has been well documented, as has the female dominance of caring roles within the family (Gilligan, 1982; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975). Research has shown that women tend to fulfill the caring roles within a family and that these roles continue during holidays (Deem, 1996). The gender analysis conducted within this study showed that there were a few within group (male or female) differences based on sport consumption and that traditional gender roles were in evidence.

Specifically, men were more likely to travel by themselves and women were more likely to be the single adults on trips with children. A possible explanation for this is that women are more likely to be involved in childcare or that over 80% of single parent families are headed by women (Ministry of Industry, 2006). It was also determined that males tended to spend more money on travel expenses like accommodations; however, this may be explained by the fact that men tend to have higher household incomes and are less often the head of single parent households (Marshall, 2006; Ministry of Industry, 2006) than spending patterns dictated by being male or female.

The relationship between aging and sport participation is also well documented (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Iso-Ahola, Jackson, & Dunn, 1994). The findings of this study support the work of others like Gibson and Yiannakis in that it was found that younger adults were more likely to be active participants than were older adults. However, an important finding of this study is that life span differences accounted for greater differences within each group (spectator versus participant) than between groups. These differences related to factors such as household composition and thus travel party size, though they mirrored the patterns generally found in Canadian society (Marshall, 2006) and within each of the life span eras (Levinson & Levinson, 1996).

While it has been found that social class is positively correlated with the likelihood to participate in sport and to watch sporting events, it has also been suggested that certain spectator sports are more associated with the working class than with the middle or upper classes (Greendorfer, 1978; White & Wilson, 1999; Wilson, 2002). This relationship may explain why male active participants in this study consistently reported higher education levels than male spectators. The lack of difference between female participants and spectators in regard to social class is not as easily explained and thus needs further investigation; however, it may be that social class differences are mitigated by the caring taking role many women assumed during the trips (i.e., women were more likely than men to travel with children), the fact that more women than men were in single parent households, and or the overall disparity in household income. Additional social class

differences were revealed in the age related comparisons. Some of these differences are most likely related to changes in to one's economic standing as one retires; however, Crompton (1981) found that changes in life cycle stages were often identified as a factor influencing travel behaviour. For example, as children within the household age so does the nature of the family vacation. Thus, the relationship between social class, life span, and gender require further exploration within sport tourism. These findings also provide support for additional empirical investigations of sport travel that move beyond market division based on sport consumption.

Conclusion

Sport travel as a niche market and as a topic for academic inquiry continues to receive increasing attention. The foundation of much of academic discussion is the largely untested assumption that spectators (event sport tourists) are inherently different than participants (active sport tourists). Intuitively this makes sense when one thinks about mega events (e.g., Olympics or professional sports) which, for athletes, may be the culmination of years of training and for spectators, may represent a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity (Delpy Neirotti et al., 2001). However, beyond those instances, the usefulness of the event/active divide may be limited.

There has been increasing discussion within the literature about the nature and centrality of sport involvement as a means of truly defining the sport travel market (c.f., Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2004; Robinson & Gammon, 2004). The results of this study show that sport consumption, while providing a common starting place for market segmentation, may be limited in its usefulness as a market division. Thus, it is possible to conclude that other factors such as the nature of the activity (highly organized/structured to the more spontaneous), participant motivation (primary to incidental), and perhaps even the level of competition (highly competitive to participatory/recreational) may be more useful when describing the sport travel market.

Deery et al.'s (2004) examination of sport tourism models and definitions lead them to the conclusion that many of the current models are too broad in nature and as a result,

have limited value for the segmentation and measurement of the sport travel market. Their proposed model is based on assumptions that the context of the sport activity must be organized (event) and competitive and that “the key factor determining whether someone should be classified as a sport tourist is whether sport was a key motive for undertaking the tourism experience” (p. 237). While their model provides a more concise and defined perspective on sport travel, it also maintains the focus on large scale and organized elite activities. Further, within their model sport tourists are largely restricted to being spectators at these highly organized events. Thus, it fails to consider that involvement in participatory events and or community based tournaments, within which competition is less of a focus. The model also excludes the plethora of less organized individually focused sporting activities (e.g., golf, tennis, skiing) which may also be sport travel.

Limitations & Future Research

This investigation was a comparison of sport spectators and sport participants who travelled domestically in Canada during 2003. The data used in this study were collected by Statistics Canada as part of their annual survey of Canadian domestic travel. As such, the analysis is directed by the questions included in the Canadian Travel Survey, and the way that much of the data were released (i.e., nominal and categorical). This proved to be a limitation of this study; however, the ability to conduct population level analysis outweighed this limitation.

The other limitation of the current study is that it relies on the very broad definitions of sport tourism and, as such, may overestimate the true involvement of Canadians in sport travel. The nature of the database results in the inclusion of individuals based on activity participation which Deery et al. (2004) have argued is not a realistic measure of the sport travel market. The results of the current study support Deery et al.’s contention that the definitional elements of the market require tightening so that they can become more useful in the demarcation of the sport travel market as different from adventure tourism and other forms of active leisure travel. This is an important consideration when planning future quantitative empirical research.

Without a doubt, sport travel as a collection of niche markets within the great tourism market requires further study, particularly empirical investigations of sport travellers themselves (Weed, 2005). Future research needs to continue to explore the untested assumptions that have provided the foundation for the conceptual development and descriptions used within sport tourism literature. The true role of motivation as a driver of participation in sport tourism events and an increased breadth to the empirical investigations of sport travel are needed. For sport tourism research to be useful for community and tourism planners, who are not located within larger urban centres, the focus must move beyond the conceptual development of the niche market and the analysis of large to medium scale events.

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Chapter 3 - Moving Beyond the Average: Women's Motivations for Sport Travel¹¹

Travel for the purpose of watching or participating in sporting events has occurred since the ancient Olympics in Greece (White, 1997). In modern times, a main selling point of the sport travel niche market has been its capacity for economic growth and civic development (Papadimitriou & Gibson, 2008). This is perhaps best exemplified by the increased competition for the right to host mega events like the Olympic Games (Centre d'Estudis Olímpics, 2005), the creation of organizations like the Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance and magazines like *SportsTravel*, and through extensive reporting of participant numbers and the projected economic benefits of sporting events. In Canada alone, the estimated value of sport tourism has grown from \$1.3 billion in 2001 (Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2001) to \$2.0 billion in 2007 (Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2007).

Since the early 1990s, there has been significant growth in the academic study of sport tourism (Gibson, 2002). Many of the researchers participated in the identification and delineation of the various types of sport tourism (e.g., Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Gibson, 1998a, Hinch & Higham, 2001) and various aspects of event based sport travel (Delpy Neirotti, 2005). Notwithstanding these developments, Weed and Bull (2004) argue that, "the largest proportion of sports tourism literature has focused on its economic, social and environmental impacts, [and] very little has been written about the people who generate these impacts" (p. 54).

In the attempt to define sport tourism, academics have suggested a variety of ways of examining and describing sport travellers. The most common methods focus on the role of the traveler as either spectator or active participant (Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Gibson, 1998a; Hall, 1992). Gammon and Robinson (1997) advance the concept of active sport travel by differentiating sub-markets by the importance or role of sport within the overall holiday. Specifically, they suggest that there are sport tourists and tourist sports,

¹¹ While I am the principal author, this paper is co-authored with Dr. Gordon Walker, who provided assistance with the data analysis techniques as well as reviews of earlier drafts.

with the latter including activities where sport participation is spontaneous or incidental in nature. Within this description is the implication that sport participation should be a primary motivation; however, there has been limited empirical investigation that examines sport tourist motivations. Rather, most of the existing work focuses heavily on descriptions of participants and their behaviours without providing a clear understanding of their experience (Weed, 2005).

Discussions concerning participant motivations within the study of sport tourism have, to a large degree, been associated with the conceptual development of sport tourism as an area of study and the delineation of the sport tourism market. Robinson and Gammon (2004) suggest that much of this work has focused on the intersection of sport and travel, and the assumed importance of sport as a driving force behind the travel decisions of sport tourists (Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Gibson, 1998a; Hinch & Higham, 2001). Imbedded in this discussion is the basic assumption that sport does, or at least should, play an important role in the tourists' selections of travel destinations and vacation activities. There is, however, little empirical work that actually tests this assumption.

While much of the previously identified research on sport travel (i.e., Gammon & Robinson, 1997, Gibson, 1998a, Hinch & Higham, 2001; Delpy Neirotti, 2005) has focused on macro level descriptions, sport tourists are starting to receive attention. For instance, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the World Tourism Organization (WTO; 2001) commissioned a report on the sports activity participation of French, Dutch, and German outbound travellers. While examining a variety of activities, the generalized results of the study support the findings of Delpy (1998) and Gibson (1998b), who described the typical or "average" sport traveler as male, college educated, relatively affluent, and between 18 and 44 years old. However, what is also revealed within the WTO and IOC report is that the profile does not apply to all activities or cultures, and it greatly under-represents the actual involvement of women (often over 40% of the total) within this travel market (c.f., Gibson, 1998b; IOC & WTO; Weighill, 2003).

It is not surprising that the role of women, or more specifically the role of gender as an explanatory variable within sport travel has, to a large extent, been missed, as one of the “most ignored aspects of [tourism analysis] has been that of gendered differences in experience of, employment in, and enjoyment of tourism” (Momsen, 2002, p.195). A potential explanation for the continued “androgynous” (Shaw, 2001) nature of tourism literature is the reality that “ ‘the tourist’, like ‘the surgeon’ or ‘the CEO’ has for a long time been one of those putative genderless categories that is actually male” (MacCannell, 2002, p. vii). Further, much of the research to date that has focused on producing aggregate and generalized profiles, mirrors the historic exclusion or reduced access of women to sports (McClung & Blinde, 2002). More recently, sport tourism inquiry has moved to the “gender differences” (Henderson, 1990, p. 2) stage of analysis; however, there remains a general lack of research that could be considered “women-centred” (Henderson, p. 2).

Given the overall lack of empirical studies that explore the motivations of active sport travellers – particularly female active sport travellers – the purpose of this study was to investigate the motivations of female participants from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand who played in the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival (Festival) in Nadi, Fiji. This was achieved through the exploration of the women’s Recreation Experience Preferences (REP) and the importance given to each of the recreation modes (Williams, 1985) in relation to their decision to participate in the Festival.

Literature Review

Exploring Leisure Motivations

There are many differing perspectives on motivations and an overall lack of one single comprehensive theory (Iso-Ahola, 1999; Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Two common perspectives on motivation within leisure studies are the needs based theories and desired goal-state or expectations based theory (Mannell & Kleiber). Within tourism research, the needs based theories have tended to dominate, in part, due to the strong foundation

provided by Crompton (1979) and Dann (1981), who popularized socio-psychological motivations for travel. The other perspective, developed largely by Driver and associates, has focused on the desired goal-states as expressed through experience preferences (c.f., Manfredro, Driver, & Tarrant, 1996).

The motivational scales developed by Driver and associates, known as the Recreation Experience Preference (REP) scales, are grounded in the exploration of the psychological benefits of leisure. More specifically, “Driver opted to evaluate these benefits indirectly by looking at the motivational basis of leisure choice” (Driver, Tinsley, & Manfredro, 1991, p. 272). Like the other methods of examining motives, the REP scales are based on the assumption that behaviour is driven by “unmet needs” and that leisure was space within which individuals could satisfy these needs.

While initially developed as a more applied alternative to the traditional measures of motivation, the REP scales were grounded in literature on personality traits and motivation. These bodies of knowledge were used “to determine the types of needs and motivations that might influence recreation” (Manfredro et al., 1996, p. 191) and as a means of ensuring construct validity. Through a process of development and refinement, the REP scales are now organized into 21 motivational domains that contain over 40 scales (Driver, 1983; Manfredro et al.). Examination of the scale reliability and validity has not only shown the overall consistency of the scales (Manfredro et al.) but also identified key items that are central to each of the motivational constructs being examined (Driver).

Another perspective on recreation choice utilized in this research is Williams’ (1985) notion of recreation mode. This view of choice behaviour is based on the postulation that individuals decide to participate in certain experiences through a process of evaluating the relative importance of three domains: activity, social (i.e., companions), and place. It is argued that recreation decisions are based on the comparative importance of the three components characterized as: a) what to do, b) whom to do it with, and c) where to do it.

Within this framework, each of the modes contains gradients that will affect the decision being made (Williams, 1985). For instance, an activity can be participated in at a variety of levels of specialization (i.e., recreational sports vs. competitive sports), the desired social connection can vary from isolation to large group integration, and the characteristics of the place can range from something that is needed for a specific activity (i.e., water for swimming) to a space that is desired to elicit a certain experience (i.e., urban landscapes for excitement or rural/natural landscapes for relaxation). To date the concept of mode has only had limited application in tourism research; however, in Walker and Hinch's (2006) study of casino tourists, the authors did recommend its usage be extended to other types of tourism including – of particular importance to this paper – sport tourism.

Motivations of Active Sport Travellers

The well documented imbalance of inquiry on event sport tourism versus active sport tourism (Weed, 2006) is mirrored in the sport travel motivation literature. Examining sport travel contexts like the mega event (e.g., Olympics), professional sports, and other highly organized, mid-sized to large sporting events (Delpy Neirotti, Bosetti, & Teed, 2001; Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002; Ritchie, Mosedale, & King, 2002; Preuss, Seguin, O'Reilly, 2007), researchers have sought to determine the motivations and behaviours of travellers who are spectators.

Henderson (1994), reflecting on early explorations of women's leisure, noted that "as expected in the preliminary development of any line of study, initial research is often fragmented" (p. 2). This description fits the current state of knowledge on the motivations of active sport travellers, particularly in relation to sport/event specific case studies. Activities like skiing and golf have long been examined as activities that tourists participate in. However, other active contexts such as competitive cycling (Bull, 2006) and Masters Games (Ryan & Lockyer, 2002; Ryan & Trauer, 2005) are just starting to receive increased attention.

Much of the research on active sport travellers has focused on the experiences of adults participating in events like the Masters Games. Ryan and Trauer's (2005) work on the 2002 World Masters Games in Melbourne, Australia provides insight into the importance of not only competition but socially friendly environments as well. Similarly, the work of Gillett and Kelly (2006) on the 2005 Australian Masters Games showed that while socializing was key for some athletes, the sport experience (i.e., competition) was of more importance for others. Their study further showed that non-local (i.e., tourist) participants felt a stronger expressed need for socializing when attending games away from their home locale. Ryan and Lockyer's (2002) study of the 2000 South Pacific Masters Games revealed similar findings, with social aspects of the games being "relatively important" (p. 263), whereas, "a major motivation for participation is a sense of challenge and fun" (p. 263). Similarly, Bull's (2006) investigation of competitive cyclists determined that while the sport aspects (i.e., the race and competition) "were the paramount factors" (p. 271) of the experience, other travel features such as visiting new locales and spending time with friends and family "were far from insignificant" (p. 271).

As perhaps the only in-depth investigation of female active sport tourists, Green and Chalip's (1998) investigation of the experiences of women who participated in the Key West Women's Flag Football tournament provides a solid foundation for the exploration of women as sport travellers. The results of their study suggest that the act of playing football is most likely not a sufficient motive for participation and or repeat participation in the tournament. Rather participation is driven by the opportunity for the women to celebrate a subculture identity that is shared with other players. In addition, the women placed a high value on the social aspects of the event. This facet of the experience was of such importance that some felt that the tight schedule of the event negatively impacted on the women's opportunities for informal socializing.

Exploring Women's Leisure Participation

Hall, Slack, Smith, and Whitson (1991) noted that experience cannot be understood without reference to the social context within which it exists. Similarly, feminist researchers within the realms of sport, and leisure studies have clearly shown that the

contextual understanding of women's lived realities is a vital aspect of understanding women's leisure experiences (Aitchison, 2003; Deem, 1986; Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1996). Much of our understanding of women's leisure (including sport participation) is influenced by the recognition that historically, women have faced greater constraints (Shaw & Henderson, 2005) to leisure participation than men, and that the persistent influence of hegemonic masculinity has long shaped the social roles to which women have been limited (Hall et al.; Henderson et al., 1996; Wearing, 1998). Within this line of inquiry it is acknowledged that not all women face the same social realities, as other factors such as race, age, and social class also greatly influence the roles that one fills and the constraints that one faces (Henderson et al.). Also acknowledged is the fact that sport has been and is largely something created by men for men (Messner & Sabo, 1990).

Sport represents a segment of leisure behaviour that has long been viewed as one of the most masculinised social institutions (Messner & Sabo, 1990) as well as a place for the "reassertion and legitimization of male power and privilege" (Kidd, 1990, p. 32). Further, it has been argued that sport is the testing and proving ground for masculinity (Beneke, 1997; Messner, 2007), thus women are automatically put into the role of subordinate other. This societal understanding of sport resulted in the historic exclusion of women from sport, or the participation of women in "gender appropriate" sports like gymnastics, dance, and figure skating (Kidd; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). Despite decades of advocacy and political change, the societal perspective of women in sport has been slow to evolve and the ideal of equity has yet to be achieved (Messner).

Explorations of women's participation in sport have shown that it often takes a different form or meaning than what is historically associated with men's involvement. Specifically, women's experiences are often less dependent on traditional notions of competition and subjective evaluation based solely on winning or losing. Like other forms of leisure, the potential for sport to be fun and social has been an important aspect for women (Glyptis, 1985; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1994); however, it has also been found that the ability to have influence and control over the experience is often a

prerequisite for participation (Wimbush & Talbot, 1988). The importance of social connections within women's leisure is well documented (c.f. Henderson, 1990) and has been linked to women's positive travel experiences as well (Green & Chalip, 1998; Small, 2002).

Another factor of influence that relates to this study is the relationship between women, aging, and leisure participation. Iso-Ahola, Jackson, and Dunn's (1994) exploration of adults' leisure participation showed that women were more likely than men to start exercise-orientated activities and that men were more likely to start team-sport activities. However, they also noted that during retirement men were much more likely than women to replace (or restart) their leisure lifestyles, suggesting that the traditional caring roles that women fill are not ones from which they typically retire (Gibson, Ashton-Shaeffer, Green, & Corbin, 2002). These differences may not only relate to the nature of activity participation (as discussed earlier) but also to the socialized need for women to maintain physical appearance and to the "grandmother" role that older women are expected to fill within the family structure (Wearing, 1998).

While investigations of the relationship between aging and sport participation show a general decline in involvement, there are studies that help explain why some still choose to be active well into later adulthood. The work of Iso-Ahola, et al. (1994) and Freysinger and Ray (1994) both show that women who participate in sport during adolescents or early adulthood are more likely to participate in these activities in older adulthood. Further, it has been found that, "females with a non-competitive style appear to be more likely to continue involvement in leisure-time sports than females with a competitive style" (Scheerder et al., 2006, p. 426). This is an important fact, as historically women's sport has tended to emphasize aspects other than aggression and competition (Hall et al., 1991). It may also be the case that women who had the ability to resist the gendered notions of sport in early life also have the skills or disposition to resist ageist notions of sport participation in later life.

Grounded in a feminist understanding of women's sport participation, is this exploratory, 'women's centred' (Henderson, 1994) study focused on exploring women's sport travel motivation. The context of the research is the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival (Festival). This co-ed, weeklong event was a combination of three organized social events, three playing days, and regional travel opportunities (c.f., Air New Zealand, 2002). It provided a unique opportunity to study women as it embodied many of the aspects of sport and leisure that have been identified as desirable to women. Further, this event, which is only open to adults 35 years old or older, actively encourages older participants and actually adapts sport regulations to account for aging related difference in play (Air New Zealand, 2002).

Method

Sample, Study Instrument, and Measurement

The setting of this research was the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival, which took place in Nadi, Fiji. The event drew teams and players from all over the world to participate in a week of organized non-competitive hockey, social events, and regional travel opportunities. Within the population of players, a convenience sample of those from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand was selected for study due to the disproportionately higher percentage of teams from these countries.

The use of a nonprobability sampling technique results in the lack of generalizable results however, as Malhotra (2004) notes, convenience sampling "can be used in exploratory research for generating ideas, insights, or hypothesis" (p. 321). The intent of the research presented here was the exploration of motivations related to participation in the Festival. The use of convenience sampling resulted in not only a large enough sample to conduct the analysis but also to allow for sub-sample (i.e., nationality) comparisons.

Permission to conduct the study at the Festival was gained through the Golden Oldies World Secretariat (Secretariat). Insider access was gained through the primary researcher's personal connection to a participating hockey team, players with long festival histories, and individuals with festival planning experience. All team managers

were aware of the researcher's relationship with a Canadian team as well as the agreement to share findings with the Secretariat.

Team managers from the target countries were provided with 15 questionnaires (Appendix B) at a mandatory meeting the day before the Festival started. As prolonged recreation experiences have been shown to have a changing, multi-phasic nature (Clawson & Knetsch, 1966), managers were asked to give the questionnaires to players at the mid-point of the festival and to collect them the following day. Completed surveys were then retrieved during the final two days of the festival, although a small number were also collected by the organizing committee and forwarded to the researcher after the Festival. Based on the limitations of this sampling method (i.e., maximum 15 questionnaires per team) and on estimates of the actual number of players representing each team (range: 2 players – 15+ players per team), it was determined that the potential study population included 650 players. In total, data were collected from 350 players resulting in an estimated response rate of 53.8%. However, as only data from women were included in this study, the study sample was reduced to 229 players (67.2% of the completed questionnaires). The final study group included questionnaires from 66 Australians (28.8%), 40 Canadians (17.5%), and 123 New Zealanders (53.7%).

A self-completion questionnaire was used to collect data on motivation, recreation mode, travel behaviours, sporting and travel history, and socio-demographic information. Motivations were measured using a selection of REP scales developed by Driver (1983) and colleagues. REP domain and scale items were selected based on knowledge of women's leisure experiences (c.f., Weighill, 2001), life span theory (Levinson & Levinson, 1996; Levinson et al., 1978), and gender schema theory (Bem, 1995). Questionnaire items represented the motivational domains of: a) achievement/stimulation, b) autonomy/leadership, c) family togetherness, d) similar people, e) new people, f) learning, g) nostalgia, h) escape personal-social pressures, and i) physical fitness. Also included were scales designed to measure the importance of the three aspects of the mode of experience: place, activity, and social factors (Williams, 1985). For both measures of motivation – REP and mode – participants were asked to rate the

importance of each item on a five-point bipolar scale, with one equalling *extremely unimportant* and five equalling *extremely important*.

Data Analysis

Utilizing SPSS, data analysis consisted of six steps. First, the extent and pattern of missing data were examined (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Respondents missing 20% of the motivational data (6 women) were removed from the study, and a mid-point (i.e., 3=*neutral*) replacement method was used. After this was done, comparisons of mean scores pre- and post-replacement were conducted and no statistically significant ($p > .05$) changes were found. Second, the internal consistency of the REP motivational domains and mode dimensions were examined using Cronbach's alpha. An alpha score of at least .60 was used as the minimum standard for keeping individual items in the aggregation process (Nunnally, 1967). Third, investigation of potential sub-groups was accomplished using both hierarchical cluster analysis and K-means cluster analysis (with REP aggregates) as described by Hair and Black (2000). Ward's method of hierarchical clustering was used to identify the greatest percent change in the clustering coefficient, and revealed that a two cluster model was most appropriate. K-means cluster analysis, utilizing the previously determined number of groups, resulted in the creation of two sub-groups that had maximum internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. Fourth, verification and descriptions of the clusters was accomplished through a MANOVA and post-hoc ANOVA with a Bonferroni adjustment (to reduce Type I Error) to verify between group differences. Paired t-tests were used to determine whether cluster means for each motivational domains differed from the neutral mid-point of 3.0 and whether a hierarchy of motivations existed. Fifth, a MANOVA on the recreation mode scores with cluster membership as the independent variable and paired t-tests were conducted to determine whether mode scores within each cluster differed from the neutral mid-point of 3.0 and from each other. Sixth, a series of chi-square tests were done to compare cluster membership to socio-demographic characteristics and a selection of behavioural variables.

Results

Using Levinson and Levinson's (1996) categories of life span, it was found that 67.2% of respondents were in middle-adulthood (45-59 years), while 27.1% were in early-adulthood (35-44 years) and 5.7% were in late-adulthood (60+ years). Seventy-six percent of the women were married, 11.6% were divorced or separated, 8.0% had never been married, and 4.0% were widowed. Equal percentages of women (25.1%) reported having household incomes of either \$20,000 – \$39,999 or \$40,000 - \$59,999 (Canadian dollars). The majority of the remainder (37.9%) reported higher household incomes of either \$60,000 - \$79,999 (18.2%) or over \$80,000 (19.7%). Almost 50% of the women had completed post-secondary training (including graduate work), whereas only 17.0% had not completed high school.

Examination of other general characteristics of the respondents revealed that some of the participants had never regularly played field hockey, whereas others had played for as many as 60 years ($M = 29.91$ years; $SD = 14.78$). It was also determined that approximately 50% of the women had previously traveled to Fiji ($M = 1.26$, $SD = 3.29$) and that the majority (65.9%) were repeat attendees of Golden Oldies Hockey Festivals.

Cronbach's alphas, calculated for REP motivational domains, met the desired minimum standard (.60) in all cases except within the motivational domain of *Family Togetherness*, which was dropped from further analysis. Similar analysis was also conducted with the items used to measure each of the recreation modes: activity, social, and place. The Cronbach's alphas calculated all met or exceeded the minimum standard (.60). REP motivation domains and scale items included in the aggregation process and their associated alpha scores are provided in Table 3-1, and those related to recreation modes are in Table 3-2.

Table 3-1: REP Scale Domains, Items, Cronbach's Alphas, and Aggregate Means

Scale	Alpha
Item	<i>M</i> (SD)
REP - Autonomy/Leadership	.71
Be free to make my own decisions	3.06 (1.12)
Be obligated to no one	
REP - Achievement/Stimulation	.69
Have others think highly of me for doing so	3.21 (.75)
Show others that I can	
See if I could do it	
Have a stimulating and exciting experience	
Experience the exciting events that always happen at the Festivals	
REP - Similar People	.83
Be with members of my team	4.35 (.59)
Be with friends	
Be with others who enjoy the same things I do	
Be with people who are enjoying themselves	
REP - New People	.86
Meet new people	4.17 (.83)
Build friendships with new people	
REP - Learning	.84
Develop my knowledge of Fiji	3.91 (.72)
Learn more about Fiji	
Experience new and different things	
Explore the area	
Experience the sense of discovery involved	
REP - Nostalgia	.65
Remember the good times I've had in the past at	3.78 (1.03)
Golden Oldies Hockey Festivals	
Remember the good times I've had in the past playing field hockey	
REP - Escape Personal-Social Pressures	.84
Help reduce some frustrations I've been feeling	3.45 (.94)
Release or reduce tension	

Get away from the usual demands of life	
Get away from the demands of other people	
Have a change in my daily routine	
Do something different from what I do back home	
REP - Physical Fitness	.84
Get exercise	3.44 (1.04)
Help keep me in shape physically	

Table 3-2: Recreation Modes Scale Domains, Items, and Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	Alpha
Item	
Mode - Activity	
Play hockey	.61
Play non-competitive hockey	3.77 (.82)
Be physically active while on vacation	
Mode - Place	.77
Travel to a new destination	4.06 (.70)
Travel to Fiji	
Learn about a different culture	
Mode - Social	.71
Meet new people	3.95 (.71)
Renew old friendships	
Participate in Festival social events	
Travel with family and friends	

The MANOVA using the three broad categories of adult life span – early, middle, and late adulthood – in relation to REP means revealed no significant differences ($p > .05$). In contrast, the MANOVA comparing REP means by nationality was significant (Wilk's $\Lambda = .84$, $F(16,438) = 2.54$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .16$). According to Weinfurt (1995), this η^2 can be interpreted as a medium effect size. Follow-up ANOVAs revealed that the differences, with small effect sizes, relate to the importance of *autonomy* ($F(2,226) = 5.57$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .05$) and *nostalgia* ($F(2,226) = 5.02$, $p = .007$, $\eta^2 = .04$). Specifically, it was determined that Canadians placed less importance on both domains than did Australians,

and that Canadian women felt that *autonomy* was less important than did women from New Zealand (Table 3-3).

Both stages of cluster analysis relied on the participants' REP scores as a means of classification. First, using Ward's method of hierarchical clustering, it was found that the largest change in clustering coefficient (30.2%) was in the change from one to two clusters; thus, it was decided that a two cluster solution would be statistically appropriate. Second, the K-means clustering process split the sample into two distinct groups that had significantly different mean scores than each other ($p < .001$). A MANOVA comparing the two clusters' REP mean scores confirmed that they were significantly different from each other (Wilk's $\Lambda = .38$, $F(8,220) = 44.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .62$). An eta squared of this magnitude can be interpreted as a large effect size (Weinfurt, 1995). The subsequent ANOVAs revealed significant differences between the two groups in relation to the mean scores on each of the REP domains (Table 3-4). The differences between the groups on autonomy, achievement, escape, and physical fitness were found to have large effect sizes ($\eta^2 > .25$), whereas the mean difference on similar people, new people, learning, and nostalgia had medium effect sizes ($\eta^2 > .09$).

Table 3-3: Analysis of Variance on REP by Nationality

Scale	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	F	η^2
	(n = 66)	(n = 40)	(n = 123)		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
Autonomy	3.23 (0.97)	2.54 (1.05)	3.14 (1.18)	5.57*	.05
Achievement/Stimulation	3.38 (0.72)	3.01 (0.60)	3.18 (0.80)	3.31	--
Similar People	4.44 (0.49)	4.19 (0.62)	4.35 (0.63)	2.35	--
New People	4.27 (0.82)	4.09 (0.85)	4.15 (0.83)	0.68	--
Learning	3.94 (0.72)	4.04 (0.64)	3.85 (0.74)	1.18	--
Nostalgia	4.04 (0.90)	3.40 (1.12)	3.76 (1.03)	5.02*	.04
Escape	3.49 (0.98)	3.35 (0.81)	3.47 (0.97)	0.32	--
Physical Fitness	3.72 (0.98)	3.40 (1.05)	3.32 (1.05)	3.27	--

Note: Importance was measured using a five point scale where 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neutral, 4 = important, and 5 = very important. *Indicates a significant alpha ($p < .01$) using the Bonferroni method for reducing Type I error.

Table 3-4: Analysis of Variance on REP by Cluster Membership

Scale	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	F	η^2
	(n = 127)	(n = 109)		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
Autonomy	3.61(0.88)	2.37(1.00)	99.73*	.31 _a
Achievement/Stimulation	3.65(0.64)	2.66(0.49)	167.27*	.42 _a
Similar People	4.56(0.43)	4.08(0.66)	43.45*	.16 _b
New People	4.49(0.57)	3.77(0.92)	52.86*	.19 _b
Learning	4.17(.058)	3.58(0.74)	46.20*	.17 _b
Nostalgia	4.14(0.84)	3.32(1.06)	42.50*	.16 _b
Escape	3.97(0.73)	2.81(0.77)	135.96*	.37 _a
Physical Fitness	3.98(0.78)	2.78(0.93)	111.90*	.33 _a

*Indicates a significant alpha ($p < .01$) using the Bonferroni method for reducing Type I error. A sub-script “a” indicates a large effect size while a sub-script “b” equals a medium effect size.

Paired t-tests were used to verify whether cluster means differed from the scale’s neutral mid-point of three (Table 3-5). Cluster one ($n = 127$) – designated as *highly motivated* – had mean scores on each of the domains that were significantly higher than three. In contrast, cluster two ($n = 102$) – designated *moderately motivated* – had mean scores on *autonomy*, *achievement*, *physical activity*, and *escape* that were significantly lower than the neutral mid-point. The two clusters also differed with regard to the order and grouping of motivations with similar importance.

Table 3-5: Cluster Means for Each REP Domain Compared to Neutral Mid-Point of 3.00

Scale	Cluster One	Cluster Two
	Highly Motivated (n = 127)	Moderately Motivated (n = 102)
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Autonomy	3.61 (0.88) _a	2.37 (1.00) _a
Achievement/Stimulation	3.65 (0.64) _a	2.66 (0.49) _a
Similar People	4.56 (0.43) _a	4.09 (0.66) _a
New People	4.49 (0.57) _a	3.77 (0.92) _a
Learning	4.17 (0.58) _a	3.58 (0.74) _a
Nostalgia	4.14 (0.83) _a	3.33 (1.06) _a
Escape	3.97 (0.73) _a	2.81 (0.77) _b
Physical Fitness	3.98 (0.78) _a	2.78 (0.93) _b

Mean scores with a subscript significantly differ from the neutral mid-point of 3.00. a = $p < .01$; b = $p < .05$

The results of the paired t-tests comparing the REP domains revealed that within the *highly motivated* cluster (Table 3-6), the motivational domains of *similar people* ($M =$

4.56) and *new people* ($M = 4.49$) had the highest mean scores and that they did not significantly differ from each other. There were two other motivation groupings in this cluster between which there were not significant differences in importance. In contrast, the motivational mean scores for the *moderately motivated* cluster grouped together differently (Table 3-7). The domain of *similar people* ($M = 4.09$) had a mean score that was significantly higher than any other domain, whereas the domains of *new people* ($M = 3.76$) and *learning* ($M = 3.58$) had secondary importance but were not different from each other.

Table 3-6: Cluster One – Highly Motivated – REP Domain Means (ordered)

Motivational Domain	M (SD)
Similar People	4.56 (0.43) _a
New People	4.49 (0.57) _a
Learning	4.17 (0.58) _b
Nostalgia	4.14 (0.83) _b
Physical Fitness	3.98 (0.78) _b
Escape	3.97 (0.73) _b
Achievement/Stimulation	3.65 (0.64) _c
Autonomy	3.61 (0.88) _c

Shared sub-script numbers indicate that mean scores are not significantly different using an alpha ($p < .001$) corrected with the Bonferroni method.

Table 3-7: Cluster Two – Moderately Motivated – REP Domain Means (ordered)

Motivational Domain	M (SD)
Similar People	4.09 (0.66)
New People	3.76 (0.92) _a
Learning	3.58 (0.74) _{ab}
Nostalgia	3.32 (1.06) _{bc}
Escape	2.81 (0.77) _c
Physical Fitness	2.78 (0.93) _{cd}
Achievement/Stimulation	2.66 (0.49) _{cd}
Autonomy	2.37 (1.00) _d

Shared sub-scripts indicate that mean scores are not significantly different using an alpha ($p < .001$) corrected with the Bonferroni method.

A MANOVA using cluster membership and recreation mode scores further verified the existence of two motivational clusters with the *highly motivated* cluster rating the

importance of each mode higher than the *moderately motivated* cluster (Wilk's $\Lambda = .74$, $F(3,225) = 26.65$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .26$). The associated η^2 indicates a large effect size. As can be seen in Table 3-8, the associated ANOVAs revealed significant differences on all mode means and the η^2 for each can all be interpreted as medium effect sizes. Paired t-tests also determined that the cluster means for each mode significantly ($p < .001$) differed from the neutral mid-point of three. Finally, additional paired t-tests revealed that the relative importance of the modes was different between the clusters (Table 3-9).

Table 3-8: Analysis of Variance on Recreation Mode by Cluster Membership

Mode	<i>Highly Motivated</i>	<i>Moderately Motivated</i>	F	η^2
	(n = 127)	(n = 102)		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
Place	4.25 (0.60)	3.82 (0.74)	23.49**	.09
Social	4.21 (0.59)	3.62 (0.72)	47.04**	.17
Activity	4.09 (0.68)	3.37 (0.80)	55.21**	.20

Note: Importance was measured using a five point scale where 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neutral, 4 = important, and 5 = very important. ** Indicates a significant alpha ($p < .01$) corrected with the Bonferroni method.

Table 3-9: Within Group Comparison of Cluster Means for Recreation Mode

Mode	<i>Highly Motivated</i> (n = 127)	<i>Moderately Motivated</i> (n = 102)
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Place	4.25 (0.60) _a	3.82 (0.74) _a
Social	4.21 (0.59) _a	3.62 (0.72) _a
Activity	4.09 (0.68) _a	3.37 (0.80)

Note: All mean scores are significantly different ($p < .01$) between the clusters. Shared sub-scripts (a) indicate that mean scores did not significantly differ from each other.

A series of chi-square tests using cluster membership and socio-demographic or behavioural characteristics revealed that socio-demographically and behaviourally, there was little difference between the two clusters. The first test, using life span stage (Table 3-10), showed that there was no significant difference between the groups ($p > .05$). Other socio-demographic characteristics that were analyzed but which showed no significant differences included: a) marital status, b) highest level of education

completed, and c) household income. The only significant difference between the groups was related to nationality ($\chi^2(2, 229) = 6.38, p < .05, V = .142$). Aron and Aron (1999) suggest that a V of this size equals a small effect size. As Table 3-11 shows, the difference resulted from a higher than expected percentage of Australians in cluster one and a higher than expected percentage of Canadians in cluster two.

Table 3-10: Percentage of Players in Each Life Span Stages Within Clusters

Life Span Stage	<i>Highly Motivated</i> (n = 127)	<i>Moderately Motivated</i> (n = 102)
	%	%
Early Adulthood	23.6	31.4
Middle Adulthood	70.1	63.7
Late Adulthood	6.3	4.9
Total	100.0	100.0

Table 3-11: Percentage of Each Nationality Between Clusters

Nationality	Cluster One	Cluster Two	Total
	<i>Highly Motivated</i> (n = 127)	<i>Moderately Motivated</i> (n = 102)	
	%	%	
Australia	65.2	34.8	100.0
Canada	40.0	60.0	100.0
New Zealand	55.3	44.7	100.0

Further analysis also revealed that there were no significant differences between clusters on trip elements such as: a) inclusion and timing of add-on travel time (Table 3-12), or b) any of the non-playing activities (during the Festival) that respondents were asked about (Table 3-13).

Table 3-12: Percentage of Players Who Holidayed in Differing Periods Within Each Cluster

Holiday Timing	<i>Highly Motivated</i> (n = 127)	<i>Moderately Motivated</i> (n = 102)
	%	%
Festival Only	28.3	37.0

Add-on Prior to Festival (only)	13.4	14.0
Add-on After Festival (only)	46.5	34.0
Add-on Before & After Festival	11.8	15.0
Total	100.0	100.0

Table 3-13: Percentage of Players Participating in Select Activities During the Festival

Activity	<i>Highly Motivated</i>	<i>Moderately Motivated</i>
	(n = 127)	(n = 102)
	% Participated	% Participated
Welcome Banquet	98.4	96.0
Farewell Banquet	96.9	97.0
Festival Picnic	96.1	96.0
Shopping	86.6	80.4
Take a Cruise or Boat Trip	57.5	54.9
Visit a Bar or Nightclub	46.5	36.3
Watch a Cultural Performance	19.7	22.5
Visit a Historic Park	18.9	10.8
Participate in a Non-Festival Sport or Outdoor Activity	15.7	15.7
Attend a Festival or Fair	11.0	9.8
Visit a Zoo, Aquarium, or Botanical Park	11.0	9.8

Note: Only activities participated in by at least 10.0% of one Cluster were included. The opportunity to participate in a day cruise to an outer island was provided to participants at an additional cost.

Discussion

The results of this study support existing literature in relation to the specific motivations and desirable aspects of both active sport tourism experiences (Bull, 2006; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Green & Chalip, 1998; Ryan & Lockyer, 2002; Ryan & Trauer, 2005) and women's leisure (Glyptis, 1985; Henderson, 1990; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1994; Weighill, 2001). Cluster analysis revealed that there were two very different motivational groups within the study sample. However, for both of these groups, social motives were ranked as most important and learning was ranked within the motives of

secondary importance. These findings are similar to those of Anastassova (2002), who found that female tourists were motivated by “social and intellectual components” (p. 70) when selecting a destination for summer holidays. However, there may also be other explanations for these findings. They were also similar to those of Gillett and Kelly (2006) who determined that for Master’s Games participants, “the opportunity to socialise with other competitors was found to be a strongly expressed motive” (p. 251). It was also determined that this motives was more strongly felt by non-local participants.

The importance of the social aspect of women’s leisure experiences has been well documented in a variety of leisure and travel contexts (Freysinger & Flannery, 1992; Green & Chalip, 1996; Weighill, 2001). Small (2002) also found that despite a desire for spontaneity and to only please themselves on vacation, women wanted to travel with others so that they could share and discuss their experiences. These findings also support the work of Gillett and Kelly (2006), who determined that the ability to spend time with teammates and other event participants was an important factor for athletes participating in the Masters Games.

Another explanation for the importance of the social aspects of the Festival experience may be linked to the potential existence of a Golden Oldies or hockey related subculture. Green (2001) has argued that “sport provides a highly visible, easily accessible, and particularly salient setting for the formation of subculture” (p. 3-4). Further, she suggested that the social aspects of a subculture become a venue for the learning of subculture values and can become a primary attraction for participation within the subculture. In the case of the Festival, or more specifically the Golden Oldies organization, this dimension of subculture may be particularly relevant as it is grounded in the “Spirit of Fun, Friendship, and Fraternity” (Air New Zealand, 2002, ¶ 3) and thus the social aspects of the experience are emphasized at the Festival. Further, the organization takes formalized steps to ensure that these values are continued (e.g., through e-newsletters, videos, and other promotional materials) as a means of promoting a unified Golden Oldies identity, the success of which is at least partially supported by the large percentage of repeat participants (66%). It is also noteworthy that within

Australia and New Zealand, there are a number of annual and semi-annual events (e.g., regional tournaments and parties) that occur between the biennial tournaments that are also highly social in nature.

The importance of learning or the educational component of travel has been linked to women's travel experiences (Anastassova, 2002) and to aging. Specifically, Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) found that participation in intellectually linked tourist roles (i.e., the Educational Tourist, Anthropologist, and Archaeologist) increase in early and middle adulthood. While the current project did not examine different tourist roles – of which active sport travel is one – the findings do suggest that the women participating in the Festival may be seeking a variety of travel experiences/outcomes (i.e., social, learning, and active) within a holiday that may on the surface be viewed as purely sport related. This finding suggests that a single sport tourism holiday may fulfill needs related to multiple tourist roles.

Place was another motivational factor that ranked as important for all of the women. Within sport, place has long been viewed as important for how it relates to the actual playing of the game; however, in this case, place refers to the general location – Fiji. These findings suggest that, unlike competitive sport or activities that are highly dependent on the quality of the sporting structures or natural features (i.e., skiing), these women were attracted by the destination as much as, if not more than, the activity. The relatively poor condition of the playing fields offers further support to this. The implications of these findings is that communities may not have to do costly (re)development projects to host similar types of events, assuming that they are in desirable locations and provide satisfactory off-field experiences.

Despite the commonality found between the two groups, there were key differences. Specifically, the importance associated with the REP motives of autonomy, escape, and physical fitness, and the recreation modes: place, social, and activity. It was determined that the *highly motivated* group chose to participate in part to satisfy the need to be autonomous, to escape from everyday pressures, and to be physically active while on

vacation whereas those in the *moderately motivated* group did not. The motivations of this group were somewhat similar to those in Ryan and Lockyer's (2002) examination of Masters' Games athletes who identified self-expression in a social environment as a central part of their experience.

Another key difference between the motivational clusters was that the *moderately motivated* group indicated that the place and social aspects of the experience were more important than the activity. In contrast, the importance of these factors was not significantly different for the *highly motivated* group. What this suggests – beyond the existence of two groups of women who were motivated differently – is that the highly motivated group may be more in-line with the active sport traveler role as described by Gibson and Yiannakis (2002). Support for this contention is drawn from their findings that suggested that, “the selection of the Active Sport Tourist role is a function of the joint effects of *satisfied* needs for home and family, and to get away from it all, combined with *unsatisfied* needs for control over their lives, sexual and health needs” (p. 370).

That the two groups did not differ significantly on any of the socio-demographic characteristics – except nationality – is supported by studies that have found that sport travellers tend to have similar characteristics across the life-span (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). That is to say that, despite their age, adult sport travellers tend to be college educated and relatively affluent. It is also possible that any life-span differences that exist within a general travel population (Gibson & Yiannakis) may be mitigated by the importance and influence of subculture membership and the desire for continuity within an aging population. For instance, Scott and Willits (1989) found that, for women, there was a strong relationship between playing a sport as an adolescent and playing that same sport as an adult. Further, it has been determined that continuity in leisure activities can be a means of maintaining both stability while aging (Iso-Ahola et al., 1994) and ties to one's past. Seeking ties to one's past is also an aspect of aging as described by Levinson and Levinson (1996), as well as an important motive for both groups of women.

The only significant socio-demographic difference between the two groups was nationality. Specifically, it was determined that Australians were over represented in the *highly motivated* group and Canadians were over represented in the *moderately motivated* group. It seems likely that these differences are most strongly linked to the importance given to autonomy and to nostalgia by Australians and Canadians respectively. While the culture of both countries has been found to be individualistic in nature (Hofstede, 2003), it was also determined that Australians rank higher on the individualism dimension than do Canadians. However, research exists that suggests Australian tourists are similar to those from the United States (e.g., Foo, McGuiggan & Yiannakis, 2004) – the only country to rank higher than Australia in relation to individualism – and other research involving Australians suggests that findings can potentially be applied to countries such as Canada (Collins & Tisdell, 2002). Further research into cross-national motivational differences is needed.

While not explicitly explored within this study, the non-competitive focus on the Festival may help to explain why place (Fiji) was as important, if not more so, than the activity for the women. In contrast, investigations of competitive events such as Master's Games (Ryan & Lockyer, 2002; Ryan & Trauer, 2005) and cycling (Bull) would suggest that while place (destination, not sport facility quality) may be important, it is not the primary factor. This idea requires deeper study, as it is possible that while a destination may be highly desirable, it may not be attractive enough to draw repeat visitation unless other aspects of the event are equally satisfying (Green & Chalip, 1998).

From a motivational perspective, the results of this study also show that while the women were participating a sporting event, the activity was not necessarily a primary motivation for travel. The implication is that historic focus on women's sport of fun and socialization (Glyptis, 1985; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1994) may result in sport being a vehicle for travel rather than a primary motivation. This would fit with Gammon and Robinson's (1997) position that sport should be central to the experience; however, it is worth noting that while they use the word "motive", activity participation is not conceptualized as part of the needs-based view of motives. Rather, sport is viewed

something central the experience and a “driver” of participation and motives are viewed as the needs that are prompt a person to select a specific sporting activity/event to participate it. Thus sport as a reason for travel may depend on its ability to provide the social environment sought, and the transferability of the specific activity to locations that facilitate the desire to learn and to visit new places.

The lack of behavioural differences related to the different motivational groups was not entirely surprising as the Festival organizers provide a number of formalized opportunities for socializing and alternative activity participation (e.g., a boat cruise). Further, the results of the study suggest that there was only limited participation in most of the informal activities that participants were asked about, whereas the more formalized events (e.g., banquets and parties) were attended by the vast majority of respondents. There are multiple interpretations of the findings, including that the women: a) participated in Festival related activities, or b) did something that was not included in the checklist provided, or c) were constrained by a relatively busy formal itinerary. Given the various possibilities, non-sport (primary sport activity) activity participation requires further investigation.

Conclusions

In an attempt to move beyond the “average” profile of sport travellers, this study explored the motivations and behaviours of women travellers participating in a sporting event. In order to accomplish this, female players from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand were asked to indicate the importance of a series of motivations for participation as measured by the Recreation Experience Preference scales and recreation mode. The decision to use REP scales rather than the more psychologically based needs approach to view motivation can be viewed as both a limitation and strength of this work. REP scales relate to specific aspects of the experience and in some cases more psychologically driven benefits; however, respondents are limited to experiential components provided by the researcher. Thus, the results of this study relate the relative importance of the motivations that the women were able to select and should not be viewed as an exhaustive listing of possible motives. On the other hand, one of the strengths of using

the REP scales is that they may more easily be interpreted and applied within the field, thus increasing their potential influence on the development of active sport travel opportunities for women. Further, these limitations can be addressed through future research, which should not only expand on the exploration of sport travellers' motivations but include investigations that further develop understanding of the complex and diverse factors of sporting events which motivate players to participate.

Similarly, the behavioural items included in the questionnaire also represented a standard list of vacation activities. While this restriction can be viewed as a limitation, it is also recognized as important foundational information that can be used as a platform for future studies on the vacation behaviour of participants in sport events of this nature. Further, the use of the standardized list of activities allows for comparison with other research projects utilizing similar lists. Future research in this area should build on study findings by adopting methods that allow for greater diversity in response, for the reporting of relative importance of other activities, and which provide some indication of an individual's rate of participation. By seeking a better understanding of participants' behaviours, host communities will be better able to prepare and market sporting events.

As with any study, there are a number of limitations and therefore recommended changes for further research. The change that would make the most theoretical and perhaps methodological sense – based on the findings – would be a closer examination of the life span characteristics of participants' lives. This exploration should include such factors as motherhood, labour force participation, and life history. Utilizing methods that allow for more in depth investigation into these characteristics could result in a clearer understanding of how aging relates to women's motivations to participate in sport events.

The results of this study do not begin to address the issue of males being continually reported as the “average” sport traveler. However, the results do add to the growing body of literature that acknowledges women as active consumers of tourism and leisure products. A further contribution of this research is the suggestion that the social and place dimensions – not just the sporting activity as commonly assumed – may function as the

secondary motivations and arguably as the primary motivations for participation. Thus, the host cities and planning committees should be concerned not only with the development of the playing experience but also with the off-field social experiences as well. The importance of place further suggests that host communities or even host regions may be able to capitalize on the participants of non-elite sporting events.

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Chapter 4 - Since We're Already Here!: Add-on Travel of Female Sport Travellers

Travel for the purpose of participating in or watching sport is not a new occurrence. However, it has been argued that as late as the early 1990s, the sub-fields of sport and tourism have been “treated by academic and practitioner alike as separate spheres of activity” (Glyptis, 1991, p. 165). In the past 15 years, this particular niche of the travel industry has gained greater academic and public interest. For instance, the development of the *Journal of Sport and Tourism* (formerly *Journal of Sport Tourism*), as well as numerous textbooks (c.f., Gibson, 2006; Higham, 2005; Hinch & Higham, 2004; Pealo & Redmond, 2003; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Weed & Bull, 2005) and special journal issues (e.g., *Current Issues in Tourism*, volume 5, November 2002; *Journal of Sport Management*, volume 17, July 2003; *Sport in Society*, volume 8, June 2005; *European Sport Management Quarterly*, volume 5, September 2005) that have focused on describing and defining the concept of sport travel, while also making the argument that this form of travel offers communities (and arguably host nations) great opportunities for economic growth and increased civic pride.

Many of these publications focusing on sport tourism (cf., Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Gibson, 1998a; Hall, 1992; Hinch & Higham, 2001) have segmented sport travel based on participants' roles within the experience – either as an active player or spectator. This delineation is based on the assumption that the motivations and behaviours of each group differ from each other (Carmichael & Murphy, 1996). Although motivation and behaviour have been part of the sport tourism debate (Robinson & Gammon, 2004), much of the discussion has centred on the development of conceptual understandings of sport travel rather than empirical examinations of sport travellers (Weed, 2005). As a result, our understanding of sport tourism participation is, conceptual in nature, focused on the mode of sport consumption (i.e., active or passive), or examines the potential impacts of sport tourism rather than the people who create those impacts (Weed & Bull, 2004).

An examination of published research on the characteristics of the active sport travel market (Delpy Neirotti, Bosetti, & Teed, 2001; Gibson, 1998b; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; International Olympic Committee [IOC] & World Tourism Organization [WTO], 2001) revealed that, on average, sport travellers are male, 18-44 years old, college educated, and relatively affluent. Closer investigation suggests that the male domination of sport travel does not apply to all activities or to all cultural groups. For instance, Gibson (1998b) indicated that in North America, women are more likely than men to cross-country ski. Similarly, researchers generalized German, Dutch, and French outbound sport travellers as male, but the gender split for some sporting activities was as close as 52% male to 48% female (IOC & WTO, 2001).

Despite move to more theoretically grounded explorations of gender differences in sport tourism (e.g., Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002), the generalization that males are the sport traveller market not only underestimates the role of women as sport travellers, but may also mislead sport tourism planners and developers. Specifically, the focus on men perpetuates the idea that women are uninterested in sport or physical activity, when in reality, women may be a vital growth market. Support for the potential of the women's sport travel market is provided, at least in part, by Green and Chalip's (1996) investigation of a women's flag-football tournament in Key West. Their findings highlight the commitment women have to sporting participation and the ability of sport to induce women's travel. Unfortunately, there are still limited explorations of women's travel motivations and behaviours related to involvement in participatory sporting events.

Much of the sport tourism literature on specific events concentrates on the spectator experience (Delpy et al, 2001; Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002) or on the economic and strategic benefits of hosting mega events such as the Olympics (Delpy Neirotti, 2005). Benefits that Higham (1999) suggests "accrue to the private sector" (p. 83), calling into question the "claim that mega-events bring economic opportunity to host residents" (p. 83). It is also argued that sporting events have the ability to not only attract visitors but to promote exploration of the host's geographic region (Getz, 1991). However, there has been little research examining the community and regional benefits of these small scale

sports events. This research gap needs rectifying as these events may provide communities with tourism opportunities that can be designed to maximize positive impacts while minimizing social and economic costs (relative to mega events).

Getz (1991) argues that “events can be used in conjunction with other attractions to heighten overall destination appeal” (p. 6). Similarly, Lue, Crompton, and Fresenmaier (1993) state that the appeal of a combination of events and attractions within a single route or area can induce travel in situations where a single attraction may not. Tourists also tend to look for a combination of destinations and attractions within close proximity in order to satisfy a variety of travel needs while also negotiating a series of travel constraints. Chalip and McGuirly (2004) assert that “an emerging challenge in sport event tourism is to incorporate events more strategically into the host destination’s overall mix of tourism products and services” (p. 267). They also suggest the ‘bundling’ of event related activities with destination assets and sport traveller subculture characteristics in order to produce a “mixed bundling strategy” (p. 267). This suggests that communities can leverage sporting events in combination with other attractions or key destination features as a means of not only attracting participants but also promoting further exploration and travel.

In order to maximize the economic benefits of a sporting event, the hosts must attract visitors from outside the immediate area (i.e., introduce “new” money into the destination). The challenge of attracting these individuals has been documented within the literature on travel flows and is consistent with distance decay theory, whereby there is a negative relationship between distance and the probability of travel (i.e., the greater the distance the less likely people will make the trip; McKercher & Lew, 2003). However, it has been argued that sporting events have the ability to induce travel (Getz, 1991) and thus prompt participants to negotiate the psychological and financial constraints associated with travel distance (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson, & Walker, 2005).

Research on travel patterns (Lue et al., 1993; McKercher & Lew, 2003; Oppermann, 1995) and on economic psychology (Crotts & van Raaij, 1994) has revealed that while

fewer visitors will travel from great distances (at greater costs), those who make the trip are willing to incur higher destination related travel expenses (i.e., additional vacation time or participation in an activity/event). Further, it is argued that visitors view increased spending as a rational decision, justified by the high investment associated with transportation to that particular destination. Similarly, Getz (1991) found that, in general, event attendees are more likely to stay longer and spend more money than other types of tourists. These findings suggest that while events are more likely to have participants from the closer markets, it may be the players from further away that provide a greater economic impact for the region.

There has been increased attention paid to the potential of sport tourism as a niche market and as a tourism product that destinations can use to attract more visitors; however, the majority of this work has focused on social, economic, and environmental impacts (Weed & Bull, 2004). While there are numerous gaps in our knowledge about sport travel, Weed and Bull have indicated that one of the most glaring omissions is our understanding of travellers and their experiences. Arguably some of the most ignored aspects of sport tourism are women as active participants, the touristic behaviours of participants within non-elite sporting events, and the travel patterns of those who chose to participate in sports events that necessitate travel.

The research presented in this article focuses on the travel behaviours of female players from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand who took part in the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies [Field] Hockey Festival in Nadi, Fiji. The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature and extent of pre- and post-event travel, while exploring the potential influence of socio-demographic factors such as age and country origin on the travel behaviours of players. The contribution of this work lies in its focus on two aspects of the sport travel market that have to date, been largely ignored: women's participation, and travel patterns and behaviours beyond participation in the main event.

Travel Context: Destination Fiji

Located in the South Pacific Ocean, Fiji is comprised of 332 islands, of which 110 are inhabited. Its economy is largely based on agriculture and resource extraction; however, Fiji has a growing tourism industry that attracts 300,000 – 400,000 people annually (CIA, 2006). The importance of the tourism industry is recognized by financial organizations (e.g., ANZ, n.d.; Rabobank, 2006), foreign governments (e.g., New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs & Trade, 2008), and Fiji's own government (Fiji Government – Ministry of Information, 2003). However, tourism's susceptibility to political unrest is also acknowledged by these same organizations. The New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs & Trade (NZMFAT) states that the population of Fiji (905, 949 – July 06) is dominated by two ethnic majorities: indigenous Fijians (51%) and Indo-Fijians (44%). The political tensions between these two dominant groups has led to four military coups in four decades (Euromonitor International, 2008), the most recent being in 2000 and 2006 (ANZ, n.d.; NZMFAT, 2008).

While 2003 – the year in which this study was completed – was a period of relative internal political stability, ANZ (n.d.) reports that SARS and the Gulf War resulted in a decline in first quarter tourism. However, for the remainder of 2003 through to 2005, the tourism industry saw increased growth and record arrivals. The major inbound markets in 2003 included Australia, New Zealand, and the United States, which in combination accounted for a combined total of approximately 64% of all visitors to Fiji (Katafono & Gounder, 2004). In contrast, Canadians only accounted for 3% of the inbound market (Kay, 2006a).

Over 95% of visitors to Fiji stay on the main island of Viti Levu or on the Mamanuca and Yasawa Islands, which are located off the coast of Nadi (Figure 4-1). In fact, the majority of visitors stay within the resort corridor that extends along the southern coast between Lautoka and the Capital City of Suva (Levett & McNally, 2003). A contributing factor to this travel pattern is the fact that much of the tourism infrastructure of Fiji is located within this corridor or links from the cities of Suva and Nadi.

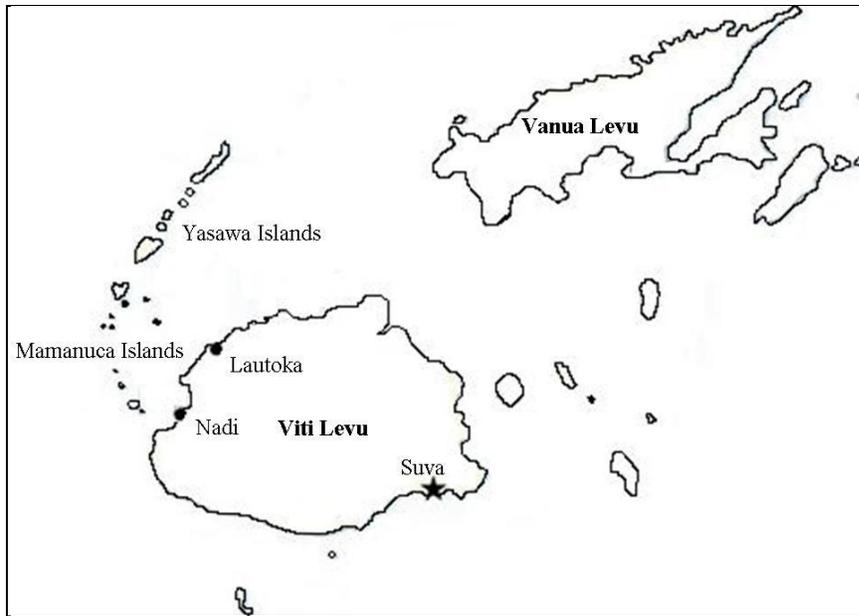


Figure 4-1: Primary Areas of Tourist Visitation in Fiji

Transportation is another factor affecting the distribution of visitors to Fiji. Nadi is home to Fiji's main international airport and therefore is a gateway to other islands via inter-island flights, ferry travel (to the Mamanuca and Yasawa Island groups), rental cars, and bus routes along Queen's Highway (Lautoka to Suva). Bus service between Nadi and Suva features two main itineraries; a) one with many stops, largely to service residents, and b) an express route with infrequent stops at major resorts, used primarily by tourists. In contrast, travelling to the northern sections of Viti Levu is not nearly as popular due to poor road conditions and few tourist services (Kay, 2006b).

Sport Context: Golden Oldies Field Hockey

The Golden Oldies movement started over twenty-five years ago in New Zealand when a prominent rugby player presented the idea to Air New Zealand. Building on the momentum created by the first Rugby Festival, held in 1979, the Golden Oldies World Secretariat was formed and soon offered World festivals in four different sports – rugby, cricket, netball, and hockey. At various times throughout its existence, the Golden Oldies have also hosted regional and world events in softball and soccer (Air New Zealand, 2006a).

The first [Field] Hockey Festival, held in 1983, was hosted in Auckland, New Zealand and attended by 16 teams. To date, the Festival has been held every two years and has been hosted in numerous locations in the South Pacific, Europe, and North America (Air New Zealand, 2006a). Both the 1991 and 2003 Festivals were held in Nadi, Fiji. The focus of this research is the 2003 Festival, which attracted over 1200 people, representing 72 teams from more than ten countries (Golden Oldies World Secretariat, 2003).

Building on the explicitly stated value of “Fun, Friendship and Fraternity” (Air New Zealand, 2006b, Golden Oldies Festivals – World Hockey Festival, ¶ 3), the organizers of this sporting event pride themselves on the promotion of friendship, while providing adults (35 years and older) an opportunity to continue playing for the love of the game. “While other sporting gatherings may boast champions, record scores and a wealth of statistics, Golden Oldies produces no winners – just a host of on and off-field occasions that live in the participants memories forever” (Air New Zealand, 2006a, Golden Oldies Festivals – About Golden Oldies, ¶ 2). The focus of this event is not on identifying a Festival champion; rather, fair competition and the love of sport are implicitly and explicitly promoted during play. It is also noteworthy that “over-robust play” is not encouraged and players who wish to “avoid aggressive play or prefer not to be tackled” (Air New Zealand, 2006c, Golden Oldies World Hockey Festival - Rules and Conditions of Play, ¶ 10) are identified by wrapping coloured tape around their sticks. These measures facilitate the participation of men and women with differing skills and age related abilities.

Core values of the organization are built into the structure of each weeklong Festival and are infused in both sport and non-sport activities. The schedule of events for the 2003 Festival included a parade of teams, three playing days (two games/team/playing day), a group picnic to Natadola Beach, welcoming and farewell banquets, a talent show, a day of pre-sold optional tourist activities (e.g., a day trip to Beachcomber Island), and many other informal social events. The festival opened with a welcome dinner on Sunday,

October 12th and concluded seven days later with the final banquet on Saturday, October 18th.

Methods

Data used in this study were collected with self administered questionnaires (Appendix B) and a convenience sample of teams from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The questions of particular interest to this study were those related to respondents' participation in additional vacation time, which was measured on a dichotomous scale of yes or no for both the period before the Festival and the period immediately after. Also of interest were the open-ended responses that detailed the destination(s) of additional travel and the indication of how many days the additional travel lasted. A list of vacation related activities – adapted from Statistic Canada's Canadian Travel Survey – was used to collect data concerned with additional vacation behaviour. Due to the timing of data collection, responses regarding pre-Festival travel reflect actual behaviour while post-Festival travel data actually measured intended behaviour. The study instrument also included socio-demographic and screening questions (e.g., age, sex, and player's country of residence), as well as items designed to measure past sporting and Festival participation.

To facilitate an effective and efficient data collection process, team managers (representing teams from the target countries) were each provided with 15 questionnaires (N=650) at a mandatory managers' meeting held on October 12th, prior to the start of play. A presentation about the research project was given at this meeting and team managers were provided an opportunity to ask questions and seek clarification of their role.

All managers took their information packages and agreed to distribute the questionnaires to both male and female players at the mid-point of the Festival and then collect them the following day. Completed surveys were retrieved from team managers on the final two days of the Festival, with a small portion (<10) being collected by Golden Oldies staff and then forwarded to the researcher after the Festival. This method

of sampling resulted in a total study sample of 350 (53.8% response rate). However, as the current project was focused on women, only the 235 responses from female players residing in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand (67.1% of study sample) were considered for analysis.

Data Analysis

The data used in this research were also used in another study focused on the women's motivations for participating in the Festival (see Chapter 3). Preparation of the data used in both studies involved reducing the sample to only include responses from females aged 35 years or older who were from Australia, Canada, or New Zealand. The data were also screened for missing/incomplete responses, which resulted in the removal of six respondents who did not answer more than 20% of the motivation questions. While a mid-point replacement method was used for motivational data, missing behavioural data were not replaced. Thus, the resulting sample consists of 229 respondents.

Prior to initiating analysis related to the research objectives, additional data preparation was necessary. This process involved: a) the application of quantified codes to open-ended comments, and b) the sorting of participants based on the timing of their trips. The first step was the assignment of quantified codes to the women's open-ended responses associated to the destinations visited during their add-on travel. The destination related data were coded as *multiple* (the multiple destinations most often included at least one Fijian location in addition to another en route destination like New Zealand or Hawaii), *Viti Levu* (locations surround Nadi), *Mamanuca*, or *Yasawas*. Responses that were not common answers (e.g., United Kingdom) were all coded as *other* so as to create a large enough group for comparative purposes.

The second step involved sorting participants in four groups based on the timing of their vacation in relation to the timing of the Festival. These groups were defined as: a) those who only attended the Festival (*Festival*), b) those who vacationed before the Festival (*Before*), c) those who planned to vacation after the Festival (*After*), and d) those who vacationed before and planned to vacation after the Festival (*Before & After*).

As the data in question were mostly measured at either a nominal or categorical level, it was determined that using a Chi statistic and Cramer's V as a measure of effect size would be most appropriate. As such, the majority of analysis consisted of comparing the percentage distribution of players within each of the time related travel groups. However, as the duration of the women's additional vacation time was measured at a ratio level, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) utilizing an eta square (η^2) as an indication of effect size were used. This method not only allowed for the determination of significant differences but also for the identification of the groups (between group difference) responsible for the difference.

As previously noted, this exploration of women's add-on travel included the examination of potential age related differences. To ensure continuity in analysis with the research presented in chapter 3, Levinson and Levinson's (1996) life span stages were used. This theory of adult development consists of three primary eras – early adulthood (35-44 years), middle adulthood (45-59 years), and late adulthood (60+ years). Country of origin was also used as an intervening variable in analysis; however, unlike chapter three, in this study it is a reflection of travel distance rather than potential cultural differences.

Results

The final sample used for analysis was comprised of 229 respondents – 40 Canadians (17.5%), 66 Australians (28.8%), and 123 New Zealanders (53.7%). Access to actual registration records was not possible thus the precise number of women from these countries within the overall Festival population was not known; however, these values are similar to the general ratio of teams from each of these countries (Canada, 18.4%: Australia, 22.5%; New Zealand, 59.1%). The women ranged in age from 34 to 84 years old; however, 74.2% of them were between the ages of 40 and 59 years. The vast majority of the women were married (76.4%), with the remaining being divorced (11.6%), widowed (4.0%) or single/never married (8.0%). While 8.1% of the women had completed graduate degrees, a total of 63.2% of all the women had completed some post-

secondary education (including the completion of diplomas, certificates, and degrees), whereas 19.7% completed high school only and 17.0% had not graduated from high school. The approximate household income (CAD) of respondents ranged from less than \$20,000 (11.8%) to \$80,000 or more (19.7%). As can be expected, the majority fell within these extremes, with equal percentages of women (25.1%) reporting household incomes of either \$20,000 - \$39,999 or \$40,000- \$59,999, and 18.2% reporting \$60,000 - \$79,999.

Fifty-one percent of the women were repeat visitors to Fiji (Range = 1 – 30 trips, M=2.5, SD=4.3). Similarly, 65.9% of them had previously participated in a Festival and 22.2% had attended six or more Festivals (Figure 4-2). This finding is important, as comparisons of these latter figures with dates of previous Festivals suggested that some of the women had not only visited Fiji before, but had likely done so to participate in a Golden Oldies [Field] Hockey Festival (2001 Tournament was also held in Nadi, Fiji). Unfortunately, based on the data collected in the survey, it was impossible to determine exactly how many of the women had actually attended the earlier Festival.

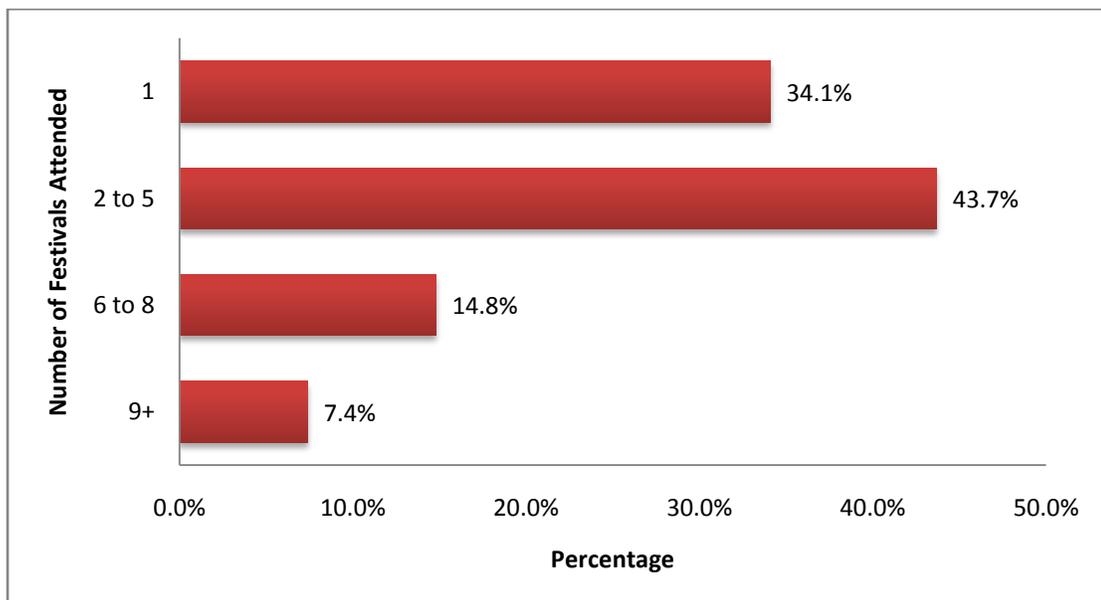


Figure 4-2: The Number of Golden Oldies Festivals Attended (%).

Add-on Travel and Timing of Travel

Examination of the Festival travel groups revealed that approximately one third (32.2%) of the group only attended the Festival. Those who added onto their vacations were most likely to do so after (41.0%) the Festival. The remainder of those who participated in add on travel were just as likely to travel before (13.7%) or before and after (13.2%) the Festival.

Analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of the women within each travel group showed that approximate household income ($\chi^2(12, 202) = 24.04, p < .05, V = .199$) and country of residence ($\chi^2(6, 227) = 51.34, p < .01, V = .336$) were sources of significant between group differences. Aron and Aron (1999) suggest that a Cramer's *V* of these sizes can be interpreted as a medium effect size. While it was not surprising that half of the individuals who reported household incomes of less than \$20,000 only attended the Festival, it was somewhat unexpected to find the other group of women most likely to only attend the Festival were those reporting incomes of \$60,000 – \$79,999 (37.8%). As can be seen in Table 4-1, respondents with household incomes greater the \$80,000 (84.6%) were the most likely to vacation beyond the Festival.

Table 4-1: Approximate household income by timing of vacation

Household Income	Travel Group (%)			
	Festival	Before	After	Before & After
< \$20,000	50.0	12.5	29.2	8.3
\$20,000 – \$39,999	27.5	11.8	47.1	13.7
\$40,000 - \$59,999	29.4	9.8	52.9	7.8
\$60,000 - \$79,999	37.8	16.2	21.6	24.3
\$80,000+	15.4	28.2	43.6	12.8

The existence and strength of the relationship between country of residence and the timing of one's vacation reflects the high percentage of Canadians (82.1%) and Australians (86.4%) who added onto their Festival vacations in comparison to New Zealanders (53.3%). Also contributing to the overall difference between these groups was the actual timing, with Australians (45.5%) and New Zealanders (41.8%) more likely to add vacation time on after the Festival, and Canadians (35.9%) more likely to do so before and after the Festival (Table 4-2).

Table 4-2: Timing of travel by women's country of residence (%)

	Festival	Before	After	Before/After
Australia	13.6	24.2	45.5	16.7
Canada	17.9	15.4	30.8	35.9
New Zealand	46.7	7.4	41.8	4.1

As household income and country of residence were the only two socio-demographic variables upon which the travel groups differed, a Chi-statistic was also calculated to determine the relationship between these two variables. It was determined that the women from each of the three countries differed significantly from each other and that the difference could be interpreted as having a medium effect ($\chi^2(8,203) = 35.25, p < .01, V = .295$). More specifically, it was found that Canadians reported higher levels of household income than either of the other groups; however, it was also found that although the difference between the household income of Australians and New Zealanders had only a small effect, it was still significant ($\chi^2(4,168) = 14.01, p < .01, V = .289$). Figure 4-3 illustrates the differences in distribution of the women across the various levels of household income.

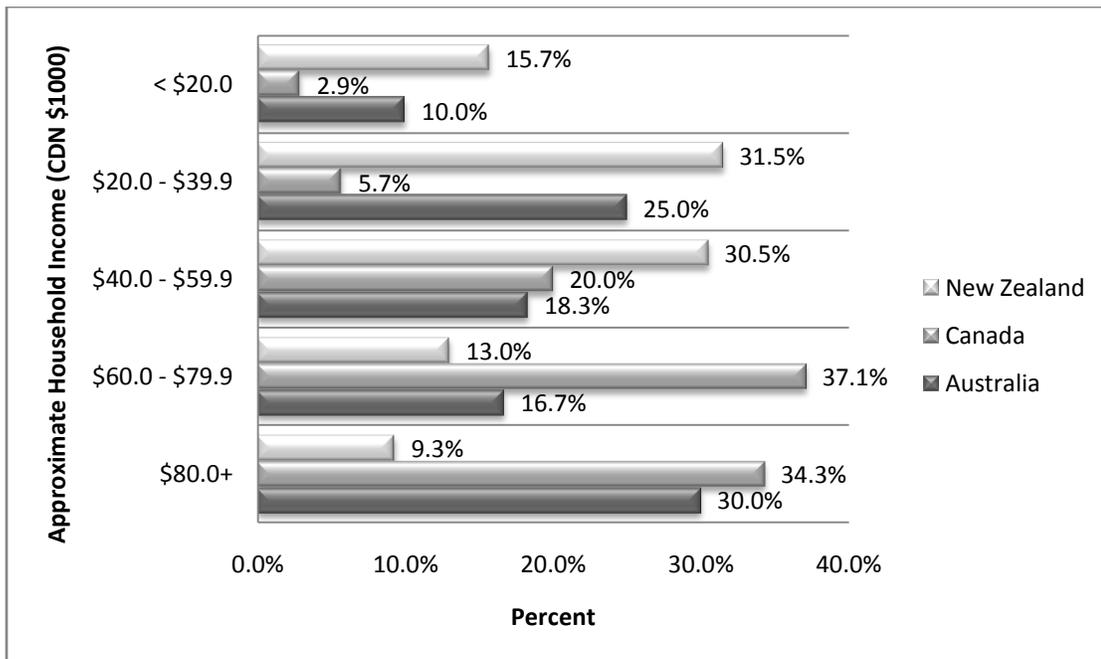


Figure 4-3: Household Income of Australians, Canadians, and New Zealanders (\$1000s)

Two other aspects of the add-on vacation time were examined: a) the duration of the additional visitation, and b) the destination of that travel. Respondents were not asked how many days of the festival they attended; however, over 90% of all respondents attended both the welcoming party and planned to attend the farewell banquet, which occurred on the first and last days of the seven day Festival. Thus, it was assumed that individuals who only attended the Festival stayed seven days. When determining the average length of stay for the *Before*, *After*, and *Before and After* groups, a total of seven days were added to the average number of days that each of the groups spent on vacation. This method of calculation revealed that respondents who travelled before (13.1 days) or after (12.9 days) the Festival spent approximately two weeks, in total, on vacation. In contrast, players who added holiday time before and after (20 days) the event spent nearly three weeks on vacation.

Investigation of the travel patterns of the women showed that regardless of the timing, the majority of the women spent their additional vacation time within the country of Fiji. More specifically, 82.1% of those who travelled before and 86.1% of those who travelled after the Festival spent their vacations either on Viti Levu or on the Mamanuca or Yasawa. As shown in Table 3, the remaining women indicated that they either travelled to destinations not commonly mentioned (e.g., New Zealand or Australia) or to multiple destinations (either regionally located or en route stopovers).

Table 4-3: Destination of additional travel by time of vacation (%)

Destination	Before (n=28)	After (n=87)	Before & After (n=29)	
			Before	After
Viti Levu	71.4	72.4	79.3	71.4
Mamanuca	3.6	1.1	3.4	0.0
Yasawa	7.1	5.7	3.4	3.6
Multiple	7.1	10.3	6.9	10.7
Other	10.7	10.3	6.9	14.3

The final aspect of travel behaviour that was examined was participation in travel activities not directly related to the Festival. As shown in Table 4-4, regardless of the timing, the most popular activities were shopping (75.6%), visiting a bar or nightclub (45.3%), taking a boat cruise (44.0%), playing a sport or outdoor activity (43.3%), attending a cultural event (30.1%), and visiting a historic site (27.8%). In contrast, being a spectator at a sporting event (4.1%) and visiting a zoo or aquarium (6.6%) were the least popular of the list.

Table 4-4: Activity participation in the periods before and after the festival by add-on travel group (%)

Activity	Before (n=31)	After (n=93)	Before & After (n=30)		<i>M</i>
			Before	After	
Go Shopping	83.9	75.3	80.0	63.3	75.6
Visit a Bar/Night Club	51.6	49.5	50.0	30.0	45.3
Take Boat Cruise	45.5	53.8	30.0	46.7	44.0
Participate in Sport/Outdoor*	35.5	33.3	33.3	43.3	36.4
Attend a Cultural Event	35.5	24.7	40.0	20.0	30.1
Visit a Historic Site	38.7	29.0	16.7	26.7	27.8
Visit Friends	12.9	17.2	6.7	23.3	15.0
Visit a Museum	9.7	9.7	6.7	16.7	10.7
Visit Family	12.9	12.9	6.7	10.0	10.6
Attend a Festival	9.7	12.9	13.3	3.3	9.8
Visit a Natural Park	9.7	16.1	0.0	13.3	9.8
Visit a Zoo/Aquarium	3.2	9.7	6.7	6.7	6.6
Attend a Sporting Event**	6.5	3.2	3.3	3.3	4.1

*Does not include playing hockey at the Festival; **Does not include attending the Festival.

Comparisons of the travel groups in relation to activity participation during the Festival revealed that the only significant difference related to the percentage of players taking a boat cruise ($\chi^2(3,227) = 15.91, p < .01, V = .265$). Specifically, it was found that individuals who attended the Festival only (72.6%) were more likely to take a boat cruise than were those who travelled before (48.4%), after (43.0%), or before and after (63.3%). As shown in Table 4-5, the most popular non-Festival activities were the same as those that players took part in during the period before the Festival and what they intended to participate in after the Festival. The difference found in the percentage of participants

taking a boat cruise during the Festival (56.8%) in contrast to the other time periods (44.0%) was most likely the result of Festival planning. Specifically, organizers provided the opportunity for participants to add a day trip to Beachcomber Island, which involved a boat trip from Nadi. It was also determined that players were more likely to shop during the Festival (83.7%) than in the other time periods (75.6%); however, this difference seems most related to the drop in shopping rates after the Festival.

Table 4-5: Activity participation during the festival by add-on travel group

Activity	Festival Only (n=73)	Before (n=31)	After (n=93)	Before & After (n=30)	<i>M</i>
Go Shopping	83.6	83.9	83.9	83.3	83.7
Take Boat Cruise	72.6	48.4	43.0	63.3	56.8
Visit a Bar/Night Club	35.6	51.6	43.3	43.3	43.5 _a
Attend a Cultural Event	24.7	25.8	17.2	20.0	21.9
Participate in Sport/Outdoor*	19.2	16.1	10.8	23.3	17.4
Visit a Historic Site	15.1	6.5	19.4	13.3	13.6
Attend a Festival	9.6	12.9	12.9	3.3	9.7
Visit a Zoo/Aquarium	16.4	6.5	9.7	3.3	9.0
Visit a Natural Park	2.7	9.7	11.8	6.7	7.7
Visit Friends	4.1	6.5	8.6	6.7	6.5
Visit Family	1.4	6.5	7.5	0.0	3.9
Visit a Museum	1.4	0.0	4.3	0.0	1.4
Attend a Sporting Event**	1.4	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.6

^a Difference found to be significant with a small effect size ($\chi^2(3,227) = 15.91, p < .01, V = .265$). *Does not include playing hockey at the Festival; **Does not include attending the Festival.

Add-on Travel and Country of Origin

As was previously shown in Table 4-2, a greater percentage of New Zealanders (46.7%) than Australians (13.6%) or Canadians (17.9%) attended the Festival only. In contrast, Australians were more likely to travel before (24.2%) or after (45.5%) the Festival, and Canadians tended to travel after (30.8%) or before and after (35.9%) the Festival. That fewer Canadians attended the Festival overall is not surprising given the comparative distance and cost of travelling to Nadi, Fiji. Specifically, using key departure cities as benchmarks, it was found that the distance to Nadi from Vancouver, Canada

(9467 km) was approximately three times further than it was from Sydney, Australia (3174 km), and over four times further than from Auckland, New Zealand (2160 km).

Distance decay theory suggests that the difference in travel distance will function as a barrier (Boniface & Cooper, 2005; Hall & Page, 2006); however, the associated variance in cost may also affect the behaviours of those who chose to attend the Festival. As a requirement of the Festival, Air New Zealand (or one of its Star Alliance partners) had to be used for air travel. In September 2004, the cost of a flight to Nadi, Fiji from Vancouver, Canada was \$2181.23 (CAD). In contrast, a flight to Nadi from Sydney, Australia was \$974.61(CAD) and a flight from Auckland, New Zealand cost \$644.87 (CAD).

As there was such a pronounced difference in the distance that Canadians travelled and the cost of that travel, it was not surprising to find that the travel patterns of this group also differed. The majority of New Zealanders who extended their vacations did so only in Fiji. Similarly, Australians who vacationed before the Festival were most likely to select a Fijian destination. In contrast, a greater percentage of Canadians chose to vacation in multiple destinations or places other than Fiji (Table 4-6).

The results also showed that 57.2% of the Canadians who visited multiple destinations after the Festival and 100.0% of those visiting multiple destinations before the Festival spent a portion of their vacation within Fiji. All Australians visiting multiple destinations spent some time travelling within Fiji, while 60.0% also visited New Zealand as part of their trip. In addition, 42.9% of Canadians who visited multiple destinations after the Festival listed New Zealand as one of their primary intended destinations. Figure 4-4 illustrates the close proximity of the Mamanuca and Yasawa Islands to Nadi, the host destination of the Festival and location of the international airport. Findings indicate that these islands, as well as the corridor between Nadi and Suva (Fijian Capital), played host to the vast majority of all participants who extended their Festival vacations.

Table 4-6: Destination of Additional Vacation by Country of Residence

	Viti Levu	Mamanuca	Yasawa	Cook Islands	Multi	Other	χ^2	<i>v</i>	α
Before									
Australia	75.0	6.3	0.0	6.3	0.0	0.0	21.226	.585	.096
Canada	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	16.7			
New Zealand	55.6	0.0	22.2	11.1	0.0	0.0			
After									
Australia	46.7	0.0	10.0	0.0	16.7	20.0	34.744	.432	.001
Canada	41.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	25.0			
New Zealand	86.3	2.0	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.0			

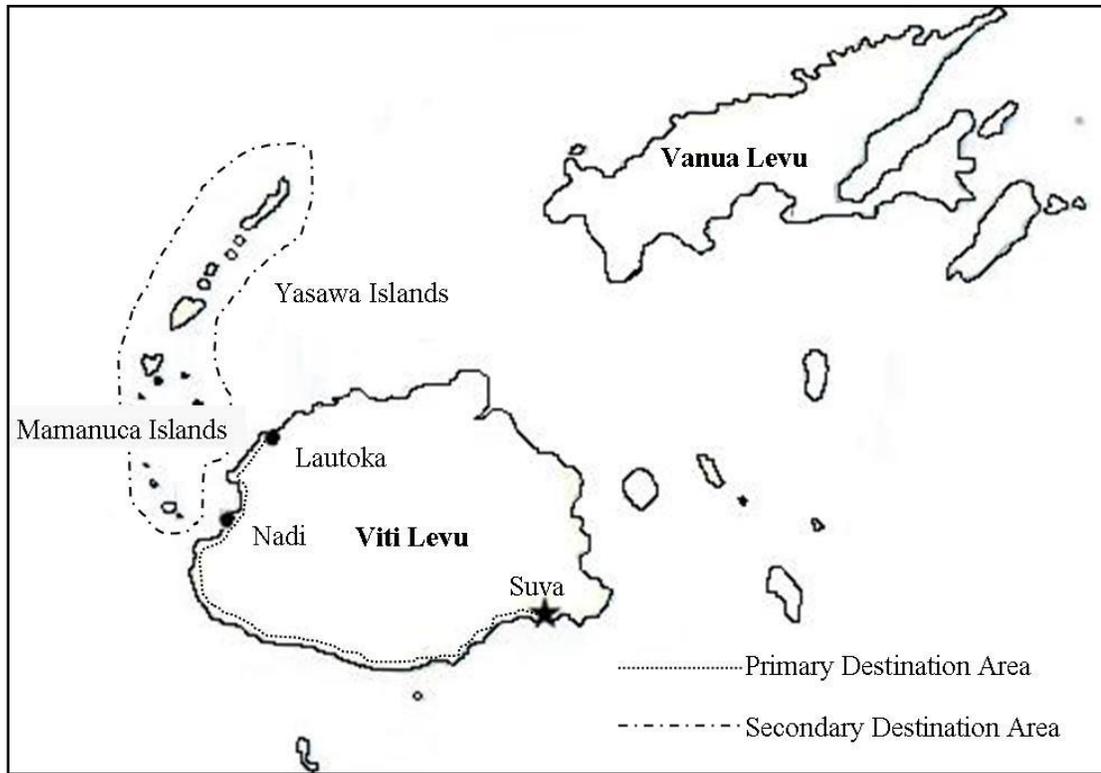


Figure 4-4: The Most Popular Destinations for Extended Vacations

Exploration of the duration of the women’s vacations revealed that while fewer Canadians attended the Festival, they did on average spend more time on vacation (Table 4-7). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) examining the duration of travel before the Festival (including all who vacationed before and after the Festival) was significant ($F(2,150.28) = 10.11, p < .001, \eta^2 = .12$). As can be seen in Table 4-8, Canadians who vacationed before the festival spent an average of three days more on their trip than the other groups. Similarly, the ANOVA related to travel after the Festival was also significant ($F(2,236.25) = 3.75, p = .026, \eta^2 = .05$); however, the differences were only between Canadians ($M=8.3$) and New Zealanders ($M=3.6$). Evans, Wei, and Spyridakis (2004) state that η^2 can be interpreted using as the “effect size conventions: small (0.01), medium (0.06), and large (0.14)” (p. 15) as originally developed by Cohen. Thus, the differences in travel before the festival can be interpreted as a medium effect and those after the festival as having a small effect size.

Table 4-7: Analysis of variance on duration (days) by country of residence

Timing of Vacation	Australia (n=57)	Canada (n=32)	New Zealand (n=65)	F	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)		
Before	1.65 (2.26) _a	4.72 (7.05) _{ab}	1.06 (2.56) _b	10.11*	.12
After	5.44 (10.35)	8.31 (9.70) _c	3.63 (3.07) _c	3.75**	.05

Mean scores in each row with matching subscript significantly differ from each other. a/b) $p < .01$; c) $p < .05$. * $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$

The differences in the duration of the women’s vacations change when including only those who travelled within each of the travel periods (Table 4-8). More specifically, when excluding those who did not vacation before the Festival (n=31) it was found that Canadians ($M=12.5$) vacationed for more days than Australians ($M=4.1$) and New Zealanders ($M=5.2$). Similarly, when including only those who vacationed after the Festival (n=93), it was determined that Canadians spent nearly double the number of days ($M=11.9$) of Australians ($M=6.5$) or New Zealanders ($M=4.1$). In contrast, there were no significant differences between the groups when comparing the duration of travel before or after the Festival by those who vacation during both of these periods.

Table 4-8: Duration (days) of additional vacations by timing and country of residence

Timing of Vacation	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	F	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)		
Before (n=31)	4.1 (2.03) _a	12.5 (12.28) _a	5.2 (2.64)	5.07*	.27
After (n=93)	6.5 (6.46) _b	11.9 (9.41) _{ba}	4.1 (2.88) _a	10.52**	.19
Before & After (n=30)					
Before	2.6 (1.92)	5.4 (3.39)	4.4 (4.83)		
After	10.5 (20.02)	8.8 (10.27)	5.2 (3.42)		

Mean scores with matching subscript significantly differ from each other. a= $p < .05$; b= $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

When the average duration of each groups' vacations (excluding those who attended the Festival only) were examined in their entirety, it became clear that the New Zealanders vacationed for approximately two weeks, as did Australians who travelled before or after the Festival. In contrast, Australians who travelled before and after the Festival and Canadians, regardless of timing, travelled for approximately three weeks (Table 4-9).

Table 4-9: Duration (days) spent on vacation by country of residence and timing of travel

	Before Festival	Festival	After Festival	Total Days
Australia				
Before	4.1	7.0	--	11.1
After	--	7.0	6.5	13.5
Before & After	2.6	7.0	10.5	20.1
Canada				
Before	12.5	7.0	--	19.5
After	--	7.0	11.9	18.9
Before & After	5.4	7.0	8.8	21.2
New Zealand				
Before	5.2	7.0	--	12.2
After	--	7.0	4.1	11.1
Before & After	4.4	7.0	5.2	16.6

Conclusions and Discussion

The purpose of this research was to examine the travel behaviours of female active sport travellers beyond their primary sport participation. The prime objectives of the study were to explore: a) the nature and extent of pre- and post-Festival travel, and b) the

behavioural and socio-demographic characteristics of the players. Within these objectives the relationships between life span stage (Levinson & Levinson, 1996) and country of origin and the women's likelihood to participate in add-on travel as well as their experiences within that travel were examined. The results reveal that life span stage, as measured by Levinson and Levinson (1996), was not a significant influence. However, it was determined that country of origin influenced not only the decision to add-on to their trip but also on the length of time spent on vacation. Other travel behaviours such as activity participation were not influenced.

Levinson and Levinson (1996) would suggest that early adulthood is a period when women are typically in a position of lower earning power (relative to middle adulthood) while also incurring large debts (associated with the establishment of career, home, and family) and as such it would be expected that women in this stage would be somewhat less likely to extend their vacation than women in middle adulthood. The results did not support the life span link to these factors; however, there was a strong (medium effect) relationship between household income and the likelihood of participation in add-on travel. This suggests that for these women the potential influence of life span status may be mitigated while the influence of social class (as determined by income) were not. Further, the results of this study echo the work of others that show that those with high economic capital have the ability to participate in sport and travel to a greater degree (White & Wilson, 1999; Wilson, 2002)

The disparity between the numbers of teams from each country is likely linked to the increased popularity and availability of Golden Oldies events in New Zealand and Australia compared to Canada. However, an examination of the registration records of the 2001 Festival, hosted in Vancouver Canada, suggests that increased opportunity is only part of the answer. In 2001, 21 teams from Canada participated in the Festival while 14 Australian teams and 17 New Zealand teams made the long journey (Golden Oldies-Vancouver, 2001). Thus, it is reasonable to suggest that distance and the difference in the financial commitment associated with Festival attendance explain, at least in part, the different participation rates. These findings support conventional wisdom which purports

that the greater the distance, the less likely that someone is to travel (McKercher & Lew, 2003).

An examination of the women's travel patterns revealed that the majority of respondents extended their vacations beyond their participation in the Festival. This finding supports Delpy Neirotti's (2005) contention that "foreign participants in international events tend to stay longer and spend more money on shopping and other activities" (p. 53). However, in this context it is not in comparison to locals, but rather to other international visitors from closer home destinations. However, the international composition of all these groups does not account for the differences in the duration of the women's vacations.

The work of van Raaij and Crotts (1994) would suggest that travel decisions are made in the context of travellers attempting to allocate constrained resources, like time and money, in a manner that satisfies their needs. For instance, the amount of discretionary income one has will not only dictate the ability to travel but also potential destinations and the overall duration of the trip. Their work may help to explain why Canadians who attended the Festival were more likely than the others to add time onto their vacations. Canadians were also more likely to stay longer, something that may be a result of Canadian women having higher household incomes and possibly more discretionary income; however, it is also plausible that the add-on travel related to rational decisions about associated travel costs.

The concept of economic rationalism within a travel context is based on the premise that it is often more rational to include a number of experiences (i.e., diverse activities, multiple destinations, or longer trips) into a single vacation (Ben-Akiva & Lerman, 1985; Lue et al., 1993; van Raaij & Crotts, 1994). When applied to the findings of this study, it is possible to see that both the Canadian and Australian women may have viewed extending their vacations as a more rational decision than women from New Zealand given the substantial cost difference in simply travelling to Nadi, Fiji. This logic may also

help to explain why a greater percentage of Canadian women chose to visit multiple destinations as part of their overall vacation.

The actual travel patterns of the majority of the women who extended their vacations support Getz's (1991) contention that sport events have the ability to not only induce travel, but also to promote regional exploration within the host destination. To a large extent, the women who extended their vacation time simply stayed within the tourist corridor on Viti Levu. The most popular destinations of those who left Viti Levu were the Mamanuca and Yasawa Islands which are accessed from Nadi and can be considered part of the main tourism developments within Fiji (Levett & McNally, 2003). This pattern is similar to Lue et al.'s (1993) *base camp* and *regional* tour patterns. For a limited number of women, two other travel patterns were evident: the *en route* – stopping off along the way (i.e., in Hawaii for Canadians and New Zealand for Australians), and *trip chaining*, adding destinations in a circle-like model (i.e., flying from Canada to Fiji and then onto New Zealand). The existence of these travel patterns further support influence of distance as it has been argued that circuit tourism has been used to get greater benefit from travel that is constrained by both time and money (Mitchell & Murphy, 1991).

Another objective of this study was to explore the women's participation in activities beyond their primary sporting event. This exploration was limited to the list of activities included in the survey; however, it was shown that the women tended to participate in similar activities regardless of when they travelled. Further, it was shown that the women engaged in additional touristic activities during the Festival. These findings support Gibson's (2005) contention that sport tourists are likely to participate in differing tourist roles while on a "sport tourism" holiday. More specifically, those sports tourists are attempting to achieve multiple objectives within a single trip. In addition, these findings support the notion that hosting sporting events can be an economic boon for the surrounding community and region (Delpy Neirotti, 2005; Getz, 1991; Gibson, 2005).

Implications for Planning & Practice

The results of this study support the tourism potential of participant based sporting events focused on international participation. Specifically, it was shown that participants who are induced to travel for the purpose of sport participation are also likely to extend their vacations within the host region. Like the Master's Games, the Golden Oldies Festivals have the ability to attract a non-traditional sport participant. Specifically, Ryan and Trauer (2005) argue that Master's Games attract "above-average income and educated groups who are drawn not only by feelings of competition but also by friendly social environments to which, in turn, they contribute" (p. 178). Thus, hosting events for the more mature athlete may increase the overall regional tourism benefits of hosting sporting events.

The results of this study have shown that while tournament organizers would be derelict in their duty if they ignore close international markets, they should also spend time and money recruiting participants from greater distances. Further, they should partner with representatives from the host destination in their marketing as it is the broader region that benefits from the attendance of long-distance travellers. Efforts to attract individuals from distant markets may not result in large attendance figures, but based on the findings of this study, it is those who travelled the greatest distance that were more likely to extend their travel well beyond the actual event.

Another aspect of tournament planning that should be considered is the overall structure of the event. The Golden Oldies Hockey Festival was organized (and promoted) in such a way as to not only facilitate but actually encourage participation in non-sport activities. By consciously designing the event schedule to allow for exploration within the destination (e.g., non-playing days and optional travel days) and thus increase opportunities for spending, organizers would be able to increase the economic benefits of attracting the sport tourists.

Limitations and Future Research

This study presents insight into the travel behaviours of women from Australia, Canada, and New Zealand who participated in the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival. The results suggest that the majority of these women are repeat participants, which influences both their choice to participate as well as their travel behaviours. As such, it is inappropriate to suggest that the findings of this study are applicable to all female sport travellers.

The results of this study highlight the potential influence of social class on the travel patterns of those who were able to successfully negotiate constraints in order to participate in an international sporting festival. This was not something that was factored into the study from a design perspective and as a result is not fully explored and examined (necessary data not available). Future research should take into consideration the impacts of social class, not on the dichotomy of participation or non-participation, but rather on experiences and travel behaviours within the overall sporting festival.

Other limitations of this research result from the manner in which some questions were originally formatted. Specifically, it would have been of more use to have participants indicate the amount of time spent at each of the travel destinations rather than just the total number of days on vacation. Similarly, in retrospect it would have been of value to have respondents describe their travel routes and any layovers taken within those itineraries, rather than 'rebuilding' their routes based on pre- and post-travel answers.

The final limitation that should be addressed in future research relates to the identification of non-playing activities that participants took part in. This study relied on a pre-constructed checklist of activities; future studies should employ not only open-ended questions related to activity participation but also questions designed to measure the relative importance of those activities.

Despite the limitations and descriptive nature of this study, its contribution to sport tourism knowledge is linked to its addition to a small, yet growing, body of work

focusing on active versus passive sport tourism. Such research is valuable as it provides a more informed perspective on the development of sport tourism opportunities (i.e., meeting participant and community needs) as well as a better understanding of the experiences and behaviours of the people who create the many social, economic, and environmental impacts that are continually reported.

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Chapter 5 – Looking Back & Moving Forward: An Applied Research Agenda

The development and completion of this dissertation has been a five year process during which there has been significant growth in the study of sport tourism (c.f., Weed, 2006). Using Weed's (2005) analogy of 'random bricks' and 'edifices' of knowledge, it is possible to view conceptual descriptions of sport tourism as the foundation upon which empirical studies (bricks) are built. The research in this study not only starts addressing the limited published research on the broader topic area, active participants and travel associated with non-competitive sporting events, but also addresses three relatively untested assumptions that are part of the sport tourism foundation. This chapter reflects on the three studies and the assumptions that formed the basis for this feminist inquiry. The second part of this chapter is a look forward. It also offers a revised framework for sport travel research based on the work of Hinch and Higham (2001) as well as an agenda for future research on the experiences of sport travellers.

The Assumptions

Weed (2005) has argued for greater research synthesis in sport tourism research in order to develop theoretically and conceptually strong "edifices" of understanding rather than random "bricks" that offer disconnected knowledge. The papers in this dissertation are not random bricks; they are 'missing bricks', that help to fortify the sport tourism edifice called for by Weed.

The foundation for this dissertation was the examination of three, widely held but largely untested assumptions about sport tourism that are imbedded in current literature. The first assumption examined whether the socio-demographic and travel behaviour differences between spectators and active participants, implied by most definitions of sport travel, actually exist. The results of the first study, reported in Chapter Three, suggest that at the macro level (Canadian domestic travel), it was not the mode of sport consumption (i.e., *spectator* or *participant*) that explained the behavioural differences, but rather intervening factors such as life span stage (i.e., household composition and presence of children), trip duration (excursionists vs. tourists), and gender. It was also

determined that social class was useful in helping to explain the educational differences between male spectators and participants; however, the results related to women were inconclusive and further research is needed. In the end, there were often greater differences within the groups (i.e., participants) than between the two groups (participants and spectators).

This study showed that domestic trips taken by Canadian active participants far outnumber those taken by Canadian spectators. Thus, it makes sense to spend more time and effort examining this segment of sport travel market. Focusing on active participants, particularly those who are not involved in elite or professional sport, will help to address the identified imbalance (Weed, 2006; Weed & Bull, 2004) in research on the spectator side of sport travel. A shift in research focus will also help communities and event planners to develop tourism strategies that focus on (or at least incorporate) sports in a sustainable manner.

The second untested assumption relates to the suggestion that sport should be the primary motive for sport travel participation. The work of Gammon and Robinson (1997) and Robinson and Gammon (2004) illustrates the heart of the issue by suggesting two variations: a) *sport tourism*, which has sport as the primary motivation, and b) *tourism sports* where sport participation is more incidental or secondary in motivation. Their work is conceptual in nature, which is not entirely surprising as there are few empirical investigations of sport travel motivations. The study presented in Chapter Four focused on the motivations of Canadian, Australian, and New Zealander women participating in the 2003 Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival, an event that would be considered sport tourism by most standards of evaluation. The results revealed that activity involvement (i.e., playing field hockey) was not a primary motivation, rather social and learning motives were of the most important factors for participation. However, when examined more closely Gammon and Robinson's model does not view motivation in the same way that needs-based motivation theories do; thus, while sport may be the main purpose (i.e., driver) it is not the primary motivation for participation.

Crompton (1979) describes “push” and “pull” factors related to individuals’ choices related to travel. In this context, sport participation would be considered the “pull” factor, that is to say, without the purpose of participating in sport one would not travel. However, from a needs-based motivation perspective, the “push” factors (e.g., social connections and learning) would be aspects of an experience that would prompt one to select a particular sporting event or destination within which to satisfy the need to play. So, further examinations of sport tourism motivations need to be clear about the role of sport within the overall experience but need to focus on needs that are not defined by the actual sporting activity.

However, in the context of sport as a “pull factor”, the discussion of primary and secondary reasons for travel also moves into another realm. There is no doubt that elite athletes, highly dedicated fans, and the multitude of other people who make sport possible (i.e., sportscasters, team managers, coaches, etc.) all travel for the purpose of playing, organizing, or watching sport. However, the question remains: how involved are they as tourists in contrast to their roles as athletes, administrators, or fans? Further, should sport tourism inquiry limit itself to those whose primary purpose is ‘sport’ related and thereby shifting their inquiry away from the destination and or local attractions? The results of this study show that for the women participating in the Festival, within which the planners consciously incorporate touristic elements, sport is most likely a key *driver* (i.e., reason) behind the decision to travel, but is not the primary *motive*. However, the potential for this type of sport traveller to have greater regional benefit (given their length of stay and behaviour patterns) warrants the exploration of additional drivers of travel as well as motivations beyond those related to sport participation.

The question of how involved sport participants and spectators are as tourists relates to the potential realization of positive tourism benefits for the local community and regional area. Economic impacts accrue when ‘new’ money enters the system. Thus almost all sporting events that attract visitors will see some form of economic impact; however, as Higham (1999) cautions, communities should seek events that fit their capacity so as to avoid the potential of debt resulting from the event and or being stuck

with unusable infrastructure. In order for a community to maximize the benefits of hosting sport tourists (participants or spectators), they need sport tourists to stay in the local area, patronize businesses, and visit attractions, for at least part of their travels. This relates to the third assumption of sport tourism literature examined in this dissertation. The assertion that sport tourism events can induce travel beyond participation in the actual event is common but empirical support is rare. However, as the results presented in Chapter Five show, in the case of the Festival the answer was a resounding ‘yes’!

Given that over half of the women questioned added time to their Festival vacation, there is strong evidence that sports events can result in regional travel beyond initial sport participation. However, this event, unlike many others, explicitly encourages tourism. Participants were encouraged to participate in activities unrelated to the Festival, and the process of booking add-on vacation time and transportation was facilitated by both the Festival’s governing sponsor (Air New Zealand) through special flight packages¹² and the tournament organizers through the scheduling of the event. The latter built in optional tours into a playing schedule designed to allow for regional exploration. Further, a travel planning kiosk was located in the main games/team area to make it easier for players and spectators (i.e., family members) to make plans during non-playing times. While the influence of these actions (i.e., the conscious inclusion of ‘tourism’ into the sport event) was not the focus of study, the general structure and success of the event from a regional tourism perspective may provide a template for similar development that more deliberately integrates sport and tourism.

The results of two papers that focused on the Air New Zealand Golden Oldies Hockey Festival (chapters 4 & 5) offer insight into the potential for participatory sporting events that intentionally integrate both sport and tourism into the experience. They also raise questions related to future sport tourism development, particularly in communities that do not have elite sports leagues and the facilities to host them. A key question is whether such communities should be focusing on smaller to medium sized sports events

¹² Teams were required to travel to the Festival on a Air New Zealand or a Star Alliance partner flight.

that often require infrastructure development and large amounts of human resources, or if they would be better off developing and hosting sporting events that attract participants who are as much a tourist as they are a sport enthusiast.

Feminist Reflections

The research included in this dissertation was conducted within the traditions of feminist empiricism (Code, 1995; Harding, 1991; Stanley & Wise, 1993; Whaley, 2001), with an explicit goal of addressing the general lack of research that is either women-centred or, at minimum, acknowledges women as sport travellers. The first study illustrated the significant contribution that women make to the Canadian domestic sport travel market, and also showed that in many instances the differences between male and female participation could be better explained by other factors (i.e., children at home or age). However, the results of this study also confirmed the historic influence of gendered roles, as women were more likely to be involved with trips that included children and tended to report lower household incomes. These findings echo those of other leisure researchers who have documented the caring roles that women fulfil in life and leisure (Gilligan, 1982; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975, Wearing, 1998). This study also suggest that the gendered realities of women continue to influence women's participation in sport travel.

Chapters Three and Four focused solely on women's involvement in an adult only field hockey festival; the results show that women are sport travellers. However, the results of the study on the women's motivation showed that factors other than sport were of primary importance to their decision to participate in the Festival. This is notable – not because it offers support for some misguided notion that women are not interested in competitive sport – but because it provides insight into one aspect (or context) of adult women's involvement with less competitive (i.e., no extrinsic rewards or performance measures) sport travel events. An important feminist outcome of these studies is the potential to develop other events that meet the needs of these women (and women like

them); events that balance out the desire to play sport with the other features that make that experience more enjoyable.

Jayaratne and Stewart (1991) suggest that some feminists will criticize the use of quantitative survey methods in *feminist research*; however, they also state that “although quantitative research may have been used in the past to obscure the experience of women, it need not always be used in that way” (p. 93). This research project attempts to address an imbalance in the knowledge about women’s experiences within sport travel, and while those experiences can also be examined (and explained) through qualitative methods, it was decided that the exploratory nature and the limited accesses (time) to the women involved in the Fiji studies warranted the use of quantitative methods. Further, the research design, selection of questions, and analysis of data were all conducted from a feminist standpoint. The result is that the work contained within this document offers a better understanding of women’s sport travel as well as a clear acknowledgement of women as sport travellers.

Studies reported in sport tourism continue to ignore the influences of social realities linked to age, gender, race, social class, and sexuality. Thus, further inquiry into sport travel using feminist epistemologies, or at minimum, recognition that women are sport travellers and that gender influences experiences, is required. The research in this dissertation is merely a step in the full exploration of the female sport travel market and the contribution that women (as individuals, partners, and parents) make.

Moving Forward: An Amended Framework for Sport Travel Research.

Sport tourism as a specific topic of tourism research started to gain increased attention in the mid 1990s (Gibson, 2006). Since that time, there have been a select number of critical reviews (e.g., Gibson, 1998; Weed, 2006) that have helped to identify research directions needed to advance the academic study of sport travel. More recently, there has been a recognition that our current knowledge is based largely on the experiences of spectators and that we really know very little about active sport tourists’ behaviours, motivations, and experiences (Weed & Bull, 2004). Similarly, a review of

the literature also reveals that much of what we know relates to events that can be categorized from large to mega, thereby leaving a significant gap in our understanding about how smaller cities and rural communities can take advantage of this growing sector of the tourism industry. The following section builds on the research contained in this dissertation, and on existing sport tourism literature, to suggest an amended framework for sport travel research and a research agenda for the future.

An Amended Framework for Research

In one of the early papers calling for an organized approach to sport tourism research, Hinch and Higham (2001) suggest that a multi-dimensional perspective that incorporates spatial, temporal, and sport dimensions (Figure 5-1). Within their model, Hinch and Higham give primacy to *sport* in the sport and tourism relationship and in relation to the spatial (where the event/activity is located) and temporal (when the event/activity occurs) dimensions.

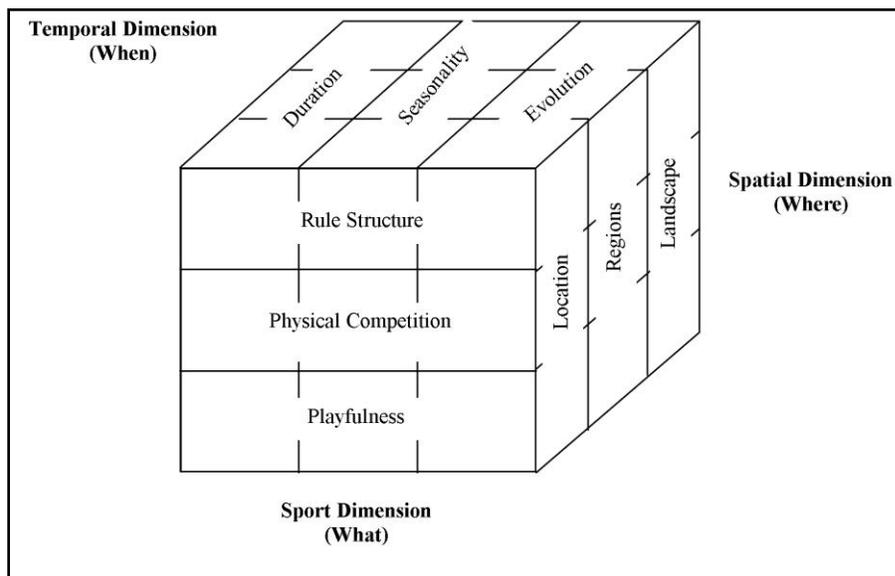


Figure 5-1: Framework for Sport Tourism Research (Hinch & Higham, 2001, p. 53)

“The sport dimension gives this framework a unique focus on sport as an attraction” (Hinch & Higham, 2001, p. 54). The three components of this dimension – competition, rule structure, and playfulness – all relate to aspects of sporting experiences that may change in nature. The spatial dimension of the framework highlights the importance of: a)

location, b) region, and c) landscape. The final dimension is concerned with the temporal aspects of the sport travel experience. As noted by Hinch and Higham, ‘duration’ of a trip is one of the key foundations of most definitions of tourism. They also include seasonality and evolution (i.e., changes to sport/event over time) as temporal components.

The strength of the research framework proposed by Hinch and Higham (2001) resides in its multi-dimensional approach to the investigation of sport travel. It acknowledges the existence of a multiplicity of factors that can impact on the sport travel experience and the provision of sport travel opportunities. Their call for research into such things as the somewhat artificial divide between spectators and participants and the role of competition (i.e., type of sporting event) influenced the research conducted as part of this dissertation. However, based on that research and an additional seven years of sport travel inquiry since the framework was published, an amended model for sport travel research is proposed.

The amended framework suggests the addition of a motivational domain¹³ and the inclusion of a travel purpose domain. The other domains remain the same in characterisation; however, the notion of *region* within the original framework should be expanded to explicitly acknowledge the need for research that moves beyond urban centres and into the rural communities that are home to approximately 30% of Canada’s population (St-Jacques, n.d.).

The first modification to the original framework is the inclusion of a *motivational* domain. This addition reflects the calls of sport tourism researchers (e.g., Gibson, 2005; Weed & Bull, 2004) who argue for a better understand of ‘why’ sport travellers do what they do. Investigations that incorporate examinations of motivation will also help to further explore the relationship between sport and travel within the context of sport

¹³ Hinch and Higham’s (2001) original framework, supported by a cube shaped visual model, used the term *dimensions* to describe the various components. As the proposed modifications involve adding new components to the model the term *domain* will be used instead of *dimension*.

travel. Motivation in this context is based upon the assumption of the centrality of sport, and thus focuses on the other factors related to consumer choices. Specifically, sport travel research needs to take into consideration that individuals who participate in events that are ‘obviously’ sport tourism, may not be motivated simply by the need to physical activity. Robinson and Gammon (2004) introduce the notion of primary, secondary, and tertiary motives; however, what they are actually discussing is travel purpose. Within the amended framework, it is suggested that all individuals who are sport tourists are driven by the desire to play, but that they are potentially motivated to participate in order to satisfied non-activity related needs.

The importance of the motivational domain extends beyond the ability to properly ‘count’ sport travellers. In an era where sustainability (economic, social, and environmental) is becoming more important and where communities are being urged to develop sport tourism opportunities that match their existing capacity (Higham, 1999), a better understanding of the potential sport travel markets is necessary. These types of investigations may also help communities to develop sport travel products (i.e., events) that not only attract athletes and foster desired touristic behaviours, but also provide more satisfying sport tourism experiences. As an added domain of the framework, *motivation* fits well as it is something that will most likely differ in relation to the centrality of the other domains within the sport travel experience.

The other addition to the model is the placement of *travel purpose* as the central domain. The idea behind this modification relates to Hinch and Higham’s (2001) question of whether professional athletes (and arguably coaches, managers, and media sportscasters) who travel to participate in their sport, and are paid to do so, should be considered sport tourists. This aspect of sport tourism inquiry has largely been ignored, likely due to the leisure travel focus (c.f., Gibson, 1998) of sport tourism inquiry that has concentrated to the focus on the spectator experiences which result from these “business sport travellers” becoming an attraction. It also suggests that there should be an explicit and intentional relationship between tourism providers and sports participants (active or passive). Evidence for the potential of this relationship is provided by Air New Zealand

and the Golden Oldies World Secretariat. The events that they provide (see chapters 3 & 4) inextricably meld tourism attractions and destinations with sport participation.

Placing travel at the centre of the framework should not be viewed as a diminishment of the central role of sport within the sport travel experience. Rather, it is an acknowledgement that for the positive benefits (economic and otherwise) to be fully realized, communities need sport travellers to be more than athletes and spectators – they need them to be tourists who patronise local business.

From Framework to Research Agenda

Developing a personal research agenda for sport travel inquiry is largely about looking back at where I have come from, and looking forward to where I want to go. It is important to restate that I approach sport travel inquiry from a perspective that Mansfield (2007) would likely identify as liberal feminist empiricism, which is further influenced by a rural childhood. Additionally, Vancouver Island University (formerly Malaspina University-College), my current place of employment and the school at which I experienced my first exposure to leisure studies, is inextricably linked to the community and to an applied research agenda. These factors heavily influence my proposed research program on sport travel.

Sustainability

Building on the work of Getz (1991; 2008) and Higham (1999), the notion of sustainability is one that is key to any future sport travel inquiry. Within the Canadian context, the focus of sport tourism development has largely been about attracting highly competitive games to either a particular region or the nation (Getz, 2008). While this is undeniably an aspect of sport tourism development, it is both unrealistic and unsustainable for smaller communities to base their entire sport tourism strategy on events that require substantial capital development and at which the primary tourists are spectators. Research that provides communities with the means of assessing their capacity to host sporting events as well as the knowledge to develop new events (with viable markets) is an important element of sport tourism development in rural Canada.

The proposed framework can be used to guide research on sustainable sport tourism development by looking at aspects related to addressing seasonality, to attracting more visitors by better meeting (and marketing to) their needs, and by designing events that promote broader touristic behaviours and benefits. A more specific example, relevant to the Vancouver Island region, would be the further exploration of adult and senior sport travel experiences as a means of not only providing services for the large seniors population living on Vancouver Island, but also attracting a growing market of active seniors. Similarly, investigations of youth sport and its ability to induce travel and attract family tourists is an area of study that may lead to sustainable sport tourism strategies for rural communities.

Subculture

Green and Chalip (1998) and Green (2001) have shown the significance of subculture in relation to sport travel. Specifically, they have shown that it may be possible to overcome things like the lack of world-class facilities, if one successfully plans for, and meets the needs of, an existing sporting subculture. Support for this position is provided by the results of chapter three which show importance of social connections to the women involved in the Golden Oldies Hockey Festival which took place in rural community Fiji that by Canadian standards has adequate but not great facilities.

The importance and influence of sporting subculture warrants further investigation not only from the perspective members of different sport subcultures, but also from the perspective of communities that wish to develop sport travel events to attract these subcultural groups. Green also states that changes (evolution) to sporting events that negatively impact on the celebration of subculture membership can reduce the attractiveness of those events and deter long-time participants from returning. The evolution of events within communities and or the ability of communities to develop products for 'dropped' subculture markets are yet more areas for research.

Feminist Inquiry

Within the broader context of the research framework, the continued exploration of sport travel from a feminist perspective should be part of future research. Specific aspects of the gendered nature of sport travel will be investigated, such as the influence of increased opportunities for women to participate in sport. However, research will be conducted through a feminist lens that also takes into consideration the multitude of other socio-cultural factors that can impact on leisure experiences, including (but not limited to): a) age, b) economic status, c) race, d) sexuality, and e) ethnic/cultural background.

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Appendix A : Canadian Travel Survey Questionnaire (2003)

CANADIAN TRAVEL SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Year 2003

The following questions represent an abridged version of the actual computer assisted version of the Canadian Travel Survey.

You have been selected from your household for the Canadian Travel Survey which will obtain information on travel and tourism. While the survey is voluntary, your cooperation is important. As usual, your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

I would like to ask a few questions about any trips you took which ended in reference month. Please exclude: any trips you took as a member of an operating crew of a bus, plane, truck, ship, etc., commuting to your usual place of work or school, or moving to a new residence. Please include: all trips taken for reasons such as visiting friends or relatives, pleasure, personal or business trips.

IN_Q05 Did you take any trips of one night or more which ended in the reference month?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

IN_Q06 How many? (Overnight trips)
 (Min: 1 Max: 40)
 Trips Don't know Refusal

IN_Q07 Did you take any same day trips of at least 40 kilometers (in Ontario) or 80 kilometers (elsewhere) or more, one way, in reference month?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

IN_Q08 How many? (Same day trips)
 (Min: 1 Max: 40)
 Trips Don't know Refusal

I would now like to ask you some questions about your trip.

TR_Q03 Did this trip originate in Canada?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q04 Where did you live (A) city and (B) province when you took this trip?
 City Don't know Refusal
 Province Don't know Refusal

TR_Q05 What was your destination on this first/next trip? Was it in...? (If the respondent went to more than one place on this trip enter the name of the place that is furthest from his/her home)
 Canada
 United States
 Another country
 Don't know
 Refusal

TR_Q06A What was the name of the city or town and the province of this destination?
 City/town Don't know Refusal

TR_Q07 What was the name of the state of this destination?
 State Don't know Refusal

TR_Q08 What was the country of this destination?
 Name of country Don't know Refusal

TR_Q09 About how far from your home was the destination? (Min: 0 Max: 22500)
 Km Miles Don't know Refusal

TR_Q11 Including yourself, how many persons now living in this household went on this trip?
 (Min: 1 Max: 40)
 Person(s) Don't know Refusal

TR_Q12 How many of these people were under the age of 15? (Min: 0 Max: 39)
 Person(s) Don't know Refusal

TR_Q13 How many nights were you away from home on this trip? (Min: 0 Max: 365)
 Night(s) Don't know Refusal

TR_Q14 Did you spend this night in this destination?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q15 Did you spend this night in ...?
 Canada
 United States
 Another Country
 Don't know
 Refusal

TR_Q16 Did you spend all of these nights in ...?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q17 Did you spend all of these nights in Canada?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q18 to Q20 How many of these nights did you spend in:
 Canada, if any?
 the United States, if any?
 a country other than Canada or the United States?
 Nights Don't know Refusal

LO_Q01 What was the first **CANADIAN** city or town

and (**Q02**) province you stayed overnight?

City/town Don't know Refusal
 Province Don't know Refusal

Visit a historic site?
Go to a bar or nightclub?
Go to a casino?
Take a cruise or boat trip?
None of the above
Don't know
Refusal

AC_Q01 à Q12 In what types of accommodation did you stay and how many nights did you spend in each?

Hotel
Motel
Bed & Breakfast
Hunting or fishing lodge
Resort
Camping or trailer park
Home of friends or relatives
Private cottage or vacation home
Commercial cottage or cabin
Other (hostel, universities, etc.)
Don't know
Refusal

TR_Q26 Did you participate in any sports or outdoor activities?

Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q27 What were these sports or outdoor activities?

Swimming
Boating -- motor boat, sail boat, kayak, canoe or other
Other water-based activities
Golfing
Hunting
Fishing
Bird or wildlife viewing
Cross-country skiing
Downhill skiing or snowboarding
Snowmobiling
Walking or hiking
Cycling
Other (Specify)
Don't know
Refusal

TR_Q21 What means of transportation did you use to travel the greatest distance on this trip?

Auto (motor homes, jeeps, trucks, vans & campers, etc.)
Air
Bus
Rail
Boat
Other (include motorcycles/bicycles, etc.)
Don't know
Refusal

TR_Q22 Was it a Canadian air carrier?

Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q23 What was your main reason for taking this trip?

Visiting friends or relatives
Pleasure
Personal
Business
Non-business convention
Don't know
Refusal

I would now like to ask you some questions about the cost of this trip. Please include all costs related to this trip including taxes and tips. Please do not forget to include the costs for the household members who went on this trip.

TR_Q29 Were all the costs of this trip paid for by you or members of your household?

Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q30 à 32 Who paid for all or any part of this trip?

Was it the government, a private sector business or organisation. Yourself or other individuals?

Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q24 Did you attend a convention?

Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q25 On this trip did you...

Visit friends?
Visit relatives?
Shop?
Do some sightseeing?
Attend a festival or fair?
Attend a cultural performance, for example a play, or a concert
Attend an aboriginal or native cultural activity?
Attend a sports event?
Visit a museum or art gallery?
Visit a zoo, aquarium or botanical park?
Visit a theme or amusement park?
Visit a national or provincial nature park?

TR_Q33 How many package deals, if any, were purchased for this trip or part of this trip?

(A package deal must include more than one expense item, (for example, transportation and meals or accommodation and car rental, etc.) (Min: 0 Max:9)
 Package deals Don't know Refusal

TR_Q34 Did this package include:

Vehicle rental
Air, boat, train or bus transportation
Food and beverages
Accommodation
Recreation and entertainment
Other
Don't know
Refusal

TR_Q35 How many nights were included in this package? (Min: 0 Max: 365)
 Nights Don't know Refusal

TR_Q36 What was the cost of this package? (Min: 0 Max: 99995)
 \$ Don't know Refusal

TR_Q37 à Q58 et Q60 (Excluding the cost of package deal) Was money spent ...

- to rent a vehicle and how much? (including rental fees and insurance) (Min: 0 Max: 99995)
- to operate a private or rented vehicle (including gas, repairs and parking)
- on local transportation (such as city buses, subways and taxis)
 - how much of this money was spent on taxis?
- on airplane, boat, train or commercial bus fares
- on food and beverages prior to leaving home for use on the trip
- on food and beverages at restaurants and bars
- on food and beverages at stores during the trip
- on accommodation
- on recreation and entertainment
- on clothing, footwear or accessories
- other purchases or expenses (exclude items bought for commercial purposes and major purchases such as real estate and vehicles)
 Yes No Don't know Refusal \$
(for each item on the list)

TR_Q59 What were the major items included in this expense (other expenses)
 Item Don't know Refusal

TR_Q61 Excluding items bought for commercial purposes and major purchases such as real estate and vehicles, about how much money was spent in total? (Min: 0 Max: 99995)
 \$ Don't know Refusal

TR_Q62 à Q64 What percentage of the total expenditures for the trip were paid for by:

- government?
- a private sector business or organisation?
- yourself or other individuals?

% Don't know Refusals (for each category)

TR_Q65 Did you take any other trips which were identical to this one and which ended in a reference month#?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

TR_Q66 How many identical trips were there? (Min: 0 Max: 10)
 Trips Don't know Refusal

TR_Q67 Is there another trip?
 Yes No Don't know Refusal

CO_Q01 (To the interviewer: If "reference month" is in December, ask this question.) During the eleven month period from January 1 to November 30, 2001, did you take any non-business trips of one night or more to a destination...
 Within the province?
 To some other province?
 To the United States?
 To a foreign country other than the United States?
 None of the above
 Don't know
 Refusal

CO_Q02 à Q04 For the year reference year, what was your total household income before taxes and deductions, including income from wages, salaries, tips, commissions, pensions, interest, rents, etc.
Was it less than ...
\$40,000 Yes No Don't know Refusal
less than ...
\$20,000 Yes No Don't know Refusal
less than ...
\$60,000 Yes No Don't know Refusal
less than ...
\$80,000 Yes No Don't know Refusal

Thank you for your participation in the Canadian Travel Survey

Appendix B: Fiji Questionnaire

TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS AND BEHAVIOURS OF
CANADIAN, AUSTRALIAN, AND NEW ZEALAND
HOCKEY PLAYERS ATTENDING THE
2003 AIR NEW ZEALAND GOLDEN OLDIES HOCKEY FESTIVAL
NADI, FIJI
OCTOBER 12 – 19, 2003



ON-SITE QUESTIONNAIRE

(Note: format altered to fit this document)

This study is being conducted by:
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TRAVEL MOTIVATION AND BEHAVIOUR STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine the travel motivations and behaviours of Canadians, Australians, and New Zealanders attending the Golden Oldies Hockey Festival. The results of this project will be used to increase knowledge about sport travellers and will also be useful for the further development and creation of sport travel opportunities for active adults. The data collected will be used for the purposes of information, research, and publication (academic and industry sources). **By agreeing to complete this questionnaire, you are giving your consent; however, you may decline to participate at any time without consequence.** In order to ensure privacy, questionnaires are only identifiable by a numerical code. As this questionnaire is designed to measure your personal travel motivations and behaviours, it should be completed without the input of your teammates or travelling companions and should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete. If you have any further questions regarding this study, a Participant Information Letter is available from your team leader. Thank you for your help.

1a) What is your **TEAM's** country of origin? ___Australia ___Canada ___New Zealand

1b) What is **YOUR CURRENT** country of origin? ___Australia ___Canada ___New Zealand

Other: _____

2) Have you ever been to Fiji before? (please circle one) Yes or No

If **YES**: Approximately how many times have you vacationed/holidayed in Fiji in the past? _____

3) Excluding your team members, how many people, including you, are in your personal travel party? (i.e., friends and family travelling with you.) _____

4) Approximately how many years have you been playing hockey? _____

5) In the past year, approximately how often did you play or practice hockey? (Please circle the *single best* answer)

I did not play in the past year 1 – 5 times 6 – 12 times 13 – 26 times 27 – 52 times
53+ times.

6) What is the highest level of competition that you have played hockey? (Please check the *single best* answer)

____ Public school

____ University or College Varsity

____ Club Team – Recreational Youth

____ Provincial/State representative – under

21 years

____ Club Team – Competitive Youth

____ Provincial/State representative – 21+

years old

____ Club Team – Recreational Adult

____ National team/Squad –Under 21 years

old

____ Club Team – Competitive Adult

____ National Team/Squad –21+ years Old

____ Professional League

Other:

7) At which level do you currently play hockey? (Please check **all** that apply)

Club – Recreational Adult Masters University or College Varsity Alumni
 Club – Competitive Adult Provincial/State representative National Alumni
 Do not regularly play with an organized team Other: _____

8) Including this festival, how many Golden Oldies Hockey Festivals have you attended?

1 2 – 5 6 – 8 9+

9) Did you vacation/holiday **BEFORE** the Festival as part of this trip? (Please circle one)

Yes or No

If **YES**: (9a) Where did you visit and for how long?

(9b) During the **PRE-FESTIVAL** portion of your trip did you.... (please check all that apply)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit friends?	9. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a theme or amusement park?
2. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit family?	10. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a national or provincial/state park?
3. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a festival or fair?	11. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a zoo, aquarium or botanical park?
4. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a cultural performance (e.g., concert or play)?	12. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a history site?
5. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a bar or nightclub?	13. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a sport event?
6. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a casino?	14. <input type="checkbox"/> Shopping
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Take a cruise or boat trip?	15. <input type="checkbox"/> Participate in any sport or outdoor activities?
8. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a museum or art gallery?	

(9c) If you check #15 please list the activities that you participated in:

10) Which of the following planned social events did you or do you intend to attend?
(Check *all* that apply)
 Welcome Party Picnic Day at Natadola Beach Farewell Party

11a) **During** the Festival portion of your trip did you or do you plan to... (Please check all that apply)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit friends?	
2. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit family?	9. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a theme or amusement park?
3. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a festival or fair?	10. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a national or provincial/state park?
4. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a cultural performance (e.g., concert or play)?	11. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a zoo, aquarium or botanical park?
5. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a bar or nightclub?	12. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a history site?
6. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a casino?	13. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a sport event other than the Festival?
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Take a cruise or boat trip?	14. <input type="checkbox"/> Shopping?
8. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a museum or art gallery?	15. <input type="checkbox"/> Participate in any sport or outdoor activities other than hockey at the Festival?

(11b) If you checked #15 please list the activities that you **have or plan** to participate in:

12) When answering this question please indicate how important each of the following was in your decision to **PARTICIPATE** in the 2003 Golden Oldies Hockey Festival.

1= Extremely Unimportant, 2=Somewhat Unimportant, 3= Neutral, 4= Somewhat Important, 5= Extremely Important.

I CHOSE TO PARTICIPATE TO...

Remember the good times I've had in the past

playing hockey	1	2	3	4	5
Do something my spouse or partner wanted me to do	1	2	3	4	5
Release or reduce tension	1	2	3	4	5
Show others that I still can	1	2	3	4	5
Build friendships with new people	1	2	3	4	5
Get away from the usual demands of life	1	2	3	4	5
Bring my family closer together	1	2	3	4	5
Be free to make my own decisions	1	2	3	4	5
Be with friends	1	2	3	4	5
Have a stimulating and exciting experience	1	2	3	4	5
Be with people who are enjoying themselves	1	2	3	4	5
See if I could do it	1	2	3	4	5
Meet new people	1	2	3	4	5
Be obligated to no one	1	2	3	4	5
Explore the area	1	2	3	4	5
Do something different from what I do back home	1	2	3	4	5
Learn more about Fiji	1	2	3	4	5
Gain an experience I can look back on	1	2	3	4	5

Experience the exciting events that always happen at the Festival	1	2	3	4	5
Experience new and different things	1	2	3	4	5
Be with members of my team	1	2	3	4	5
Increase my knowledge about Fiji	1	2	3	4	5
Be with others who enjoy the same things I do	1	2	3	4	5
Help keep me in shape physically	1	2	3	4	5
Have others think highly of me for doing so	1	2	3	4	5
Experience the sense of discovery involved	1	2	3	4	5
Get exercise	1	2	3	4	5
Remember the good times I've had in the past at Golden Oldies Hockey Festivals	1	2	3	4	5
Reduce some frustrations I've been feeling	1	2	3	4	5
Get away from the demands of other people	1	2	3	4	5
Have a change in my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5

13) When answering this question please indicate how important each of the following was in your decision to **ATTEND** the 2003 Golden Oldies Hockey Festival.

1= Extremely Unimportant, 2=Somewhat Unimportant, 3= Neutral, 4= Somewhat Important, 5= Extremely Important.

	Extremely Unimportant	Somewhat <u>U</u> nimportant	Neutral	Somewhat <u>I</u> mportant	Extremely <u>I</u> mportant
<u>I CHOSE TO ATTEND TO...</u>					
Play hockey	1	2	3	4	5
Travel to a new destination	1	2	3	4	5
Be physically active while on vacation	1	2	3	4	5
Meet new people	1	2	3	4	5
Learn about a different culture	1	2	3	4	5
Travel to Fiji	1	2	3	4	5
Renew old friendships	1	2	3	4	5
Participate in Festival social events	1	2	3	4	5
Play non-competitive hockey	1	2	3	4	5
Travel with family and friends	1	2	3	4	5

14) Do you plan to vacation/holiday **AFTER** the Festival as part of this trip? (Please circle one) Yes or No

If **YES**: (12a) Where do you plan to visit and for how long?

(14b) During the **POST-FESTIVAL** portion of your trip do you plan to.... (please check all that apply)

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit friends? | |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit family? | 9. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a theme or amusement park? |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a festival or fair? | 10. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a national or provincial/state park? |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a cultural performance (e.g., concert or play)? | 11. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a zoo, aquarium or botanical park? |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a bar or nightclub? | 12. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a history site? |
| 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Go to a casino? | 13. <input type="checkbox"/> Attend a sport event? |
| 7. <input type="checkbox"/> Take a cruise or boat trip? | 14. <input type="checkbox"/> Shopping? |
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> Visit a museum or art gallery? | 15. <input type="checkbox"/> Participate in any sport or outdoor activities? |

(14c) If you checked #15 please list the activities that you **plan** to participate in:

15) What is your date of birth (Year/Month): _____

16) Sex? (Please circle one) Male or Female

17) Approximately what is your annual household income (\$1000's): (Please circle *your country's currency*)

Under CAD \$20.0 CAD \$20.0– \$39.9 CAD \$40.0 - \$59.9 CAD \$60.0 - \$79.9 CAD \$80.0+

Under AUD \$22.5 AUD \$22.6 – \$45.1 AUD \$45.2 - \$67.6 AUD \$67.7 - \$90.1 AUD \$90.2+

Under NZD \$25.4 NZD \$25.5 – \$50.8 NZD \$50.9 - \$76.1 NZD \$76.2 – \$101.5 NZD \$101.6+

18) What is the highest level of education you have completed? (Please check the *single best* answer)

Some elementary or high school

Post-

secondary/Tertiary/Technical degree/diploma

High school degree or equivalent

Some graduate school

Some post-secondary/Tertiary/Technical Training

Graduate school degree

19) Which best describes your current marital status?

Single/Never Married

Married/Partner

Widowed

Divorced/Separated

20) Are there any additional comments that you would like to make?

Completed surveys should be sealed in the attached envelope and returned to your team leader. Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any questions or comments please feel free to contact me at the Festival (I am travelling with the Vancouver Snowbirds) or at aggie.weighill@ualberta.ca.