

# A Sports Tourism Participation



Chapter 3, the first chapter in this participants section, opened with a discussion of possible definitions of sport, of tourism and of sports tourism and found the establishment of such definitions to be problematic. This is because, as Houlihan (1994: p. 4) states:

*the more one attempts to capture the essence of meaning of a human activity, the more one becomes aware of the ambiguities and the compromises necessary to arrive at a plausible definition.*

Furthermore, as demonstrated by the range of examples of the influence of sports tourism in the trip decision-making process in Chapter 4, both sports tourism and the sports tourist are heterogeneous concepts and therefore no single definition is adequate. Consequently, much of the discussion in Chapter 3 focused on conceptualizing the sports tourist, attempting to go beyond a simple definition and move towards a deeper understanding of the nature and motivations of the sports tourist, which was subsequently used to examine the role of sports tourism behaviours in the trip decision-making process in Chapter 4.

The previous two chapters have demonstrated that, although sports tourists are a heterogeneous group, there may be similarities in motivations and trip decisions that allow a number of typical sports tourist behaviours to be conceived and, consequently, allow a model of participation behaviours to be constructed. This chapter presents such a model, derived from the discussions in the previous two chapters and, in particular, from the discussions of trip decisions in Chapter 4. The 'Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model' (revised from that presented in the first edition of this text, Weed and Bull, 2004) is dynamic and is not only useful in developing

an understanding of the behaviours of sports tourists but also, following the discussions in Chapter 2, of how impacts are generated and how providers might operate to develop a successful sports tourism product.

## PREVIOUS MODELS OF SPORTS TOURISM

There have been a number of attempts at developing a typology of sports tourism or of sports tourists. Perhaps the first attempt was that proposed by Glyptis (1982) following her investigation of the relationship between sport and tourism in five European countries. She suggested five 'demand types', namely: sports training, 'up-market' sports holidays, activity holidays, sports opportunities on general holidays, and sports spectating. While these categories were proposed as demand types, they essentially amount to a supply side categorization of sports holidays. However, the Glyptis categorization has been taken up by a number of other authors with, for example, Weed and Bull (1997a) utilizing it to demarcate sports holidays within their Policy Area Matrix for Sport and Tourism (see Chapter 7 for an updated version of this model). Two key concepts that Glyptis' early work highlights are that sports tourism may be either active or passive (i.e. include involvement in activities themselves or as a spectator) and that sports may be the primary purpose of the trip or be 'incidental' to holidays that have other prime purposes. In the case of the latter division, as Chapters 3 and 4 have noted, other authors have also divided sports tourism into whether sport or tourism is the primary purpose of the trip (e.g. De Knop, 1987; Robinson and Gammon, 2004). However, these chapters argued for the need to move towards a synergistic view of sports tourism that is not reliant on the primacy of either the sport or the tourism element which, in many cases, cannot be separated out. This text argues that considering sports tourism as one among a number of touristic and instrumental behaviours on a trip can help move the analysis of sports tourism participation beyond the rather simplistic primary/secondary purpose duality.

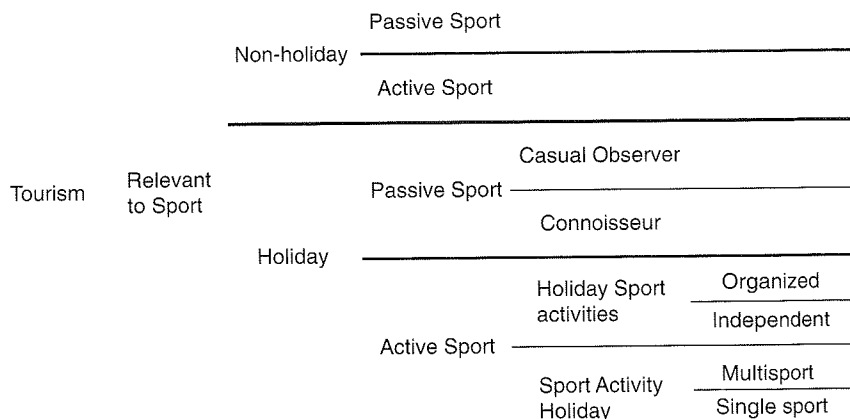
The active/passive distinction is also one that has been utilized subsequently by other authors, although Chapter 3 argued that 'vicarious' participation should also be considered. Hall (1992a), for example, in his conceptual framework for adventure, health and sports tourism, plots the level of activity against the level of competitiveness to derive a nine-category matrix (Figure 5.1). The use of competitiveness as a dimension is a useful one and Hall's model is helpful in that it illustrates the range of activities from those in the top left hand corner that are recreationally based to those in the bottom right hand corner that fall clearly into the competitive sport category.

	Less Active	—————	More Active
Non-competitive	<b>Health Tourism</b> (e.g. spa tourism, health travel)	<b>Health Tourism</b> (e.g. fitness retreats)	<b>Adventure Travel</b> (e.g. whitewater rafting, SCUBA diving, hiking)
Competitive	<b>Adventure Travel</b> (e.g. yacht chartering)	<b>Tourism Activities</b> ... which contain elements of health, sport and adventure (e.g. cycling, sea- kayaking)	<b>Adventure Travel</b> (e.g. climbing)
	<b>Sport Tourism</b> (e.g. spectating)	<b>Sport Tourism</b> (e.g. lawn bowls)	<b>Sport Tourism</b> (e.g. ocean racing)

**FIGURE 5.1** Hall's (1992a) model of adventure, health and sports tourism

In plotting out 'forms' of sports tourism, Standeven and De Knop (1999) also use the active/passive distinction, alongside a number of other subdivisions. 'Tourism relevant to sport' is split into holiday and non-holiday trips, each of which is subdivided into active and passive trips before further subdivisions are made (Figure 5.2). A useful concept introduced in this categorization is the distinction made under passive sport between the casual observer and the connoisseur. While in some senses this may appear to be analogous to the primary/incidental distinction made by Glyptis (1982), it also implies that the level of importance attached to sports tourism is a key factor. This is a slightly different distinction, therefore, to the trip purpose division proposed by Glyptis and, while it is not accorded any great significance within this categorization, it is something that has not been raised in other models. Strangely, however, Standeven and De Knop do not make a similar distinction for active sports tourism.

Later in their book, Standeven and De Knop (1999) propose a 'conceptual classification of sport tourism' which they describe as a 'theoretical framework to support the concept of sport tourism as a cultural experience on two dimensions: sport and tourism' (p. 49). In this model, the sport experience (based on Haywood's, 1994, classification of sport as environmental or inter-personal challenge) is plotted against the touristic experience (based on Burton's, 1995, description of tourism environments as natural or manmade). While this may seem a useful conflagration of two established models, the further subdivisions made make the model overcomplicated.



**FIGURE 5.2** Standeven and De Knop's (1999) 'forms of sport tourism'

Furthermore, it retreats to the perspective of sports tourism as being the simple addition of sport and tourism rather than a 'trialectic' concept (Lefebvre, 1991) in which sports tourism would not be 'an additive combination of its binary antecedents' but through deconstruction and reconstruction would produce a third phenomenon that is 'both similar and strikingly different'. The trialectic concept leads (see discussions in Chapter 3) to the development of a conceptualization of sports tourism as arising from the unique interaction of activity, people and place, where the focus is on the 'interaction' of activity, people and place, thus emphasizing the synergistic nature of the sports tourism as *related to but more than the sum of sport and tourism* and moving it away from a dependence on either sport or tourism as the primary defining factor.

In addition, plotting sport against tourism results in a model, like those already described above, that is activity based. While this may be useful in illustrating the range of sports tourism types, it is of little use in analysing or examining the sports tourist or, in fact, the sports tourism phenomenon (Green and Jones, 2005). In fact, it provides little information beyond that which would be provided by an extensive list of sports tourism activities.

## DEVELOPING A SPORTS TOURISM PARTICIPATION MODEL

In developing a model that might be used as an analytical tool, both to appreciate the complex nature of the sports tourist and to develop a greater understanding of the sport tourism phenomenon, a focus is required, as

has been the case in the previous two chapters, on sports tourism behaviours. Previous work, some of which has been described in the previous two chapters, has contributed to the development of a 'Sports Tourism Demand Continuum', early versions of which were described by Reeves (2000) and Collins and Jackson (2001), before it was presented in its final iteration by Jackson and Weed (2003) and later critiqued by Weed and Jackson (2008). As well as focusing on the nature of the sports tourist, rather than sports tourism activities, this model is derived from empirical research. The model takes its basic concept from the English Sports Council's 'Sports Development Continuum' that plots the movement of sports participants from the introductory Foundation level, through Participation and Performance, to the elite Excellence level. The Sports Tourism Demand Continuum, similarly, begins with Incidental sports participation on general holidays and moves through various levels of commitment – Sporadic, Occasional, Regular and Committed – ending with the Driven sports tourist involved in year-round travel for elite competition and training (Figure 5.3).

This model, however, still has a number of implicit weaknesses. First, there is an implication that in moving along the continuum from Incidental to Driven participation there is an increase in sports ability. This is particularly highlighted by the conceptualization of the Driven group profile as 'elite groups or individuals'. This also calls into question the applicability of the model to 'passive' sports tourists or spectators. In every other sense it appears that the continuum would apply to spectators, but the implication that levels of ability increase with movement along the continuum is difficult to reconcile with the concept of sports spectating. How would one's ability as a sports spectator be defined? The dual concept of sports tourists as both active participants and passive spectators (and now, as suggested in Chapter 3, also as vicarious participants) has been one that authors have struggled with in developing models of sports tourism, as there are often significant differences in behaviour patterns and motivations between active, vicarious and passive sports tourism behaviours. In fact, this might be said of sports tourism as a whole because the range of activities often included as sports tourism makes it a heterogeneous rather than a homogeneous phenomenon. This heterogeneity is what makes activity-based models problematic, as it becomes increasingly difficult to include the full range of issues within a model that is simple enough to be useful.

Perhaps the most significant weakness in the Sports Tourism Demand Continuum is the assumption that for participants towards the Incidental end of the scale, sport is insignificant and, consequently, sports tourism is unimportant. While this may be the case for a significant number of people

## Figure 1: A Sports Tourism Participation Model

	Incidental	Sporadic	Occasional	Regular	Committed	Driven
Characteristics	Impromptu	Unimportant	Can be determining factor	Important	Very important	Essential
Reasons	Fun or duty to others	If convenient	Welcome addition to tourism experience	Significant part of experience	Central to experience	Often sole reason for travel
Constraints	Prefer relaxation non-activity	Easily constrained or put off. Not essential to life profile	Many commitment preferences	Money or time constraints	Only unforeseen or significant constraints	Injury, illness or fear of illness
Groups	Family groups	Family and friendship groups	Often friendship or business groups	Group or individuals	Invariably groups of like-minded people	Elite groups or individuals with support
Importance	Sport is insignificant	Sport is non-essential. Like but not a priority	Sport is not essential but significant	Sport is important	Sport is a defining part of life	Sport is professionally significant
Level of interest	Minimal	Minimal except sporadic interest	High on occasions	Considerable	Extremely high and consistent	Extremely significant. Funding support from others

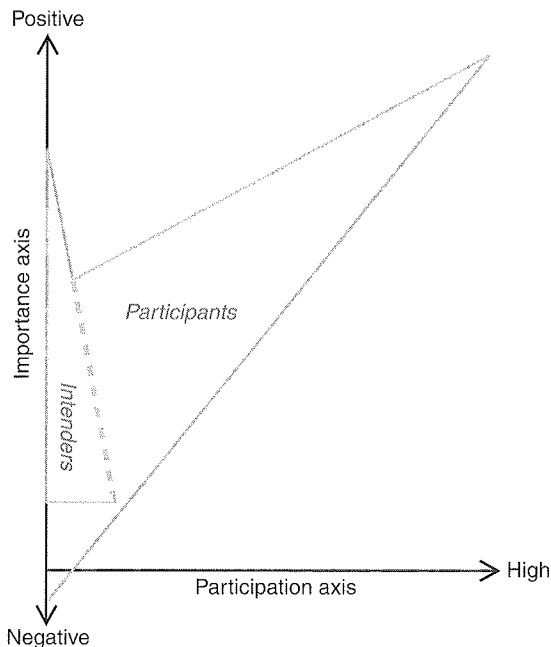
*Sports tourism demand continuum (Jackson and Weed, 2003 – derived from Jackson and Reeves, 1996; Reeves, 2000)*

towards this end of the continuum, it fails to recognize the importance of trips involving sports tourism to individuals' perceived self-identity (Green and Jones, 2005), the result being that, even where levels of participation are low, the importance placed on that participation can be significant. In seeking to address this weakness, this chapter proposes a 'Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model' which has been developed from the model proposed in the first edition of this text (Weed and Bull, 2004). This model continues to utilize the concept of a continuum of sports tourism participation but, unlike the model presented in 2004, it does not incorporate the various 'participant types' outlined in the demand continuum. The first step in the revision, the 'Simplified Sports Tourism Participation Model', continues to plot sports tourism participation against the importance

placed on sports tourism behaviours and is illustrated in Figure 5.4 as the first step towards a more extended revision of the model.

The Simplified Sports Tourism Participation Model (Figure 5.4) plots sports tourism participation against the importance placed on sports tourism behaviours. Levels of participation increase along the horizontal axis, while the vertical scale indicates the amount of importance attached to sports tourism behaviours by individuals. The model illustrates that towards the left of the scale the level of importance attached to sports tourism behaviours may vary from a relatively high level, to little importance, or even negative importance. At the right of the scale, however, both importance and participation are high. This creates a 'triangle' of participation, the size of which corresponds to the *number* of sports tourists at each particular level.

Reeves (2000), utilizing empirical data from his study of sports participation at Butlins Holiday Worlds in the UK, describes reluctant participation that accounts for the existence of participants who attach a negative importance to sports tourism. For such people it is actually important *not* to engage in sports tourism behaviours on holiday. Such participation is usually a result of a sense of duty to others, particularly family members such as children or partners. Participation takes place although there may



**FIGURE 5.4** Simplified sports tourism participation model

be an antipathy towards it. At the other end of the importance axis at the left of the scale is participation that individuals feel is important to their sense of self or identity (Green and Jones, 2005) even though actual levels of participation may be low. Such sports tourism participation is important as it affects the identity that participants wish to portray to their peers on return from the trip. The importance of 'returning' as a significant part of the tourism experience is described by MacCannell (1996: p. 4) who explains that 'returning home is an essential part of being a tourist – one goes only to return'. MacCannell (2002) believes that tourists are people who leave home in the expectation that they will have some kind of experience of 'otherness' that will set them apart from their peers on their return. Here, the experience of otherness is the sports tourism behaviour(s) while on holiday, with the importance being attached to the perceived kudos that the telling and re-telling of the experience, often based on relatively low levels of participation, gives the participant on returning home (MacCannell, 2002). An example of this level of importance may be of someone who takes a beach holiday and spends most of the time soaking up the sun on the beach. However, this person may be goaded by his or her family into participating in a 30-minute water-skiing session. This may be the sum total of this individual's sports tourism behaviours on this holiday, but the impression that may be conveyed to his or her peers on return, through exaggerated re-telling of the experience, would be of a holiday full of sports tourism participation – an impression that may accord the individual a certain level of esteem among his or her peers. A perceived identity is constructed that means that the sports tourism behaviours during his or her trip have a relatively high importance despite the very low level of actual participation. Of course, in this example, the level of importance is a result of extrinsic factors – the identity which is portrayed to others. For other participants on the left and towards the middle of the scale, engagement in sports tourism behaviours may be important for more intrinsic factors. Trips involving sports tourism participation may be an opportunity to take part in lapsed activities for which the time or opportunity for participation does not exist at home. Here, significant importance may be attached to such participation because sports tourism participation, no matter how low, may be the only link that such individuals have with past sports participation and, consequently, with a continued conception of themselves as a 'sportsperson'. This is something that may be of major importance to someone who has previously been a very active participant in sports or, indeed, in sports tourism, but for whom other responsibilities now restrict participation. In both these examples, the contribution that sports tourism behaviours can make to individuals' perceived self-identity means that



sports tourism can be important to individuals for whom actual levels of participation are low.

As levels of participation and broad levels of importance increase with a move from left to right in the model, the quality of the sports tourism experience becomes more important as sports tourism behaviours become a significant factor in tourism destination choices (see Chapter 4). As discussed in Chapter 3, the nature of the place can contribute considerably to the quality of such experiences (Bull, 2005). This may be through the standard of facilities available at the destination, but also as a result of the general environment, the place ambience, the scenic attractiveness and the presence of other like-minded people. Furthermore, Urry (2001) notes the specific motivation of some regular sports tourists to 'collect places'. This may be the development of a 'collection' of as wide a range of places as possible, a factor among many of the 'active event sports tourists' to Malta described in Chapter 10 and by Shipway and Jones (2004), many of whom had competed at non-elite level in running events around the world, often combining such participation with a subsequent family holiday. Alternatively, such 'place collection' may relate to particularly significant or 'mythical' sports tourism places. An example of this, as noted in Chapter 4, might be visits by surfers to beaches in Hawaii that are regarded as surfing 'Meccas'.

The significance of the unique interaction of activity, people and place would appear to increase with movement towards the right of the participation triangle. However, for some at the far right of the scale, the place experience may be less important than technical requirements related to the quality of facilities. Such participants are the elite athletes described in Chapter 4 and by Jackson and Reeves (1998) and Reeves (2000). For these participants, factors related to place environment – with the exception of climate which is, of course, important for 'warm-weather training' – are relatively insignificant. This, along with their elite sports ability, sets such participants apart from other sports tourists. However, with the exception of the elite athlete, high levels of sports ability and performance are not a pre-requisite for even the most committed of sports tourists. Surfers are a good example of such committed sports tourists who are not necessarily concerned with elite performance and for whom the experiential aspects of the activity are clearly of great importance (see Wheaton, 2004 and discussions of surfing narratives in Smith and Weed, 2007). This is highlighted by Butts (2001) who notes that many of the surfers in his study described the 'serenity of the ocean' and the importance of the condition of the ocean and the environment to the surfing experience.

Also at the far right of the model are spectating sports tourists for whom both participation and importance are high and for whom spectating is a

defining part of their self-identity. An example from this end of the scale might be the 'Barmy Army' group of England cricket fans who, since their emergence in the mid-1990s, have demonstrated a very high level of commitment to following a less than successful England cricket team around the globe (Parry and Malcolm, 2004). Football fans are also a good example of the committed spectator and much of the work on football hooliganism (see Dunning et al., 1988; Carnibella et al., 1996; Weed, 2001c) certainly suggests that many are committed participants for whom their identity as a hooligan is of central importance. That is not to suggest that football supporting is not important to non-violent football fans (Millward, 2006) – in fact, the level of commitment shown by some fans has been compared to religion (Bale, 2003) – but is merely an indication of the area in which the majority of research on sports fans has been concentrated.

The example of football fans is a useful one to continue with in examining sports spectators at the left of the triangle where participation is low. Here, there will be a vast number of people for whom identity as a football fan is of great importance, but for whom participation in live football spectating as a sports tourism experience is minimal. Similarly, there will be those who have spectated at football, but for whom it is not an important part of their identity. In fact, as with participants in active sports tourism, it is likely that for some, such participation has a negative importance as it has taken place out of a sense of duty to others such as partners or children (Reeves, 2000).

A discussion of spectating sports tourists provides a useful avenue through which to introduce another concept into the model – that of the 'Intender'. Intenders were described in relation to arts audiences by Hill et al. (1995: p. 43) as 'those who think the arts are a "good thing" and like the idea of attending, but never seem to get around to it'. Such a concept would also seem to be useful in relation to sports tourism and perhaps spectators provide the most useful illustration. The growth in televised coverage of sport has created a vast number of spectators who are highly committed and for whom watching sport is important, but who rarely travel to a live event (Weed, 2006d). Many such spectators often express a desire to go to a live event, but like Hill et al.'s (1995) arts intenders, 'never seem to get around to it'. Of course, some intenders will attend the odd match and so the boundary with participation is fluid. However, this group is largely made up of those for whom watching sport is important, but for whom attending a live event never becomes more than a whimsical intention.

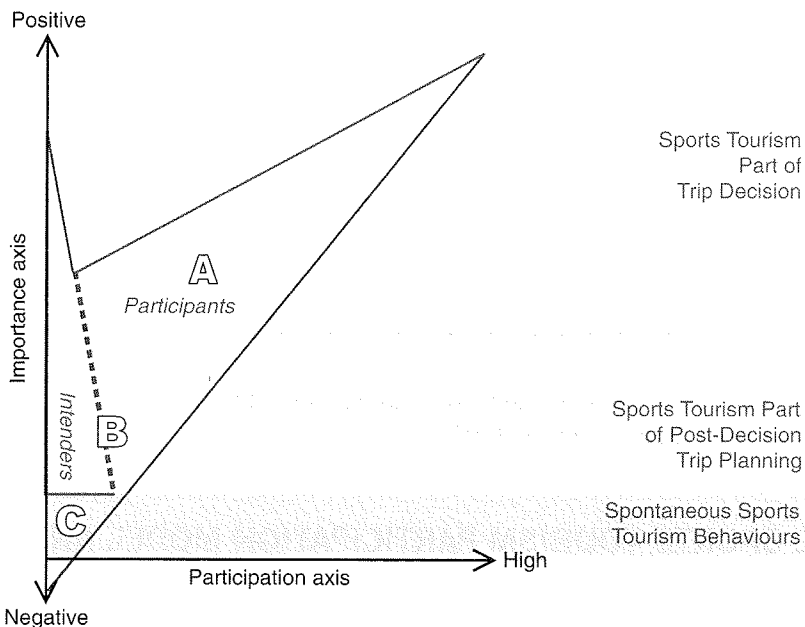
The Intenders categorization is, of course, equally significant in relation to active sports tourism. In the same research in which he identified sports

tourism behaviours that take place as a duty to others, Reeves (2000) also describes those who go on holiday with the intention of taking up some of the sports tourism opportunities available, but never actually get round to it. The promotion of the range of sports tourism opportunities available in hotel and resort brochures can create the intention to engage in sports tourism behaviours but, in many cases, such intention is not converted into actual participation. Even where such sports tourism opportunities may play a part in resort or hotel choice (see discussions of the trip decision-making process in Chapter 4) and the intention may be described to peers pre-trip (in the same way as low levels of participation may be exaggerated post-trip as discussed earlier) as a way of boosting perceived identity, there is no guarantee that such intention will be converted into actual participation (Keynote, 2001; Mintel, 2002c).

## THE SPORTS TOURISM PARTICIPATION MODEL AND THE TRIP DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Having outlined the basics of the model, it is now possible to incorporate the role of sports tourism in the trip decision-making process as discussed in Chapter 4. The three levels (sports tourism as a deciding or contributing factor in the decision to take a trip and the choice of destination, sports tourism as a factor in trip planning that takes place after the trip decision and destination choice has been made and sports tourism as a spontaneous trip behaviour) are illustrated as part of a Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model as shown in Figure 5.5.

The diagram shows that, as might be intuitively expected, sports tourism behaviours are a factor in the trip decision in the top half of the model where importance is high (area A), they are a factor in post-decision trip-planning in the upper part of the lower half of the model where importance is moderate (area B) and are a spontaneous trip behaviour at the bottom of the model where importance is low (area C). Sports tourism intentions (as indicated by the Intenders classification) can also influence trip decisions and planning, even though this may not be carried through to actual sports tourism behaviours, although as indicated by the dotted line between intenders and participants, this boundary can be fluid. Finally, the small area indicating participants for whom a negative importance is attached to sports tourism behaviours (i.e. those to whom it is important *not* to engage in sports tourism behaviours, but who do so to please others such as family and friends) is likely to include those whose behaviours have featured at every level of the trip decision-making process.



**FIGURE 5.5** Revised sports tourism participation model

Of course, as noted in Chapter 4, sports tourism will play a part in trip planning in the majority of cases where it has been a factor in the trip decision, but area B refers to those participants for whom sports tourism behaviours were not considered in the trip decision, but for whom they do play a part in trip planning. The model indicates that the majority of sports tourism behaviours take place on trips where they have played a part in the trip decision (area A), with fewer behaviours taking place as a result of trip planning (area B) and fewer still as spontaneous behaviours (area C). This suggests that at even the most incidental level of sports tourism participation, such as swimming in a hotel pool, such participation is likely to have been considered pre-trip (areas A and B).

Chapter 4 noted that day-dreaming can be a part of the trip decision-making process even before a decision to take a trip is made (Decrop and Snelders, 2005). Indeed, day-dreaming may provide significant experiences even if a trip is never made (i.e. when the trip decision-making process results in a decision not to take a trip). It is this type of 'vicarious' participation through imagining what it would be like to take a trip involving sports tourism that accounts for the (relatively small) group of participants in the Intenders triangle in area A for whom participation is low but importance is very high. Of those discussed in Chapter 4, this might include those

committed spectators (e.g. committed cricket and football fans) for whom the spectating sports tourism trip is very important (Millward, 2006), but for whom it is not possible to make the trip.

Another factor discussed in Chapter 4 was the degree of choice exercised in the trip decision-making process, both over whether to take a trip involving sports tourism behaviours and over the destination for a trip involving sports tourism behaviours. The discussions noted that the level of choice exercised may vary and that this may be linked to both the importance placed on sports tourism behaviours within the trip and the levels of participation. If this is considered within the context of the Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model, it is likely that at the bottom left corner of area A (where importance is moderate and participation is low), choice is exercised over both the decision to take a trip and the destination for a trip, while at the top right corner of area A (where both importance and participation are high), it is likely that there will be little or no choice over either the taking of a trip or of the destination. For the remaining participants in area A that fall in the centre of the area (where importance is moderate to high and participation is moderate), choice is likely to be exercised over either the taking of the trip or the destination. Examples of the choices and behaviours of sports tourists in area A are provided in Chapter 4.

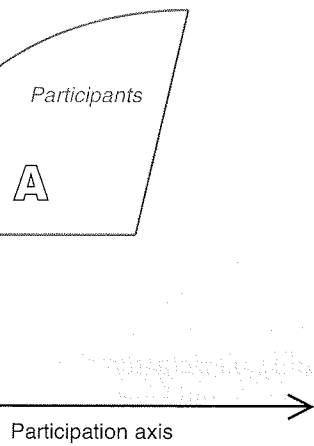
## **THE REVISED SPORTS TOURISM PARTICIPATION MODEL FOR DIFFERENT SPORTS TOURISM PRODUCTS**

The 'Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model' presented in Figure 5.5 is intended to be a generic representation of participation in sports tourism. However, in concluding this chapter it is perhaps worth considering the extent to which the shape of the model might vary according to the sports tourism product on offer. Chapter 3 suggested five broad sports tourism products that are discussed in much more detail in Chapter 8. These products – Supplementary Sports Tourism, Sports Participation Tourism, Sports Training Tourism, Event Sports Tourism and Luxury Sports Tourism – provide for the sports tourism behaviours discussed in Chapter 4 and it is perhaps useful to examine examples within each of three of these broad product types to illustrate the way in which the shape of the 'Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model' may vary.

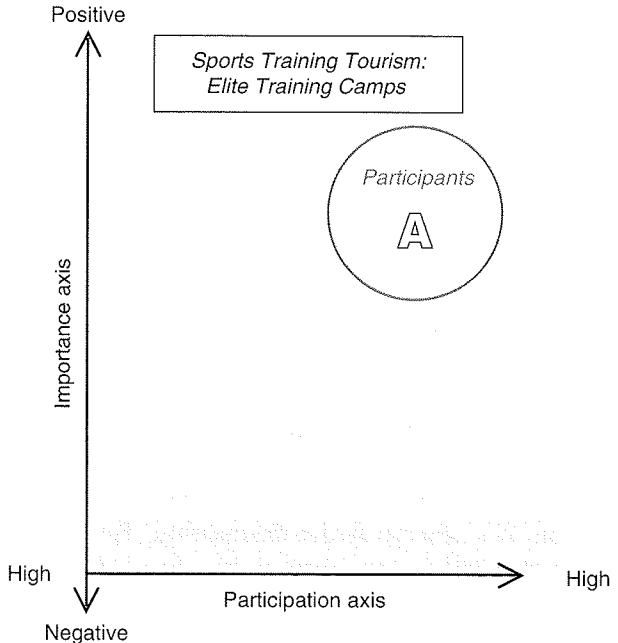
Figure 5.6 shows four potential model shapes for particular sports tourism products, one each within Sports Participation Tourism and Sports Training Tourism, and two examples within Event Sports Tourism. The shape at the top left illustrates what the Sports Tourism Participation Model

# : A Sports Tourism Participation Model

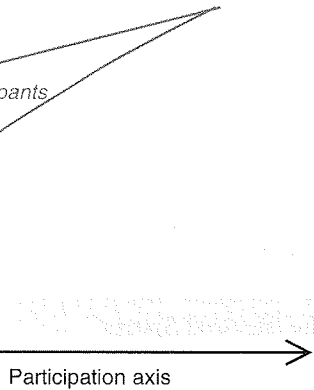
*s Participation Tourism:  
Skiing*



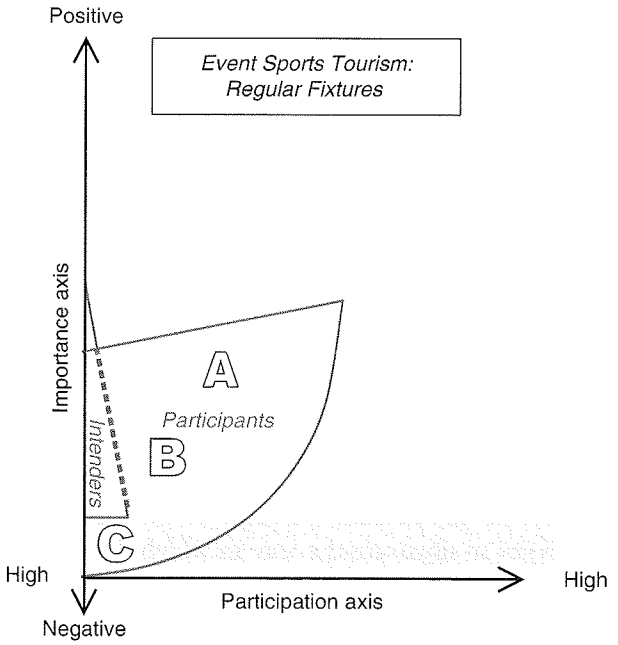
*Sports Training Tourism:  
Elite Training Camps*



*Event Sports Tourism:  
One-off Events*



*Event Sports Tourism:  
Regular Fixtures*



*potential variations in the shape of the revised sports tourism participation model for specific sports tourism products*

might look like for skiing sports tourism within the Sports Participation Tourism product type. As skiing sports tourism behaviours almost universally require forethought and the booking of a trip to ski destinations, there are no spontaneous skiing behaviours or skiing behaviours that have been planned after the decision to make a trip and the destination choice have been made. As such, only area A (sports tourism as part of the trip decision) from the generic model is included. However, the shape allows for a great deal of variance in participation in skiing sports tourism behaviours, with some participants skiing every day and others skiing only occasionally. Some intenders may travel intending to take part in skiing sports tourism, but on arrival engage only with the après ski experience, while other intenders will engage only vicariously and will not take the trip.

The shape at the top right of Figure 5.6 illustrates elite training camps within the Sports Training Tourism product type. The shape here is straightforward, with elite sports training tourism behaviours featuring significantly in the decision to travel and the destination choice, but with the elite athletes themselves having little or no say in either decision. Importance and participation is high and there is no intenders group.

The two shapes at the bottom of Figure 5.6 illustrate two different types of Event Sports Tourism products. The shape on the left illustrates how the Sports Tourism Participation Model might look for spectating sports tourists to a one-off event such as the Athletics World Cup discussed in Chapter 4. The majority of these behaviours are likely to have featured in the decision to take the trip (area A), albeit perhaps only a day-trip, to watch the event. Some travellers may realize the event is taking place after they have booked their trip to the destination (area B) and so may include spectating sports tourism behaviours in their pre-trip planning. However, it is likely that there will be relatively few spontaneous spectating sports tourists (area C), as one-off events can often be sold out in advance. The likely need to pre-book tickets means that the intenders group is only likely to comprise those who consider travelling, but eventually do not make the trip.

The other Event Sports Tourism shape (on the bottom right of Figure 5.6) illustrates the likely shape for a regular sports fixture, such as US Major League Baseball or UK Premiership Football Matches. Here, assuming that tickets are available at the venue on the day of the match, the number of spontaneous spectating sports tourist behaviours are likely to be high (area C), as are those that have featured in pre-trip planning (area B), with a significant number of intenders travelling with the intention to attend the fixture, but not actually doing so once at the destination. As spectating sports tourism at such a fixture is likely to be only one among a number of other equally or more important tourist behaviours, the numbers

for whom such behaviours feature in the decision to take the trip and the destination choice is likely to be lower than for other sports tourism products. However, numbers in both areas B and C are likely to feature 'must see' spectating sports tourism behaviours among those who see, for example, a trip to see the New York Yankees play baseball as an essential part of a trip to New York.

## **CONCLUSION: THE UTILITY OF THE REVISED MODEL**

The 'Revised Sports Tourism Participation Model' described in this chapter allows for the profiling of a range of sports tourism behaviours across the sports tourism product range. As such, it can be of practical use to both policy-makers and providers in sports tourism, as it provides a fairly comprehensive illustration of the wide range of sports tourism behaviours and their respective roles and importance in the trip decision-making process.

Providers, for example, are likely to be interested in the 'Intenders' group and the extent to which they will be able to develop strategies to convert such intention into participation, thus boosting their customer base. Policy-makers may also be interested in the Intenders group and the development of strategies that might stimulate sports tourism participation that can contribute to healthy lifestyles. At another level, policy-makers might be interested in the development of a 'sports tourism' identity for a particular area as part of a regeneration or diversification strategy. Such development and promotion is likely to be aimed at both intenders and spontaneous sports tourism participants, but also at the genuinely 'multi-lingual' sports tourist who may be a committed participant across a range of sports tourism products. At the top right of the model, where both importance and participation are high, some providers, such as Club La Santa in Lanzarote, have developed a reputation of providing quality facilities for the elite athlete on warm weather training, but also for sports tourists who want to take part in sports training tourism at a non-elite level while also sampling the fairly wide range of sports tourism activities on offer.

The conceptualization of sports tourism as being the result of the unique interaction of activity, people and place is a theme that has run throughout these participation chapters. Chapter 3 examined how this interaction might motivate sports tourism behaviour, while Chapter 4 discussed the interaction in relation to the role of sports tourism in the trip decision-making process. In modelling sports tourism participation, this chapter has



sought to illustrate how a range of sports tourism behaviours might interact with activities, people and places. In the remainder of the book, and particularly in the study of providers, both the model described here and the underpinning idea of the interaction of activity, people and place, will be important concepts in examining, analysing and understanding the behaviour and strategy of those involved in sports tourism provision.

