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Sport Tourism: A Critical Analysis of Research

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The concept of sport related tourism has become more prominent in the last few years both as an academic field of study and an increasingly popular tourism product. The purpose of this paper is to review and critique the sport tourism literature as it stands in 1998, and to suggest a future research agenda. Disparities in the definition of sport tourism are addressed and some of the difficulties which scholars have faced in establishing a standardised definition are outlined. In answering the question why has sport tourism suddenly become so prominent, a look back at history shows that people have engaged in sport related travel for centuries. However, in the past ten years, the popularity of this form of travel has increased. Various explanations, such as the increased emphasis on health and fitness and increased use of sports events by cities to attract tourists, are examined. The question of what is known about sport tourism includes a review and critique of the literature in the three domains of sport tourism: active sport tourism, which refers to people who travel to take part in sport; event sport tourism, which refers to travel to watch a sports event; and nostalgia sport tourism, which includes visits to sports museums, famous sports venues, and sports themed cruises. The overarching conclusion from this review is that the field suffers from a lack of integration in the realms of policy, research, and education. At a policy level, there needs to be better coordination among agencies responsible for sport and those responsible for tourism. At a research level, more multi-disciplinary research is needed, particularly research which builds upon existing knowledge bases in both sport and tourism. In the realm of education, territorial contests between departments claiming tourism expertise and those claiming sport expertise need to be overcome.

Sport tourism finds itself in a constitution phase of its true identity—the absence of globalized information of sports tourism is an obstacle in the analysis of this phenomenon and its delimitation. (Pigeasson, 1997, p. 29)

The concept of sport related tourism has become more prominent in the last few years both as an academic field of study and an increasingly popular tourism product. However, in reading the sport tourism literature, a number of questions surface. What do we call this form of tourism? Is it sport tourism (De Knop, 1995; Delpy, 1998; Turco & Eisenhardt, 1998), tourism sport (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1995), or sports tourism (Redmond, 1990, 1991)? Does sport related tourism refer to spectators attending hallmark events (Hall, 1992a) such as the Olympic Games (Chalip, Green, & Vander Velden, 1998), or the FIFA World Cup Football Tournament (Delpy, 1996; Gibson, 1998a), or does it refer to active participation in sport by individuals on vacation (De Knop, 1987, 1990; Gibson & Yiannakis, 1992, 1994; Nogawa, Yamguchi, & Hagi, 1996)? Where does visiting sports related attractions, such as halls of fame or famous stadia, fit in (Redmond, 1990, 1991; Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1998)? When did sport become an integral part of tourism? Was it during the 1960s (De Knop, 1995), or in the 1980s (Redmond, 1990), or more recently in the 1990s (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1995)? When did academics first start writing about tourism related to sport? Was it during the 1970s (De Knop, 1990), or in the 1980s (Standevan, 1998)?

There are no definitive answers to these questions. They are indicative of a wider problem. As with any emerging field of study, the subject matter has not been sufficiently delimited. Researchers in such fields as sport management and tourism management, who have legitimate claims to the subject area, have frequently not bridged the artificial academic divide between their two disciplines. Consequently, there are two distinct communities of discourse. As a result, much of the work in sport tourism shows a biased focus on either tourism studies or sport studies. Moreover, scholars of sport tourism in countries around the world are often unaware of each other's work. As a result, a number of papers have been written which attempt to define and describe sport related tourism, but as yet few have adopted an international perspective. This explains some of the inconsistencies in dates and definitions outlined above.

The purpose of this paper is to review the state of sport tourism scholarship as it stands in 1998. Key questions arising from sport tourism research are addressed. Suggestions are derived for the future study and practice of sport tourism management.

What is Sport Tourism?

Some of the inconsistencies in the study of sport related tourism arise out of the difficulties in defining sport and tourism. Glyptis (1991) stated that until recently

“sport and tourism have been treated by academic and practitioner alike as separate spheres of activity” (p. 165). Sport scholars have long debated the definition of sport (e.g., Loy, 1968). Is sport confined to competitive activities with set rules governing the style and field of play, and what the players may wear? Or does sport include non-competitive, more freely structured physical activities? Similarly, there are continuing debates over the definitions of tourism and tourist (Cohen, 1974; World Tourism Organization, 1992). Frequently, tourism textbooks devote their first chapter to outlining some of the difficulties related to definitions of tourism and tourist (e.g., McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie, 1995). How far do individuals have to travel and how long do they have to be away from home to be counted as tourists? Nogawa et al. (1996) suggest there is a difference between sport tourists who stay at least 24 hours in a destination and sport excursionists who are day trippers. How far do the day trippers have to be away from home to be counted as excursionists? Another complication in the definition of tourism and tourist concerns the purpose of the trip. To be a tourist should the purpose of a trip be leisure or does tourism encompass business-related travel? Sociologists such as Cohen (1974) and Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) would argue that tourism refers to leisure-based travel, whereas, other scholars such as McIntosh et al. (1995) would incorporate business travel into their definition of tourism. Should business travel be included in a definition of sport tourism? If so, are professional athletes travelling to away games appropriately considered to be sport tourists? After all, just like conference attendees and corporate business travellers, professional athletes contribute to host communities in terms of hotel room nights, food, and so forth. Or should the fact that professional athletes are being paid to take part in sport (and therefore are not leisure travellers) distinguish them as a sports business traveller rather than as a sport tourist?

In reviewing the sport tourism literature a number of definitional attempts are evident. In De Knop's (1987) early writing on the topic, a sport tourist is an individual who participates in sport on holiday. Indeed in 1990, De Knop suggested that in Europe the trend was away from spectating to active participation. He identified three types of active sport vacations: (1) the pure sport holiday, such as a trip to go skiing; (2) taking advantage of the sport facilities at a holiday destination, although sport is not the primary purpose of the trip; (3) the private sporting holiday, where tourists take part in non-organised sports activities such as volleyball on the sand or beach cricket. Glyptis (1991) and Glyptis and Jackson (1993) also emphasise active participation in sport by tourists rather than spectating in their conceptualisation of sport tourism. They report that 56% of the holidays taken in the UK by British tourists include participating in at least one sport. They also report that for 26% of British holiday-makers, sport is the primary vacation activity. While Glyptis and Jackson recognise that tourists do watch live sports events while on vacation, the focus of their work is on how active participation in sport can not only contribute to

tourism, but also how “activity holidays” may encourage individuals to maintain involvement in sport once they get back home.

Redmond (1990, 1991) was one of the first to recognise that spectators represent only one type of sport tourist. Redmond also recognises active sport participants and visitors to sports attractions (such as famous stadia and halls of fame) as sport tourists. Nevertheless, most American scholarship about sport tourism has focused on large sport events which attract spectators as tourists. For example, Turco and Eisenhardt (1998) in their discussion of the connection between sport and tourism make passing reference to active sport tourism and concentrate on the economic stimulus hosting a sport event can have for a community and the “intense competition among cities to host lucrative sport events” (p. 24). This bias is echoed at policy levels within the American tourism industry. Participatory sport tourism is virtually ignored by many of the community sport commissions as they focus instead on attracting large spectator sports events to their communities. This bias is aptly illustrated by a meeting this author had with the top executives of Visit Florida Inc., the primary tourism marketing organisation for the state of Florida. When asked about their current strategies for developing sport tourism, executives from Visit Florida Inc. stated that “Miami got the Superbowl.” The apparent attitude was that the sport sector of the tourism industry would take care of itself. No mention was made of the abundant sporting opportunities in Florida from golf to sport fishing (and even shuffleboard) that attract tens of thousands of tourists every year.

There is growing evidence in the sport tourism literature of more comprehensive and formal attempts to define the phrases “sport tourism” and “sport tourist.” Hall (1992b) postulated that there are two primary behaviours involved in sport tourism: travel away from home to observe sport or travel to participate in sport. He chose to define tourism as non-commercialised or leisure behaviour. However, by using Harry Edwards’ (1973) definition of sport as “... involving activities having formally recorded histories and traditions, stressing physical exertion through competition within limits set in explicit and formal rules governing role and position relationships” (p. 57-58), Hall (1992b) set rather narrow boundaries on the activities which can be included under the rubric of sport tourism.

In their study of Japanese sport tourists, Nogawa et al. (1996) sought to resolve the definitional problem by combining Kenyon’s (1969) definition of sport with the delineation of a tourist as designated by the World Tourism Organization (1992). Nogawa et al. (1996) suggest that a “sport tourist [is] a temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the event area and whose primary purpose is to participate in a sports event, with the area visited being a secondary attraction” (p. 47). They also suggest that sport tourists can be divided into: (1) event participants, those individuals whose primary purpose in travelling is to take part in an organised sport event; (2) event spectators whose primary purpose is to watch an organised sport event; and

(3) sport lovers who travel to take part in “self organised” sports. Nevertheless, Nogawa et al. concede that “a more thorough discussion of these categories and the definition of sport tourist is needed” (p. 47). While they, like Hall (1992a, 1992b), include activities that are non-competitive and “self organised” under the rubric of sport tourism, they nonetheless fail to note the importance of tourism to sport attractions, which Redmond (1990, 1991) points out is an important component of sport tourism. Indeed, research into visiting sports halls of fame and sports museums is limited (see Lewis & Redmond, 1974; Redmond, 1981; Zerkovitz, 1996).

Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997) seek to circumvent the definitional problems by describing sport tourism in terms of five core products: sport tourism attractions, sport tourism resorts, sport tourism cruises, sport tourism tours, and sport tourism events. This approach does explicitly recognise the significance of tourism to sport attractions, as Redmond (1990, 1991) recommends. However, any listing of sport tourism products does not specify the definitional basis used to determine which products do (and do not) belong on the list. As Standevan (1998) suggests, the approach fails to capture distinctive and synergetic aspects of the sport tourism phenomenon.

Standevan argues that sport tourism should be understood as a two dimensional concept. Sport may be defined as a cultural experience of *physical activity* and tourism as a cultural experience of *place*. This approach would certainly go some distance toward solving several of the questions posed at the start of this discussion. Incorporating the notion of place with the notion of physical activity into a definition of sport tourism would help address the problems associated with distance of travel and the problems associated with using narrow definitions of sport. Nonetheless, the issue of tourism as leisure or non-leisure behaviour and active versus passive consumption of physical activity by the tourist would remain to be addressed. It is probably most useful to conceive of tourism as a form of leisure that takes place outside the home community (cf. Cohen, 1974; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992).

The review so far suggests that there are three distinct types of behaviour associated with sport tourism: (1) actively participating (Active Sport Tourism), (2) spectating (Event Sport Tourism), and (3) visiting and, perhaps, paying homage (Nostalgia Sport Tourism) (also see Gibson, 1998b). Thus, an appropriate definition of sport tourism might read as follows: leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities. This definition is applied throughout the remainder of this review. Following a brief review of the growth of sport tourism, the review separately examines research into each of the three types of sport tourism: active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. The review concludes by exploring implications for future sport tourism research and practice.

Why Has Sport Tourism Become So Prominent in Recent Years?

Travelling to take part in sport or to watch sporting events is nothing new. As early as 900 BC the Greeks were travelling to take part in and watch the Ancient Greek Games. The Romans were skilled at “packaging their sports for spectators” (Coakley, 1990). Indeed, scholars suggest that the Romans used sport spectacles as diversionary events to shift the focus of the populace away from their poor living conditions. Throughout history, travelling for sport is evident, whether it involved journeying to the next village to play a game of football, or in more recent years (as mountains became an attraction rather than an object of fear) to ski (Matley, 1981). McFee (1990) in a study of Burton Holmes, an American who was present at the first Modern Olympic Games in 1896, clearly shows that Holmes regarded the Games as a touristic spectacle rather than a mere sports event. Holmes wrote that “the chief interest of the Olympic Games of 1896 lay in the splendid setting given them rather than in the Games themselves” (quoted in McFee, 1990, p. 147).

In 1897 the first golf course in the United States was opened at the Pinehurst Resort in North Carolina. In fact, alpine skiing, golf, tennis, fishing, tennis have been activities available to tourists for much of this century. So why does it seem that sport related tourism has become more pervasive in recent years, and as Redmond (1991) writes, “the term ‘sports tourism’ has been [recently] coined to describe it” (p. 107)? A clue may be found in Khristine Januzik’s observation that “nobody put sports with resorts in those days” (quoted by Ladd, 1995, p. 8). The traditional attractions of a resort were eating, drinking, playing, and relaxing. Sports were not the primary reason for travel; they were ancillary. What has changed to make sport the primary leisure travel motivator for many people? Several explanations have been offered.

Schreiber (1976) in one of the first conference papers on sport tourism suggests that a change in work styles away from a production orientation to one of service has led to a situation whereby Americans want to be “awed” by elite sport or to challenge themselves by participating in something active. Similarly, De Knop (1990) attributed the desire for active participation in sports on holiday to increased urbanisation and a wider variety of active leisure pursuits open to Europeans. In a later paper, De Knop (1995) further developed this explanation by drawing upon figurational sociology, which attributes the popularity of sport in modern society to the civilizing process. As society has developed and become more civilised, that is behaviour has become more restrained, there are few ways left to people to express emotion and engage in experiences which generate excitement (Elias & Dunning, 1970). Thus, sport provides an arena for “controlled excitement,” a mimetic experience. This hypothesis is intriguing and certainly deserves further research.

Figurational sociology has also been used to study sport event spectators. Elias and Dunning (1970) hypothesise that the growing popularity of watching sports events can be explained by the fact that such events provide individuals with mimetic experiences in a socially acceptable setting. Moreover, around the world towns and cities are increasingly engaged in fierce competition with one another to host sports events. Thus, on the one hand, from the perspective of the event sport tourist, demand for mimetic experiences may be one explanation for the growth in the number and type of sports events. However on the other hand, in common with many forms of tourism, towns, cities, states, and countries increasingly view sports events as a means of economic development. For example, when the United States hosted World Cup '94, the overt strategy was to promote the country as a tourist attraction. In fact, the Under Secretary of Commerce for Travel and Tourism predicted that "World Cup '94 will generate billions of dollars in tourism revenue and commercial activity, and is an opportunity for the world to experience the beauty and diversity of America." ("The World Cup," 1993, p. 4). Globally, cities, states, and nations have established agencies whose purpose is to attract and coordinate the effort to bring sports events to their communities. For years, competition to host mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, has been intense and huge amounts of money are spent bidding for these events (Jennings, 1996). In more recent years, staging amateur sport tournaments has proved to be lucrative for many cities. In fact, some communities create their own events such as "road runs" in order to entice tourists to their towns and cities.

Another explanation that is frequently put forward to explain the growth in sport tourism awareness and opportunities is the concern with health and well-being, which is pervasive in many westernised societies (De Knop, 1987; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1995). Certainly, the government sport-for-all policies of the 1970s have been linked to growth in sport participation and facilities. This in turn has given rise to what De Knop (1995) calls the duplication effect, whereby active participants at home are more likely to be active on vacation. Redmond (1991) and Nogowa et al. (1996) each note the connection between sport tourism and sport-for-all.

Redmond (1991) also suggests that the development of sport tourism has been nurtured by the ascent of a highly specialised global leisure industry flooding the marketplace with "high tech" sports equipment. He argues that "modern technology has served to create an international sporting playground for the reasonably affluent athletic tourist" (p. 108). This thought prompts a caution which is becoming increasingly apparent in the sport tourism literature. Although sport tourism is popular, it is most commonly the domain of the relatively affluent white male tourist. De Knop (1995) and Gibson (1998b) both point to the inequality of access to sport tourism opportunities for much the world's potential tourism market.

Moreover, popular ideologies extolling active lifestyles are rarely represented by actual behaviours (cf. Palm, 1991). Research typically finds that only a small

proportion of the population (usually less than a third) regularly engages in physical activity that is sufficiently vigorous to provide an aerobic benefit, and a substantial proportion of the population (typically more than a quarter) is sedentary (Caspersen, Merritt, & Stephens, 1994). Thus, sport tourism based on active participation in sport may appeal to only a relatively small segment of the overall tourism market. Standevan (1998) suggests that this may be true of sport tourism in general. She concludes that “although sport tourism is a growing sector of the vacation tourism market, it remains a special interest of a minority ...” (p. 41). This conclusion is supported by various statistics from around the world. In a study of ten different countries, the STIC [Sport Tourism International Council] Research Unit (1997) found that sport tourism contributes to 32% of overall tourism activities. In the UK, Glyptis and Jackson (1993) report that while 56% of domestic holidays include participating in at least one sport, only 26% have sport as their primary purpose. In an American study commissioned by the Marriott Corporation (Elrick & Lavidge, 1994), 20% of respondents reported that opportunities to take part in sport were important when selecting a vacation destination, while 16% reported that opportunities to attend sporting events were important. Sightseeing (54%) and beach activities (48%) were more popular than sports while on vacation.

Perhaps competition among destinations has helped to put a spotlight on sport tourism. The potential tourist now has more choice than ever when choosing a destination and a type of sporting experience—from the Hong Kong Dragon Boat Races to skiing on a World Cup slope in Val D’ isere; from a round of golf at St. Andrews to a trip to the Baseball Hall of Fame in Cooperstown (cf. Redmond, 1990). Kurtzman and Zauhar (1995) point to the worldwide popularity of sports, the increased recognition of the links between sport and tourism, and the ease of travel afforded by communication and technological developments which have stimulated industry initiatives to formulate and market more opportunities for sport tourism.

What is Known about Sport Tourism?

Active Sport Tourism

Since the mid 1970s, there have been various studies of individuals who take part in sport while on vacation – active sport tourists. Some studies have concentrated on one or two particular sports, whereas, others have focused on sport participation in general. Schreiber (1976) was one of the first investigators to develop a profile of the active sport tourist. In a study sponsored by Sports Illustrated and Boeing, Schreiber defined a sports traveller as air travellers who played golf or tennis or went skiing within the past year. The results showed that the sports traveller is more affluent, better educated, and more active than other travellers. Schreiber suggested

that sports are a potential method of travel market segmentation, but in 1976 his analysis of the situation was that “the industry has a long way to before it is capitalizing on sports to the fullest” (p. 87).

De Knop (1990) found that the most popular sports for active sport tourists who take “club” holidays (such as Club Med) are swimming, tennis, sailing, and windsurfing. In general, the most popular physical activities for Europeans on vacation are walking, bicycling, and skiing. In a later paper he argued that “it is necessary to have an insight into the motives and interests of the different categories of participants” (p. 36). Nevertheless, research on the active sport tourist is scarce, usually descriptive, and typically atheoretical. Delpy (1998) cites the 1995 Recreation Roundtable reports that the average sport tourist is college educated, between 18 and 44 years of age, and relatively affluent, with an average income of more than US\$40,000 per year. The Recreation Roundtable also suggested that sport tourism is the vacation of choice throughout the year for many individuals fitting this demographic profile, as they participate in a range of sports – most frequently, golf and skiing. This pattern needs more research. At present, we are not sure how many active sport tourists are year round participants, switching sports as the seasons change. This is particularly pertinent with the trend toward multiple short breaks throughout the year rather than the traditional longer summer vacation (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1995). In work with Yiannakis on tourist roles (Gibson, 1994; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992), it was postulated that individuals may enact one dominant role on vacation (i.e., pure sport tourist), engage in two or three dominant roles on vacation (e.g., Sportlover, Action Seeker, and Sunlover), or sample multiple roles on vacation including that of sport tourist. Certainly, De Knop’s (1990) contention that there are multiple relationships between sport and tourism is consistent with our taxonomy.

Gibson and Yiannakis (1992) used a life span perspective to investigate the tourist role identified and labelled the Sportlover. Working with a sample of 617 people of whom 297 were Sportlovers – that is, individuals who reported that they stayed physically active engaging in their favourite sports while on vacation – we found that the negative relationship between sport tourism and age was not as other work had suggested (e.g., McPherson, 1984; Rudman, 1986). To further investigate the relationship between active sport tourism and life stage, a purposive stratified sample of 1,277 New England (US) residents was collected. Of this sample, 621 reported that they were sport tourists: 279 men and 342 women ranging in age from 18 to 91 years (Gibson & Yiannakis, 1994; Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1998). The results from this study are consistent with previous studies which indicate that sport tourists are likely to be between the ages of 18 and 44 years. However, this research also shows that a sizable group of men and women continued to engage in active sport tourism well into late adulthood. Moreover, using stepwise discriminant analysis to develop profiles of the Sportlover at different stages of the life course (viz. Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978), sport tourists appear to be healthy,

financially secure, satisfied with the opportunities for play in their lives, relatively affluent, well educated, and (frequently) male.

In a study of tourism to participate in scuba diving, Tabata (1992) reported that the average diver is a 30 year old male who is college educated and relatively affluent. Using scuba diving in Hawaii as a case study, Tabata argues that resources (supply) and users (demand) need to be understood in conjunction with one another. Although resources may be site specific, it is probably possible to segment the user market. Rice (1987) suggests that scuba divers can be categorised into three types: hard core, tourist (those who dive while on vacation but not the rest of the year), and potential. Tabata (1992) notes that divers can be classified along a continuum of motivation from education to adventure. Tabata suggests that scuba diving providers need to understand the needs and interests of different segments of the scuba diving market so that diving experiences tailored to particular market segments can be designed, promoted, and sold.

Green and Chalip (1998) also found that sport tourism providers would be well advised to listen to the expectations and experiences of their target markets. In a three year study of the Key West (Florida, USA) Women's Flag Football Tournament, Green and Chalip used interviews and observation techniques to understand the experiences and motivations of participants in the tournament. Women's flag football has a distinctive subculture which needs to be understood in order to gain an insight into the experiences of the sport tourists at the Key West Tournament. Indeed, Green and Chalip found that for the participants, the tournament is more important than the destination hosting the event. Also, the structured planning of the event by the tournament organisers sometimes interfered with the informal gatherings which became important to participants. Thus, Green and Chalip suggest that event planners should pay more attention to the expectations and experiences of the participants. Planners should allow for more spontaneous activity rather than scheduling every moment of the event or the tour, which incidentally is a common criticism from tourists on organised tours in general.

Nogawa et al. (1996) also investigated the experiences of active sport tourists by surveying participants at two sport-for-all events in Japan: cross country skiing and walking. The primary motives of these sport tourists were health/fitness and challenge. Additionally, many of the participants reported that "love of the sport" was a significant reason for taking part in the event. The authors distinguished between sport tourists (who stayed at least 24 hours) and sport excursionists (day trippers). Not surprisingly, the sport tourists were more likely to participate in "traditional" touristic activities such as sightseeing. Nogawa et al. suggest that destination marketers should be aware that sport tourists have the potential to become sightseers. Therefore, they should be made aware of the notable features of a particular destination.

In a study of American tourists, Attle (1996) investigated the destination characteristics that are attractive to sport tourists. Using the Tourist Role Preference

Scale (viz. Gibson, 1994), Attle surveyed 800 Connecticut residents, of whom 223 reported that they had been active sport tourists on their last vacation. Attle found that the Sportlovers in his study were aged between 18 and 27 years, male, single, employed full-time, and graduates of a four year college. When asked about the attributes they looked for in a vacation destination, Sportlovers indicated that they preferred destinations that were relatively quiet, located in the United States, group oriented, and offered an element of risk. Furthermore, destinations that are outdoor, actively oriented, not too crowded, and provide modern amenities also proved to be popular with sport tourists in this study.

Location attributes were one of three constraint categories investigated by Williams and Lattey (1994) in a study of women for the Canadian Ski Industry. In 1993, women comprised 41% of active alpine skiers, and they tended to ski less than their male counterparts. Williams and Lattey found that lack of a social network among fellow skiers frequently constrained women from skiing more often. Many women perceive skiing to be physically demanding and dangerous. Therefore, potential female skiers often feel intimidated and will not take part in the sport. Women also reported that ski areas were relatively inaccessible to them in terms of time and cost. Ski areas tend to emphasise physical challenge and risk rather than health and fitness in an outside setting. Consequently, many women felt that skiing was not compatible with their interests and time-constrained lifestyles.

Kaae and Lee (1996), in a study which compared alpine skiers with cross country skiers, found that more women participate in cross country skiing. Alpine skiers also tended to be younger (aged between 25 and 34 years), a finding which supports Matley's (1981) observation that downhill skiing "appeals mainly to the young and the sportsman" (p. 112). In common with most sport tourists, both cross country and alpine skiers are relatively affluent and well educated. Indeed, in an investigation of why people do not ski, Williams and Basford (1992) found that cost is the primary barrier to skiing.

Bojanic and Warnick (1995) used geographic segmentation and the concept of the modernised family life cycle to investigate the current and potential customer base for a family oriented New England (US) ski resort. They found that the family ski market for this resort was very homogenous in that the majority of skiers were married, with children and under the age of 45 years. The resort did not attract many skiers outside this demographic profile.

Market segmentation research is typical of much of the work done in the area of skiing. Johnston and Elsner (1972) and Walsh and Davitt (1983) developed demand models based on skier characteristics and resort attributes. Mills, Couturier, and Snepenger (1986) used psychographic profiles to identify potential skiers. More recently, two studies have used motivation to understand the ski market (Klenosky, Gengler, & Mulvey, 1993; Richards, 1996).

Richards' (1996) study is particularly intriguing. He used the concept of

skilled consumer (Gratton, 1990) to investigate the British ski market. The concept of skilled consumption is similar to Iso-Ahola's (1989) seeking and escaping model of leisure motivation and Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) concept of flow. Skilled consumption assumes that as an individual becomes more skillful at a leisure pursuit the individual will require more challenging experiences to reach the same level of stimulation that was experienced as a more novice participant. Without this level of stimulation the participant will become bored with the activity. In the case of skiing, Richards found that advanced skiers focused more on ski related attributes, such as snow quality and variety of terrain, than did less experienced skiers, who emphasised price and accommodation. A similar pattern was demonstrated by sport fishing participants in the southeastern United States. Roehl, Ditton, Holland, and Perdue (1993) found that the more experienced fishing participants were more likely to trade-off price for a better fishing experience. In fact, Richards concluded that skill levels were better predictors of destination choice than socio-economic group or income. Nevertheless, it should be noted that in the case of the British skiers, the more advanced skiers were from the higher socio-economic groups.

A sector of the sport tourism industry which has traditionally been associated with affluence, is the health spa. Unlike the sport tourism domains discussed so far, health spas in the twentieth century have attracted more women than men. Health spa tourism has evolved from medical convalescence and therapeutic treatment to a focus on fitness and personal rejuvenation (Wartenberg & Allon, 1978; Williams, Andestad, Pollock, & Dossa, 1996; Spivack, 1998). Williams et al. (1996) found that Mexican spa tourists in the United States tend to be in their mid thirties, employed in professional occupations, or homemakers. These spa tourists enjoyed opportunities for physical fitness while on vacation and were identified by the authors as "fitness improvers." Both Wartenberg and Allon (1978) and Spivak (1998) suggest that spa clientele have become democratised shifting from an exclusive rich clientele to middle class patronage. While there may be some movement in this direction, Gibson (1998b) argues that with prices ranging from US\$2942 to US\$4069 for a seven night "spa renewal program," this form of sport tourism is beyond the reach of many middle class patrons.

In summary, much of the research on active sport tourism has tended to concentrate on identifying the sport tourist, finding out in which activities the tourist participates, and, in some studies, identifying motivations and constraints. As with any research domain, the first need is to describe, and the overwhelming consensus is that the active sport tourist tends to be male, affluent, and well educated. Now, the task is to explain these patterns. Few studies have grounded their work in theory to explain these patterns. Gibson and her colleagues (Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1998; Gibson & Yiannakis, 1992, 1994) used life span developmental theory (Levinson, 1996; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978) to understand why preference for active sport tourism fluctuated for men and women over the life span.

Gibson (1998b) discussed the inequities of access to many forms of sport tourism, drawing upon sociological work in the areas of class, gender, and race. Green and Chalip (1998) used the sociological concept of subculture as a framework for understanding the experiences of female flag footballers. Klenosky et al. (1993) and Richards (1996) have made a start at understanding the motivations of skiers. Here Richard's use of the concept of the skilled consumer is a particularly promising avenue of future research, as physical skill and different skill levels are such integral components of participation in sport. However, there is a need to expand the use of theory to all realms of sport tourism so that the dynamics underlying sport tourism might be better understood and explained.

Indeed, research into who is a sport tourist and why sport tourists engage in this sort of tourism may prove to be more complex than is at first apparent. Certainly, some of the research indicates the existence of different types of active sport tourist. De Knop (1990) writes of three levels of commitment and participation styles to sport participation on vacation; Rice (1987) writes of "hard core," "tourist," and "potential" scuba divers; Hall (1992b) postulates the existence of two types of sport tourists: the activity participant and the hobbyist. Activity participants are individuals who regard their participation as a means of self expression—an outlet for their skills and knowledge. Hobbyists are competitive in their participation. They practice regularly and are interested in playing the sport at a high standard. Who is more likely to be a hobbyist rather than an activity participant and why? Hall (1992b) suggests that Stebbins' (1982) work on serious leisure might be a perspective which could be used to understand these different types of sport tourist. Couple this with motivation theory, such as that suggested by Richards (1996), and the consequent insight into the different types of active sport tourist could be very enlightening. For example, in the realm of golf tourism, Priestley (1995) distinguished three types of golfing holiday. The first type of holiday is characterised by golfers who are motivated by a desire to make a pilgrimage to "the heartland of golf," notably St. Andrews in Scotland. The second type, the economic golfing holiday is motivated by the best price. The third type is the "golfing holiday with the luxury trimmings" where the golfer heads for the comprehensive resorts. Again, who is likely to choose which type of vacation and why? Such studies will not only contribute to our understanding of active sport tourists, but will also benefit sport tourism practitioners as they might be better able to identify their markets and better meet the needs of their clients. How can the different types of sport tourist be best matched to a destination (cf. Attle, 1996)? Does the destination "not matter" to a sport tourists who have attained a certain level of commitment to their sport (cf. Green & Chalip, 1998)? How likely are sport tourists to be interested in visiting "regular tourist attractions?" Does this depend on the level of commitment to the sport (cf. Nogawa et al., 1996)? Is health spa tourism sport tourism? The classic definitions of sport (e.g., Loy, 1968) would preclude spa based fitness activities, yet many other physical activities commonly

examined under the rubric of sport tourism would not be classified as sports under “older” definitions of the phenomenon.

Event Sport Tourism

Zauhar and Kurtzman (1997) postulate that the religious pilgrimages of the past have been replaced by modern pilgrimages to such spectacles as the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup tournament, national championships, and smaller regional events. The idea of the tourist as the modern pilgrim has long been debated (MacCannell, 1976). Moreover, sports events have been likened to spectacles with ritualistic significance by various sport sociologists (e.g., Real, 1986). Putting the two concepts together and calling this (event) sport tourism is relatively new. Much of the research in this area has been limited to the economic impact analyses of these events. Perhaps the use of concepts like “tourism as pilgrimage” and “sport as ritual” hold the keys for future insights deriving from anthropological, sociological, or social psychological perspectives.

Delpy (1992, 1997) surveyed English speaking spectators at the Barcelona and Atlanta Olympic Games in an attempt to understand the motivations of individuals who attended the Games. She found that although the Olympic Games are orchestrated for television, for those attending the Games, nothing compared with the excitement of “being there”. Indeed, Baines (1996) likened sport tourism to the “leisure pursuit of being there.” Both Baines and Delpy addressed the market trends for event based tourism with a focus on the spectator. Chalip et al. (1998) also looked at the motivations of individuals from the United States and assessed the likelihood that they would travel to attend an Olympic Games. They focused their investigation on three polysemic variables (Chalip, 1992): narratives, genres, and symbols associated with the Olympics. They examined the effect these variables had on Americans’ interest and intent to travel to the Olympics. Chalip et al. (1998) found that the genres of sport and spectacle can be used to predict interest and intent to travel, while narratives about Olympic athletes used by the media to promote the Games seemed to increase interest in watching them on television, rather than travelling to actually “be there”.

Much of the research on sports event spectators has focused on their spending patterns as an indicator of the economic impact of the event for the local community. One of the issues surrounding much of this work is methodological accuracy. Irwin, Wang, and Sutton (1996) found that when event sport tourists were asked to project their expenditures during their visit, they consistently underestimated their spending. Irwin et al. and Faulkner and Raybould (1995) suggest that expenditure diaries are a more accurate method of tracking the spending of event sport tourists. Faulkner and

Raybould compared the diary method with asking tourists to recall their expenditures. Like the tourists asked to predict their expenditures, tourists asked to recall their expenditures tended to underestimate how much money they had spent, especially on entertainment and shopping. Although, men frequently exaggerated the amount they had spent on food and drink, their underestimates may be a form of “social bravado”. Both Irwin et al. (1996) and Faulkner and Raybould (1995) suggest that despite the difficulties of non-response bias and visitors’ reluctance to keep a record of their expenditures, diaries are still the most accurate method of tracking tourist expenditure at events.

Another study that is noteworthy from a methodological perspective is a longitudinal study of the British Columbia Games (Carmichael & Murphy, 1996). The researchers were particularly interested in identifying patterns and trends across several years of the Games so that future events could be planned more effectively. Carmichael and Murphy also focused on how best to measure the number of spectators at “open access” events and how to determine the economic impact of smaller scale short term sports events. They recommended that future studies separate sport tourists into two groups: spectators and participants, as the two groups differ in their length of stay and spending patterns. Moreover, in a study of sport tourists attending ten US collegiate national championships, Irwin and Sandler (1998) found that degree of team affiliation impacted tourist expenditure and length of stay in the host community, with the more avid fans tending to stay an average of a day longer at the event.

Other studies have taken a more comprehensive approach to measuring the economic impact on a community of hosting major sports events. Again methodological difficulties regarding how to accurately measure economic impacts have been encountered. In fact, Hall (1992a) warns of the possibility of “displacement effect” whereby tourists and locals alike avoid the event destination because of the inflated prices which may accompany such an event. Similarly, Crompton (1995) warns of the direct, indirect, and opportunity costs generated by large events. These can be quite considerable. Burgan and Mules (1992) suggest that it is best to err on the conservative side when estimating the economic impact of an event. They assessed the utility of using various economic models to measure the economic impact of hallmark sports events. The authors argue that many studies fail to deal adequately with the expenses incurred in organising and marketing the event. Also, they suggest that any estimate of economic impact should incorporate the “psychic income” experienced by members of the host community in addition to visitor expenditures and event organisation costs. In a study of the 1995 Northern Conference University Sports Association Games (Lismore, Australia), Walo, Bull, and Breen (1996) found that the Games did have a positive economic impact on the community and that the use of existing facilities and volunteer staff were important not only in defraying the costs of hosting the event, but also in getting the community involved. The authors

found that the most significant difference between hosting a hallmark event and hosting a small scale local event was that a small scale event is more likely to enhance the way of life of the host community. In other words, small events may have a greater positive effect on the psychic income of the residents, as more community residents are likely to be involved in the event in some way.

The psychic income of hosting a sports event for a community is not always positive, however. Soutar and McLeod (1993) in a study of resident's perceptions regarding the America's Cup Defence (1986-87) hosted by Fremantle, Australia found that both the positive and the negative impacts of the event did not live up to expectations. Prior to the event, many believed that Fremantle would become a "boomtown," while, residents feared that the event would also bring severe congestion to their city. Using a longitudinal approach, Soutar and McLeod found that residents' expectations were more extreme than what actually occurred. While the economic benefits did not reach their predicted levels, the apriori fear of congestion was worse than that experienced during the event. In fact, Ritchie (1984), used an analysis of the (then) forthcoming Winter Olympic Games in Calgary (Canada) to develop a list of both the positive and negative impacts a community might expect to encounter from hosting a hallmark event. Moreover, even within one community the impacts of an event may not be distributed evenly. For example, in a New Zealand based study, Garnham (1996) found that in hosting the Ranfurly Shield (a national rugby tournament which takes place over a two week period), some segments of the community gained, while others lost. While restaurants, pubs, and clubs reported increased business, retail shops saw no increase in trade. Nevertheless, Garnham found that community morale was the highest it had been in 22 years. The event provided a central focus for the local population which inspired a sense of pride in their community. Thus, once gain the psychic income of hosting an event may have counterbalanced some of the negative impacts.

Another much touted benefit of hosting sports events is that they may promote tourism beyond the event itself. For example, people who attend the event may return for a vacation, or those who watch the event on television may decide to visit the destination later. Initially, as Collins (1997) writes, "sports events can provide a tourist focus where nature has failed to do so, or can spread the use of accommodation into off-peak periods or stimulate accommodation provision" (p. 199). Later, especially in the case of the televised events, it is hoped that the exposure afforded the town or city hosting the event will generate tourism in the form of individuals wishing to visit the community. This may include nostalgia sport tourists, who wish to visit the stadia and venues associated with an event. For example, in many Olympic cities, the stadium is open for tours on a daily basis. Even in the years leading up to hosting the Games, venues are open for visitors. In Park City, Utah (one of the venues for the Winter Olympic Games in 2002) visitors can take a bobsled or luge run down the chute, even before the Olympians themselves.

Matzitelli (1989) raises other issues associated with hosting major sports events. Is there increased demand for taking part in a sport after watching a sport at high level? Also, for the host community, will the top level venues be accessible to amateur athletes once the sport spectacle is over, or will these venues be reserved for elite athletes, typically at taxpayer expense?

There is a growing body of literature which adopts a critical approach towards the impacts of hallmark events on communities. Dovey (1989) using Perth, Australia which hosted the Commonwealth Games in 1962 and the America's Cup in 1987 as a case study charges that "the real value (and damage) of such events for cities is quite unpredictable" (p. 79) and frequently "... it is revealed, often all too late in the domain of the everyday experience of the inhabitants ..." (p. 79). Likewise, Roche (1994) argues that too much emphasis is given to the economic benefits (events often do not live up to expectations) and the political and planning processes which underlie hallmark events are inadequately evaluated. Roche suggests that future research on the effects of hallmark events on urban communities needs to address the contextual forces at work in all major western cities. These would include unemployment and the decline of traditional industries, as well as the "situational rationality" of the policies and actions taken in the planning of the event, such as the effect of local politics on the planning process.

Sack and Johnson (1996) conducted a study very much along these lines. They investigated the policy processes which brought the Volvo International Tennis Tournament to New Haven Connecticut in 1989. As hosting sports events is becoming a common strategy for the economic regeneration of many urban communities, Sack and Johnson wanted to gain insight into the workings of the various political groups in attracting the tournament to New Haven. The authors found that the main policy decisions had been made long before the general public became involved. Further, the workings of the local elites had a powerful impact on decisions concerning how the event would be financed and how the event would be run. Public funds to the amount of US\$15 million would be used to build the tennis stadium needed to host the event. Yet, despite this public investment, the facility would not be open to the general public except when "special events" were held.

Whitson and Macintosh (1993) are also critical of the use of public subsidies by cities to host mega sports events. They found in the cases of Calgary and Vancouver (Canada) that the promised benefits of hosting the Olympic and Commonwealth Games, such as new sports facilities, did not accrue because the facilities were unsuitable for everyday public use. Indeed, the authors ask, "does public money spent on subsidising commercial sports and tourism produce returns for the community as a whole?" (p. 237).

Other work is similarly critical. Kidd (1992) describes how community and environmental activists successfully subverted the City of Toronto, Canada's plans to renovate the Sky Dome and bid for the Olympic Games. Already in the years

leading up to the Olympic Games in Sydney, Australia in the year 2000, various researchers have documented the negative impacts on segments of the community (Hall & Hodges, 1996; Wearing & Wearing, 1996). Andreff (1988) discusses the folly of developing countries hosting the World Cup. For example, Argentina hosted the 1976 championship despite massive national debts. Yet, the benefits for Argentina, as for other third world countries, are siphoned away by the leakage of profits back to the multinational corporations in the first world.

Getz (1998) suggests that in order to address some of the deficiencies in earlier investigations of sport event tourism, future studies should examine both supply and demand. The supply side incorporates such components as event venue, destination tourism services, media broadcasts, and event sponsorship. The demand side of sport event tourism includes the athletes, the spectators, television, newspaper and radio audiences, and the event sponsors. Linking the supply and the demand side of the model, Getz identifies various intermediaries such as tour companies, media based advertising agencies and sport and tourism development bodies. The value of such a model is that it suggests the components of a multivariate approach to future investigations of event sport tourism. Moreover, by using a systems analogy to identify the links between the various agencies and components involved tourism to sport events, both the positive and negative impacts of such events may be more readily identified. Indeed, as Getz suggests, they are the outputs of the system. As Getz shows, this approach would have particular value for city governments, event planners, and sport marketers because it would help to identify the joint impacts of sponsorship, media, and public investment.

Nonetheless, models like the one outlined by Getz are relatively new conceptions. Too often it appears that the potential economic profits and exposure for a host community obscure potentially negative impacts. Some of the exaggeration of economic and other positive benefits can be attributed to community elites and their vested interests in hosting such events (Sack & Johnson, 1996). More attention must be given to the measurement of event effects. There is a need for methods which will accurately and fully measure the benefits and costs (social, psychological, and economic) of hosting an event—whether it is a hallmark event, or a small scale local event (cf. Burgan & Mules, 1992; Crompton, 1995; Hall, 1992a). Full and accurate assessment is essential to determine whether the event has met expectations. Further, without standardised measurement techniques, comparisons across events are difficult, as similarities and differences may be a mere artefact of the different measures used. As more communities host sports events to foster community (primarily economic) development, the task of measuring the impacts of these events has attained a certain urgency, particularly as a matter of accountability for the spending of public money to bid for and host these events (Getz, 1998).

For example, in recent years, attention has been directed at the excesses involved in bidding for the Olympic Games (Jennings, 1996). Should there be a

“cap” placed on the amount of money spent to showcase a city to the International Olympic Committee? Should the idea of designating a permanent site for the Games be pursued? Do the much touted long term benefits of hosting the Olympics really outweigh the costs? Does hosting the Games really induce more tourists to visit that destination in the future? Or as Hall (1992a) suggests is the displacement effect of hosting mega-events more significant than is currently recognised? Do people avoid a destination in the years leading up to the Games because of the inconveniences caused by the construction of roads, airports, and stadia needed for the event. One might hypothesise that cities which also have a large conference industry might be adversely affected in this way. Is it wise for cities to host large conventions when delegates might find themselves in the middle of construction zones, as was the case in Atlanta during the lead up to the 1996 Olympics? Consequently negative impressions of cities may stay with regular attendees of annual association conferences for years.

There is a need to move beyond description into the realm of theoretically grounded explanation. Sack and Johnson (1996) explore the utility of various theories from political science to understand the workings of the groups involved in attracting a professional tennis tournament to New Haven, Connecticut. Roche (1994) suggests ways in which a sociological analysis of the impacts of mega-events on urban communities might be further developed, as do such scholars as Whitson and McIntosh (1993), and Hall and Hodges (1996). Could social psychology provide theoretical insights on the concept of “psychic income,” which is alluded to in a number of studies (e.g., Burgan & Mules, 1992; Garnham, 1996)? How long does this heightened community morale last? What factors are necessary for an increase in the morale of a community hosting a sports event? Carmichael and Murphy (1996) make a case for segmenting sport event tourists into spectators and participants. Certainly, the research on active sport tourism would support the value of dividing sport tourists along these dimensions. Getz (1998) suggests that there is a need to understand the event sport tourist in terms of the experiences these tourists seek. Irwin and Sandler (1998), suggest that level of fan identification with a team or athlete should be part of future studies of event sport tourists. In terms of the “highly committed fan,” can work on tourism as pilgrimage (MacCannell, 1976) or sport as ritualised spectacle (Real, 1986) result in more in-depth understanding of this type of sport tourist? For example, are these highly committed event sport tourists more likely to engage in the third form of sport tourism, nostalgia based sport tourism? Further, as Matziteli (1989) suggests, is there an increased demand for taking part in a sport after watching a sport at the elite level? Are more ski vacations sold during and after the winter Olympics? Relationships among the three macro forms of sport tourism are starting to emerge. One might ask, for example, whether active sport tourists are likely to be event sport tourists and nostalgia sport tourists, and vice versa.

Nostalgia Sport Tourism

The sites associated with mega sports events have attained their own mystique. Visiting sports halls of fame such as the Basketball Hall of Fame in Springfield, Massachusetts, sports museums such as the Cricket Museum at Lords in London, and famous sporting venues such as the Olympic Stadia in Atlanta or Barcelona, or Yankee Stadium (home of the New York Yankees Baseball Team) has become an increasingly popular touristic pursuit. Redmond (1990) suggests that museums and halls of fame enable sport to be included in the heritage interpretation movement which is gaining more importance around the world as more heritage tourism opportunities are developed. Writing about sports facilities as tourist attractions, Bale (1988) suggests that some sports edifices “can develop over time, a sufficient mystique to become tourist attractions in their own right” (p. 120). Wembley Stadium in London, the Toronto Sky Dome, and even sites of future Olympic Games are on the list of such tourism venues. Famous sports retail stores have also become tourist attractions. For example, the Bass Pro Shops’ Outdoor World is one of Missouri’s top tourist attractions and “you don’t have to be a fisherman or a hunter to enjoy the visit” (Carlton, 1993, p. 30). Another trend in this category of sport tourism has emerged in recent years: that of meeting famous sports personalities. The cruise ship industry has become an adept provider of this form of sport tourism. Sports theme cruises such as Norwegian Cruise Lines’ “Pro-am Golf Cruise,” or the “NBA Basketball Cruise,” arrange for passengers to meet sports personalities while on board.

There has been little research on nostalgia based sport tourism. Lewis and Redmond (1974) and Redmond (1981) document the growth of sports museums around the world (also see Redmond, 1990). More recently, Zelkovitz (1996) conducted participant observation in sports hall of fame and sports museums in Sweden, Canada, and the United States. He analysed the cultural and social differences of the tourists in each of these countries. This is an area which has a wide range of opportunities for research. Who is a nostalgia sport tourist? Why do people engage in this sort of sport tourism? Do active sport tourists and event sport tourists also become nostalgia sport tourists? In terms of theoretical import, as with event tourism, anthropological and sociological understanding of pilgrimage could uncover some insights into this type of sport tourism. For example, have stadia and sports museums become the sacred sites of a new religion, sport?

More critical approaches, such as those levied at mainstream heritage tourism regarding the authenticity and commodification of the experience, may also provide insight into the experiences obtained by nostalgia sport tourists. Additionally, such analysis may contribute to a more detailed understanding of the use of sports theming by marketers and entrepreneurs (MacCannell, 1976; Meethan, 1996). Increasingly, restaurants, hotels, retail outlets, and cruise ships (to name but a few) are using sport as a theme to attract consumers. From a sociological perspective, the “sportification”

of many domains of life begs to be studied. From the marketing point of view, is sports theming a passing fad, or does it have lasting value? In the restaurant industry, there is already evidence that the popularity of some of the early theme restaurants, such as Planet Hollywood, may already be on the wane ("Lean Time," 1998). Nevertheless, over the past few years, using sport as a theme seems to have improved market share for hotels and restaurants, at least in the United States (Taylor, 1998).

The Way Forward

There can be no doubt that over the past five years, sport tourism has become increasingly salient to tourists, tourism providers, and academics alike. As much of the research cited in this paper shows, the sport tourism "movement" has been spearheaded by the western world – Europe, North America, and Australia. Nonetheless, evidence that sport tourism is becoming a distinctive element of tourism strategy in other countries is starting to appear. Aidid (1997) describes how Panang, Malaysia established itself as a major tourism destination through sport. Barbados uses sport to smooth seasonal fluctuations in tourism flows ("Sports Tourism," 1997). Kosasi (1997) and Devados (1997) profile the sport tourism industry in India. Wang (1987) discusses how Singapore was marketing itself as a sport destination by the 1980s. However, despite the growth in sport tourism phenomena, a number of issues need to be addressed as we enter the next millennium.

At the start of this paper, a quote from Pigeasson (1997) suggested that sport tourism as a field of study and practice is still evolving, and that progress in this development is hindered by a lack of integration at various levels. In reviewing the literature on sport tourism and looking at what is happening around the world, it appears that there is a lack of integration in three domains: (1) in policy development and implementation, between agencies responsible for sport and those in charge of tourism; (2) in academe, a lack of inter-disciplinary research, which is necessary in a domain which incorporates two distinct bodies of knowledge (sport and tourism); (3) in the education of the future sport tourism practitioners, as academic territoriality between tourism and sport studies departments persists.

In terms of policy development and implementation, De Knop (1987, 1990), Glyptis, (1991) and Standevan (1998) point to the lack of integration between sport and tourism at government levels. There have been some regional attempts to establish links between sport and tourism, such as the Tourism and Sport Joint Policy Statement by the West Country Tourist Board in the United Kingdom (described by Glyptis, 1991). However, attempts such as this have been rather limited. Weed and Bull (1998) examined the situation in the United Kingdom and came to the conclusion that territoriality between the Tourist Boards and the Sports Council over resources and power were preventing joint policy statements and practices. This lack of an

integrated sport tourism policy is common throughout the world (De Knop, 1990). Without adequate policy, De Knop warns that conflicts of interest among various departments, agencies, ministries, and bureaux will become more common. At the very least, a lack of integrated policy development for sport tourism risks accentuating the behind-the-scenes power of elites, and exacerbating inequities in the distribution of benefits (cf. Hall & Hodges, 1996; Sack & Johnson, 1996).

There are also growing concerns about the effects of sport tourism on the environment. Ingold, Huber, and Neuhaus (1993) outline the effects of sport on wildlife in the Alps. Meyer (1993) investigated the impact of summer and winter sports on the alpine plant life in Austria. Hudson (1995) warns of the necessity of enforcing a sustainable development plan to protect the natural environment in Verbier Switzerland from overuse by skiers and hikers. Golf is also coming under scrutiny. Stoddart (1990) discusses the environmental impacts of golf as more and more courses are built on previously undeveloped tracts of land. He also looks at the socio-cultural impacts of the spread in popularity of the game which has reinforced the socio-economic exclusivity of golf. Similarly, Pleumarom (1992) details the effects of the golf boom in Thailand. She also documents the negative environmental and social impacts of the spread of golf as a major tourism attraction in Thailand. Thus, although government policies do not always provide solutions to social problems, these examples show that there is a need at some level to coordinate the workings of this new industry and to develop an integrated policy structure that addresses emerging problems. Certainly, persons concerned with sport tourism would be well advised to learn from some of the mistakes made by the tourism developers of the 1960s and 1970s, where tourist facilities developed unchecked and, to borrow from Plog (1974), many resorts carried "with them the potential seeds of their own destruction" (p. 58) by destroying much of the natural beauty and ambiance, which tourists had come to enjoy. There is a growing need to resolve problematic environmental and socio-cultural impacts of sport tourism before they become insoluble (see Dreyer & Krueger, 1995).

Of course policy development, marketing, management and the training of individuals to work in this field also needs to be based on knowledge. This leads to the second need for the field of sport tourism, that of an integrated research program. De Knop (1990) points out that there is inadequate research examining the interrelationship between sport and tourism. Zauhar and Kurtzman (1997) suggest that in terms of professional practices and disciplinary knowledge, sport and tourism have many elements in common. While this is evident, there are still obstacles to overcome. It has already been demonstrated that government and commercial bodies responsible for sport or tourism respectively are intent on protecting their turf. In many instances the same can be said for academe. In universities where sport studies and tourism studies departments are separate, there have been disputes over "academic ownership" of the two constructs (sport and tourism). This separateness also affects

research in the area. Some of the inconsistencies outlined at the beginning of this paper concerning definitions can be attributed to the infancy of the field. However, they can also be attributed to the fact that sport and tourism are too often delimited as separate spheres of study. Too few researchers have undertaken the task of becoming well versed in both bodies of knowledge and as a result two separate communities of discourse have developed. The conception of sport tourism as a synergy, which encompasses on the one hand the cultural experience of physical activity and, on the other, the cultural experience of place may provide a way of conceptualising what have been until now two separate domains. To move the field forward and to adequately meet the research needs of sport tourism an interdisciplinary approach needs to be adopted. Without this, the lack of integration and the inconsistencies in the work of various scholars around the world will continue to impede progress in this field.

What is the research agenda arising out of this review that requires an interdisciplinary approach? De Knop (1990) points out the need to know more about the different types of sport tourist in terms of behaviours, motivations, and experiences. Several studies in this review indicated that sport tourists differ in levels of commitment to sport, both as participants and as spectators (Hall, 1992b; Getz, 1998; Irwin & Sandler, 1998; Rice, 1987). Sport tourists differ in skill levels (Richards, 1996) and they differ in their use of the host community (De Knop, 1990; Nogawa et al., 1996). Are active sport tourists also event sport tourists or nostalgia sport tourists? Nostalgia sport tourism is certainly a topic that requires both descriptive and explanatory research. Are nostalgia sport tourists likely to visit other heritage tourism sites or are they more likely to take part in other forms of sport tourism? Nogawa et al. (1996) discuss the possibility of encouraging sport tourists to stay longer at a destination and visit the local tourist attractions. Will such a tourism marketing strategy only work with particular types of sport tourist, perhaps the less committed sport tourist?

It seems that for the “serious” sport tourist, the destination is not as important as the opportunity to enjoy their sport (Green & Chalip, 1998). What impact does sport tourism have on a community? Which methods provide the most comprehensive and accurate assessment of the impacts of sport tourism? What role does seasonality play in sport tourism? Do event sport tourists travel to watch different sports at different times in the year? Are active winter sport tourists also active summer sport tourists? What roles do gender, class, race, and life-stage play in sport tourism?

While the answers to these questions have obvious applications for marketing and managing sport tourism, there is a need to gain a more in-depth understanding of the behaviours of the sport tourist and the dynamics underlying sport tourism. As the review in this paper shows, much of the work to date has been descriptive, without the import of theory. If a more in-depth understanding and a sound body of knowledge are to be developed, there is a need to explain and to theorise about the needs,

expectations, and behaviours of sport tourists in future studies. Pigeasson (1997) advocates that we adopt a sociological perspective in order to achieve this task. Yet, theory from anthropology, social psychology, political science, management, and marketing may also help us to understand the sport tourist better. Moreover, in the quest for more integration in sport tourism research, future studies should not limit themselves to a single theoretical domain. One way to develop the necessary interdisciplinarity would be to generate more collaborative work among scholars from different disciplines. This may be more challenging to implement than it sounds. Obstacles such as the “parent disciplines” not recognising sport and tourism as legitimate avenues of study, academic territoriality across disciplines (and even between academic departments), as well as clarion calls for independent development of theory may each prove to be impediments.

Scholars in leisure studies, tourism science, and sport management have begun to question the “borrowing of theory” from other disciplines. Jackson and Burton (1989) conducted an international survey of recreation and leisure studies scholars concerning their perceptions of the state of the field. Jackson and Burton found that “by far the greatest need for research in the coming decade . . . was for the development of a consistent and coherent body of theory” (p. 19).

Another recommendation resulting from Jackson and Burton’s survey is that we should explore and use a range of research methods. Getz (1998) similarly advocates the use of “alternative” methods for future research in event sport tourism. Survey research has been the method of choice in most of the studies reviewed in this paper. While there was evidence that some scholars had employed other methods, such as diaries (Faulkner & Raybould, 1995; Irwin et al., 1996) and interviews and observation (Green & Chalip, 1998), there is a need to expand the range of the methods used in the field. If some of the questions posed in this paper for future research are to be answered adequately, qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews and ethnographies need to be employed. There is also room for experimental research. In many studies, more sophisticated multivariate statistical analyses need to be employed.

The lack of academic unity has implications for the education of future tourism practitioners. First, the territoriality over knowledge domains may prevent students from gaining exposure to a comprehensive curriculum which incorporates an adequate blend of sport and tourism studies. At present, students majoring in sport management are provided a curriculum with little reference to tourism, while tourism management students obtain curricula with little reference to sport.

This discussion gives rise to another question: What should the curriculum for future sport tourism practitioners include? Is there a necessity for specialist sport tourism degrees? The Sports Tourism International Council has made a start at integrating research, information, and career development in the field. The University of Luton in the United Kingdom has developed a sport tourism degree. However,

one can not help but feel that economics will play a big role in directing the future education practices of this field. On the one hand, some universities might view offering sport tourism degrees as a lucrative strategy, reminiscent of some of the explosive growth in the field of sport management when it became apparent that demand for physical education degrees had declined. Physical education departments found they could bolster enrolments by offering sport management degrees. Similarly, the competition for dollars from student enrolments may work against the collaboration necessary to provide students with an interdisciplinary education. The lack of an interdisciplinary education may be even more profoundly felt at the post graduate level. The future research needs and recommendations for sport tourism as a field certainly necessitate exposure to a variety of perspectives. This brings us the full-circle to the lack of integration in policy development. If students are educated in an environment characterised by artificial boundaries between bodies of knowledge, their training will itself perpetuate the fragmentation of sport tourism practice.

The root cause for many of the issues facing this field is that for too long sport and tourism have been viewed as separate domains – at the levels of policy, education, and practice. Obviously, not all tourism involves sport and not all sport involves tourism. This raises another question: Where should students and scholars of sport tourism be located in the academic structure? Until questions such as this are resolved, the field will continue to lack the necessary integration.

Concluding Comments

Around the world, developments in sport tourism continue to occur. This year alone marks the publication of at least three sport tourism textbooks. Conferences devoted to sport tourism, which have been held since 1986, are becoming more common. Even the latest general travel and tourism textbooks are starting to list sport tourism as a distinct category of tourism (Gartner, 1996). These are just some of the developments in the field. It appears that sport tourism as an academic field of study and as a distinct component of the tourism industry will continue to grow, albeit in a somewhat fragmented manner. If the Walt Disney Company is used as a barometer of tourism trends, then sport tourism is surely on the rise. The company invested US\$200 million in sport tourism by opening the Disney Wide World of Sports Complex in Orlando, Florida. That facility is an addition to the already extensive sports facilities found on the Walt Disney World Resort properties. The contemporary growth of sport tourism infrastructure and sport tourism research suggests that sport tourism has reached critical mass.

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