A critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance events in South Africa

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Abstract

Sport and sport events contribute a big percentage to the growth of sport tourism in South Africa. South Africa also hosts some of the most significant endurance events such as the Cape Argus, Cape Epic, Midmar Mile, Two Oceans Marathon and the Comrades Marathon. These endurance events have the potential to enhance endurance sport in South Africa and can also be used as a tool for tourism. It is important however, to determine the endurance sport consumption behaviour for participants and spectators who attend these events, since their behaviour and habits will influence their choices pertaining to travelling for sport events and even tourism. Sport tourism literature currently does not provide information and insight on this matter.

Due to the lack of literature pertaining to endurance sport consumption behaviour, a description had to be provided to aid with the study. Endurance sport consumption behaviour (ESCB) in this study is therefore described as *behaviour revealed by sport consumers who adapt their lifestyles after realising their desire to be self-complete, by testing and developing their bodies through sport activities. Sport consumption becomes the essence when participating in competitive, nature-related and fitness activities for both professional and amateur sport consumers. For spectatorship, these behaviours will differ, since the intentions of fans and supporters as well as the reasons for spectating differ, but sport events give them the opportunity to engage in sport on a different level, whether for the event or for the participant. These behavioural intentions can be influenced by the sport consumers' attitude and subjective norms. ESCB* is influenced by three main factors and includes: the demographic and behavioural profile; the motives and travel behaviour and the commitment towards the sport/event. The goal of the study was therefore to do a critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance sport events.

In order to achieve this aim, secondary data of five endurance events (Cape Argus, Cape Epic, Midmar Mile, Two Oceans Marathon and the Comrades Marathon) were pooled. A total of 6453 questionnaires were distributed between the respective events for both participants and spectators attending these sport events and were included in the statistical analysis.

From a first point of view, these sport consumers might seem homogenous, but when analysing the results, it became evident that sport participants and spectators (with regards to participation and support of endurance events) were not homogenous pertaining to their sport consumption behaviour at the respective endurance sport events. There are four main aspects that drive ESCB for endurance participants, namely the type of participant who pursues the sport; the age of the participant; the type of sport and the motives to participate. Four travel motives for these

endurance sport participants were *commitment, intrinsic achievement, escape and socialisation* and the *challenge* these events provide. Endurance participants furthermore see sport events as an *opportunity to travel.* The spectators' ESCB were driven by their socio-demographic and behavioural profile and the motives for supporting the respective endurance events. Endurance sport spectators were motivated by the *social interaction* and the *sport novelty* of the sport events. Their memorable experiences were influenced by the event's *personnel and provision, amenities, comfort and visibility, infrastructure* and *marketing*.

The study made literature contributions pertaining to the description of ESCB, which were lacking from sport tourism literature. Based on the results, recommendations were made, not only based on ESCB, but also on how these types of events can be used to enhance sport tourism in South Africa as well as the participation and support for these types of sport. Spectators' views on endurance sport events were also lacking. The study indicated that these consumers were personally involved with the participants' journey to success, compared to supporters who attended for the event in specific. In this study, sport consumer profiles are compared on a large scale, which have not yet been done in current sport literature, providing a holistic overview of endurance sport consumers. Sport consumer profiles are influenced by the sport context and the marketing of these events, but most importantly the ESCB. Practical contributions include the specialisation for endurance sport events, the growth for sport and tourism and insights to consumer behaviour for sport event organisers and marketers. This study is important, especially for sport marketers and organisations, in order to ensure the long term sustainability and competitiveness for the sport industry as well as for expanding sport tourism and tourism in South Africa.

Key words: Endurance sport consumption behaviour; endurance sport; sport participants; sport spectators; sport events; sport tourism; motives; factors influencing consumption behaviour; sport profile; sport consumption.

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Chapter 1: Problem statement, objectives and method of research

1.1 Introduction

The latest statistics from the tourism body, United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2014) recorded better than expected growth in international tourism arrivals of 5% in 2013 to nearly 1.1 billion (Travel Trade Gazette, 2014:11). According to the UNWTO (2014:1, 8) world tourism arrivals were 1078 million in 2013 and international arrivals in Sub-Sahara countries rose by 5.2% to 36 million in 2013, compared with 34 million during the previous year. Sport tourism is one of the fastest rising sectors contributing to these statistics (Gibson, 1998:155; Bull & Weed, 1999:143; Swart & Bob, 2007:373; Kruger & Saayman, 2014:137). The growth rates for the sport tourism industry are estimated at approximately 10%-20% per annum (Travel Biz Monitor, 2011). Due to the immense growth and interest in travel, focused on values referring to the human body, such as health and fitness, various organisations have started to organise sport events and sport tourism packages to incorporate these needs such as physical exercise, sports and other types of activity undertaken voluntarily during vacations (European Travel Commission, 2006; Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006:75; Eurostat, 2008).

Sport events have grown enormously during the last two decades, with events as the most universal type of sport tourism activity (Swart & Bob, 2007:376). The term *sport event* refers to the organisation, marketing, implementation and evaluation of any type of event related to sport, and can range from small-scale to hallmark and mega events (Graham, Neirotti & Goldblatt, 2001:98; Swart & Bob, 2007:375). These big events are coupled with high media coverage (of both the event and destination) and attract large volumes of spectators and participants (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002:101; Chalip, Green & Hill, 2003:214; Kim & Petrick, 2005:25; Swart & Bob, 2007:375). .

The Department of Sport and Recreation of South Africa (2012:5) reported that sport tourism is estimated to contribute more than R6 billion to the South African tourism industry. Furthermore, 10% of all foreign visitors travel to South Africa in order to support or participate in a sport event, with expenditure as high as R250 million each year (UNWTO, 2014:10). It is therefore not surprising that in South Africa, as in the majority of other countries in the world, the hosting of large-scale and small-scale sport events is regarded as part of a broader tourism strategy, aimed

at developing the cities and that of the country as a whole (Kotzé, 2006:282; Matheson, 2006:2). These types of events include a variety of endurance sport events ranging from marathons, cycling and swimming events for instance the Comrades Marathon, Cape Argus Cycle Tour and Midmar Mile, to name but a few.

According to Buman, Brewer, Cornelius, Van Raalte and Petitpas (2008a:178) and Jeffrey (2010:30) these types of 'endurance' or 'ultra-races' require determination, dedication and tough training programmes. In a comparison between individual and team sport, Ilyasi and Salehian (2011:527) found that the difference between individual sport consumers and team sport is that individual sport consumers have a higher degree of extraversion, openness and conscientiousness compared to consumers who participate in team sport. Factors that can influence sport participants' motivation to achieve success can include: the expectations of spectators, managers and team coaches influence and income generated from the sport as well as win-orientation in team sport consumers. Team sport consumers have a greater tendency to obtain credibility and social status that can increase success motivation (Kajbafnezhad, Ahadi, Heidarie, Askari & Enayati, 2011:249).

Endurance sport participants, on the other hand, are 'serious sport consumers', as Shipway and Jones (2008:62) as well as Getz and McConnell (2011:335) call them. Endurance sport consumers can therefore be classified as special interest groups of consumers, since they travel for a distinct and specific reason, and have interest-based motives for travelling to an endurance sports event (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997:12; Cook, Yale & Marqua, 2010:52).

With the afore-mentioned in mind, Gibson (2003:246) asserts that there are three overlapping categories of sport consumption: active sport consumers (consumers who travel to take part in sport: sport participants), event sport consumers (consumers who travel to watch sport: supporters/spectators) and nostalgic sport consumers (participants visit sport-related attractions such as famous stadiums). As the research field pertaining to sport consumers and their behaviour grows, it becomes increasingly clear that the sport consumption experience is a complex one (Crawford, 2004:80). A study conducted by Ying (2012) indicates that there are three types of sport consumption:

a) physical sports consumption;
b) participatory sports consumption, for example when products like sportswear, footwear, equipment, fitness equipment, sports drinks etc. are consumed or purchased and
c) watch-type sports consumption, which mainly refers to the people who purchase tickets to watch sports such as consumer behaviour and performance.

For the purpose of this study, sport consumption entails continuous participatory sport consumption and watch-type sport consumption, as well as sport consumption behaviour in terms of influential factors, such as sport context, demographic profiles, marketing of sport events, experience in the type of event, motivation for participation and support and economic factors. These factors can influence both participants' and spectators' behaviour and need to be analysed in the endurance sport context. An analysis is needed to understand the sport consumption behaviour with regards to these factors to determine how participation in endurance sport events can contribute to sport tourism. To date limited research has however been done on individual endurance sport spectators, analysing and comparing more than one endurance event with one another, as well as the various factors that can have an influence on sport consumption (Getz & McConnell, 2011; Zauhar, 2004; Edge, Bishop, Hill-Haas, Dawson & Goodman, 2006; Hallmann & Breuer, 2010; Khodayari, Saiiari, Dehghani, 2011; Saayman & Saayman, 2012; Lamont & Kennelly, 2012). This requires an in-depth assessment of endurance sport events and the profiles of these sport consumers and their sport consumption behaviour across all three overlapping categories of sport tourism (the participants, the spectators and related tourism activities) in the country (South Africa).

In the following section background for the study is provided, followed by the problem statement. The goal and objectives for the study are provided, followed by the method of the research. Concepts and definitions are provided before the preliminary chapter classifications are discussed.

1.2 Background of the study

A long-standing goal for sport marketers has been the desire to profile and understand the motives and behaviour of sport consumers, including both participants and spectators (Stewart, Smith & Nicholson, 2003:206), especially as sport consumers are the pivot upon which sport events leverage its reputation (Smith & Stewart, 2007:155). Ying (2012:2020) indicates that sport consumption has been gradually recognised as an important aspect to keep in mind when measuring the quality of residents' life. Sports consumption flexibility is relatively high. The growth rate is phenomenal with consumers' incomes rising, and as the prices of sports products change, diversification of demand is also evident (Ying, 2012:2020) and needs to be investigated to better understand the significance of the various opportunities that sport can hold for South Africa.

However sport consumer profiles, behaviours, motives and experiences can vary considerably (Weed, 2006:195; Taks, Chalip, Green, Kesenne & Martyn, 2009:122). Cohen and Warlop

(2001:387) suggest that although many marketing models are designed to predict attitudes and behavioural intentions, it is more critical to understand why consumers purchase particular products and services, and in this case why sport consumers consume (participate and support) endurance sport events. Masters and Ogles (1995:73) and Stoll, Wurth and Ogles (2000:57) indicated that the distance of the event trained for and participated in has a significant effect on athletes' reasons for participating in challenging sport events. McGehee, Yoon and Cardenas (2003:318) indicated that individuals with high involvement in endurance sport increase their frequency of participation in events which will lead to an increase in overnight travel to events and spending on sport-related goods and services. Funk, Toohey and Bruun (2007:230) note that travelling to foreign countries to participate in endurance distance events, such as marathons, require considerable dedication and as such an ongoing involvement with the sport. Kruger, Saayman and Ellis's (2011b) study, to date, is the only study conducted in South Africa pertaining to endurance sport spectators' memorable experience. The aspects that can influence consumption for spectators have not yet been studied, especially in the individual endurance sport context.

Referring to the latter, Figure 1.1 gives an overview of the possible factors that can have an influence on sport consumption, which includes but are not limited to: the demographic profile of consumers; economic factors; motivation or the need to participate in the sporting event or to support it; the sport context; experience in the type of event and the marketing of sport events. These factors are of importance because they can influence sport consumer behaviour in general. It is important to note that these components are criteria that can drive sport consumption but are not the same for every sport consumer. If these factors are analysed the consumption of sport can improve, thereby improving the marketing communication between service providers and consumers. According to Cassidy and Pegg (2008) and Funk *et al.* (2007:245), sport consumption entails primarily establishing a set of motivational factors in anticipation of the fulfilment of the desired needs. More attention to the expectations and experiences of the sport consumers must be given by sport event planners as suggested by Green and Chalip (1998:288), because if sport consumption is experienced more positively, individuals will continue to participate, support, and they will become more committed to maintaining their level of involvement (Casper & Stellino, 2008:94). From a spectator point of view, according to Cunningham and Kwon (2003:127), attracting people to stadiums, sporting events or parks not only increase ticket revenues and people in the area, but also increases additional revenue sources, such as parking, concessions and merchandise. If these factors and aspects are understood it can positively affect sport consumption for users, direct and indirectly organisations and other key players will benefit from this and so doing growing the sport industry.

Figure 1.1 gives an overview of aspects and factors that can influence sport consumption and which must be taken into account when sport consumption is analysed. It is important to note that the influential factors are not limited to those indicated in Figure 1.1; however they are the most applicable to the present research. These aspects will consequently briefly be discussed.

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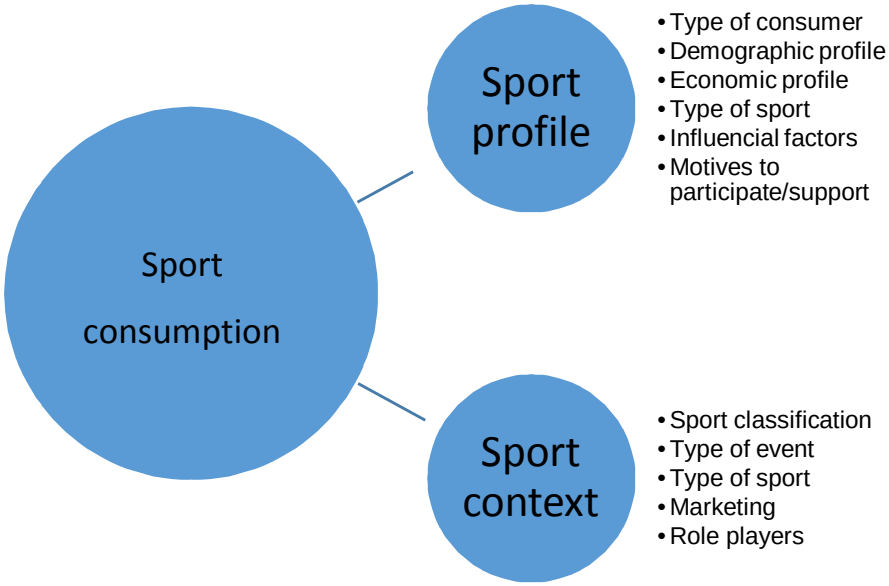


Figure 1.1: Factors influencing sport consumption (Source: Adapted from Hritz & Ramos, 2008:302; Funk *et al.*, 2007:243; Smith & Stewart, 2007:163; Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip & Green , 2008:167; Filo, Funk, O'Brien, 2009:370)

1.2.1 Sport profile

The sport profile is determined by aspects such as the type of consumer, the demographic and economic profile of these consumers, the type of sport they are interested in and the various factors that influence their consumption. Market segmentation is required to divide potential sport consumers into identifiable groups, who share similar characteristics and exhibit common behaviour (Kyle, Kerstetter & Guadagnolo, 2002:2; Andrews & Currim, 2003:180). Segmentation furthermore allows marketers to identify potential target markets, profile consumers and customise marketing strategies for these groups (Green & Chalip, 1998:288; Keller & Kotler, 2006:122; Casper & Stellino, 2008:98). Marketers and sports event organisers must therefore recognise that not all sport consumers have the same profiles, interests and needs and should be regarded as heterogeneous (Weed & Bull, 2004:49; Hinch & Higham, 2011:116; Weed, 2006:195). These are not the only aspects that one can consider but some of these aspects are consequently discussed.

Demographic profile: Demographic variables, in particular, play a mediating role on sport consumer motivation, and include age (Armstrong, 2002; Hritz & Ramos, 2008), gender (Wann,

1995; Wann, Schrader & Wilson, 1999b; Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End & Jacquemotte, 2000; James & Ridinger, 2002; Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Robinson & Gammon 2004; Dann & Buchanan; 2006; Funk *et al*., 2007), income (Armstrong, 2002), level of education and race (Wann, Bilyeu, Brennan, Osborn, & Gambouras, 1999a; Zhang, Smith, Pease & Mahar, 1996; Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Armstrong, 2002; Smith & Stewart, 2007; Snelgrove, Taks. Chalip & Green, 2008). From the demographic variables explored, gender has received the most attention in the research field to date (Wann *et al*., 1999a; Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Fink *et al.*, 2002; James & Ridinger, 2002). Smith and Steward (2007:165) made the observation that sport gender is mainly men, since its values are based around aggression, mental toughness, external discipline and character building. However, females are frequently viewed differently in sport compared to men; women are mainly perceived as sport supporters/fans (Dietz-Uhler *et al.*, 2000:222).

Economic profile: Economic factors, such as admission prices and income of consumers, can have an influence (Pan, Gabert, McGaugh & Branvold, 1997:454). Understanding consumers' spending behaviour can help event organisers increase the economic impact (Saayman, Krugell & van der Merwe, 2007:187), which is especially important for sport events. One of the goals of most sporting events is to make a positive economic contribution to the city/town where the event is held. Consumer expenditure is one of the most decisive variables of analysis for tourist destinations, since it determines the tourism sectors' success (Frechtling, 2006:32), the same principle applies to the sport tourism sector since most of the endurance sport consumers pay for travelling costs to the events themselves. Consumers need to budget if they want to attend sport events and this can have an influence on the behaviour of attending or being a consumer in general.

Motivation or the reasons for participation and support: Sport consumers make decisions to satisfy their internal needs when participating or supporting sport events (Crompton & McKay, 1997:432). Motivation may vary from one person (fan or athlete) to another, from market to market, event to event, as well as from one decision-making process to the next (Uysal, Gahan & Martin, 1993:7). Spectators can be motivated by psychological factors (to escape, to experience the beauty of the sport and entertainment), and socio-cultural factors (to spend time with family, group affiliation and personal enhancement) (Wenner & Gantz, 1989; Wann, 1995; Wann *et al*., 1999a; Milne & McDonald, 1999; Trail & James, 2001; Guilianotti, 2002; James & Ridinger, 2002; Weed & Bull, 2004; Robinson & Trail, 2005). Participants' motives can vary from self-satisfaction to healthy living and accomplishment. Self-determination for endurance sport participants speak of the need to experience, to accomplish and the need to be physically active (McDonald *et al.*, 2002; Ritchie & Adair, 2004; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Dann & Buchanan, 2006; Hritz & Ramos, 2008). The sense of accomplishment will influence continuous behaviour in endurance sport events – to perform better than the previous time.

1.2.2 Sport context

The sport context (type of sport, sport location and reciprocity), competition (balance of competition, uncertainty, quality of teams/athletes, likelihood of winning), physical environment (venue and facilities), promotional aspects (special experiences and product attachment) and social context factors (alternative activities, social change, fashion and fractured traditions) can also be considered when analysing endurance sport consumers (Crossett, 1995; Kahle, Kambra & Rose, 1996; Mahoney & Moorman, 2000; Dobson & Goddard, 2001; Bernthal & Graham, 2003; Crawford, 2004; Rein, Kotler & Shields, 2006).

The mechanism of sport consumer attachment and how some sport consumers become more or less attached than others, also need to be taken into consideration when analysing sport consumer behaviour (experience in the type of event) (Smith & Stewart, 2007:163; Filo *et al*., 2009:365). For example, the degree to which a sport consumer identifies with a sport may predict the participant's or supporter's loyalty and the extent to which they are prepared to sacrifice resources such as time (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Funk, Trail & Anderson, 2002; Matsouko, Chelledurai & Harada, 2003). Research has furthermore revealed that sport consumption is connected to the context within which the sporting experience occurs, which means that a variety of broader cultural, economic and physical factors and circumstances can influence the sport consumer's decision-making process (Smith & Stewart, 2007:169).

Endurance sport is not for everyone and no two athletes are the same – therefore the behaviour will differ and need to be determined. According to Crossett (1995:35), the attachments that sport supporters establish with clubs, teams and players are reinforced when the athletes themselves demonstrate 'reciprocity' by pronouncing their loyalty to the club and the supporters/fans. The sport context (in this case the behaviour of athletes themselves) may reinforce the behaviour and motivation of sport supporters/fans to undertake lengthy journeys to attend important matches or events. Understanding the factors that affect consumer behaviour can have both direct and indirect benefits for organisations, and a positive influence on the entire marketing programme of sport organisations.

Based on the afore-mentioned, it is clear that a variety of factors and aspects can influence sport consumption and therefore be taken into account for analysis. Sport-based events and organisations should take these factors into consideration and identify the commitment sport consumers make in their sport consumption. By identifying and analysing the importance of sport consumption, event organisers and other role players will be able to address the essential role in

achieving the goals of sport events, including revenue generation (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004:68; Funk *et al*., 2007:815; McDonald *et al*., 2002:100). This has been confirmed in previous research done in South Africa at various endurance events, like the Pick 'n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour (Streicher, 2010), the Halfway Telkom Midmar Mile (Sookrajh, 2008; Kruger *et al.*, 2011b), the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon (Kotze, 2006; Kruger, Botha & Saayman, 2011a; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a) and the Comrades Marathon (Kruger & Saayman, 2012c).

From a methodological point of view, these studies (Streicher, 2010; Kruger *et al.,* 2011b; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a; Kruger & Saayman, 2012c) have shown that a combination of variables and factors should be used to profile sport consumers comprehensively. The results also indicated that sport consumers do not have homogeneous profiles. They have different motives (intrinsic, extrinsic or a combination) for participating and supporting, and these motives are event-specific - different sporting events feed different motives to participate and support. Sport consumers also differ in terms of their level of commitment, spending and tourism-related behaviour.

1.3 Problem statement

To determine the essence of endurance sport, it is necessary to do a critical assessment of endurance sport consumption, in order to determine how these sport events differ from one another with regards to their consumers as well as how their consumption can influence sport tourism. This will aid with expanding tourism in the areas where these events are held, as well as the growth and increased awareness and exposure of endurance sport. This is important as sport events play a fundamental role in tourism (Kruger & Saayman, 2012a; 2012c). Endurance sport consumers' profiles will be different, in terms of the factors influencing their sport consumption behaviour. It is therefore essential to analyse these factors to better understand endurance consumers, in order to attract more consumers to endurance events and for better marketing of the endurance sport events in general (Kruger & Saayman, 2012a; Kruger *et al., 2011b*. Factors and aspects that can influence sport consumption have been identified briefly in Figure 1.1, and include demographic factors like age, economic factors such as income, sport context for example sport location, reasons for participating and experience in the type of event. These aspects are all of importance when the analysis is done. To the author's knowledge, no comparisons have to date been made with regards to both participants and spectators at endurance sport events in South Africa (Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

In addition, while there are numerous sport events held all over the world, including in South Africa, there is currently little research to the authors' knowledge that has compared these types of individual endurance events with one another. Marketers and event organisers can use this

information to design cost-effective marketing strategies and develop additional sport events in different regions, in order to attract new consumers to regions where tourism is currently lower compared to more popular tourism regions, such as the Western Cape. Continuous research at various sporting events is of importance to better understand the endurance sport behaviour of sport consumers in South Africa. Sport, tourism and events provide consumers with experiences (Shipway & Fyall, 2012:3). There is a universal line and therefore the interaction between sport, tourism and events need to be understood in order to consider sport tourism as an "experience". Within the context of the development of sports events research, it is suggested that sport events behaviours must be understood, rather than just described, which is in line with the concerns noted by Gibson (2005:198) and Weed (2006:26). Whilst both authors comment more specifically within the sport tourism literature, their thoughts are equally applicable to more general-emerging studies in the domain of international sports events (Shipway & Fyall, 2012:3).

Kruger and Saayman (2012a) conclude in their study that these types of studies are important for sport tourism in order to address consumer needs, and in so doing create a memorable experience for sport consumers. Tourism growth will enhance if the memorable experience is met. Sport tourism marketers, sport event organisers as well as destination marketers can use this information to enhance marketing for the various sport events, sport in general and tourism destinations. Attendance at sport events will increase, thus leading to an increase in sport participation. Since spectators engage with participants, physical activity will enhance, not only for spectators but for participants as well, making consumers more health conscious. Policy formulation and possible national strategies to enhance and encourage sport can also be considered. This will lead to a positive economic influence for the destination as well as the growth for sport tourism, events and the sport itself, which in return will aid South Africa as a sport tourism destination and tourism destination in general.

Knowledge of sport consumers in South Africa however remains under-developed. The numbers are growing but these endurance events can only accommodate a certain amount of consumers. In order to keep these events sustainable various aspects still have to be investigated (Kruger & Saayman, 2014), including:

- To what extent do the profiles and travel motives of participants and spectators differ at different types of endurance sport?
- To what extent do the sport consumption behaviour (in terms of repeat participation/support, events participating in/supporting and the visitation of tourism activities to name but a few) of participants and spectators differ at different endurance sport events?
- What are possible explanations for the differences in sport consumers?
- How do different sport events and endurance sports appeal to different sport consumers?

This research will take the afore-mentioned questions into consideration and do a critical assessment of sport tourism behaviour of endurance participants and spectators in South Africa. The research results will contribute to better understand the sport consumers and will provide marketers and event planners the opportunity to improve marketing strategies, which will in return grow the sport and tourism market. Researchers and sport practitioners will have better insight pertaining to these consumers, in order to effectively use these types of endurance sport events as vehicles for tourism, but also to expand the participation in and support of endurance sport across the country. The questions remain: what influences the consumption of these sport consumers, what keeps them driven to continue with these endurance events, and how does the sport consumption influence sport tourism, if at all?

1.4 Goal of the study

This study's goal and objectives are outlined in the next section.

1.4.1 Goal

To do a critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance sport events in South Africa, for participants and sport spectators.

From here on forward sport participants and sport spectators will be referred to as sport consumers, unless individually mentioned.

1.4.2 Objectives

The main goal of this study is based on the following objectives:

Objective 1

- To analyse sport tourism, sport events and endurance events by means of a literature review.

Objective 2

- To analyse the sport consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers in a sport tourism context by means of a literature review.

Objective 3

- To analyse the concept Endurance Sport Consumption Behaviour (ESCB) as well as ESCB for both endurance sport participants and spectators.

Objective 4

- To give a theoretical overview of statistical methods used in the empirical study.

Objective 5

- To do a comprehensive assessment of endurance sport consumption behaviour in South Africa at five international endurance sport events in South Africa namely: the Comrades Marathon; Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour; Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon; Telkom Midmar Mile and the Cape Epic by means of an empirical survey.

Objective 6

- To draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to this study in terms of endurance sport consumer profiles, factors influencing endurance sport consumption behaviour (ESCB) and future research pertaining to endurance sport consumers’ consumption behaviour.

1.5 Method of research

This research followed a joint approach: a literature review and empirical surveys.

1.5.1 Literature study

The sport events industry, the role of sport events (team and individual sport) in the tourism industry and the different sport consumers (participants and spectators) behaviour were studied in an extensive literature study. Various sources were used including articles and journals from event management, tourism analysis, the South African journal of economic and management sciences and international sport journals. Books on sport tourism and behaviour of participants and spectators as well as the internet were consulted for this study. Databases that were used include: Source Direct; Google books; Accredited Journals; Emerald and SA E Publications to name just a few.

Key words include: sport tourism; sport consumption; consumption behaviour; sport participants; sport spectators; endurance sport; team sport and sport events.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The next step was to conduct the empirical analysis to profile and understand sport consumption and sport consumers in South Africa.

1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

For the purpose of this study, secondary data was used because more detailed and in-depth analysis could therefore be conducted (Tustin, Lingthelm, Martins & van Wyk, 2005:484). Descriptive research was used for this study, because it provided a very useful initial examination of the data. The purpose of descriptive analysis provided first insights into the nature of the responses obtained, as reflected in the distribution of the values for each variable of interest. It helped to detect errors in the coding and the data-capturing processes, provided a means of presenting the data in a transparent manner with tables and graphs and provided summary measures of 'typical' or 'average' responses as well as the extent of variation in responses for given variables. The method provided an early opportunity for evaluating whether the distributional assumptions of subsequent statistical tests were likely to be satisfactory (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:523). Five of the larger and well-known sport events were included in the research, since they were similar in character (all are endurance events) but attract different sport consumers (marathon runners, open water swimmers and cyclists). With the exception of the one event, both the participants and spectators at the identified events were included in the surveys. This research was of a quantitative nature and structured questionnaires were used to collect data. All five events were surveyed in 2012 in order to accurately compare the results. Probability sampling was used for the research and will be discussed in the next section.

1.5.2.2 Sampling

For each survey, the number of participants and spectators for each event was the base from which the samples were drawn. To calculate the appropriate samples Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:607) sampling formula was used:

$$S = [X^2NP\ (1-P)] / [d^2\ (N-1) + x^2\ P\ (1-P)]$$

Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:607) formula indicates that s is the required sample, X^2 the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841), *N* the population size, *P* the population proportion (.50), and *d* the degree of accuracy, in other words

the confidence level, expressed as a proportion (.05). The required sample for a population of 1 000 000 according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) should be 384. With trained fieldworkers, no less than 400 questionnaires per survey were included and therefore approximately 4000 questionnaires were completed for the entire study (5 events). See Table 1.1.

1.5.2.3 Development of questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix A and B) used in this research was based on the works of McDonald *et al.* (2002); Ogles and Masters (2003); Lachausse (2006); Wann (1995); Trail and James (2001); Milne and McDonald (1999); Weed and Bull (2004); Guilianotti (2002) and was sub-divided into three sections. Section A captured demographic details (gender, home language, age, occupation, home province, marital status and preferred accommodation) as well as spending behaviour (number of persons paid for, group size, length of stay and expenditure) while Section B focused on specific information concerning the event (categories participated in, initiator of participation, other events supported/participated in, information sources regarding the event and evaluation of the event). Section C measured the motivational factors and the participants' and supporters' preference for competing in and supporting the event. The items included in this section were measured on a five point Likert scale and respondents were asked to indicate how important they considered each item on the scale (1=not at all important; 2=less important; 3=neither important nor less important; 4=very important and 5=extremely important). The questionnaire was adapted for each individual event.

Table 1.1: Number of questionnaires completed in the various surveys

Event	Date of Survey	Place	Questionnaires distributed		Questionnaires completed	
			Participants	Spectators	Participants	Spectators
Telkom Midmar Mile	11 to 12 February 2012	Pietermaritzburg	450	400	348	258
Pick 'n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour	8 to 10 March 2012 (Cyclist) 11 March 2012 (Spectators)	Cape Town	450	400	364	348
Cape Epic	24 March 2012	Cape Town	250		205	
Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon	4-6 April 2012 (participants) 7 April 2012 (spectators)	Cape Town	450	400	438	134
Comrades Marathon	29 May to 2 June 2012 (participants) 3 June 2012 (spectators)	Durban	450	400	360	348
Total			2050	1600	1725	1088

1.5.3 Survey

Table 1.1 gives an overview of the surveys that have been completed. Participants have been surveyed during registration at each event, while spectators were surveyed on the day of the event. Self-administrated questionnaires were used to gather information. The fieldworkers were trained to ensure that they understand the aim of the study as well as the questionnaire. Respondents were briefed about the purpose of the research before-hand to ensure that they participate willingly. Questionnaires for the Cape Epic were distributed between the amount of teams (250 teams) that were entered into the event, thus the reason for the smaller amount distributed. Permission from the organisers were only obtained to conduct a participant survey, therefore a spectator survey was not conducted. A detailed description of each of the events surveyed is reserved for Chapter 5.

1.5.4 Data analyses

After the completion of each survey, the data was pooled for both participant and spectator respondents and captured in Microsoft Excel. The data was analysed by Statistical Services (North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus), using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 2011). Amongst other factor analyses, ANOVAs and chi-square-tests were used to analyse the data. A brief description of each of these analyses is consequently provided and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4:

Factor analysis identifies basic factors that were explained over a larger number of other related variables in a parsimonious way. A factor is a sort of super-variable with its commonness expressed by the group of variables having high inter-correlations, but low correlations with any other group (Burns & Burns, 2008:461). Factor analyses were done on the motives and travel behaviour of endurance sport participants, as well as factor analyses on the motives and the memorable experience factors for spectators attending endurance sport events.

ANOVAs (analysis of variance techniques) were used for testing hypothesis to determine if mean differences exist between the various sport events (Burns & Burns, 2008:285).

Chi-square tested hypotheses about the independence of frequency counts in the various categories pertaining to the endurance events (Bryman & Bell, 2011:355). Chi-square tests were used to determine whether additional significant socio-demographic differences for participants and the spectators (respectively) existed between the various event groups.

1.6 Defining the concepts

The following concepts are used regularly throughout the thesis and therefore require some clarification.

1.6.1 Sport tourism

Gibson (1998:49) defined sport tourism as: 'leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to support, or to honour attractions associated with sport activities'. According to Jakovlev, Koteski and Bardarova (2014:4) tourism has long been more than just beach holidays, especially the younger generation who wants adventures. They are interested in extreme sports which provides opportunities for excitement and adrenaline while travelling. Sports tourism therefore means using all types of sport to improve tourism, with expanding the interest and general well-being of the sport and the community (Saayman & Uys, 2003:293).

1.6.2 Sport consumption

According to the author's knowledge, there is currently no distinctive definition for endurance sport consumption. It is important to define the role players who will be involved and who will be included in the definition. Role players included in the definition are participants and spectators (from here on forward referred to as sport consumers, unless individually specified), sponsors for the various events, event organisers as well as marketers of the events. Behaviour entails a specific response to a certain stimuli (situation). Components such as demographical factors like age, economic factors such as income, sport context for example sport location, reasons for participating, experience in the type of event and marketing of sport events are some of the mechanisms that influence sport consumption when travelling to a destination. Consumer behaviour can vary and can change as the motive for the travelling changes. According to Stewart *et al.* (2003:206) sport consumers can display a bewildering array of values, attitudes and behaviours, but they also indicated that not all consumers are equally passionate, fanatical or loyal towards a certain sport or team (Shank, 2002; Westerbreek, Turner & Ingerson, 2002). Some consumers follow a team or sport star on the internet, others travel after the team or individual who part take to support them – consumers experience sport in different ways and with various affiliations to meet different needs (Stewart *et al.*, 2003:211).

Sport consumption can there be summarised as sport consumer behaviour associated with sport in order to meet different needs of these consumers (participants and spectators) and key role players (such as sport event organisers, sponsors and marketers for example) when attending, supporting, participating or even organising sport events.

1.6.3 Endurance sport

For endurance sport the ability to withstand longer strain, because the distance, time and the level of anaerobic fitness/intensity requirements of successful completion are considerably higher than when compared to other sport events (Mann & Schaad, 2001; Kellmann, 2002:149). Endurance sport consumers can thus be identified as specific travel consumers who have specific interest (endurance sport) and will travel for this reason. The consumers' interest-based motives aid with their travelling to participate or support endurance sports event (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997:12; Cook *et al*., 2010:52).

1.6.4 Endurance sport participant

Endurance sport participants are, as Shipway and Jones (2008:62) as well as Getz and McConnell (2011:36) call them, 'serious' sport consumers. Endurance involvement describes an unobservable state of motivation and interest toward a leisure activity (Kaplanidou & Havitz, 2010:344).

1.6.5 Endurance sport spectator

Endurance sport spectators are those who travel the distance to encourage and motivate the participants in the event. It is very important to note that there are no "fans" as spectators, and the term can refer to friends and family who travel with the participants to the event, to support the participant. Non-family members can be spectators due to curiosity and interest in the endurance sport. Families travel to the event, together with the participants, and therefore become spectators/supporters (Kruger *et al.,* 2011a:118; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a:70).

1.6.6 Critical assessment

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010) defines critical as "incorporating a detailed and scholarly analysis and commentary, involving the objective analysis and evaluation of an issue in order to form a judgement". Assessment: "the evaluation or estimation of the nature, quality, or ability of someone or something" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2010). Therefore a critical assessment, for this study, is to break down sport consumption in parts (for example factors influencing consumption and what are endurance events) and study the specific parts in detail, in order to draw conclusions and from a clear judgement with regards to sport consumption at endurance events.

1.7 Preliminary chapter classification

A brief description of each of the chapters is given below.

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

Chapter one focuses on the problem statement, goal and objectives of the study as well as the method of research and definitions of the relevant terms.

Chapter 2: Analysing sport tourism and sport events

An in-depth analysis of sport tourism and sport events is done to better understand the concepts, in order to analyse endurance sport events. The types of sport and sport consumers are studied to help with the analysis of endurance sport.

Chapter 3: Analysing the consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers in a sport tourism context

An analysis is done to determine the endurance sport consumption behaviour of sport consumers for endurance sport events, such as the Telkom Midmar Mile; Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour; Cape Epic; Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon and the Comrades Marathon.

Chapter 4: An overview of the research methodology applied in this study

Chapter 4 gives an overview of statistical methods that can be used to assist with the empirical research in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Empirical results

This chapter is divided into three main sections. Firstly the results in terms of profiles for endurance consumers are discussed, followed by factor analyses, ANOVAs and chi-squares for both participants and spectators and lastly conclusions which are drawn for the chapter.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions and recommendations are made regarding the research, as well as possible future research.

Chapter 2: Analysing sport tourism and sport events

2.1 Introduction

Sport tourism is known for the positive capitalisation in the sport industry when forces aligning with sport, recreation and tourism professionals and organisations to grow and develop both non-competitive and competitive sport (Neirotti, 2003:1). With the afore-mentioned in mind, a conceptual framework is provided in Figure 2.1 for this chapter. Figure 2.1 illustrates that there are various components of sport tourism which can include sport attractions, sport tours, sport resorts, sport cruises and sport events.

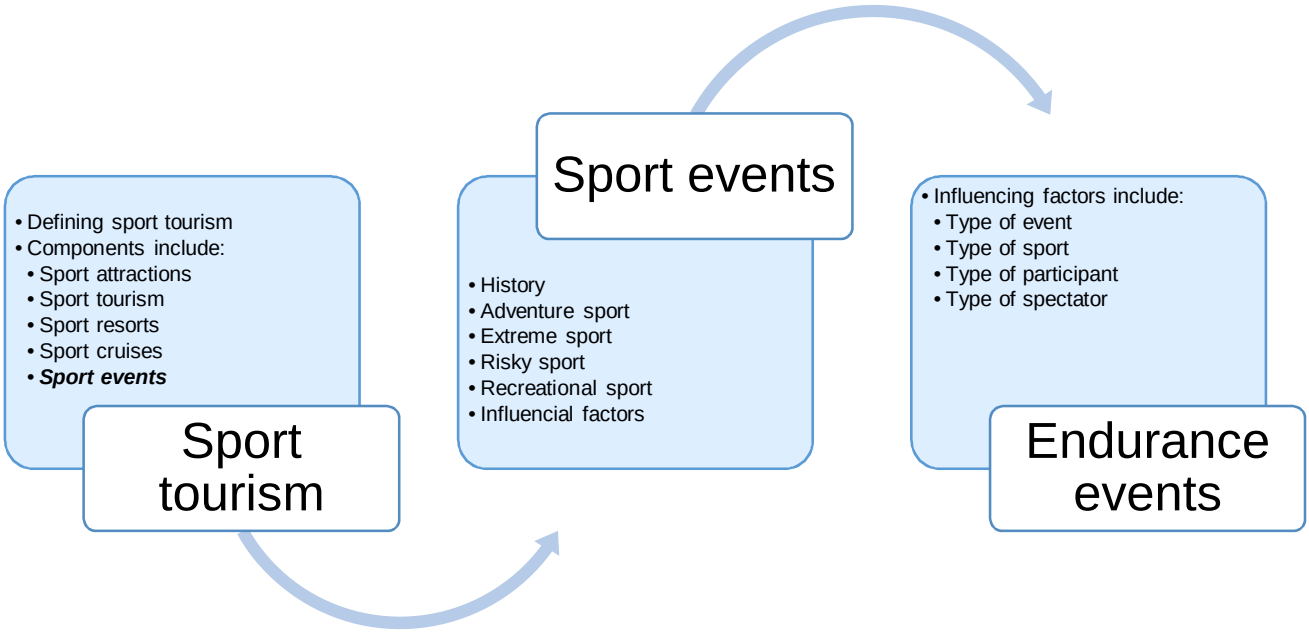


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework for the chapter (Source: Adapted from Saayman, 2001a:12)

Sport provides people with the opportunity to realise their need to be self-complete through the testing and development of the body. This creates a special attraction for spectators, because they share an interest with the participants (Saayman, 2004:7). As a result, sport tourism has erupted over the years and sport events have made a fundamental contribution to this growth according to the studies of Breivik (2010); Breuer, Hallmann, Wicker and Feiler (2010); Allen, Knott and Swart (2013). But due to sport events being such a large part of sport tourism, it is important to define and analyse these events to better understand the market and how these

events can enhance the sport tourism industry even more. Sport tourism are driven by events. The impact and influences of these sport events within tourism have been well researched. It is, however only recent that 'sport event tourism' became recognised in both the tourism industry and in the research community - the successful growth of this sector is spectacular (Getz, 2008:403). In sports tourism, the product is the specific sport or sport event and the experience derived from that, including the sports event organisers and all the goods and services needed to host the event, form part of the sport tourism industry (Saayman, 2004:11). The focus of this chapter is therefore on ***sport events*** and this needs to be defined because there are various types of sport events that include adventure, extreme, risky and recreational sport events, to name a few examples. Some of these events are very similar in character when it comes to sport consumers and the reasons for partaking in the event. Endurance events is but one of the sectors that is taken into consideration for this study. The types of sport events that will be included in the study are marathons (long and short distance), cycling events (road and mountain bike) and swimming (open water). These types of sport events can form part of endurance events if it has to be grouped together but are not only limited to these types of events and there are many others that can also form part of this niche, when criteria is taken into account. Previous studies focused more on either the spectator (Bouchet, Bodet, Bernache-Assollant & Kada, 2011; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a, 2012b; Shapiro, Ridinger & Trail, 2013) or the participant (Funk *et al.*, 2007; Kang, Bagozzi & Oh, 2011; Karg & McDonald, 2011; Curry, Crone, Gidlow & James, 2012; Kerr & Mackenzie, 2012; Coghlan & Filo, 2013) at endurance sport events. However the goal of this study is to take both the spectator and the participant into consideration when analysing endurance sport event consumers.

It is therefore, the purpose of this chapter to analyse sport tourism, sport events and endurance events in detail. The objectives of the chapter are divided into three main sections:

a) understanding sport tourism by defining sport tourism and the sport tourist and analysing the history of sport tourism, also for South African sport;
b) discussing sport events where the term will be defined, the advantages of sport events identified, what sport event management can do to improve sport events, followed by identifying the importance of the various role players involved, as well as classifying sport events; and
c) focusing on endurance sport, where it will be investigated by defining some concepts in endurance sport, analysing endurance events in a sporting context, the successes of endurance and lastly identifying the impact of endurance sport events.

Each of these components will consequently be discussed in length in the upcoming sections.

2.2 Understanding sport tourism

Since events form part of tourism (Getz, 2008:403), Deery, Jago and Fredline (2004:236) questioned whether sport tourism and event tourism was the same thing (See Figure 2.2).

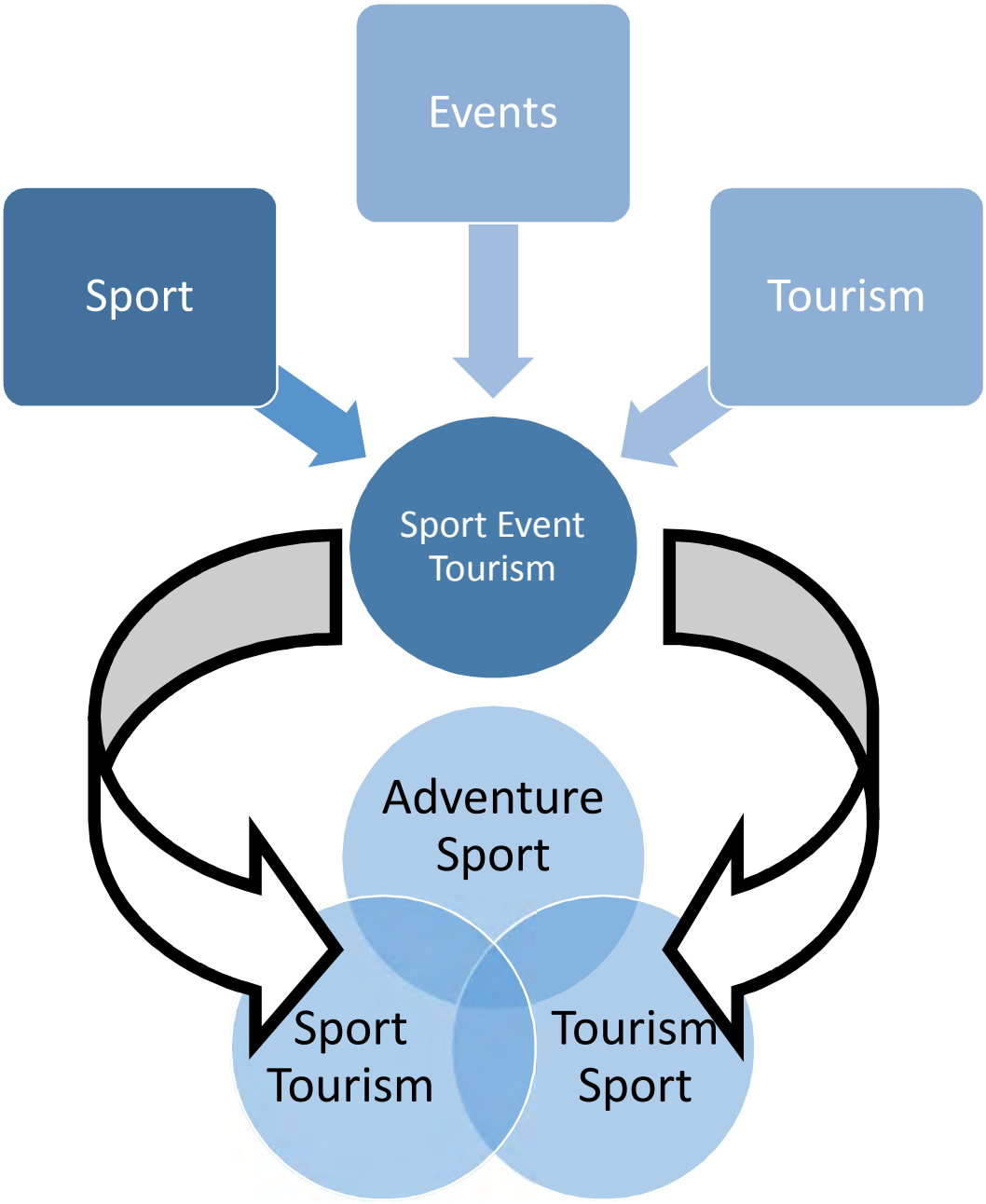


Figure 2.2: Illustration of sport and events being sub-sets for sport event tourism (Sources: Adapted from Deery *et al.*, 2004:236; Getz, 2008:403)

The authors' conceptualisation showed sport event tourism as being the link between event tourism and sport, with both sport tourism and event tourism being sub-sets of tourism in general (Getz, 2008:406). Tourism has globally expanded which strengthened the affiliation with sport. The main reason is obvious: sport attract people and visitors constitute tourism – therefore sport can be used as a tool/attraction for tourism development (Sofield, 2003:149). Sport, events and

tourism are very complexly intertwined with one another, as illustrated in Figure 2.2. Despite the various research and interest in the subject of sport and tourism, surprisingly little research exists, that addresses these entities in order to clear the complexity of this industry. For some tourism researchers there are little dissimilarities when it comes to sport tourism, adventure tourism and tourism sport. Some sport researchers see the three entities as one and the same, but there are distinct differences. Due to this discourse among researchers, one must first analyse and define sport tourism and sport tourists.

2.2.1 Defining sport tourism and sport tourists

Given the international appeal that the Olympic Games provided for sport tourism, various research have been done with regards to sport tourism, which include economic impact of sport tourism (Burns, Mules & Hatch, 1986; Crompton, 1995; Gratton, Dobson & Shibli, 2000; Gibson, 2005; Allan, Dunlop & Swales, 2007; Porter & Fletcher, 2008; Downward, Lumsdon & Weston, 2009; Saayman, 2010; Roche, Spake & Joseph, 2013), sport events impacts (Hall, 1997; Getz, 2007; Weed, 2009; Slabbert & Saayman, 2011; Fourie & Sanrana-Gallego, 2011; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a), the relationship between sport and tourism (Higham & Hinch, 2002; Mason & Duquette, 2008; Getz, 2008; Kruger & Saayman 2012b; Gibson, Kaplanidou & Kang, 2012; Coghlan & Filo, 2013); the trends of sport tourism (Green & Chalip, 1998; Gibson, 1998; Neirotti, 2005; Weed, 2009; Streicher & Saayman, 2010; Fourie, Slabbert & Saayman, 2011; Kruger *et al.,* 2011b; Gibson *et al.*, 2012; Schulenkorf, 2012) and the socio-economic impact of sport tourism (Kruger, Saayman & Saayman, 2009) to name but just a few. The growth in tourism research is also part of the growth and interest in sport tourism, as the various studies show (Hinch & Higham, 2004; Pitchard, Funk & Alexandris, 2009; South African Tourism, 2014).

Sofield (2003:194) indicated that organised events, with their own rites and traditions, have been part of sport for centuries. Sport tourism has developed into a business with many facets, and is only merely one of the components that contribute to tourism globally. Pigeassou, Bui-Xuan and Gleyse (2003:28) indicate that sport tourism contributes to the development of sport and tourism in general and it occupies a unique economic niche in terms of management and marketing perspectives. Saayman (2001b:28) says that sport tourism forces organisers to cater for international needs in order to manage events successfully. *Sport tourism*, in general, means using all types of sport to expand tourism, with the aim of serving the interest and general welfare of the sport and the community (Saayman & Uys, 2003:293). The Australian Government (2000:12) uses an industry-focused approach to define this niche market (sport tourism), which can be described as "*tourism activities generated by participation in sport.*" The activity can be a sporting event or competition, a tour of a sporting facility, or a training camp. Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) define sport tourism in a broader view: "*...all forms of active and passive*

involvement in any sport, whether casually or in an organised way that necessitate travel away from home and work". Weed (2007:9) defines sport tourism as "*leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their everyday communities to participate in physical activities, to watch these activities, or to visit attractions associated with these specific activities*". According to Saayman (2004:20) a sport tourist can be defined by a hard or a soft definition. Hard definition: "*A sport tourist can either be a dynamic or inactive participant at a competitive event – meaning someone who specifically travels for either active or passive involvement in the sport*." Sport is therefore their prime reason for travelling, but it does not mean that they do not participate in other activities. Examples include the Boston Marathon, the Comrades Marathon and the Olympic Games. Participants travel to partake in these events but while they are there they also make use of the opportunity to explore and travel in the area where the event is being held. The soft definition on the other hand is "s*omeone who specifically travel for a sport/leisure recreational interest for example skiing*". The tourists would have to travel to partake in this *recreational* activity, which is the distinguishing factors in for the definition. According to Saayman (2004:29) a *sport tourist* can therefore be described as a person who travels solely for a sporting activity or event, but who does not necessarily refrain from participating in other forms of tourism activities or sightseeing during his/her trip. Grimes (2011:8) defines *active* sport tourism as the comprised individuals that travel to participate in sport activities. Other classifications in sport include recreational sport for example fishing, risky or adventure sport such as skydiving, team sport like rugby and cricket to name a few.

For this study, sport tourism can therefore be defined as: *Sport consumers (participants and spectators) who travel to the destination where the sport event is taking place, in order to partake or to support the participants at the event, whether the event is only a day or longer. The main reason for the travel is to participate in the sporting event or to support the sport and/or participants.*

Sport tourism can be used as an umbrella term and can include various components that need to be considered such as:

- Sport tourism
- Adventure travelling
- Leisure sport
- Sport tours
- Sport attractions and
- Risky or extreme sport

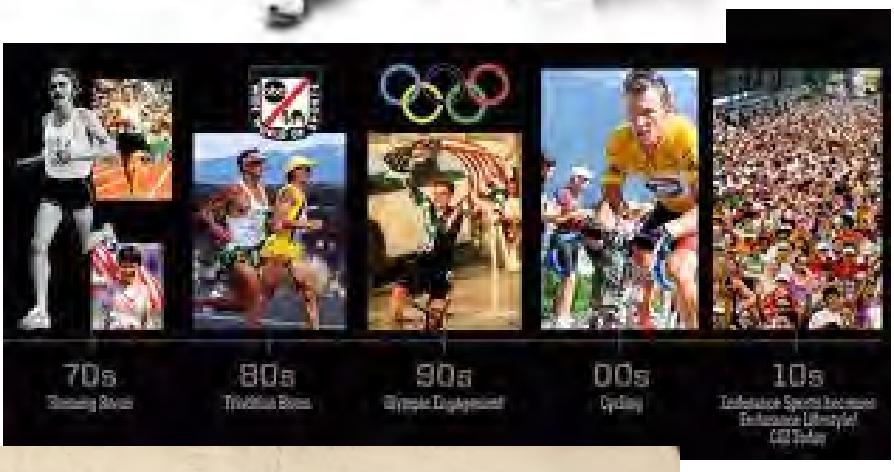
Before these components can be taken into consideration, one needs to take a look at the history of sport to determine how these components came about, and if it is indeed still relevant to endurance sport today. In the next session the sport tourism history, in general, will be looked at, followed by South African sport history in a broad spectrum, with regards to sporting events.

2.2.2 History of sport tourism

The Greek, Roman and Egyptian civilisations laid the foundation for sport tourism. As with the ancient Olympic Games, thousands of people have travelled for sport, sporting events and so forth, whether participants or spectators of the different nations. Even today, as with the current Olympic Games, thousands of international travellers are attracted to events of this type (Zauhar, 2004; Connaughton, Hanton & Jones, 2010; Fourie & Sanrana-Gallego, 2011; Jones, 2013).

Figure 2.3 gives a summary, but also a timeline on how sport, sport tourism and sport events have developed and progressed over time. Because the sport event history is so rich, the timeline only indicates events and activities from the late 1800. Tourism and sport have commenced as early as the Olympic Games, when it started before Christ. Sport tourism has grown since then and represents national interests in sport tourism (Weed, 2009:615). Sport consumers have travelled to watch, experience and participate in their favourite sports since around 776 BC when athletes competed in Greece to honour the god Zeus (Gibson, 1998:45). Sport tourism was once only limited largely and primarily to the elite athlete who trained for the Olympic Games, and for serious competition. These types of sport/races or events are now held worldwide (Kruger & Saayman, 2012a:71). By the end of the 20th century, however, event tourism had emerged as one of the fastest growing sectors within the leisure travel market (See Figure 2.3). Although event tourism includes arts festivals and cultural activities as well as sport events, the latter has played a key role in the growth of the events industry. One reason for this is that sport events have made an effective contribution to the economic development-mix of cities and regions (Turco, Swart, Bob & Moodley, 2003; Saayman & Uys, 2003; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). Figure 2.3 also demonstrates how competition became more intense with various events and types of sport internationally. Sports were mainly played in groups or events that were associated with group activity and as the games became more professional and the groups more specialised, sport moved and progressed to individual, specialised types of sport and sport events. Participants wanted to push themselves even more and sport events started to focus on more individual competitions, to meet the consumers' needs. More participants competed and the events escalated, with more to offer for consumers. Event organisers enhanced the events with more 'criteria' in order to specialise in the sports, making the events more competitive for participants as well as the spectators. The variety of events gives

opportunities for consumers to compete in the type of event and sport opportunity that sport consumers enjoy. The sport event niche is increasing and is still increasing with more challenges for participants to push themselves to the ultimate sports competitor.



1862-1900

- 1862 - First football matches in **South Africa** played in Cape Town and Port Elizabeth (between White civil servants and soldiers.
- 1880 - African and Indian soccer clubs were active in Durban and Johannesburg, **South Africa**.
- 1892 - The Whites-only **South African** Football Association (later known as FASA) was formed.
- 1896 - International Olympic Games. The Games brought together 14 nations and 241 athletes, who competed in 43 events

1901-1960

- 1906 - Unofficial Olympic Games. Twenty countries were represented by 887 athletes
- 1921 - The first Comrades Marathon took place in **South Africa** on the 24th of May, Empire Day, starting outside the City Hall in Pietermaritzburg with 34 runners. It has continued every year since then, with the exception of the war years 1941-1945, with the direction alternating each year between Pietermaritzburg and Durban, the so called up- & down-runs.
- 1930 - Soccer World Cup. 13 teams entered the tournament that was held in Uruguay.
- 1932 - The **South African** Football Association (SAAFA) was formed and it launched the Balers Cup national tournament.
- 1937 - Orlando Pirates was founded - **SAAFA**'s Bakers Cup was renamed the Moroka-Baloyi Cup
- 1948 - Olympic Games - held just after the World War 2, hosted by London. 4,000 athletes participated with 59 representive countries
- 1951 - Dusi Canoe Marathon **(South Africa)** first event. Recognised as one of the toughest canoe marathons in the world, testing not only the paddler's skills on the water, but also his or her running ability, with plenty of portages along the route between Pietermaritzburg and Durban. While foreign competitors have been few and far between in the past, due to the Dusi's unusual combination of challenges, that has begun to change in recent years.
- 1956 - First Olympic Games, only 3,500 athletes from 57 countries participated in the Games due to political events and the distance to Australia. First Olympic Games held in the Southern Hemisphere in November and December. Closing ceremony was introduced to the Games
- 1959 - The National Foorball League (NFL) was launched as the country's first entirely professional club league in **South Africa**.

1961-1980

- 1960 - **South African** Women's football started
- 1964 - Summer Olympics. **South Africa** was banned – due to apartheid, but made their first debut in the Paralympics Games Athletes competing 5,151 (4,473 men, 678 women). Tokyo had been awarded the organization of the 1940 Summer Olympics but this honour was subsequently passed to Helsinki because of Japan's invasion of China, before ultimately being cancelled because of World War II
- 1965 - Lead United winger Albert "Hurry-Hurry" Johanneson became the first black **South African** (indeed the first black ever) to play in an English FA Cup final against Liverpool
- 1967 - Boston Marathon. Kathrine Switzer registered and received a bib number for the famed Boston Marathon using only her initials (K.V.) and last name. At that time, women weren't just outnumbered at the races – they actually weren't allowed. She tried to disguise herself, knowing that she would otherwise not get across the starting line. As she began her journey and reached the four-mile marker, an official jumped off a press truck and tried to physically push her out of the race. As Switzer was being screamed at, she was determined to continue running. Immediately following the incident, the images were seen throughout the world. This led to an outcry for gender equity and pushed decision makers to officially include women in organized races . Female participants became more involved as the time increased.
- 1970 - The Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon **(South Africa)** took place for the first time. The first race was held in 1970 and saw 26 runners line up to face the unknown challenge. Since then, the race has become a national institution and a firm favourite with local, upcountry, and international athletes.
- 1974 - Midmar Mile first event **(South Africa)**. Three friends, Mike Arbuthnot, Dick Park and Brian Glover, unable to compete in the Buffalo Mile in East London because of petrol restrictions, decided to stage a race in KwaZulu-Natal. One hundred and fifty-three competitors entered the first event, with the youngest swimmer being 10 years old. Victory went to Trevor Strydom, with Owen Ryan and Martin Godfrey finishing second and third.
- 1977 - Cape Argus first event **(South Africa)**. Bill Mylrea and John Stegmann (visionaries and spirits behind the Cycle Tour) organised the event to draw attention to the need for cycle paths in Cape Town. Stemming out of this, the idea of holding a long-distance ride, to be known as the Peninsula Marathon, was born. WPPPA warned would-be riders that it would not be easy – a good two months preparation was recommended.
- 1980 - Olympic Games hosted by Moscow, Russia. Athletes that competed were 5,179 (4,064 men, 1,115 women). The 1980 Games were the first to be staged in Eastern Europe.

1981-2000

- 1981 - The Nedbank Golf Challenge held in **South Africa**. The annual Nedbank Golf Challenge was held the first time at Sun City in North West province. "Africa's Major" is one of the world's richest tournaments, with a total prize fund of over US$4.3-million. Previous participants include Tiger Woods, Ernie Els, Nick Price, Bernhard Langer, Lee Trevino, Gary Player, Nick Faldo, Seve Ballesteros, Colin Montgomerie, Retief Goosen, David Frost, Ian Woosnam, Mark O'Meara, Jose Maria Olazabel, Vijay Singh, Phil Mickelson and Lee Westwood
- 1987 - Rugbly World Cup started . New Zealand and Australia agreed to co-host the first ever tournament
- 1992 - International Olympic Games. Athletes that competed were 9,356 (6,652 men, 2,704 women). 286 events in 32 sports. The International Olympic Committee voted in 1986 to separate the Summer and Winter Games, which had been held in the same year since 1924, and place them in alternating even-numbered years, beginning in 1994. The 1992 Summer Games were the last to be staged in the same year as the Winter Games. Due to the end of the Cold War, these games were the first without boycotts since 1972. **Giro del Capo.** Preceding the first Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, the Giro del Capo is **South Africa**'s foremost professional stage race. The event is contested through the stunning winelands of the Boland and the areas surrounding Cape Town, finishing with the Argus as its final stage. Besides the entries of top local teams, the Giro has attracted teams from Germany, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands and Norway
- 1995 - Rugby World Cup, first time hosted by **South Africa**.
- 1996 - African Nations Cup**.** As with the Rugby World Cup the previous year, the continent's premier footballing event went off smoothly in South Africa. **World Cup of Golf** - Cape Town's Erinvale Golf Club **(South Africa)** played host to the World Cup of Golf in 1996. Ernie Els and Wayne Westner took full advantage of the familiar conditions and home crowd support to decimate the opposition, winning the event by a record 18 shots.
- 1998 - World Cup of Athletics. The world's top athletes were in Johannesburg, **South Africa**, for the World Cup of Athletics in 1998. Despite unusually poor weather for South Africa's business capital, the event went off without a hitch, with local athletes playing a vital role in helping Africa to victory in the team competition.
- 1999-2008 - Red Bull Big Wave **Africa.** The Red Bull Big Wave Africa surfing event took place for 10 years, from 1999 through 2008, at Dungeons reef at the mouth of Hout Bay in Cape Town, renowned for its ability to produce the biggest rideable waves on the coast of Africa. The event is currently "in hibernation". Not surprisingly, given its extreme nature and stringent criteria, there were just four champions: South Africa's Sean Holmes in 2000, Californian Greg Long in 2003, South African John Whittle in 2006, and South African Grant "Twiggy" Baker in 2008

2000-2006

- 2000 - Olympic Games. Athletes competing 10,651 (6,582 men, 4,069 women), 300 events in 28 sports. Sydney was selected as the host city for the 2000 games in 1993. Teams from 199 countries participated.
- 2003 - **Cricket World Cup.** The event was well supported and impeccably run, with day-night matches becoming a staple of the event for the first time. In a high-scoring final in Johannesburg **(South Africa)**, Australia defended the title they had won four years previously in England. **Cape Epic (South Africa)**. Kevin Vermaak participated in the 10th edition of La Ruta de los Conquistadores in Costa Rica. It was while riding in this multiday mountain bike stage race that the idea of the Cape Epic was born in the mind of Vermaak. In 2003 South African regional for the first time entries for 2004 sell out in three days. 2004 Inaugural Cape Epic: 28 February to 6 March. 788km & 17 380m climbing, from Knysna to Spier. 550 riders, 21% international and 20 countries represented. Winners: Karl Platt & Mannie Heymans. **FINA Swimming World Cup,** Durban **(South Africa)** has been one of eight stop-offs on the Fina Swimming World Cup short-course (25 metre) circuit since 2003, drawing some of the world's best swimmers to the Kings Park Aquatic Centre - and helping to eradicate the myth of Africa being poor in swimming talent and infrastructure. South Africa's Ryk Neethling was the overall men's winner of the event for two years running, with 21 race victories in the 2004/05 series and 16 victories in 2005/06. The 2003 **President's Cup**, held at Fancourt near George in the Western Cape **(South Africa)**, was rated one of the best-organised - and most exciting - golfing events ever. The four-day shootout between the United States and International team culminated in a sudden-death playoff between Tiger Woods and Ernie Els that went through three holes before fading light finally halted play. In a first for the competition, team captains Jack Nicklaus and Gary Player agreed to share the trophy - even though, as defending champions, the USA should have kept it. Afterwards, Nicklaus said it was "the most unbelievable event the game of golf has ever seen."
- 2005 - Fancourt, near George in the Western Cape **(South Africa)**, was home to the inaugural **Women's World Cup of Golf** in 2005, which was won by Japan. In 2006 the event moved to the Gary Player Country Club at Sun City, home of the Nedbank Golf Challenge, one of golf's richest tournaments. Sweden, led by Annika Sorenstam, took the title. In 2007, at the same venue, first-timers Paraguay stunned the 21 other competing countries to win by seven strokes. Paraguay's Julieta Granada commented afterwards: "The crowds were awesome ... They were cheering us on and they liked our outfits. It was a lot of fun. And the baboons … I liked the baboons. They are all my friends."In 2008, the Philippines held off South Korea to win the title by two strokes.
- 2006 - The Surfski World Cup Durban **(South Africa)**, first held in 2006, has been officially accredited by the International Canoe Federation – the first time a surf ski world cup event has received ICF recognition. South Africa won both the men's and women's title at the 2008-2010 events, which boasted the biggest prize money in the sport, confirming South Africa as a world leader in ocean paddling, both on and off the water. **South Africa** hosted a leg of the inaugural **A1 Grand Prix** in 2006, when the Durban event was named the best event in the World Cup of Motorsport's first season. A sell-out crowd of close to 100 000 fans lined the 3.2-kilometre street circuit in South Africa's "coastal playground" as the Netherlands took the honours in the feature race, following France's victory in the sprint race. Still in Durban, Germany scored back-to-back wins in the sprint and feature races in 2007, while Switzerland and Canada shared the feature and sprint honours respectively in 2008. In 2009, the South African A1 Grand Prix moved to Kyalami, Johannesburg, previously and the home of the South African Formula One Grand Prix. Jeroen Bleekemolen of the Netherlands and Neel Jani of Switzerland secured victories in the sprint and feature races.

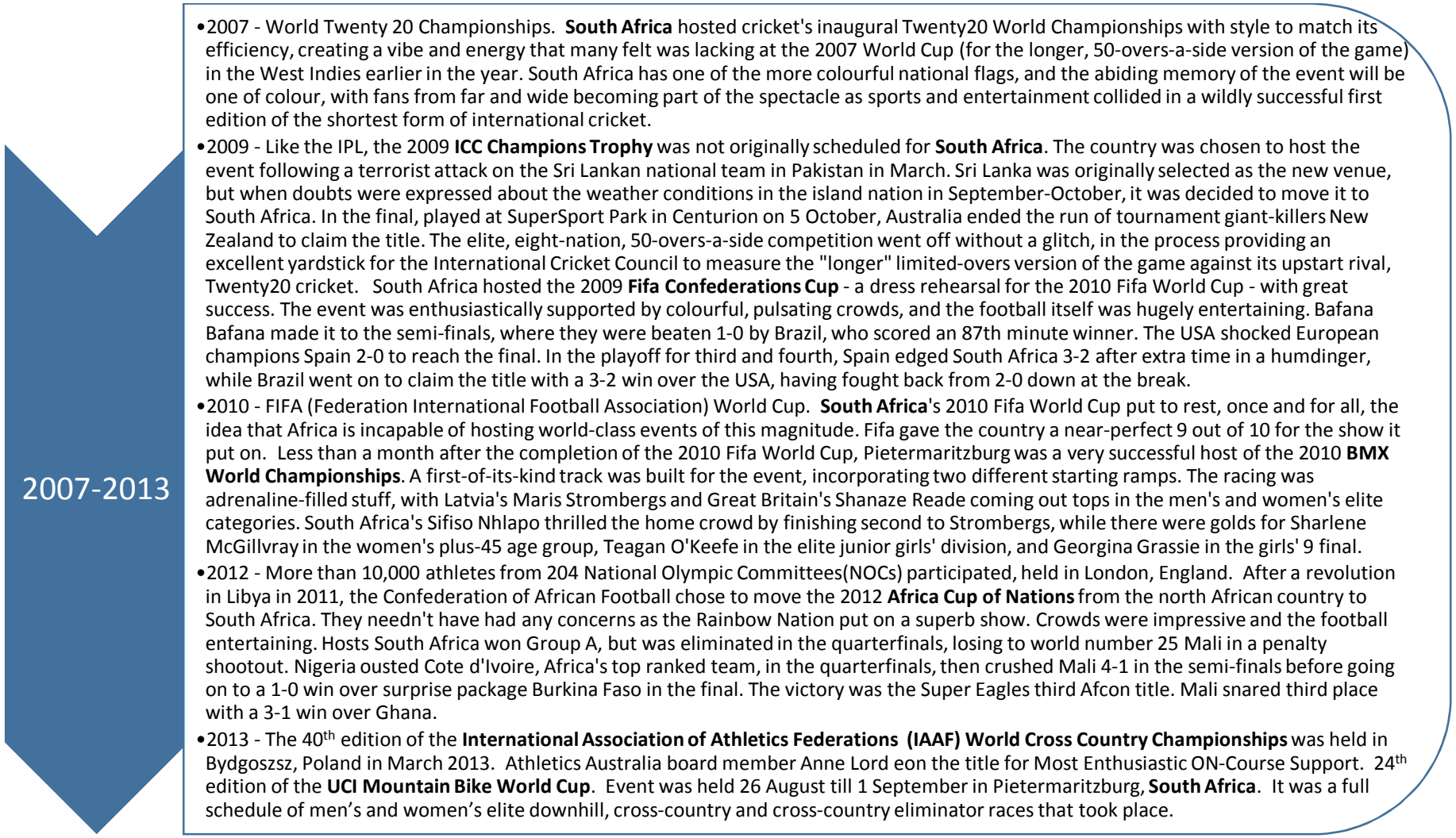


Figure 2.3: Historical timeline for sport events development (Source: Albertville, 1992; Burfoot, 2007:278; South Africa Info, 2013; Jones, 2013:8; Kennedy, 2014; Conchas, 2014:167)

2.2.3 South African historical overview

Figure 2.3 indicates a short timeline for the development of sport events over the years, hosted in South Africa as well as other international events. Sport tourism and -events are viewed as a constant growing niche market, reflecting the economic contribution (3%) that sport tourism generate for the South African market (South African Tourism, 2014); estimating the country's tourism contribution to R189, 4 billion on the GDP (direct and indirect) (South Africa info, 2013). There is a very high interest in sport events which is still rising (Hallman & Breuer, 2010:2015). South Africa took initiative developing events that would address the needs of the sport consumer. This initiative also attracted international participants – this helps South Africa in various ways including "putting the country on the map" for hosting and bidding in international events. South Africa is also one of the countries that is able to host some of the biggest sport events, as well as endurance sport events in the world, such as the Nedbank Golf Challenge; the FIFA World Cup; the Dusi Canoe Marathon and the Cape Epic, to name only some, who attracted international consumers (Figure 2.3).

The potential of tourism in regards for development is growing by the day on a number of fronts in Africa and South Africa. Since South Africa's democratic transition, it has eagerly pursued high profile sport events. Sport events marketing has become important since the country endeavours to achieve growth in the South African tourism industry (Visser & Kotzé, 2008:2565). According to Visser and Kotzé (2008:2584) the sport tourism strategy for South Africa rests on four pillars as indicated in Figure 2.4.

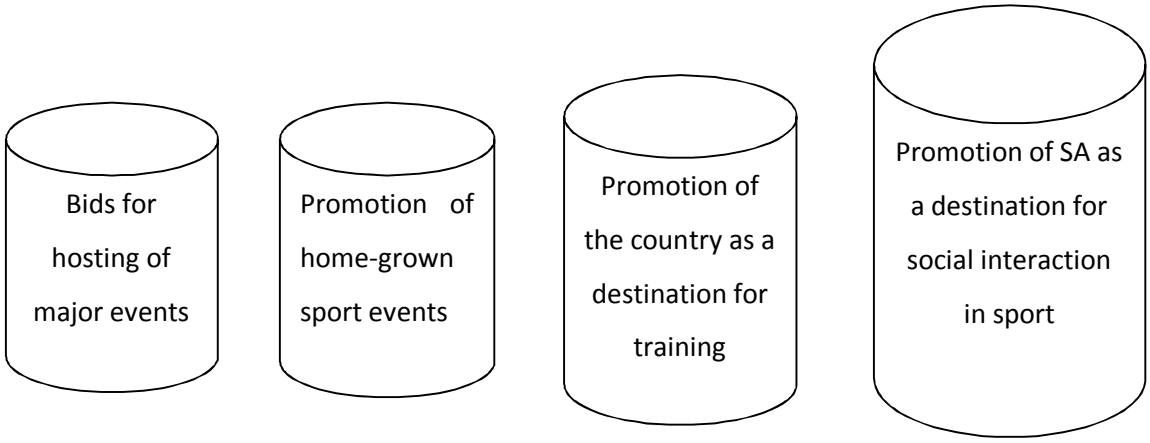


Figure 2.4: Four Pillars for SA sport tourism strategy (Source: Adapted from Visser & Kotzé, 2008:2584)

These four pillars or strategies were used in various attempts to grow sport events in South Africa. They are also important when defining sport tourism as all four of these components play an important role for endurance sport tourism events. As illustrated in Figure 2.3 one can see how sport events have grown over the years. Sport consumers became more aware of the advantages of participating in sporting events, therefore the increase in the type of sport, in

order to address the needs of the niche groups. South Africa has grown in the sport sector, and with time has become more specialised in sport events, such as endurance events.

The top ten sporting events, based on challenges, international appeal and amateur versus professional athletes in South Africa, include the following: the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour; the Nedbank Golf Challenge; the Comrades Marathon; Billabong Pro; the ABSA Cape Epic; Giro-del Capo; the Midmar Mile; the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon; the Hansa PowerAde Dusi Canoe Marathon and the Dunlop Surfski World Cup (see Table 2.1). Other aspects that make South Africa an ideal location for participants include climate; scenery; location; top-class sport facilities and superb tourism infrastructure (SA Info, 2013). One can see from the table (Table 2.1) that South Africa is hosting and investing in world-class events with international standards and the toughest, most enduring types of sport events for both the participants and spectators. Event opportunities like the Cape Argus; the Nedbank Golf Challenge etc. also attract international tourists. This just goes to show that South Africa is providing top class events and are making sure that the event standards are of the highest. Sport stars and tourists like these do not just show up for the sport event itself, but also make use of the opportunity to travel the area and bring their families and friends to South Africa.

Table 2.1: Top 10 sport events in South Africa

Sport Event	Category	Description
Nedbank Golf Challenge	National Event with some international participants	This challenge is held in the North West province and consistently attracts a world-class field. The premier event remains the most popular tournament on the South African golfing calendar, with record numbers of spectators flocking to Sun City to watch the best golfers in the world like Tiger Woods, Retief Goosen, David Frost, Ian Woosnam and Lee Westwood, to name but a few.
Comrades Marathon	Intercontinental Event	The world's oldest and largest ultra-marathon. The race is internationally recognised for the body-sapping challenge it poses, with competitors having to combine equal amounts of mental strength, muscle and stamina to complete the race between Durban and Pietermaritzburg in KwaZulu-Natal. The Comrades Marathon attracts thousands of runners, spectators and television viewers every year.
Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour	National Event with some international participants	The largest individually-timed cycling event in the world, the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, commonly known as "The Argus", is part of the International Cycling Union's prestigious Golden Bike Series, and is one of only nine races in the world accorded this honour. The event has drawn various well-known names (former Tour de France winner Miguel Indurain and Matt Damon).
Giro-del Capo	Regional Event	Preceding the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, the Giro del Capo (meaning "The Tour of the Cape") is South Africa's foremost professional stage race. The event is contested through the stunning Boland wine lands and areas surrounding Cape Town, finishing with the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour as its final stage. Besides the entries of top local teams, the Giro has attracted teams from Germany, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands and Norway.
Billabong Pro	National Event with some international participants	Hailed as Africa's most prestigious surfing event, the annual Billabong Pro attracts surfing legends such as Kelly Slater, Taj Burrow and Andy Irons, who battle the waves for a chance to win.

The ABSA Cape Epic	National Event with some international participants	Hailed as the "Magical and Untamed African mountain bike race", the ABSA Cape Epic – the largest full-service mountain bike stage race in the world – has become a huge draw card for mountain bikers from around the world. This scenic but torturous route is 800km. The "Epic", as it is fondly known as, was the first-ever team mountain bike stage race where Union Cyclist International(UCI) points were awarded, meaning that some of the best mountain bikers in the world have entered, including Olympic bronze medallist and World Cup champion Christopher Sauser.
The Midmar Mile	International Event	The world's largest open water swim - the Midmar Mile is with over 16,000 hopefuls – professional and recreational swimmers – converging on the Midmar Dam just north of Pietermaritzburg each year. In 2001 South African swimming star, Ryk Neethling was the first man to win the Midmar Mile three times. Eight years later (2009), the Midmar Mile was officially recognised as the world's largest open water swimming event with 13, 755 finishers by the Guinness Book of Records.
Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon	Regional event with some international participants	Like the Comrades Marathon, the Two Oceans Marathon is an ultra-marathon, covering 56 kilometres on a route that is often described as "the most beautiful in the world." The largest running-related expo in the Western Cape, attracting over 45,000 visitors, and acts as the official registration point for the Two Oceans.
The Hansa Powerade Dusi Canoe Marathon	Regional Event	The Hansa PowerAde Dusi Canoe Marathon is recognised as one of the toughest canoe marathons in the world, testing not only the paddler's skills on the water but also his or her running ability, with plenty of portages along the route between Pietermaritzburg and Durban. The annual event attracts over 2000 paddlers.
Dunlop Surfski World Cup	International Event	As part of The International Surfski Paddling Association World Series events, the Surfski World Cup is becoming increasingly popular, with over 250 competitors from across the globe. SA won both the men's and women's title at the 2008-2010 events.

(Source: Adapted from South Africa, 2010)

With the strategies and various events in mind, the following section will define sport events, because of its importance and the significant role these two entities play in tourism.

2.3 Sport events

In the following section the term *sport events* will be defined, as well as the benefits of hosting sport events, the management of these events and the various factors that can influence these sport events. Lastly the classification for these sport events will be discussed.

2.3.1 Defining sport events

Sport tourism events attract tourists of which a large percentage are spectators... *"[they] have the potential to attract non-residents, media, technical personnel, athletes, coaches and other sporting officials*" (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2003:44), while the primary purpose for travel it to participating in or support the sport (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002:23). Sport event entails the organisation, marketing, implementation and evaluation of any type of event related to sport, according to Saayman, Saayman and du Plessis (2005:212). Sport events, according to Bjelac and Radovanovic (2003:264), are *events characterised by creative and complex sport-like, recreational activities, with entertainment and are performed in accordance with a particular pre-determined programme*. The location or region in which these events are held holds social and economic influences when tourism is incorporated alongside the marketing of these sport events.

Emery (2001:92) further defines "major" sports events as "*events that receive national or international media coverage as a result of the calibre of competition, and one in which a minimum of 1000 spectators are present at the event*". Events can also be divided into categories, such as mega, major or local, based on subjective interpretation (Emery, 2001:92). Bjelac and Radovanovic (2003:264) categorise sport events according to 7 different scales:

- Locally held events: events held locally for participants and spectators from the community. Examples can include the Lowveld Croc Canoe Marathon held in the Lowveld of Mpumalanga (South Africa) as a recreational event for the locals and tourists visiting the area and Kiel Week that is held in Germany in Rostock – this festival is focused on the media and the opportunity for photography and marketing in the areas.
- Regional or zonal events - events that are held only in a specific region, for example Fyn Bos Half Marathon held in De Hoop of the Western Cape Region in South Africa, which is held annually in awareness of cancer. Another example is the Grand Prix that is held in France.

- National sports events: sporting events that are held nationally and people from the community and even from the various provinces or regions can partake and can come and enjoy the event. Examples include the South African Cape Town Festival of Running 100km Ultra & 50km Challenge, which is a Comrades qualifier race for runners who want to participate in the last-named endurance race (The Comrades Marathon), and the Berlin Marathon, which is supported by the three western allied forces (Britain, France and United States), and is Germany's biggest and best quality marathon.
- National events with some international participation: an event that is focused on the national consumers, but is known to attract international participants as well, for example Ironman, which is held in Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia, North- and South America and was inspired by US Naval Commander Johan Collins and his wife Judy in 1978.
- Continental competitions: sports that compete with other continents, for example the IAAF World Cup in Athletics, which comprises track and field events. It is also the only world cup contested by teams representing entire continents, rather than just those of individual nations. Another example is The Rugby World Cup (first held in 1987), where the top international teams compete against one another every four years.
- Intercontinental events, the largest type of event, known as planetary events: every region, nationality and continent is present and can partake in the event when they qualify, for example the Soccer World Cup, which is held every four years by FIFA for the elder men's national teams associated with FIFA. Other examples are the Tour de France and Grand Slam.

These various events hold advantages when hosting them and will be discussed next.

2.3.2 Benefits of hosting sports events

When hosting sport events, there are numerous benefits, not only for the hosting community, but for most of the role players involved. Some of these benefits will be highlighted next.

In the tourism literature, community's support is influenced by the perceived economic, social and cultural benefits and costs that tourism holds (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). In most sport event impact literature the obvious benefit of sport events is economic impact for the region (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Gibson *et al.*, 2012). As the viewpoints of sport development (improving the quality of life, tackling social exclusion, increasing access, persevering the environment and expanding the pursuit of excellence) have expanded to include: physical activity, health and quality of life; governments and sport organisations alike have incorporated the potential of sport events to stimulate sport development (Taks, Green, Misener & Chalip, 2014:215). Besides economic impacts, psychological, socio-cultural and environmental aspects are also identified in the literature as equally important, intangible benefits (Jago, &

Deery, 2004; Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; Preuss & Solberg, 2006; Hiller & Wanner, 2011; Gibson *et al.*, 2012). The primary function of hosting an event is to encourage people to take up exercise in the hosting destination, followed by tourism or advertising benefits, which enhance the economic benefit for the area (Smith, 2009:9; Hsu, Ma & Chang, 2014:68). Sporting events are recognised as one of the strategies available to develop cities, regions or even countries (Bull & Lovell, 2007:230). A study conducted by Crompton (2004) indicated the following benefits of events and included: the enhancement of community pride associated with increased community visibility, increased collective self-esteem from a successful franchise, civic pride in efforts to resuscitate undeveloped areas, enhanced social bonding, emotional involvement with a franchise and excitement shared by visitors (Inoue & Havard, 2014:297). Swart and Bob (2012:3) summarised most of the benefits of sport events and these are indicated in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Summary of benefits associated with the hosting of sport events

Area	Benefits
Economic	Destination profiling and marketing
	Increased tourism
	Induced development and construction expenditure
	Trade and business development / investment proportion
	Increased property values
	Employment creation
	Improved image and profile of destination
Tourism	Destination promotion and increased number of tourist visits
	Extended length of stay
	Job creation
Media	Increased media coverage
	Improve image of destination
Socio-cultural	Community development
	Civic pride
	Skills enhancement and development
	Shared experiences (feel-good-factor)
	Increased community participation
	Introduction of new and challenging ideas
	Sport development
Physical/ infrastructure	Sport infrastructure
	Improved transport and communication facilities
	Increased and improved accommodation facilities
	Urban transformation and renewal

	Acceleration of infrastructure plans
Environmental	Greening events
	Increased environmental awareness and education
	Showcasing natural resources
Political	International prestige
	Social cohesion
	Development of administrative and governance skills
	Improved capability of bid for and host events
	Strengthening regional co-operation

(Source: Adapted from Brown, Chalip, Jago & Mules, 2004; Bull & Lovell, 2007; Hallman & Breuer, 2010; Fourie *et al.,* 2011; Swart & Bob, 2012; Gibson *et al.,* 2012; Dugali, 2013; Woolf, Heere & Walker, 2013; Jones, 2013)

It is important to develop an ongoing trend in terms of events within the sport tourism sector whereby a high number of sport consumers can generated (Dimanche, 2003:3). According to Brown *et al.* (2004:284) the growing importance of special events is of such a nature, that it is starting to dominate natural or physical features in the identification of cities. Kruger and Saayman (2012c:65) indicated in one of their studies that "*the type of sport event determines the managerial aspects required to host and organise a memorable event for both participants and spectators*".

Some of these concepts are very intertwined with one another, and endurance sport events can perhaps be used as an umbrella term for the various sport events where physical, mental and emotional challenges in sports events are tested (events that can include, but are not limited to risky sport, extreme sport, and adventure sport) (Saayman, 2004:51).

As indicated above, there are factors that must be managed at sport events. Sport event management will be discussed in more detail in the next session.

2.3.3 Sport event management

According to Saayman (2012:65), event management entails the preparation, implementation, analysing and evaluation of an event, considering all the factors that can have an influence on the event are also taken into account, for example what are the needs of the consumers and what do the organisers want to reach or achieve with the event.

Sport management represents an evolutionary component of modern social life, with its own national and international structure, a specific material base, a large group of specialised technical staff, organisational structures based on systems, laws, theoretical principals and national and

international institutions as well as authorities aiming to create and improve the biological, material and emotional aspects of the sport activity practitioners and participants (Marcu & Buhas, 2014:678).

Therefore *sport event management* can be defined as: *the preparation, implementation, analysing and evaluation of national and international sporting structures, based on systems, laws, theoretical principals and institutions and authorities aiming to improve the fundamental aspects of sport activities for consumers*.

According to the study done by Calabuig, Núñez-Pomar, Prado-Gascó and Añó (2014) the relation between satisfaction, perceived value and future intentions is a recurrent topic in the service literature in general (Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000) and in the sport management literature in particular (Kwon, Trail & Anderson, 2005). More recently, interest in this subject has been shifted to the study of service quality and user satisfaction in sport facilities (Tsitskari, Tsiotras & Tsiotras, 2006).

Wakefield and Blodgett (1999); Brady and Cronin (2001); Ko and Pastore (2005) created a framework that can be used to determine the quality of the event that is hosted, which is of importance for managing sport events. Three physical dimensions to measure the tangible aspects of event quality include the design (functional and aesthetic appearance and attractiveness), equipment (up-to-date and in useable condition) and ambience (non-visible aspects of facilities such as cleanliness, temperature, and music).

There are factors that must be kept in mind when managing and organising sport events, because no event can be organised if the support of the community and relevant stakeholders are not considered. The following success factors were identified: quality sport and training facilities, variety and affordable accommodation, available transportation, favourable climate, image and location, favourable political situation, effective marketing, management and services, favourable media and broadcasting and accessibility of the destination (Saayman, 2004:228). Westerbeek, Turner and Ingerson (2002:313) identified the following success factors for events, namely: accountability, ability and infrastructure, accessibility to the existing facilities, political support, relationship marketing and communication. Researchers have suggested that the links between factors help sport managers understand who is expected to be more or less impacted from the management of sporting events (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006; Yoshida, James & Cronin, 2013).

Customer satisfaction is a pleasurable fulfilment response toward a good service, benefits or reward (Oliver, 1999:35). Chang, Wang and Yang (2009) found that satisfaction has a direct

effect on consumer loyalty, which involves several dimensions such as repurchases, positive word of mouth and reduced price sensitivity (Anderson, Fornell & Lehmann, 1994). Numerous empirical studies show that satisfaction has a positive influence on target groups (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Price & Arnould, 1999; Wangenheim & Bayón, 2007), with some of these studies focusing explicitly on sport management (Cronin *et al.*, 2000; Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2000; Calabuig *et al.*, 2013).

Understanding the key determinants of sport consumers' service quality is an acute job for the managers of sport events (Clemes, Brush & Collins, 2011:376). Spectators perceive eleven sub-dimensions of service quality. These are player / participant interaction with the spectators, atmosphere, sport event quality and entertainment, security employees' performance, food and beverage service, social environment, visuals and sound, stadium access, seating, stadium cleanliness and design. Managers should develop an understanding of these relationships in an endeavour to create favourable behaviour intentions. To achieve this goal, managers should aim to increase both favourable word of mouth and the level of spectator satisfaction through increasing service quality and value perceptions (Clemes *et al.*, 2011:384). Fanship is of importance when managers want to increase the service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions of sport consumers. The involvement level of fans can be increased if managers work with their teams to improve the targeted fans who are less knowledgeable about the sporting event, in so doing developing future attendance for the events. The findings support the results of Voss, Kramer, Basak, Prakash and Roberts (2010), that marketing initiatives that focus on relational investments to increase involvement complement consumer satisfaction effects in increasing consumer re-visit, and thus profitability in sport events.

As for sport participants, there are some factors that are similar and some that are not. Curry *et al.* (2012:449) classified them in three main infrastructures, which consist of the following:

- Physical services for example is the road or the patch that the event is held on. Organisers must keep some of these questions in mind when organising these types of endurance events: Is the infrastructure accessible for the participants? What are the conditions of the infrastructure? Are there ablution facilities for the participants, medical aid and water points, to name but merely some?
- Information services would embrace such things as guides or advice on how the event course will lead. Participants must be informed especially when it is first time participants.
- Administrative infrastructure includes the registration process, the organising of accessibility in order to be able to register for the event.

Sporting organisers should structure their operations, processes, and infrastructure and resource allocations, based on the service quality dimensions of the particular target consumer market (Clemes *et al.*, 2011:384*)*.

Role players can aid in sport event management and will be discussed in the following section.

2.3.4 Role players in sport events

Sporting events can have various benefits for the hosting community and the economy, as indicated in section 2.3.2 of this chapter, and there are various role players involved to make any event a success. These role players can include the event organisers, the local government and community, media and the sport consumers (participants and the spectators). Figure 2.5 gives an illustration of the representation of some of the key role players that can be part of a sport event. The role players will be discussed next.

Figure 2.5: Illustration of key role players for events (Source: Adapted from Saayman, 2004:151)

2.3.4.1 Event organisers

Well run, successful public events can provide a range of social, economic and cultural benefits to the community which will enhance interaction between individuals, groups and families. Public events have become part of modern life, in both urban and rural settings, and as such should be enjoyable, well-organised and safe. The event manager and the event organising committee are

largely responsible for this outcome. The organisation of sporting events runs in phases in order to be successful. These phases can consist of the preparation (conceptualisation), the inputs (technical and financial support: capital sources), time, human resources and the structure of revenue and expenses that must be analysed and managed to prevent unnecessary risks (default event, cancellations, punching time, budget to name only some) that might influence the events. Concurrently, appropriate targets are set for the date, duration of activities, special deadlines and critical dates.

The planning and organisation of events include:

- Strategy formulation
- The feasibility of the study and decision made
- Establishing objectives
- Appointing an organising committee and a co-ordinator of the committee (single) for various areas (security, security staff, measuring and testing and logistics)
- Budgeting (financial plan)
- Organisational structure
- Personnel by sector (volunteers for example)
- Detailed planning
- Presentation of events including preparation, closing and cleaning
- Evaluation, feedback and modification of future events (Saayman, 2001b:178; Dugali, 2013:122).

The organisation and maintaining of events are multifaceted, and it is thus recommended to accentuate in a systematic way, and make use of, specific organising methods and activities to ensure success (Dugali, 2013:120). According to Rundio, Heere and Newland's (2014) study there are countless unsanctioned events held across the nation, resulting in a saturated sport event marketplace inundating the consumer with choices. In order to survive in the sport market with regards to events, differentiation becomes a key strategy for each sport event. Price, sport and distance, among other event features, can be manipulated in an attempt to differentiate one event from another. Yet differentiation in this regard is limited, as participants have come to expect certain levels of standardisation associated with the race itself at each event. Thus organisers must search for strategies within the ancillary qualities of the event that are distinct (Rundio *et al*., 2014:17).

Event organisers need to determine the type of event that needs to be held in the area. Hallmark events are regularly defined as special events, mega–events and unique, status or major events (Hall, 1995; Mules & Faulkner, 1996; Getz, 1997; Westerbeek *et al.*, 2002). The size of the event

can also determine if it is a hallmark event or a non-hallmark event and can be measured in four ways:

- Noticeable involvement of national and regional government authorities (one of the role players)
- Domestic / international media
- More technical know-hows (premier facilities, suitable event location, skilled personnel)
- Support from direct and indirect stakeholders

Event classification is discussed in more detail in section 2.3.5. Organisations such as sports commissions and conventions and visitor bureaus organise and deliver events for public consumption, while local residents have the opportunity to be the consumers of these events, and provide community support at various stages of the event (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan, 2010:576). According to Gursoy and Uysal (2004:177) there are four fields of festivals and special event organisers' insights on why event organisers will organise a specific type of event, namely community cohesiveness, economic benefits, social motivations and social costs. Sport event organisers can use this information to align with a cause and perhaps capitalise on the importance of social purposes to consumers. By aligning a sport event and charity according to Rundio *et al.* (2014:17), organisers can leverage the relationship with a charitable foundation to elevate the event, create awareness for the cause and attract those that support the cause by donating a portion of an event proceeds to the non-profit organisation (Filo *et al.,* 2009:362). According to the study of Bennett, Mousely, Kitchin and Ali-Choudhury (2007) athletes are motivated to participate in various events for different reasons, including those for leisure purposes, such as a desire to pursue a healthy lifestyle and for altruistic purposes. Fulfilling both leisure (for example intellect, social interaction and competency) and charitable motives (for example reciprocity, self-esteem, needs to help others and desire to improve the charity), can be attractive to event attendees (Funk, Filo, Beaton & Pitchard, 2009:132). According to Kaplanidou, Kerwin and Karadakis (2013:137) the success of a sport event is an important outcome for both the organising entity and the destination where the event is hosted. A study conducted by Bornhotst *et al.* (2010) showed that the prosperity of a destination is reliant upon the number and diversity of tourism products, along with effective marketing efforts, community support and enhanced visitor experiences.

In order to determine what elements are necessary to attract the unique individual and differentiate the event, organisers must understand what push and pull elements drive sport consumers in sport events. Because the motivation is important to sport consumers (Bennett *et al*., 2007; Funk *et al.,* 2009), one pull element to consider is the partnership with a charity through various promotional methods (for example announcing the donation of event proceeds to the

charity, promoting the charity before and at the event and teaming around the charity) (Rundio *et al.*, 2014:19). This is also an opportunity to get the community involved.

2.3.4.2 Local government

Government agencies make resources available to attract events to major cities by developing policies and infrastructure as well as proved the necessary resources needed to organise sport events. Charitable organisations are continually looking for innovative ways to distinguish themselves from their competitors (Woolf *et al.*, 2013:95) in this overcrowded and competitive market (for example raise awareness, secure donations and solicit volunteer support). Charity-based organisations have added sporting events to their portfolio (Filo *et al.*, 2009:362), which typically include endurance-type sport activities (5K runs, marathons and triathlons for example). Sport demand has become a significant part of policy agendas which leads to an increase in the legislation of sport events to stimulate sport participation (Taks *et al.*, 2014:214). The local government has the potential to enhance the destination branding for the area, and is in so doing boosting the community and enhancing the destination image- this can again help in bidding for events or hosting the event again (Allen *et al.*, 2013:1995).

2.3.4.3 Community

There have been various studies of host community reactions to tourism or event impacts (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Bull & Lovell, 2007; Ma, Ma, Wu & Rotherham, 2013). New festivals and events are constantly developed as leisure and cultural pursuits for residents, as well as for their economic and community development benefits (Slabbert & Saayman, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2012; Woolf *et al.,* 2013). Events unite people and community groups and have the ability to bring the world together as a sport family. Social benefits are important because there is some evidence suggesting sport event consumers' value them and use them as a source that influence future behaviours (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012:485). In other words, a successful event can generate benefits for sport event consumers that have been identified in the literature through the notion of positive impacts. In that sense, it can be suggested that event success has roots in economic, social, cultural and psychological benefits, which can influence residents' quality of life (Kaplanidou *et al*., 2013:157).

Events are mostly held within the community's public domain, therefore community goals and impacts should be considered and taken into account when managed. Social and cultural roles influence events and can add to community benefits, such as increased community pride, the reinforcement of certain values and intercultural interaction, have been recognised (Getz, 1997:44).

The demands placed on services provided by host cities to deliver an event that is of superior quality to other event types (for example community or regional), means that the competencies must satisfy a number of requirements. These include the technical standards set by international federations pertaining to competition, non-competition elements (accommodation and transport) and personnel issues (competition management and event management) (Westerbeek *et al*., 2002:304).

Overall approval must come from the general public, government, (target) markets and other business sectors. Because so much is invested from the "public purse", strong community support is essential to the progress of an event (Ernst & Young, 1992:36; McGeoch & Korporaal, 1995:47; Westerbeek *et al.*, 2002:99). Local residents are often influential groups and event success depends on supportive, involved local communities (Fredline, 2006:133). Community views can be used as measure to determine the success and sustainability of the sport investment made by the event planners and stakeholders (Williams & Lawson, 2001:272). It is therefore important to know local people's views, since their support can influence policy makers and the perceptions of hosting impacts, in terms of justifying a successful sport event (Ma *et al.,* 2013:512).

2.3.4.4 Sponsors

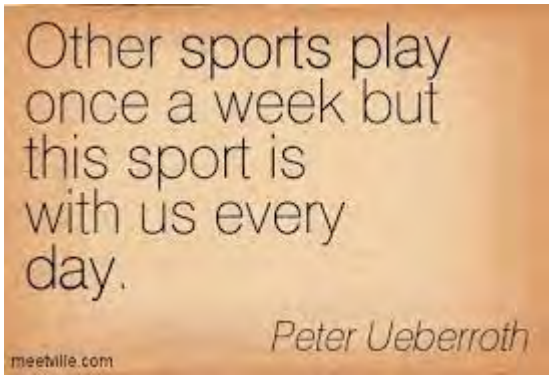
According to Saayman (2004:154) *sponsors* are organisations or individuals who support events and –organisations financially whereby they in return gain benefits such as marketing opportunities and other specific benefits that are predetermined between the sponsors and event organisations. In order to attract sponsors, marketing is needed and studies (Higgins & Lauzon, 2003; Saayman, 2004; Woolf *et al*, 2013) have revealed that events can significantly expand the demand to attract sponsorships and supporters and generate increased media coverage and revenue. Sponsorships can be a useful way to improve the image or the brand awareness of the event (Saayman, 2001b:282). Making use of social media and media coverage will increase the marketing potential for the event as well as the sport and the destination.

According to various definitions found in the literature, Radicchi (2014:53) proposed the following definition for sport sponsoring "*any agreement by which an individual or a company (the sponsor) invests in a sport entity (athlete, team, league or event) by providing funds, goods, services or know-how*". In the light of the definition, sport sponsorship is a complex phenomenon that falls within the strategic communication mix used by a company to position its product or service on the market. Sponsors are normally asked to assist in the management and organising of the events. There is a difference in the messages that sponsorship and advertising convey.

Advertising is more direct and explicit than sponsorship. Sponsorship is often targeted towards an audience on an emotional level and it is dependent on the affective relationship between the sponsorship's target group and the sponsored entity (athlete, team). Sponsorship usually reaches people during their leisure time, when they are more receptive and committed to the sport event. Sponsors can approach people and enable them to experience and interact with the sponsor's product, whereby the marketing strategy of the company is enhanced. This aids as a promotional tool for the sponsor's brand and product (Radicchi, 2014:54). Sponsorship is evolving toward an activity that is engaging many stakeholders such as the local community, sport clubs, new media, athletes and supporters, that pool resources and share complementary assets (technology, facilities, marketing capabilities, distribution channels) to reach effective objectives (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2009:60).

2.3.4.5 Sport consumers (participants and spectators)

With any event there are participants (those who partake in the event or sport) and spectators (those supporting and attending the event or sport) (See Figure 2.6). The behaviour of these sport consumers will determine whether they will attend a specific event or not. Various factors can influence the behaviour and motivation of these consumers to attend the specific event in a specific area. Participants who partake in a sport event can either compete competitively (to improve their previous time, to qualify for a next event etc.) or for social competitiveness (friends dared the participant to compete, group activity with friends etc.). Spectators are also either directly involved with the participant in the sport event, or in-directly.



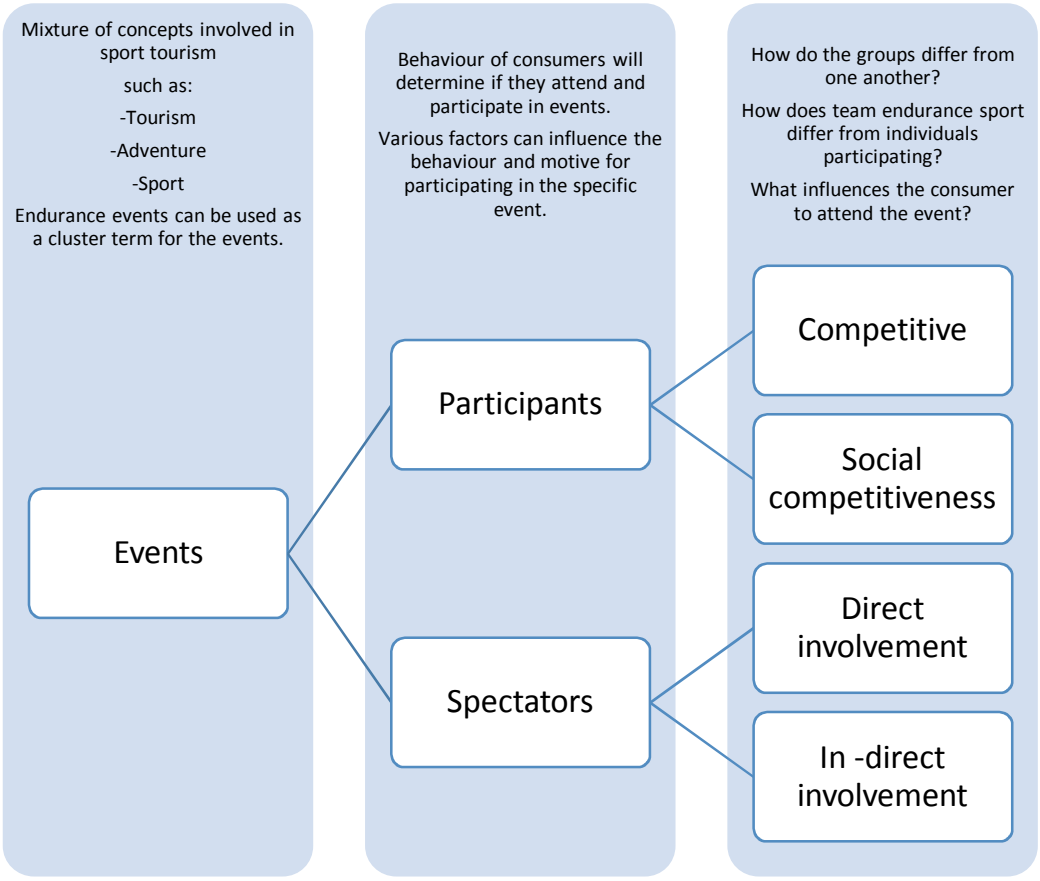


Figure 2.6: Exposition of sport events as sport tourism (Source: Adapted from Saayman, 2001a; Bouchet *et al*, 2011; Kruger & Saayman, 2012a)

Those who are directly involved include close family members and trainers or sponsors who stood by the participant during training, the blood and the sweat that goes along with it and during the long and early hours in the morning for training. They are the ones who supported and encouraged the participants to keep going, when they wanted to give up. Spectators who are in-directly involved include the community members who attend the event for the social aspect of the sport event, exhibitors, tourists who follow the event and who are there for the event itself and not necessarily for the participants. One must distinguish between a fan and a spectator, since there are differences according to the various studies conducted (Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Melnick & Wann, 2011; Parry, Jones & Wann, 2014). A sport fan is there for the group or the sport per se, whereas a spectator supports a specific individual (the participant partaking in a specific event). Kruger and Saayman (2012a:65) also classified the differences between spectators and fans in their study and conclude that a fan is more of a general spectator who is enthusiastic, devoted and shows a high level of involvement and commitment to the sport, whereas spectators are devoted to individual participant(s), thus show a high level of involvement and commitment to an individual participant(s).

Marketing is used to attract sport consumers and can influence the behaviour of the consumer to either compete, participate or to just attend the event (competitive and non-competitive

participants). Those who decide to partake in the event can do so for various reasons (for fun, for social highlight, to improve fitness, as community activity or qualifying race for future endurance events for example). Before entering a sporting event, the sport participant needs to make a decision whether they will partake either in a team (the team needs to be formed beforehand and at least needs to practice beforehand), or as an individual. Participants or the participating team can then register to partake in the event. The endurance nature of the sport needs to be analysed as it differs from individual and team sport as well as competency when compared to non-endurance sport, for instance soccer and sprinting (Funk *et al.,* 2002; Matsouko *et al.,* 2003).

Spectators can attend events also for various reasons and these consumers can be classified in two groups: direct and indirect involvement. Spectators who are directly involved, attend the event to support the participants (their main reason for attending the event). These spectators were there for the participant even before the event was organised. They are the ones who support the participants during training sessions and motivate them to continue on the "journey". All the other add-ons of the event, such as entertainment and socialising for example, are secondary reasons for attending the event. Spectators who are indirectly involved in the event are primarily there for the event and the add-ons like the entertainment. They support the participants purely because it is part of the event. In a study conducted by Bouchet *et al.* (2011:45) live attendance sport spectators were segmented in four groups and included aesthete, interactive, supporter and opportunist.

Opportunist – behaviour expresses relative neutrality with any demonstrative support being forced by a collective movement, such as a Mexican wave. Participation is linked to the hope of receiving benefits from positive rewards.
Aesthete – behaviour is oriented towards quality, beauty, exceptional performance, fair play and the drama and theatrical intensity of the event.
Supporter - behaviour is characterised by a degree of support for the participants/players. Fans want to have the feeling of being co-producers by showing a physical and vocal presence or superiority.
Interactive – behaviour is oriented towards entertainment and shared emotion in reaction to objects or people's actions. They react and interact, and project themselves into the event, sometimes beyond the port venues (Bouchet *et al.,* 2011:45).

Sport consumers' and consumption behaviour is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

2.3.4.6 Event marketers

The growth of the tourism industry has been an emphasis on the destination (place or city) marketing and promotions and the emergence of sporting events to support and enhance this promotion. Promotional objectives relate to capturing the attention of international visitors and providing information in an endeavour to entice them to travel to a specific destination – media coverage and marketing is of importance in this case (Westerbeek *et al*., 2002:305).

Sponsoring sport events become a superior marketing tool for corporations who seeks to impact the sports brand globally, nationally and locally within the host city and country (MacIntosh, Nadeau, Seguin, O'Reilly; Bradish & Legg, 2012:43). Television and other developments in telecommunication made it more accessible to sport organisation to communicate promotional messages to billions of people with sport events (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:2). Marketers are responsible for influencing the consumer by cognitive and behavioural changes, but also to understand the consumer decision-making processes, in order to be able to market sport events effectively (MacIntosh *et al.,* 2012:44). If marketers are not engaged on what the consumer's wants and needs are – they will not be able to market events and organisers will also not have an event to organise. Marketers are thus of great importance to sport consumers (both spectators and participants), for getting the 'message' and opportunity to partake, visit or enjoy the event out to the consumer, but they are also important to organisers and other role players involved in the event.

2.3.4.7 Media

Media coverage is coupled with the selling of broadcasting rights and these are important characteristics of hallmark events or any other type of event. Media can be anything from magazines, television, newspapers, social media like Twitter, Facebook and radio. The support of the media prior to or during an event guarantees exposure and consequently raises world-wide awareness of the event and host city. Sport Business (2001:50) indicated that the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney generated in excess of $1.3 billion in revenue from broadcasting the Games, indicating the financial return for event owners, organisers and the host city, brought about by media support, for the event.

Social media can utilises various forms of marketing with the latest internet-based communication tools, forums and sites that offer customised messaging to very specific audiences. Using these mediums have a higher success rate when the relevant messages are sent to the specific target groups associated with sport (Judge, Lee, Petersen, Bellar, Surber & Krill, 2014).

2.3.4.8 Volunteers

Sport volunteers play a fundamental role to achieve the overall success in terms of the provision that must be made for sport participation opportunities, according to the studies of Mihajlovic, Komnenic, Kastratovic and Cilerdzic (2010); Warner, Newland and Green (2011); Hoye and Doherty (2011). Volunteers can aid organisations financially and can consist of, but are not limited to, the following:

- Volunteers come from various backgrounds and possess different aptitudes, thus are able to serve in various job positions and responsibilities.
- Organisations benefit financially from the use of well-trained volunteers instead of paid staff.
- Volunteers can help organisers on the right track because they are not tied to any financial benefits and incentives.
- Volunteers can be used again in future sporting events, making their financial impact even greater (Han, Quarterman, Strigas, Ha & Lee, 2012:45).

Because these role players are of great significance – classification of the sport events can assist to manage and market these events accordingly.

2.3.5 Classification of sport events

In sport literature there are many classifications of sport competitions, but none of them can be accepted as unified and universal. The suggested classifications in the sport literature of the sport competitions are based on specific criteria and takes into account the nature of the sport as well as some social and demographic characteristics of the participants, according to Slavchev (2013:117).

Table 2.3 summarises a few recent studies that was conducted, with reference to various sport event types. From Table 2.3 one can clearly see that most of these events can over-lap and the classification for sport events is not set in stone. All of the examples of sport events are testing the participants on their endurance and the capability of the athlete or the participants. Interesting to note that *adventure sport events are* not researched so much anymore – this can be due to sport events finding their way in more advanced classifications, and new areas of classifying these types of sport are portrayed. Slavchev (2013) conducted a study where he indicated approaches and factors to improve the classification of sport events due to these grey, over-lapping areas. Slavchev (2013:118) stated that sport events not only affect participants, but also a large group of consumers and organisations that are involved in these events.

Events are normally not classified with the spectators in mind – but spectators/supporters must not be forgotten in this case, since spectators will always follow along with the participants. Spectators/supporters have influences on the economic success of an event, as studies have indicated (Allen *et al.,* 2007; Gibson, Qi & Zhang, 2008; Saayman & Rossouw, 2008; Saayman, Rossouw & Saayman, 2008; Kunkel, Doyle & Funk, 2014) and it is thus of importance to keep their needs in to consideration. Spectators can have an influence on the participants and without these consumers, sport events and events in general, will not have a future.

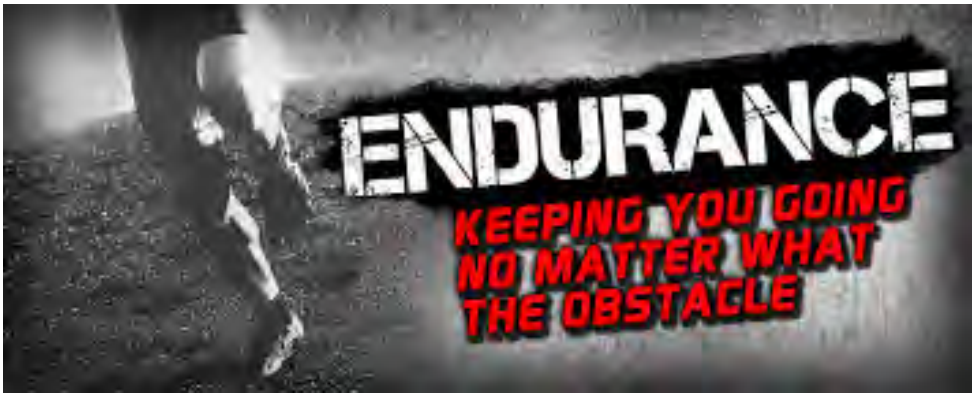


Table 2.3: Classifications of sport events

Classification of sport event	Example	Authors
Adventure sport event	Mountain biking, hang gliding	Ball-King, Watt & Ball (2012); Kerr & Mackenzie (2012); Heggie & Caine (2012); Breivik (2010); Morgan, Moore & Mansell (2005)
Extreme sport event	X-Games, freestyle motocross, skateboarding	Schüler; Wegner & Knechtle (2014); Brymer & Schweitzer (2013); Heggie & Caine (2012); Rauter & Topić (2010)
Risky sport event	Snowboarding, mountain climbing	Shoham & Kahle (1995); Boldak & Guszkowska (2013); Russell; Meeuwisse; Nettel-Aguirre; Emery; Wishart; Romanow; Rowe; Goulet & Hagel (2013)
Endurance sport event	Cape Epic, Midmar Mile, Boston Marathon, Odyssey Adventure Racing	Pauline (2014); Schüler *et al.* (2014); Rundio *et al.* (2014)
Triathlons	Ironman, Enduroman Arch to Arch	Lepers, Rust, Stapley & Knechtle (2013)
Marathons & half-marathons	Boston Marathon, Two Oceans Marathon, Comrades Marathon	Sehovic, Knechtle, Rüst & Rosemann (2013); Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Kruger *et al.* (2011a)

Some of the factors that Slavchev (2013:118) considered when classifying sport events included the following:

- Nature of the sport.
- Number of participants and type of ranking.
- Type of evaluating the sport performance.
- Conditions of performing.
- Conditions for staging the event.
- Type of sport.
- Frequency of staging.
- Types and aims of the organisations involved.

The classification shows that there are sporting events that can overlap if one is not considering the criteria that are mentioned. To support marketers and organisers with these types of events, endurance sport events will be discussed next, as the purpose of this study is specifically to study endurance sport events.

2.5 Endurance sport events

Endurance sports, such as cycling, triathlons and marathon running can consume vast amounts of leisure time when preparing and training, particularly among amateur (for example non-professional) participants (Lamont & Kennelly, 2012:236). Further, Smith (2009:5) noted that there is great variance in the ability of those who register for endurance sport events. Only a small proportion of elite competitors may harbour realistic visions of being victorious at the finish line. However, each year thousands of amateur athletes participate in endurance sport events, tolerating physical and mental anguish for extended periods, with little chance of gracing the winner's podium. Participants in endurance sport events may be engaged in what Stebbins (2001:307) calls serious leisure. This involvement in endurance sports may extend well beyond participation in events. Participation in the activity may become integrated with daily life and form a central part of the individual's social identity. Indeed, amateur triathletes have been reported to make significant lifestyle adjustments to accommodate their sporting endeavours (Hill & Robinson, 1991:82). Amateur athletes are not remunerated for their efforts, yet some treat their sporting endeavours as a second job.

Svebak and Kerr (1989:53) classified sport and leisure as endurance (requiring strenuous and persistent activity) and explosive (intense concentration and activity over short periods of time) events. *Endurance events* can be defined as "*the ability to withstand longer strain, because the distance, time and the level of anaerobic fitness/intensity requirements for successful completion are considerably higher than when compared to other sport events"* (Brook, 1987; Jarver, 1989;

Seiler, 1996; Mann & Schaad, 2001; Kellmann, 2002). Examples include the Midmar Mile; the Two Oceans; the Comrades Marathon; the Cape Epic and the Cape Argus, which are all hosted in South Africa. Other international endurance events can include, but are not limited to, the Boston marathon, Ironman and the Tour de France.

Some of the characteristics that separate sport events and endurance sport events can include the physiology, biochemistry and histology of the participants as well as the optimal training, optimal recovery and the optimal competition strategies of the sport participant (Myburgh, 2003:173). According to Baker, Côté and Deakin (2005:76) endurance participants spent a lot of time on sport-specific training compared to non-endurance athletes. Endurance athletes perform training that is greater in both quantity and quality. The endurance training is more regular and advanced, with a more balanced approach to managing training effort as suggested by Ericsson and Lehmann (1996:274). Endurance events can perhaps be used as a "cluster" for these types of events, but in order to "cluster" these events together, one needs to determine the behaviours and motives of the endurance consumers and analyse the correlations between these consumers. One thing that all these sport endurance participants have in common is that there are certain skills required, not only to the body, but the mind as well (Breivik, 2010:260). Consumption behaviour will be further analysed in Chapter 3.

2.5.1 Types of endurance sport

For the purpose of the study only an overview of endurance sport actions or sport activities associated with long distance running, cycling and swimming will be included in this section since the focus was mainly on these three types of sport. These are not the only ones to consider, but are more commonly known in endurance sporting actions. These activities can also be done in a combination for example Ironman and triathlons.

Running: According to Snyder (2012:181) the improvement in performance is not just about the miles logged or the intensity of the runs other components of running must also be considered. One component that is often overlooked is running technique. The best runners appear to move effortlessly - they are moving forward at an incredible rate of speed without even trying. These athletes have perfected their techniques, which maximizes efficiency and the running economy which refers to the volume of oxygen that the body must consume in order to cover a given distance. In other words, when two runners appear to have equal race performances, one runner may have covered that distance while consuming less oxygen, or using less energy. Running economy is not improved quickly. However, performing technique drills and specific workouts can facilitate efficiency in the way the body moves, which will eventually lead to greater economy (Snyder, 2012:181). Snyder's (2012) study can be used to verify why endurance consumers

partake in various endurance events, namely to improve the technique that these endurance participants have learned over time and also to perfect it.

Marathon: Endurance sport events boomed from the early participation increase in marathons, for example from 120,000 participants to more than 420,000 in 2004 in the United States. With medium marathon finishing times lengthening more than 50 minutes in the last 20 years, it is evident that much of this growth can be attributed to leisure time used by recreational participants who choose to compete for non-competitive reasons, like goal achievement, health, affiliation and self-esteem (Masters, Ogles & Jolton, 1993:137). These trends suggest that marathon running is becoming an avenue for non-elite athletes to compete across the lifespan, to improve and maintain fitness and to identify with a supportive subculture of their peers. Recreational marathon runners are a distinctive group that deserves unique psychological study, separate from their elite counterparts. The ultra-marathon or endurance race is a unique race, in the sense that speed is usually not a goal. For most amateurs, finishing is the primary goal. An ultra-marathon can be defined as any race longer than a marathon. The most common distances for endurance races start at 50 kilometres (31 miles). However, serious endurance runners consider 80 kilometres (50 miles) to be the shortest endurance distance race. Some races are 100 miles or more, and there is a category of endurance races on time - 12 and 24 hours are the most common durations for these races (Snyder, 2012:215). Examples of such races include the Cape Epic, where the race is divided into stages over an eight day period.

Cycling: According to Henderson (2012:221), the sport of cycling includes a variety of disciplines ranging from extremely short and intense track events, to highly variable cross-country mountain bike events, to multi-day trans-continental endurance events. Road cycling involves a mix of disciplines including time trails, hill climbs, criteria and road races. Some of these races will include just one of these options, while stage races will involve some combination of these races. Time trails and hill climbs are the simplest types of races. The distance of a time trial or hill climb may vary, but cyclists usually use fewer tactics in these race formats than in the others. In these races, the goal is to go as fast as possible from point A to point B. Most time trails are between 16 and 40km in length, though races can be shorter or longer. In a time trail, cyclists start at specific intervals, typically 20 to 60 seconds apart. Drafting is not allowed during a time trail and cyclists often use specialised aerodynamic equipment, clothing and helmets. Time-trial cyclists are larger and stronger bike racers, who can push a high power output while keeping themselves mentally engaged and motivated for the entire event. In a hill climb, cyclists may use some tactics or strategies based on the profile of the race or the presence of teammates, but this event is still primarily a test of muscle endurance. Hill climbs are the ideal race for cyclists with a slighter build, because this race requires the ability to have high power output of body weight (Henderson, 2012:226).

One can also distinguish between road cycling and mountain biking. Table 2.4 gives an overview between these two types of cycling.

Table 2.4: Road cycling versus Mountain biking

Road cycling	**Mountain biking**
Competitions are commonly held as single- or multi-stage races	Races are usually performed on natural terrain and rely on overcoming obstacles. Competition is performed at high intensity for the majority of a race, some of which last up to 2 hours.
Examples: Tour de France	Example: Cape Epic
Training is based mainly on the development of power and aerobic capacity	Frequent uphill runs and accelerations also require high anaerobic fitness. Training is much more diverse than road cycling, where repetitive training,, among others, is used to develop the ability to perform in conditions of alternating phosphogenic and glycolytic pathway use

(Source: Adapted from Zaton & Dabrowski, 2013:154)

Swimming: With the addition of open-water swimming and triathlon to the Olympics, the number of athletes participating in those sports has increased tremendously in recent years. This growth has included athletes of all ages and ability levels, all of whom are excited to improve their endurance swimming abilities. Swimming is a highly technique-dependent sport, more so than most other endurance sports (Kirousis & Gootman, 2012:233). Very little literature is available with regards to endurance swimming in particular (Kruger *et al.,* 2011b:63).

Endurance events in a sporting context will be analysed in the next section.

2.5.2 Endurance events in a sporting context

Differences in factors like gender, ethnic origin or competition level of the sport consumer, the size of population samples and the statistical approaches make comparison between studies difficult. According to Buxens, Ruiz, Arteta, Artieda, Santiago, González-Freire, Martínez, Tejedor, Lao, Gómez-Gallego and Lucia (2011:570) most studies report data on just one polymorphism, yet it is the combined influence of several genetic variants that is likely to explain individual variability in human athletic performance. Recent research showed the possibility of incorporating the study of polygenic profiles in order to discriminate genetic predisposition toward a type of sport in general, for example endurance-orientated (Williams & Folland, 2008) or a sport speciality in particular, cross-country running or lightweight category rowing. The profile does

probably differ between endurance and more power-orientated sport, because the phenotype traits that determine performance in both types of events are likely to be different (Buxens *et al.*, 2011:570).

Endurance athletes select events for many different reasons, including race attributes such as the sport, race size, race location, race reputation, the distance, pre- and post-race activities, and the challenge of the course (Stein, 2011; Moore, 2012). All sprint and endurance participants enjoy relatively acceptable skills for desirable performance and can cope with the condition of the competition. A study conducted by Edge *et al.* (2006:233) showed despite a range of athletic abilities in both team-sport and endurance-trained athletes (club-state level), it was quite clear that the team-sport group had an elevated body mass above the endurance-trained group and performed significantly more work than the endurance-trained group.

By grouping them together, researchers conducting these studies may have overlooked or over-simplified the contrasting characteristics of these types of activity or sport. The appropriateness of this single category approach has recently been questioned (Brymer, & Gray, 2009; Woodman, Hardy, Barlow, & Le Scanff, 2010).

Endurance sport provides sport enthusiasts with the opportunity to test their physical and mental abilities to determine their capability to withstand extreme environmental conditions associated with endurance events (O'Neil & Steyn, 2007:99). Something that endurance sport consumers have in common is communitas and can be described as *a sense of community that exceeds the typical social norms and convention. It is a sense of camaraderie that occurs when individuals from various walks of life share a common bond pertaining to a specific sport experience that all participants consider special or sacred* (Celsi, Rose & Leigh, 1993:12).

The motives for endurance sport participation can include (listed in no particular order): goal achievement (for example winning competitions, becoming a coach), social motivation (for example interaction with friends, passing on knowledge to students), risk-taking (for example excitement, "adrenaline rush"), escape from boredom, testing personal abilities and overcoming fear, connecting with the natural environment, unselfconsciousness and pleasurable kinaesthetic bodily sensations from moving in water or air (Kerr & Mackenzie, 2012:656). The study demonstrated that there are several motives for participation in endurance sports which include, but also go beyond, sensation-seeking and support previous findings by Allman, Mittelstaedt, Martin and Goldenberg (2009:245); Brymer and Gray (2009:145), regarding endurance sport participation motives.

Many of the motivations to participate in leisure activities extend to endurance events (Gill & Overdorf, 1994; Weinberg & Gould, 2011). However, Masters *et al.* (1993) suggested a need for a specific measure for the motivations of athletes training for and competing in an endurance event. Based on previous research (Masters *et al*., 1993; Ryan & Deci, 2008; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Filo *et al.*, 2009; Snelgrove & Wood, 2010), they proposed four categories of motives for endurance competitors:

- Psychological – to give one's life meaning, improve self-esteem (Maslow theory) and for psychological coping.
- Achievement – to achieve personal goals and to compete.
- Social – to receive the recognition/approval of others and to affiliate with others.
- Physical – to avoid health and weight concerns.

Brymer and Schweitzer (2013:865) challenged the notion that extreme sport participants only seek to conquer, compete against, or defeat natural forces. Rather, after obtaining data from interviewing extreme sport participants and other sources, they concluded that positive changes in participants' relationships with the natural world, reflected by the development of strong personal feelings of being connected to that world, occurred as a result of extreme sport participation.

For example, Castanier, Le Scanff and Woodman (2010:734) have argued that taking risks in high-risk sport can serve many different goals beyond the simple management of physiological arousal. In their study of high-risk sportsmen, they found that negative affectivity and escape self-awareness predicted risk taking behaviour. Escape self-awareness is a means of regulating negative affect by turning attention and thinking away from the self by, for example, engaging in high-risk adventure activities. Even when the researchers controlled the sensation-seeking, negative influences led participants to take risks, provided it occurred in conjunction with an escape self-awareness strategy.

There are both similarities and differences between different groups of endurance athletes, whether they are runners, cyclists or triathletes (Rundio *et al.,* 2014:18). The similarities include the centrality of the sport to the participant, the effect of training on schedules and finances and the preparation beyond the basic health benefits of a normal exercise program (Lovett, 2011:24). The differences may affect the presence and variety of certain motivations between marathoners and other endurance athletes including distinct types of equipment, general "ideal" body types, sociality, competitiveness of events and overall culture (Brown, O'Connor & Barkatsas, 2009:215).

2.5.3 Endurance success

The endurance performance capacities in humans are characterised by a large degree of inter-individual variation in the general population, according to Bourgein and Bouchet (2001:42) and even in well-trained, athletic individuals. These capacities are historically, typically assessed by exercise scientists using physiology, biochemistry and histology techniques (Myburgh, 2003:172).

In Figure 2.7 the inner-section represents a framework for the training of elite endurance athletes. The framework can also be represented by three-legged stools – if any one leg supporting any of the disciplines is unstable, the whole scheme will collapse under pressure, analogous to the sub-elite athlete who is missing an essential component of the repertoire required for elite endurance performance. The outer part reflects the acknowledgement that world-class endurance performance (as opposed to elite-level performance) requires *optimal* training. The physical and mental challenges of endurance sport are extreme and demand a great deal of preparation, sometimes months and years of preparation for one event (Myberg, 2003; Suriano & Bishop, 2010; Khodayari *et al.*, 2011).

According to Suriano and Bishop (2010:340), the most common measure of fitness is maximal oxygen consumption and is used to determine endurance success. However, physiological measurements at sub maximal workloads have also been shown to be important determinants of endurance performance, according to Suriano and Bishop's study (2010). The results of a study done by Khodayari *et al.* (2011:2283) with regards to endurance runners and sprinters, showed that there was a negative relation between mental skill and subscales of cognitive and somatic anxiety, but there was a significant positive relation between mental skills and self-confidence.

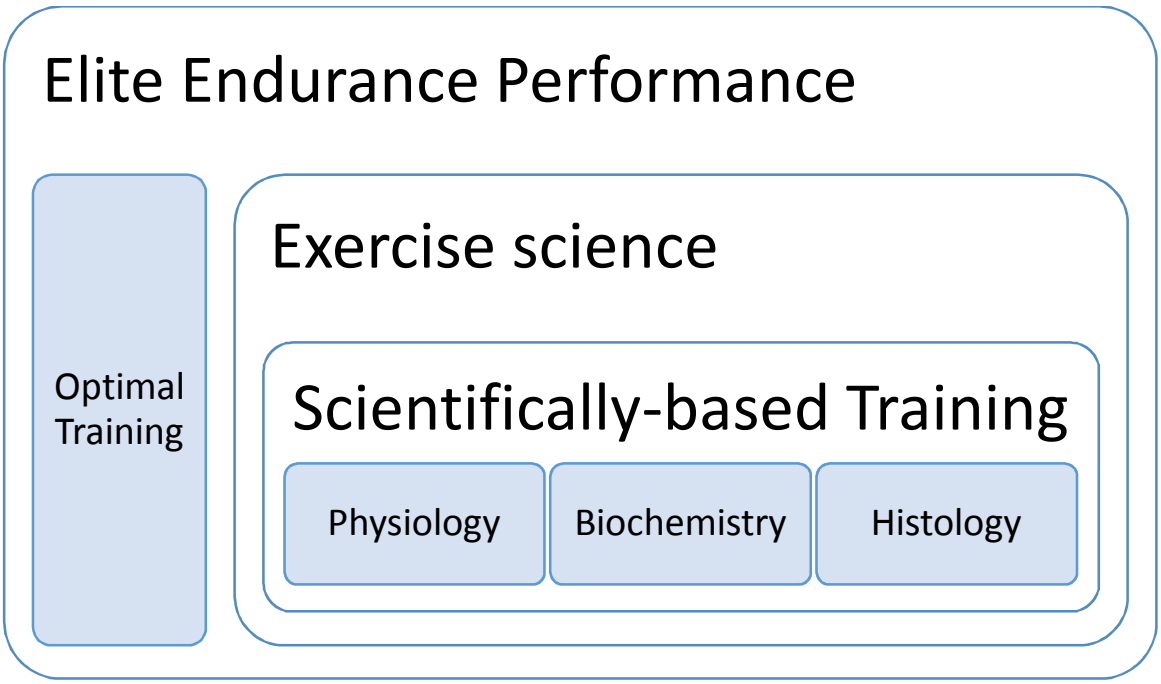


Figure 2.7: Elite Endurance Performance (Source: Adapted from Myburgh, 2003:172)

According to the study by Jones, Swain and Harwood (1996), using mental skills and experiencing them during a competition, are the best strategies to control factors which cause poor performance of athletes who can control their stressful conditions before a competition. When applying this mental control over their conditions can help them to successful achieve their goals. On the other hand, self-confidence is one of the most important mental parameters that is influential in the performance of athletes, has a positive linear relation to performance and can cause athletes to interpret anxiety positively (Khodayari *et al.,* 2011:2882). Self-confidence is something that could facilitate performance (Weinberg & Gould, 2003:32). Weinberg and Gould (2003:34) reported that athletes who used mental skills could concentrate better and had better self-confidence. Thus, it seems that different mental skills have positive effects on the performance of athletes and reduce anxiety before a competition.

In combination, these studies illustrate the association between physiological factors and endurance performance but does not imply that the variable can predict performance amongst endurance athletes (Myburgh, 2003:173).

2.5.4 The importance of hosting endurance sport events

In section 2.3.2 the benefits of hosting a sport event were discussed, but it is important to emphasise how endurance sport events can add value to the sporting industry and sport events in general.

According to Hallmann, Kaplanidou and Breuer (2010:47) the destination and tourism literature on image can be divided into a field of conceptualisation and measurement of image as well as the destination's positioning (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009) into a field of impact of destination image on the one hand and on the other hand on behavioural intentions and more precisely intent to travel and repeat visitation (Crompton, 1995; Lee & Bang, 2003; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Gibson *et al*., 2008). Solely the studies of Lee and Bang (2003); Gibson *et al*. (2008); Kaplandiou, Funk, Buta and Goutzioupas (2009) make reference to sport events, but analyses different sport events in diverse destinations, which indicates a lack of research (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010:234). Individual aspects such as age, gender, education and information sources influence destination image (Echtner, & Ritchie, 2003:44). Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007:204) proved that neither prior visits to the destination nor the travel motive showed any significant effect on destination image. Hence, these aspects should be investigated with respect to image congruence as well. Studies related to the sport science on sport event image is limited and refers mostly to sponsoring (Ferrand & Pages, 1999), and only in a few cases to the hosting destination (Xing & Chalip, 2006; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). Sport events are often regarded as mere communication tools in order to promote the destination best (Brown *et al*., 2004:283). Hallmann and Breuer's (2010) study indicated that certain aspects of image correspondence between a sport event and its host city are key for sport tourists in order to re-visit. The appeal should be very emotional as it has been shown that atmosphere is an important issue in predicting future behaviour. Prior experience with the sport event plays a significant role in foreseeing future behaviour for the destination, as well as the sport event. The affinity of reputation and atmosphere between sport event and destination are of importance with respect to re-travelling to the destination and the perceived affinity of atmosphere in predicting future visits to the event. Destination marketers should therefore stress the unique atmosphere to attract sport consumers, but it has to be provided during the stay as well. The appeal should focus on stimulating emotions via visuals, which can influence positive images leading to future visits (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010:227).

A study done by Fourie and Sanrana-Gallego (2011) tested certain hypotheses and concluded that the number of sport consumers can increase for mega-events in the year that the event was held. Tourism increased by roughly 8% in the same year, especially pre-event tourism. Tourism from participating countries increased more than sport consumers from countries not participating in the mega-event. This is important implications for countries that consider bidding for mega-events. Furthermore, the size of tourism crowding-out may depend on the season in which the event is held. Events held during peak season, on average, tend to show a decline in predicted sport tourism, while events held during the off-season attract significantly higher numbers than what is predicted. Fourie and Sanrana-Gallego (2011:1369) found evidence to support Rose and Spiegel's (2011) signal theory that countries bidding for events and lose, also benefit from the

event, although the effect is lower than for those that win. While these results point to many further directions for research, a few cautious policy conclusions may suffice. From a tourism perspective, hosting a mega-event is beneficial, even in the face of the growing scepticism of tourism crowding-out. Yet, it is not necessarily the more expensive events that yield the most benefits. The type and, importantly, timing (seasonality) of the mega-event, and the countries participating in the event all impact on the 'success' of these events, measured in terms of sport consumer arrivals.

2.6 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to analyse sport tourism and sport events in order to enhance this still exploding industry. Figure 2.1 illustrates that there are many facets to this ever-developing industry, but the main focus is on sport events as it is the goal of the study. Due to the complexity of the study and that consumers tend to intertwine the various aspects that there are of sport events, the first section of this chapter defines sport tourism as:

Sport consumers (participants and spectators) who travel to the destination where the sport event is taking place in order to partake or to support the participants at the event, whether the event is only a day or longer. The main reason for the travel is to participate in the sporting event or to support the sport and/or participants. A sport tourist is defined as a consumer who travels primarily for a sporting activity or event but does not necessarily refrain from participating in other forms of tourism during his/her trip (Saayman, 2004:29).

The sport event history was taken into account and one could clearly see that sport events have grown to an extend where specialisation needed to be more specific, in order to accommodate the fast growing needs of the consumers who attend and compete in these sporting events. From the history one notices that South Africa hosted various events that competed with international standards. The section followed with a quick overview on South African sport's event history and distinguished that South Africa has indeed made a name for itself by hosting or organising sport events and are still growing in the development of sport events.

The second section analysed sport events and indicated that there are numerous definitions and facets to consider when analysing it. Sport events can be categorised according to Bjelac and Radovanovic (2003:266) in locally-held, regional -, national -, national with some international participants, continental competitions or intercontinental events. Sport events hold certain advantages, no matter in which category the event is placed and can have economic, tourism, media, and socio-cultural, environmental, infrastructural or even political benefits. To be able to get the best benefits of these sport events, one must manage these events. Understanding the

key determinants of sport consumers' service quality is a critical task in particular for sport event managers. Sport event managers should therefore develop an understanding of the relationships in an endeavour to create favourable behaviour intentions (Clemes *et al.*, 2011:376). Voss *et al.'s* (2010) study indicated that marketing initiatives that focus on relational investments to increase involvement, complement consumer satisfaction effects by increasing consumer re-visits and thus profitability in sport events. Sporting organisers should structure their operations, processes, infrastructure and resource allocations, based on the relative importance of the service quality dimensions, and in so doing enhance their particular target consumer market (Clemes *et al.*, 2010:384*)*. This can be done with role players who have an immense influence on sport events. These role players can include, but are not limited to, event organisers, local government, community, sport consumers, sponsors, media, volunteers and marketers. The latter is of vast importance for the industry, for they are responsible to influence the consumer by cognitive and behavioural changes, but also to understand the consumer decision-making processes, in order to be able to market sport events effectively (MacIntosh *et al.,* 2012:44). If marketers are not engaged on what the consumer's wants and needs are – they will not be able to market events and organisers will also not have an event to organise. To support marketers in this big task, sport events have been classified into adventure, extreme, risky, endurance, triathlons and marathons for the purpose of the study. The classification shows that there are sporting events that can overlap if one is not considering the criteria that are mentioned by Slavchev (2013). Endurance events can serve as an umbrella term for events that test participants' endurance in a variety of sports in environmental conditions.

The third and final section analysed endurance sport events. Endurance sport events were defined as *the ability to withstand longer strain, because the distance, time and the level of anaerobic fitness/intensity requirements for successful completion are considerably higher than when compared to other sport events* (Seiler, 1996; Mann & Schaad, 2001; Kellmann, 2002). For the purpose of the study only four sporting actions were included (running, swimming, long distance running and cycling) but are not the only ones that can be interpreted as endurance sport events. Endurance athletes select events for many different reasons, including race attributes such as the sport, the distance, pre- and post- race activities, race size, race location, race reputation and the challenge of the course (Stein, 2011; Moore, 2012). All sprint and endurance participants enjoy relatively acceptable skills for desirable performance and can cope with the condition of the competition. Endurance sport provides sport enthusiasts with the opportunity to test their physical and mental abilities, to determine their capability to withstand extreme environmental conditions associated with endurance events (O'Neil & Steyn, 2007:99). There are both similarities and differences between different groups of endurance athletes, whether they are runners, cyclists or triathletes (Rundio *et al.*, 2014:18). The similarities include the centrality of the sport to the participant, the effect of training on schedules and finances, and preparation

beyond the basic health benefits of a normal exercise program (Lovett, 2011). The differences may affect the presence and variety of certain motivations between marathoners and other endurance athletes, including distinct types of equipment, general “ideal” body types, sociality, competitiveness of events, and overall culture (Brown & Fraser, 2009). Endurance success can be obtained by optimal training, using exercise science and scientifically-based training that consist of physiology, biochemistry and histology. Endurance has a lot to do with the mental ability to push beyond the boundaries of one’s fitness and capabilities, as well as the willingness to succeed and excel in the sport.

Endurance sport events can have vast impact for the sport tourism industry as a whole, with positive impacts on destination imaging and positioning. Endurance events have the capacity to increase participation in sport events in general, enhance pre-event tourism, aid in bidding for events and influence the economic growth for a country like South Africa.

Behaviour has an influence on participation as well as spectating at events and is important to analyse. By analysing endurance sport consumption behaviour in the next chapter, marketers and organisers will be able to climb the endurance sport market.

Chapter 3: Analysing the consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers in a sport tourism context

3.1 Introduction

Currently in the sport tourism literature there are limited studies dedicated to endurance sport consumers' behaviour towards sport tourism. Song, You, Reisinger, Lee and Lee (2014) are some of the few researchers who conducted a study on behaviour, but the focus was on a festival and the intentions of visitors and not on sport events in particular. Yoshida *et al.* (2013) did a study on consumer behaviour for sport event innovativeness, focusing on technology, performance and hypothesised relationships. Endurance sport is different compared to a festival and general sport, where the motivation and drive for consumers will differ. Not only does sport, in itself, have various facets that need to be considered when analysing sport in general, but endurance sport is a whole different ballgame due to the possibility of it becoming a lifespan sport and the motivation and behaviour tend to differ, compared to other sport as extensively discussed in Chapter 2 (Kruger *et al*., 2011b; Kruger & Saayman, 2012c; Kruger & Saayman, 2014). Due to the difference between sport and endurance sport and the various factors that can play a role for sport consumption as well as sport tourism, one needs to analyse endurance sport consumption behaviour in more detail.

In Chapter two the notion was made that the behaviour of sport consumers will be discussed (see section 2.3.4.5) and it is therefore the purpose of this chapter to analyse the consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers in a sport tourism context. The objectives of the chapter are four-fold and include: 1) the analysis of Endurance Sport Consumption Behaviour (ESCB); 2) the analysis of ESCB for participants; 3) the analysis of ESCB for spectators and lastly 4) additional factors that may influence ESCB and endurance sport events in general.

Endurance Sport Consumption Behaviour (ESCB) will first be analysed in the next section.

3.2 Defining endurance sport consumption behaviour

Endurance sport consumption is a complex concept and one needs to first define these four entities (sport, endurance sport, consumption and behaviour) separately, before one can analyse the consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers. Sport will be defined first in the next section.

3.2.1 Sport

Sport was derived from the word disport – meaning to divert oneself (Edwards, 1973). Woods (2007:5) defines *sport* at the hand of a pyramid (Figure 3.1) that contains four elements of human activity – play, games, sport and work.

Figure 3.1: Detailed sport pyramid (Source: Adapted from Woods, 2007:9)

Figure 3.1 illustrates that **play** forms the basic phase or action of the pyramid, since it is a childhood activity and continues throughout life in various forms. Playing involves exploration new entities, self-expression through activities, dreaming and pretending while playing games. There are no firm rules when playing and can be done anywhere. The outcome of play, other than giving pleasure, is un-important. **Games** are the second platform or phase and form part of play but can be more competitive. Games have clear goals that that can test the skills of the

participant on a mental, physical or a combination of both, and are governed by informal or formal rules. These games involve competition and can have outcomes which are determined by luck, strategy, skill or a combination thereof and results in prestige or status. **Sport** (the third platform in the pyramid) can be thought of as a specialised or higher order of play, or as games and require certain special characteristics that set them apart from playing and games. Various authors (Van der Zwaag & Sheehan, 1978; Leonard, 1980; Sage, 1998; Coakley, 2004) have defined sport over the years, and generally their ideas contain the following characteristics:

- Sport must involve a physical component. Unlike play and games, which may or may not be physical, sport must include physical movement and skill. Sport typically involves physical co-ordination, strength, speed, endurance and flexibility.
- Sport is competitive, with outcomes that are important to those involved and often to others such as families, fans, sponsoring organisations and the media. Winning and losing form part of the competition and are driving motivators for participants to train faithfully and compete, using their best effort.
- Sport involves institutionalised games. Sports are governed by an outside group or institution that oversees conduct and results and enforces rules, for example International Olympic Committee (ICO), the organiser of the modern Olympic Games.
- Sport almost always requires specialised facilities and equipment. While this may be less true of sport such as endurance running or swimming in terms of equipment, the infrastructure for these types of sport plays a role. Most sports require a field with set boundaries, a pool, a gymnasium, a court or a similar facility. Equipment becomes particularly important at professional level, where athletes critically depend on the quality of their sled, bikes, shoes and other accessories, for example.

Work is a purposeful activity that may include physical or mental effort to perform a task, overcome an obstacle or achieve a desired outcome. Often people earn their living through work by trading it for compensation that provides for existence. Sport can take on the characteristics of work at a professional level and is therefore located at the top of the pyramid. Professional athletes are paid to perform in the sport and is therefore defined as work category; where they train to improve their physical skills in order to achieve greater success and higher levels when competing with other elite athletes. Sport can vary between amateur or recreational and professional (Saayman, 2001a:47).

Sport can therefore be described as *an institutionalised competitive activity or opportunity, where the consumer wants to be self-complete through the training, testing and development of the body. This involves physical skills and specialised facilities or equipment that is used to achieve this goal (to be self-complete) and is conducted according to an accepted set of rules to determine a winner, in case of an event* (Woods, 2007:7; Saayman, 2001a:7).

Endurance sport is one component of sport events as identified in Chapter 2 and also the focus of this study, and will be discussed next in the context of ESCB.

3.2.2 Endurance sport

Endurance sport is: "*the ability to withstand longer strain, because the distance, time and the level of anaerobic fitness/intensity requirements for successful completion in/of the sport are considerably higher than when compared to other sports, whether the sport is done professionally, amateur or for recreational purposes"* (Brook, 1987; Jarver, 1989; Seiler, 1996; Mann & Schaad, 2001; Kellmann, 2002). Endurance event examples can include, but are not limited to international endurance events (for example the Boston marathon, Ironman and the Tour de France) and South African endurance events (for example the Midmar Mile; the Two Oceans Marathon; the Comrades Marathon; the Cape Epic and the Cape Argus).

Smith and Stewart (2010) and Smith and Westerbreek (2004) noted in their studies that there is great variance in the ability of those who register for endurance sport events. Only a small proportion of participants may be victorious at the finish line, however, each year thousands of amateur athletes contest endurance sport events, tolerating physical and mental anguish for extended periods, with little chance of gracing the winner's podium. This involvement in endurance sports may extend well beyond participation in events. Participation in the activity may become integrated with daily life and form a central part of the individual's social identity. Indeed, amateur endurance athletes have been reported to make significant lifestyle adjustments to accommodate their sporting endeavours (Hill & Robinson, 1991:85). Amateur athletes are not remunerated for their efforts, yet some treat their sporting endeavours as a second job (see section 2.5). There are thus differences in the type of consumers as well as various participants who can compete in these sporting events. But due to the fact that most of these endurance events are competed on an individual level, there are spectators who support the participant and not necessarily the event. For them it is not to push themselves, but more for the support of the athlete. Other spectators (fans) are engaging in the events more for the camaraderie and the enjoyment of the event. Some of these events are only held annually and is the best opportunity to enjoy the sport.

The consumption of endurance sport events forms part of sport tourism engagement and will be defined in the following section.

3.2.3 Application of sport consumption

According to the Business Dictionary (2014) "*consumption is the process in which a thing is completely destroyed, used up, or transformed into something else. Consumption of goods and services is the amount of them used over a particular time period*." The Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary (2010:313) also defines consumption as "*the act of consuming, as by use, decay, or destruction*". According to Chen, Long, Niu, Feng and Yang (2014:377) consumption plays an important role in guiding an individual's consumption attitude and behaviour. The external environment, including social factors (to name but one – there are many more), is also an important determinant. In a sport context, Drayer, Shapiro, Dwyer, Morse and White (2010:131) defines sport consumption as the amount of time and/or money spent to participate or support a sport whether the supporter is just following or showing an interest in the sport. Previous sport consumption research has categorised sport consumption into nature-related competitive sport participation and fitness activities as well as event attendance by spectators, television followers and reading of sport publications (Shohlan & Kahle, 1995; Sun, Youn & Wells, 2004). Therefore sport consumption can be described as the process in which sport activities, goods and services are used with a variety of determinants influencing the overall consumption of sport. Behaviours are formed when participating or engaging in these activities and will be discussed next.

3.2.4 Behaviour

If one has to define consumer behaviour, one might say that it refers to the study of how a person buys or use specific products or services. Consumer behaviour involves more than that and can entail how: "*Consumer behaviour reflects the totality of consumers' decisions with respect to the acquisition, consumption, and disposition of goods, services, activities, and ideas by (human) decision-making units [over time]"* (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:12).

According to Greenwald and Banaji's (1995) study, behaviour can be divided into two parts: firstly the implicit part and secondly the explicit part. Explicit behaviour can be found and observed, while implicit behaviour exists in the respondents' brains, and is therefore called behavioural tendency. Behavioural tendency is the foundation and core of actual actions and it refers to the individual response tendency and probable action judgment. It restricts actual consumption actions, and it indicates content and direction of actual actions as well. Seen from the relationships among behaviour, cognition and affect, the formation process of behavioural tendency cannot separate itself from the influence of the other two processes (Chen *et al.,* 2014:378).

According to Chen *et al.* (2014:379) consumers' demands and desires are satisfied by consumption behaviour. Actual consumption behaviour in daily life can be divided into two types, according to consumption purpose: the first is to obtain individual benefits with individual needs maximally satisfied, which is dominated by personal values, for example individual consciousness consumption behaviour and the second is to obtain harmonious development of society, nature and humans, along with satisfying one's demand, for example social consciousness consumption behaviour. The Theory of Planned Behaviour and the theory of reasoned action are interlinked with one another, which suggests that attitudes and subjective norms, mediated by behavioural intentions, have impacts on consumption behaviour (Wang, Liu & Qi, 2014:153). The main aspects of behaviour can therefore be described as the implicit and explicit behaviour (behaviour tendency) which impacts attitude and subjective norms and influence actual consumption, therefore there is a link between the two concepts.

From the four mentioned defined concepts, one can point out that behaviour is not the same as consumption and that behaviour can indeed influence the consumption of endurance sport.

Endurance Sport Consumption Behaviour (ESCB) can therefore be described as sport consumers (participants) who adapt their lifestyles (personally and in favour of endurance events when it comes to time, exercise, nutrition etc.), after realising their desire to be self-complete, by testing and developing their bodies through sport activities. Sport consumption becomes the vital when participating in competitive sport activities for both professional and amateur sport consumers. These sport activities involve physical skills and specialised facilities and equipment that will enable them to withstand longer strain for the successful completion of a sport event, for example. An endurance sport consumer's purpose, when it comes to endurance sport and event participation, is to obtain benefits for him-/herself, as well as the development of oneself. In a sport tourism context the following questions come to mind, with regards to endurance sport participants:

- Do sport participants alter their travelling according to their sport activities?
- Do sport participants travel to certain destinations, due to sport or sport events, or is there no relevance to their decision-making for tourism destinations and travelling?
- Do sport participants visit tourism attractions when attending sport events outside their home boundaries?
- Do sport participants stay longer at a sport destination when attending an event to do sight-seeing in and around the destination and other tourism attractions?

For spectatorship, these behaviours will differ, since the intentions of fans and supporters differ as well as the reasons for spectating, but sport events give them the opportunity to engage in sport on a different level. These behavioural intentions can be influenced by the sport consumers'

attitude and subjective norms. With sport spectators, some of the above mentioned questions also come to mind, along with the following:

- Do sport spectators travel to a sport event just for the event or are there other travelling motives?
- Do sport spectators spend more when travelling to sport events?
- Do sport spectators think of possible tourism activity when planning to visit a sport event?
- Is the sport event the main reason for travelling to a sport destination or can tourism attractions influence the spectators to stay longer in the area?

In the following section, a conceptualisation for ESCB is given among participants and spectators (consumers), for the mere fact that the sport consumption behaviour for these two consumers will differ at endurance events.

3.3 Conceptualisation of ESCB among participants and spectators (sport consumers/users)

In this section ESCB for participants and spectators will be discussed separately, followed by the factors that influence these sport consumers. ESCB for participants will be discussed next.

3.3.1 ESCB for participants

Figure 3.2 gives an overview of sport participants and the areas where ESCB can influence sport consumption at sporting events. Sport participation can be either in a team or from an individual point of view. Within a team/individual context there will be professional, amateur and consumers who participate in endurance sport events for professional and/or recreational reasons. In either one of these areas, there will be factors that will influence ESCB and can be categorised broadly in the profile, motives and the management of these factors.

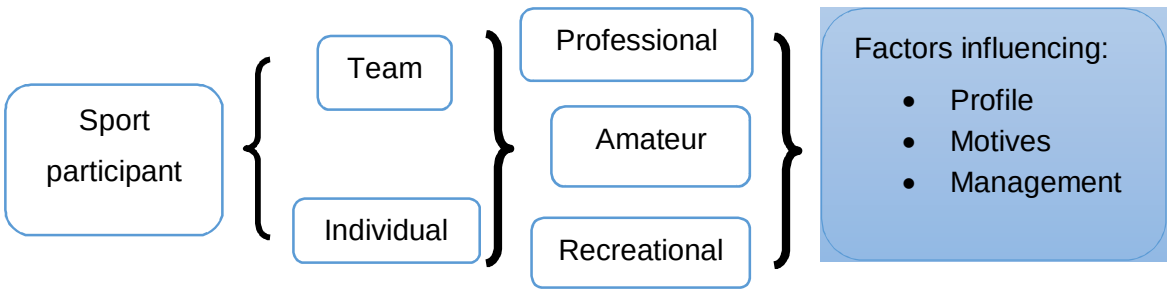


Figure 3.2: Conceptualised outline for endurance sport participants and influential factors (Source: Author's own compilation based on existing literature)

Figure 3.2 can also be used as a broad summary for a profile of endurance sport participants. Determinants in sport participation have been well studied over the years (Rodgers, 1977; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Van Tuyckom & Scheerder, 2010; Van Tuyckom, Scheerder & Bracke, 2010) and include age, gender, decision-modelling; time spent on sport participation or the frequency of participation, social and economic variables, to name only a few (Downward, 2007; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Van Tuyckom *et al.*, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010). In any comparison of the determinants of sport participants profiling, one must keep the following three aspects in mind (Downward, Lera-López & Rasciute, 2011:2470):

- The list of sporting activities varies from one study to another.
- The sports participation variable is measured in different ways.
- The comparability of estimates between the different statistical approaches may be difficult in both sign and magnitude.

According to studies (Delphy, 1998; Gidson, 1998; Hemmati Nezhad, Malek Akhlagh, Mottaghi Talab, Afshar Nezhad & Mirkazemi, 2009; Streicher & Saayman, 2010; Cook *et al.,* 2010; Kruger *et al.,* 2011b) the general profile of sport participants is male, physically active, college-educated, relatively affluent, young (18-44 years old), willing to travel long distances to participate, likely to engage in active sport tourism well into retirement, tends to participate in more than one activity and engages in repeat activity. Participants' profiles can therefore be determined by means of the following indicators: demographic profile; economic profile; sports' profile and motives for partaking/enjoying a sport/event (Figure 3.3). Bouchet *et al.* (2001:44) emphasises the importance to link these profiles to a particular context, as the profiles and motives will be different according to the sport, team and athletes who are involved and the social circumstances these consumers are in.

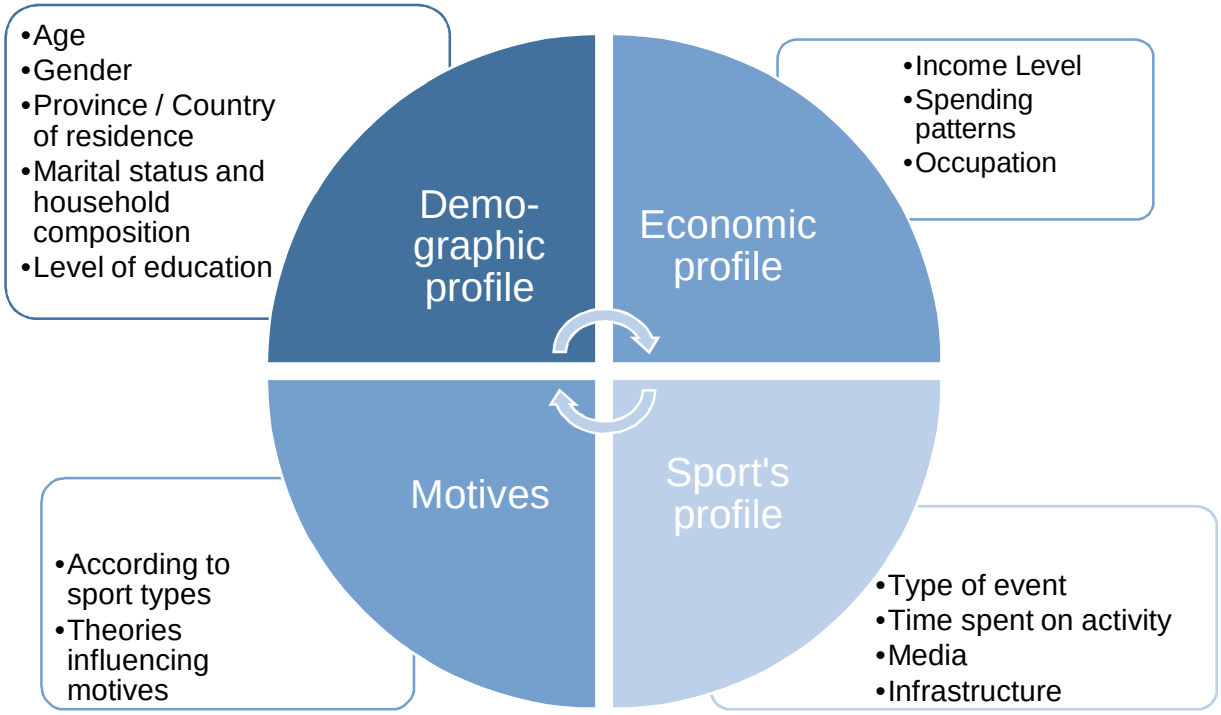


Figure 3.3: Summary of determinants for profiling sport participants (Source: Adapted from Downward *et al.*, 2011)

The indicators outlined in Figure 3.3 will be discussed next. However, please take note that the influential indicators are not limited to the mentioned indicators.

3.3.1.1 Demographic profile

The demographic profile can consist of the following variables: age, gender, province/country of residence, marital status, household composition and level of education. These variables will be discussed next.

Age

Researchers, who focus on sport participation, have found a positive relationship with age, suggesting investment in consumption (health) capital (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; García, Lera-López & Suárez, 2011). Sport participation decreases with age, due to biological and physical limitations and, consequently, to change in the type of activities preferred by the older age groups, and it seems to affect males more than females (Barber & Havitz, 2001; Farrell & Shields, 2002; Moens & Scheerder, 2004; Stratton Conn, Liaw & Conolly, 2005; Scheerder, Vanreusel & Taks, 2005; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Downward, 2007; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Wicker, Breuer & Pawlowski, 2009; Bauman, Bull, Chey, Ainsworth, Sallis, Bowles, Hagstromer, Sjostrom & Pratt , 2009; Fridberg, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011). The average age

for participants was around 40 years for general sport participants (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Kaplanidou, Funk, Buta & Goutzioupas, 2009; Hallmann *et al*., 2010). For endurance sport participants this is also the case with the average age between 30 and 40, indicating that endurance sport can become a lifespan sport, depending on the type of endurance activity and event (Kruger & Saayman, 2012c; Kruger & Saayman, 2014). Research reveals that older participants have little intention to withdraw from endurance sport, which is an important stimulator to increase age and fitness over time (Carrigan, Szmigin & Wright, 2004; Baker & Horton, 2004; Baker, *et al.,* 2005; Myburgh, Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

Gender

Gender can influence sports participation and a consensus in the literature indicate the fact that men, in general, not only participate in sport more than women (Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Moens & Scheerder, 2004; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Downward, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Van Tuyckom *et al.*, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Hallmann, Breuer & Kühnreich, 2013) but they also show a higher frequency of spectating (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Downward *et al.*, 2011). These differences may be accredited to biological factors, cultural and social influences, reflecting differences in family responsibilities as well as differences regarding behaviour, social expectations and work in a complex relationship (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010). These differences in physical activity participation are less marked among older adults (Buman, Omli, Giacobbi & Brewer, 2008b), and it seems that the gap in sports participation between men and women has narrowed in some countries in the last 10 years (Stamatakis & Chaudhury, 2008; Fridberg, 2010).

Marital status and household composition

The household influence on individual sports participation is commonly analysed through the effect of variables such as marital status, size of the household and parental influences on sports participation. Married people participate less in sport and physical activities and dedicate less time to it (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010; García *et al*., 2011). The size of a household, according to Scheerder *et al*. (2005); Humphreys and Ruseski (2007); Downward (2007) is negatively associated with sports participation. However, participation varies according to the type of sports considered (Downward, 2004; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Kruger, Saayman, Saayman & Rossouw, 2012a; Kruger & Saayman, 2014). In Downward and Rasciute's (2011) study households with a greater number of adults and children are more likely to participate in sport activities than other leisure activities. In addition, children and adolescents who perceive parents to be active report higher sports participation rates (Taks & Scheerder, 2006; Berger, O'Reilly, Parent, Séguin & Hernandez, 2008; Dollman & Lewis, 2010).

Level of education

A positive relationship between level of education and sport participation has been reported (Stratton *et al.*, 2005; Downward, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Lechner, 2009; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Wicker, Hallman, Prinz & Weimer, 2012). However, the evidence is not conclusive with the frequency and duration of sport participation (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010). A higher level of education might lead to a greater awareness of the benefits and importance of sport, as well as being associated with higher hourly wages and more available resources to take up sporting activities. Also, higher education is more likely to be associated with a sedentary occupation (Funk *et al.,* 2007; Scheerder *et al.*, 2009; Fridberg, 2010; Van Tuyckom & Scheerder, 2010).

3.3.1.2 Economic profile

The economic profile for sport participants can consist of the income level, occupation and the spending patterns, and will be discussed next.

Income

Literature indicated that a lower income can act as a barrier for sport participants (Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Spinney & Millward, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011). Although, among regular practitioners, income has no influence on the frequency of their sport participation (Gratton & Taylor, 2000; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; García *et al*., 2011). This could be explained by the fact that the higher the income, the higher the opportunity cost of time spent on any leisure activity (Funk *et al*., 2007; García *et al*., 2011). In addition, some studies have analysed the role played by professional status in sport participation and found that financing endurance sports and athletes can be considered as a policy tool for social integration (Hallmann *et al.*, 2013).

Occupation

The influence of the time constraint can also be analysed through different variables such as occupation, as well as some variables related to family structure. In some analyses, working or employment is negatively correlated with sport participation (Downward, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010). Less sport participation, in general, has been found among lower socio-economic groups and non-skilled workers (García Ferrando, 2006; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Lechner, 2009), while white collar jobs are related to higher frequency of sport participation (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010).

Spending patterns

The spending patterns of participants can influence the economic impact of the destination, help ensure the event's success and the growth of sport tourism. Five commodities can be influenced and include, but are not limited to accommodation, transport, shopping, food and entertainment (Divisekera, 2010:630). Between the different approaches and models that can be used to analyse tourism demand, the single equation and system of equations are the most popular among researchers. Tourism numbers are often used as an indicator/measure of tourist demand (the dependent variable). Among the independent variables, in addition to prices and incomes, some authors have included marketing/promotion expenditures as an explanatory variable as well (Kulendran & Divisekera, 2007). An international study conducted by Divisekera (2010), comparing variables in spending patterns, indicated that the length of stay influenced the amount of expenditure, thus consumption patterns. On average, participants stayed in the host city between two or three nights (Daniels & Norman, 2003). It was noted that accommodation accounted nearly 30% of the budget of international sport tourists, followed by 22.5% on food. Entertainment was found to be the second highest with 25%. Divisekera (2010:631) states that different consumption customs, preferences and purpose for visiting must be kept in mind for spending patterns.

3.3.1.3 Sports' profile

Physical education and sport, for example, are some of the social occurrences that have been established in recent years. The dominant sport culture is influenced by quite a few social factors that can affect the beliefs, attitude and performance of consumers. Sport is therefore influenced by social attitudes (Moradi, Honari, Naghshbandi & Jabari, 2012:5356). Media is a big influencer, the type of event/sport and the time usually spent on the activity, as well as the availability of infrastructure and facilities for the sport have an influence on participation and cannot be neglected (Kim & Lee, 2002:259; Kozak, 2002:229; Lee & Bang, 2003:35; Yu, 2010:127). These entities such as media, type of event, and the time spent on sport and the availability of infrastructure will be discussed next.

Media

Sport has become an important advertising platform for many corporate businesses, because of the "flexibility, broader reach and higher levels of brand or corporate exposure" that sport platforms afford – a specially with the new sport channels that are available today compared to ten and fifteen years back (Kropp, Lavack, Holden & Dalakas, 1999:49). When attending or watching sporting events, amateur or professional, consumers are exposed to a variety of advertisements. Research has demonstrated that people form attitudes toward products and brands, based on their attitudes toward advertisements. In the same manner, attitudes are

formed, based on specific advertisements through sport, and those attitudes are believed to influence decisions to purchase a particular advertiser's product or service (Bush, Smith & Martin, 1999:22). Media has the influencing power to get consumers who are intrigued with sports, to become more involved and even influence participants and spectators to attend and partake in endurance sport events.

Type of event/sport

In literature there are very few studies analysing the type of sport that can influence the profile of sport consumers, but the sport type will affect the decision-making process of the participant when events are taken into account. Prior experience in sports activities is likely to raise participation in any specific sport and the social interactions, or lifestyles affect participation along with access to income (Downward *et al.,* 2011:2470). Different sport types may differentially facilitate executive functioning improvements (Jacobson & Matthaeus, 2014:522). Masters and Ogles (1995); Stoll *et al*. (2000) found that the distance of the event trained for and participated in had a significant effect on the athletes' reasons for participating in a specific sport/event.

Time spent on sport/event

The decision modelling of sport participation has increased in complexity. Logistic regression has been applied to binary data to measure specific participation as well as the frequency of those who participate in sport activities (Downward, 2007; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Van Tuyckom *et al.*, 2010; Van Tuycom & Scheerder, 2010). These models have also been supplemented by multiple classification analysis for participants (Farrel & Shields, 2002; Stratton *et al*., 2005; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008). Double-hurdle models, as well as "copula" estimators have been used (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010). These models showed that the more time spent on a sport, the more involved participants got and the motivation and drive to enhance in levels and to peak became important to participants. For spectators, on the other hand, involvement also increases and spectating can become activity, whereby spectators will start engaging in the sport, even if it is just for fun.

Available infrastructure

Studies include a number of variables to determine the influence of accessible sports facilities in sport demand. Generally speaking, a degree of sport supply should induce or constrain sport demand and participation (Downward *et al.*, 2011:2471). Downward and Rasciute's (2010) study revealed that sport facilities do in fact promote sport participation that leads to leisure. Wicker *et al*. (2009) study indicated that a lack of sport facilities reduces the regularity of sport activities.

Sport profiles are not enough to analyse ESCB. Motives go hand in hand with behaviour and will be discussed next.

3.3.1.4 Motives

According to Mannell and Kleiber (1997:187); Evans and Kelley (2002:306) motivation is a reason to engage in certain behaviours. It therefore determines the direction and strength or intensity of the behaviour, the force that moves them to take action (Cassidy & Pegg, 2008). Needs can drive certain aspects of motivational behaviour and are the pinnacle point in most motivational theories (Hudson, 1999; Cassidy & Pegg, 2008). Literature and studies have indicated that sport participants' motives can be either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. Examples of intrinsic motivation are to experience, to know, to accomplish and to be physically active – self-determination (Ritchie & Adair, 2000). Extrinsic motives, such as winning trophies and gaining social prestige, are also sought out, including motives such as escape and relaxation (Hritz & Ramos, 2008:310; Kruger *et al*., 2011b:61). The studies conducted by Bloom, Grant and Watt (2005); Fridberg (2010) indicated that the benefits and motivations for sport participation are physical fitness and health, entertainment, relaxation, a sense of achievement and skill development and socialisation. A large set of studies has focused on the motivations for getting involved in sports. People's motivations for sport involvement needs to be understood if sport management and marketing organisations wants to develop more effective strategies to attract new participants and also to be sustainable in the sport environment. Kruger *et al*. (2011b:76) indicates that motives for participating differ according to the sporting event and should not be regarded as a homogenous group when marketing and organising of events are done (Hinch & Higham, 2004; Weed & Bull, 2004). For most of these motives and reasoning, there are various theories and scales that can back these findings and behaviours of participants. These theories and scales can include, but are not limited to, the theory of planned behaviour, self-determination theory, social theories, commitment theories, sport commitment model, sport motivation scales and push and pull analysis to name a few. Some of these theories will be discussed shortly.

Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

Social cognitive theories, which encompass both social and psychological determinants of behaviour, are among the most widely adopted frameworks in health behaviour and health education research (Conner & Norman, 2005). Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour is an extension to the theory of reasoned action. Both theories hold that attitudes and subjective norms predict a person's intention to participate in an activity. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is a widely tested social cognitive model because it has been useful for predicting many different kinds of volitional behaviours (for example diet and exercise) (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Hagger; Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 2002; McEachan, Conner, Tayler & Lawton, 2011). The intention is

determined by three components: subjective norms (the social force to implement the behaviour); attitudes towards the behaviour (positive and/or negative behaviour) and supposed behavioural control (the ability to do the behaviour). Therefore, the intention to engage in or perform the act under consideration will be stronger when the attitudes toward the behaviour are positive, when important others support the behaviour and when the individual believes that he/she has control over engaging in the behaviour (Gucciardi & Jackson, 2013:2). A shortcoming of the theory of reasoned action, is the consideration of behaviour over which people do not have complete control. There-in lays the notion of perceived behavioural control or the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:188). As Hagger *et al*. (2001:712) note, this concept reflects the person's assessment of the capacities (for example skills and abilities) and the limiting or facilitating factors (for example barriers and access to facilities) regarding behavioural engagement. Previous behaviour must also be kept in mind and can work in conjunction with the theory of planned behaviour to predict intentions and future behaviour. Cunningham and Kwon (2003:132) formed the hypothesis that behaviour will work in concert with attitudes, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms to hold a positive association with intentions to attend a sport event. Ajzen (1991:181) notes that intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence behaviour, intentions are indicators of how hard consumers are willing to try or how much effort one is planning to exert in order to perform the behaviour. Hagger *et al.* (2002) support the strong intention behaviour relationship.

Self-determination theory (SDT)

The self-determination theory is an amplification of human motivation theories such as the drive theory and the intrinsic extrinsic dichotomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Based upon understandings of innate psychological needs in humans, the self-determination theory focuses on certain behaviours autonomously, or in a self-determined manner (Ingledew & Markland, 2008). This theoretical framework is useful for analysing the motives of endurance sport consumers, given their volitional participation and the dedication required to participate successfully in these sport events. Researchers have preferred a number of justifications for studying the motivations of sport participants. Such reasons include facilitating construction of and adherence to training programmes, promoting and/or marketing the activity in question and promotion of regular exercise and a healthy lifestyle to the general public (Ogles & Masters, 2003; Lachausse, 2006; Ingledew & Markland, 2008; Brown *et al.,* 2009). The reason *why* people participate in sport (need satisfaction), influence social-cognitive variables that predict energy and effort towards volitional behaviour (Gucciadri & Jackson, 2013:2). When people perceive that their social environment supports needs satisfaction, they feel as though they are the originators of their behaviour and skilled and capable in their actions, socially valued and connected with others and are provided with rationales for decisions and processes, thereby fostering an understanding of why the activity is important (Ryan & Deci, 2008).

Sport commitment model

Scanlan, Carpender, Simons, Schmidt and Keeler (1993) propose the Sport Commitment Questionnaire, which consist of five components: sport commitment, sport enjoyment, personal enjoyment, social limitations and participation opportunity. Bansal, Irving and Talyor (2004) points out that although commitment has been examined with different labels in many disciplines, substantial support (Becker, Randall & Riegel, 1995; Gruen, Summers & Acito, 2000; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) has been established for the three dimensions of commitment (affective-, continuance- and normative commitment), proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). In the sport marketing literature, commitment to wards sport has been studied primarily to team loyalty. Mahony, Madrigal and Howard (2000) developed a Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) scale to better classify sport consumers. As an attitudinal component of team loyalty, an individual's particular level of commitment influences his or her categorisation within one of the four loyalty segments. In a later study, Heere and Dickson (2008) argue that the distinction between the terms commitment and loyalty is ambiguous. Although Heere and Dickson (2008) conceptualise a distinction between loyalty and commitment, they still view commitment as a uni-dimensional concept.

Meyer and Allen's (1991); Gruen *et al*.'s (2000); Bansal *et al*.'s (2004) commitment dimensions are used for the derivation of sport consumer commitment. A model of commitment suggested by Gruen *et al*. (2000); Bansal *et al*. (2004) can be incorporated with sport consumers due to commitment that drives an individual to pursue a specific sport or sports team. The primary influencer may be the emotional connection that is affiliated with a sport or a team (for example sport consumers support a team because they enjoy watching games). The majority of research in sport marketing has used a uni-dimensional conceptualisation of commitment, most commonly operationalised as affective commitment (Trail *et al*., 2000; Mahony *et al*., 2000; Kwon & Trail, 2003; Funk & James, 2006; Heere & Dickson, 2008; Kim. James & Kim, 2013).

Social theories

Table 3.1 gives a summary of the social theories that have been studied over time. Each of these theories can help researchers to the understanding the world of sport and exercise as it presently exists. Some generalisations that can help understand the significance of each theory according to Weed's study (2007:26), include the following:

- Most people who extol the virtues of sport as it has existed traditionally use the functionalist approach. While this approach may have been useful in the past, it does not help identify existing social issues or provide any hope of solutions. People who work within existing sport organisations may adopt this approach in the interest of maintaining the status quo.

- Conflict theories have impressed upon the influence of social class and the power structure within sport. These theories have pointed out conflict within sport and have often led to dramatic proposals for change.
- Since the 1970's, critical theories have been the most helpful in clarifying the challenges in making sport more accessible to people from all backgrounds and abilities. One specific critical theory, namely the feminist theory, has enabled one to understand the issues that women faced before and their ongoing struggle to claim a share of the sporting world and make it people-orientated, rather than male-orientated.
- Interactionist theories allow one to look in depth at sport from the athlete's point of view and to add a qualitative bent to analysis.
- Figurational theories have been especially helpful in Europe in long-term analyses of sporting subcultures and in understanding global expansion of sport.

Table 3.1: Social theories for the study of sport

Theory	How it looks at the world	Major concerns as it looks at sport	Shortcomings
Functionalist theory	Maintains the status quo and equilibrium.	Sport can build character and install values. Competition is valuable and high performance is a critical outcome of sport participation.	Over-emphasise the imports of sport while ignoring those who are overlooked, such as women, people who are economically poor, certain racial groups and people who have physical disabilities.
Conflict theory	Economic interests shape the world. Those who have power exploit those who do not. Change is inevitable and struggle by repressed classes is expected.	Sport benefits the individuals and organisations in power to the detriment of the participants and working classes. Athletes should have more control over their sport destiny and quality of experience.	Relies too heavily on economic factors and ignores the importance of race, ethnicity, gender and age. Underestimates the effect of groups that empower individuals in a capitalist society. Tends to overlook participation and recreational sport for healthy living.
Critical theory	Life is complex and diverse. Order is obtained through struggles over ideology and power. A better life for all citizens is the goal. Sport do not simply mirror society, they provide opportunity to change society.	Sport must change to be fair to everyone, more democratic and sensitive to diversity. Sport can help us improve our outlook toward gender, physical or mental disability, sexual orientation and physical talent.	Critical theories are varied and sometimes confusing. They tend to encourage resistance against the status quo to protect special interests, even when doing so is not advisable. They work better for specific cases than for forming an overall ideology.
Feminist theory	Social life is based on a patriarchal ideology and controlled by men in powerful positions. Feminine virtues are ignored or under-valued.	Females lack equal opportunity in sport. There is a lack of woman in coaching and leadership positions. Traditional masculine traits of competitiveness and aggressiveness conflict with traditional feminine traits like sensitivity and nurturing.	Similar weaknesses to those of other critical theories. Also weak in addressing other categories that are connected to gender such as age, race, social class and disability.

Theory	How it looks at the world	Major concerns as it looks at sport	Shortcomings
Inter-actionist theory	Views the world from bottom up rather than from top down. Focuses on social relationships between people. People make conscious decisions on how to respond and act toward the outside world.	How people choose to participate in sport. What the experience is like for the athlete. Encourages open and democratic sport organisations. Youth sport should fit the needs and desires of kids.	Concentrates on the individual to the exclusion of the overall structure of sport. Does not address issues of power in sport as critical theories do.
Figurational theory	Accentuates the connections between people and their interdependence. Views change that occurs over time.	Historical and long-term view of sport within society. Focus on masculinity and male power. Helpful in understanding global influence on sport development.	Devotes little attention to current issues by focusing on the long-term picture. Reduces the urgency to press for change. Underline the male power in societies.

(Source: Adapted from Weed, 2007:21)

These theories are also used in measurement instruments/scales to determine motivation of sport participants. One of these scales is the Sport Motivation Scale and will be discussed next in conjunction with the Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire.

Sport motivation scale (SMS) II versus behavioural regulation in sport questionnaire (BRSQ)

Lonsdale, Hodge, Hargreaves and Ng (2014) examined and reviewed the Sport Motivation Scale II and the Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire (BRSQ) in their study in order to improve sport motivation measurement in the future. Pelletier, Rocchi, Vallerand, Deci and Ryan (2013) examined the validity and reliability of scores derived from the Sport Motivation Scale II (SMS-II). The SMSII, a revision to the Sport Motivation Scale (SMS) developed by Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, Tuson, Brière and Blais (1995), is based on the self-determination theory (SDT), and was designed to measure different types of behavioural regulations in sport. Pelletier *et al*. (2013:338) conducted a two-staged study and stated they had overcome the problems with the original SMS, concluding that the SMS-II performed as well as or even better than the original scale. Pelletier *et al*. (2013:339) also concludes that compared to the Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire (BRSQ), developed by Lonsdale, Hodge, and Rose (2008), the SMS-II represents a scale that better addresses the limitations observed with the original SMS and that shows more consistent results with SDT. The scale items were finalised on intrinsic-, integrated-, identified-, interjected-, external- and lastly a-motivated regulation.

The Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire: Instrument Development and Initial Validity Evidence (Lonsdale, Hodge & Rose, 2008) was designed to assess sport motivation, as outlined in SDT for a description of relevant aspects of the theory, including definitions of motivational constructs. One issue with the BRSQ that Lonsdale *et al*. (2008) acknowledged was that although the majority of evidence showed that there was a distinction between subscales measuring intrinsic motivation, autonomous extrinsic motivation (integrated and identified regulation), controlled motivation (external and interjected regulation), and a-motivation, some evidence suggested that scores of integrated and identified regulation were not distinctive. Similarly, external and interjected regulation scores were correlated and showed similar correlations with some constructs (for example other types of behavioural regulations). Recently, Pelletier *et al*. (2013) drew conclusions somewhat similar to Lonsdale *et al*. (2008) regarding the nomological validity of BRSQ scores. Pelletier *et al*. (2013:331) indicates that, although Lonsdale *et al*.'s (2008) results showed support for the distinctions between the (BRSQ) self-determined subscales (intrinsic motivation and identified and integrated regulation) and the non-self-determined subscales (external and interjected regulation), the finer discrimination within each type of category appears to be lacking. There was a lack of discrimination between external and interjected regulation scores in terms of their relationships with a-motivation, identified and

integrated regulation subscales both had similar high correlations with intrinsic motivation and there was a lack of discrimination between the self-determined subscales (intrinsic motivation and identified and integrated regulation) and the concepts of flow and burnout. After acknowledging the limitations of the original SMS and voicing Lonsdale *et al*. (2008), concerns regarding nomological validity related to some of the BRSQ scores, Pelletier *et al*. (2013) decided to revise the SMS. Two studies were conducted to evaluate the reliability and validity of scores derived from this new measure, entitled the SMSII. Pelletier *et al*. (2013) concluded that compared with the BRSQ, the SMS-II addressed the shortcomings of the SMS better. However, the design of the study allowed Lonsdale *et al*. (2008) to only directly compare the original SMS and the SMS-II, but not the BRSQ, as it was not included in their data collection. There were a number of issues that Lonsdale *et al*. (2014) believe prompt caution in accepting the SMS-II as a better measure: (i) while both measures produced scores that were internally consistent, factorial validity evidence indicated that the BRSQ accepted criteria for model fit, but evidence for the SMS-II was mixed; (ii) neither measure-produced scores that conformed perfectly with simplex structure; however, the BRSQ appeared to discriminate better among the autonomous motivation subscales scores, while the SMS-II's controlled motivation scores were more clearly differentiated; (iii) evidence regarding correlations between motivation scores and theoretically-related variables supported the BRSQ over the SMS-II and (iv) all conclusions must be tempered because direct comparisons between the SMS-II and the BRSQ scores are not possible, since Pelletier *et al*. (2013) did not collect BRSQ data and in the case of relations with theoretically-related constructs, differing variables were measured in the Pelletier *et al*. (2013); Lonsdale *et al*. (2008) studies. Consequently, comparative commentary can only be in narrative form (Lonsdale *et al*., 2014).

3.3.2 Overview of sport participant motives

From the theories and measure instruments mentioned, it becomes clear that there is a variety of measuring instruments and theories that can assist in determining motives for sport consumption and that this area is in constantly improved and must be frequently updated. For the purpose of the study, some of the motives that these theories identified, have been grouped together according to the type of sport. Only running, swimming and cycling will be included since it is the focus of the study (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Sport type motivation summary

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	**Authors**	**Mountain biking**	**Authors**
Physical fitness	McDonald *et al*. (2002); European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Fridberg (2010); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Physical fitness	McDonald *et al*. (2002); European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Physical fitness	McDonald *et al*. (2002); European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Physical Fitness	Delle Fave, Bassi & Massimini (2003); Berger & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz & Tahra (2010); Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)
Health	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Lachausse (2006); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Health	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Lachausse (2006); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012)	Health	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Lachausse (2006); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012)		

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Entertainment	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Fun and entertainment	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Entertainment	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Entertainment	Kerr & Mackenzie (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)
Relaxation	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Funk *et al.* (2007); Fridberg (2010); Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Relaxation	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Relaxation	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Streicher & Saayman (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)		

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Goal achievement	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Ogles & Masters (2003); European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lachausse (2006); Fridberg (2010); Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Goal achievement	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Goal achievement	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Lachausse (2006); Fridberg (2010); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Goal achievement	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Kerr & Mackenzie (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)
Skill development	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Skills development	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012)	Skills development	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Ardahan (2012)	Skills development	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010)

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Socialisation	McDonald *et al*. (2002); European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Funk *et al*. (2007); Fridberg (2010); Whiting, Pawelko, Green & Larson (2011); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012); Kruger *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Socialisation	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Whiting *et al.* (2011); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Socialisation	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Streicher & Saayman, (2010); Whiting *et al.* (2011); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Socialisation	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Whiting *et al*. (2011); Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)
Risk-taking	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006)					Risk taking	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Page, Bentley & Walker (2005); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Brown & Fraser (2009); Castanier *et al*. (2010); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Kerr & Mackenzie (2012)

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Stress reduction	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Stress reduction	Shipway (2012)	Stress reduction	Shipway (2012)	Rush experience	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Allman *et al*. (2009); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Kerr & Mackenzie (2012)
Aggression	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006)					Nature	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Kerr & Mackenzie (2012)
Camaraderie	European Commission, (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Kruger *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Camaraderie	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010)	Camaraderie	European Commission (2004); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Fridberg (2010); Lamont & Kennelly (2012)		

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Athletic identity	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012)			Athletic identity	Lamont & Kennelly (2012)		
Self-actualisation	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012)			Self-actualisation	Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)		
Value-development	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006)						
Extrinsic / intrinsic-achievement	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Kruger *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Intrinsic achievement	Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Ardahan (2012)	Intrinsic achievement	Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012)	Intrinsic achievement	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012)
Competition	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Ogles & Masters (2003); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Competition	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Competition	Lachausse (2006); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012)	Competition	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012)

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Self-esteem	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Ardahan (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Self-esteem	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Self-esteem	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Self-esteem	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Ardahan (2012); Buckley (2012)
Affiliation	McDonald *et al*. (2002); Gillett & Kelly (2006); Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Ardahan (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Affiliation	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Affiliation	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012)	Affiliation	Ardahan (2012); Buckley (2012)
Escape	Funk *et al.* (2007); Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012) (2012); Kruger *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)	Escape	Kruger *et al*. (2011b) Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Escape	Streicher & Saayman, (2010); Lamont & Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Escape	Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Berg & Greenspan (2008); Carnicelli-Filho *et al*. (2010); Ardahan (2012); Buckley (2012); Shipway (2012)
Passion	Ogles & Masters (2003)						

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Life-style	Ogles & Masters (2003); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Lifestyle	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Lifestyle	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)		Shipway (2012)
Personal accomplish-ment	Ogles & Masters (2003); Shipway (2012)	Personal motivation	Shipway (2012)	Personal motivation	Streicher & Saayman, (2010); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Personal motivation	Shipway (2012)
Prestige	Funk *et al.* (2007)						
Well-being	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Well-being	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Well-being	Lachausse (2006); Ardahan (2012); Shipway (2012)	Well-being	Shipway (2012)
Event attractive-ness	Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Kruger *et al*. (2012)				Streicher & Saayman, (2010); Kruger *et al*. (2012)		
Family togethe-rness	Kruger & Saayman (2012b); Ardahan (2012); Kruger *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2014)					Friends and family	Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012)

Running	*Authors*	*Swim-ming*	*Authors*	*Cycling*			
				Road	Authors	Mountain biking	Authors
Commitment	Kruger & Saayman (2014)						
Environment	Brymer *et al.* (2010); Whiting *et al.* (2011)	Environment	Brymer *et al.* (2010); Whiting *et al.* (2011)	Environment	Brymer *et al*. (2010); Whiting *et al.* (2011)	Environment	Brymer *et al.* (2010); Whiting *et al.* (2011)

Some of the general motives that are overlapping in Table 3.2 include physical fitness, entertainment, goal achievement, skill development, socialising, competition, self-esteem; affiliation and to escape. Literature is lacking the following aspects for participants pertaining to the motives of the sport: passion, aesthetics, value development, stress reduction, risk taking, prestige and the commitment to participate and do the sport. Yet these motives are of importance and have an influence on the ESCB of participants. Interesting to note that there are not many studies that have taken interest in mountain biking motives as well as swimmers' motives for participating in the sport.

Since spectators are not competing in the event and merely spectating (with the main focus on the individual who is participating and not on the sport per se), their profile might be different along with their motives, therefore their ESCB will differ. Spectators' ESCB will thus be discussed next.

3.3.3 ESCB for spectators

The summary that Figure 3.4 provides indicates that sport spectators can be classified in two categories: firstly those who support the team and secondly those who support the individual at the sport event. In team-sport spectatorship there is a higher number of spectators that are devoted and enthusiastic and the level of involvement and commitment is towards the sport. Spectators who support the individual (in the case of endurance sport) are also devoted, but more towards the participant as towards the sport in particular, thus a higher involvement and commitment towards the individual. The difference between these two entities is visible in the motives or reasons for attending an endurance sport event. Most of the studies (Wann, 1995; Wann, Melnick, Russel & Pease, 2001; Zhang, Pease, Lam, Bellerive, Pham, Williamson & Lee., 2001; Mahony *et al.*, 2000; Fink *et al.*, 2002; Crawford, 2004; Hinch & Higham, 2005; Chen, 2007; Smith & Stewart, 2007; Appelbaum, Cain, Darling, Stanton, Nguyen & Mitroff, 2012) that are reviewed in the literature are from a team perspective and only on regular sport events or where a team sport was researched, except the study of Kruger and Saayman's (2012a), where the focus was on the memorable experience of spectators at the Two Oceans Marathon (an endurance event), held in South Africa. Thus, there is a gap in the literature for endurance sport spectators' motives as well as comparing and analysing the difference for team- versus individual sport spectatorship (see Table 3.3).

The next section will distinguish between the two entities by looking at the spectator profile and motives.

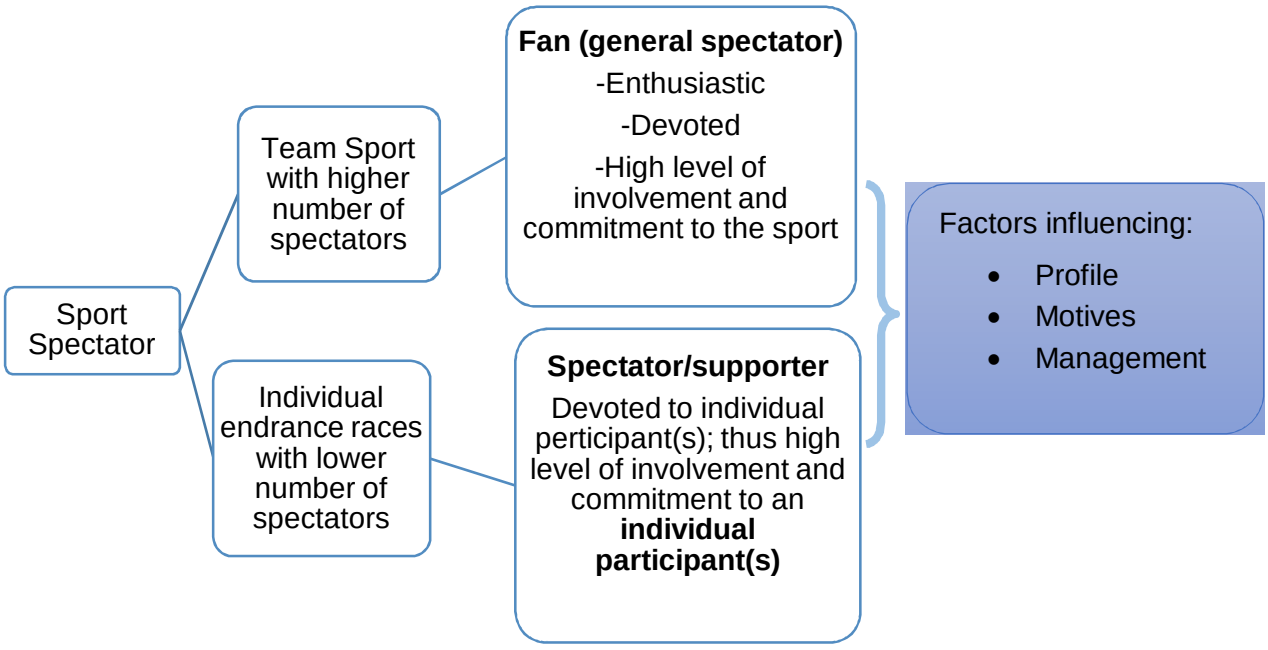


Figure 3.4: Classification of sport spectators at sport events (Source: Adapted from Kruger & Saayman, 2012:65)

3.3.3.1 Profile of spectators

The profile of spectators is also influenced by the demographic-, economic and sport-*viewing* profile and will be discussed shortly in the next section. Limited research is currently conducted on endurance sport spectators with the notable exception of Kruger and Saayman (2012a).

Demographic profile

The general profile of spectators attending team sport events was around 40 years, male and married (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Funk *et al*., 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al*., 2009; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Hallmann, Breuer & Kühnreich, 2013; Shapiro *et al.,* 2013). The majority of spectators also have a degree or a diploma (higher education) (Shapiro *et al*., 2013:136; Schnitzer, Scheiber, Lang, Brandsetter & Kopp, 2014:5). In a South African context, it is found that spectators' demographic profile is similar to those participating in endurance sport, whether a fan or a supporter at these types of events. Kruger and Saayman (2012a:69) summarise the profile for endurance sport spectators as female with an average age of 38 years, English-speaking and travelling in groups of five people per group. These spectators stay on average four nights and support the event about four times. The average spending was R 3 300.00 (approximately US$ 400.00) per group during their stay.

Economic profile

Spectators spend less since they arrive after participants and stay a shorter period of time (Gratton, 2004; Shipway & Jones, 2008). For spectators who are more involved with the participant, this is the opposite, with regards to spending, since they arrive with the participants and stay just as long (Kim, Guo & Agrusa, 2005). Thus the length of stay will have an influence on the economic profile for the spectators when visiting endurance sport events (Fodness & Murray, 1999; Yu, 2010). At team sport events cost (travel expenses, ticket prices, accommodation etc.) is a big factor, which influences spectators to travel to support their favourite teams or sport (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Papatheodorou, 2001; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2003; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Yu, 2010). In a South African context, it was found that those closest to the participants would spend more and most probable engage in tourism activities, since they were longer in the area. As for fans, some factors will prevent or limit them to over-spend, since they are arriving the day of the event or a day before. Length of stay therefore has an economic impact (Saayman & Saayman, 2001; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Saayman *et al.*, 2005).

Sport viewing profile

For the past 10 years, sport observers (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, & Rowe, 2001; Crawford, 2004) have noticed a globalisation and a diversification of sporting events, both at sites dedicated to sporting competitions and at ones dedicated to televised viewing. This has involved increased attendance within sport venues as stadiums and indoor arenas, giant screens are set up in public places such as pubs for fans. Televisions, computers, and mobile phones are also used for sport viewing pleasure. This evolution of sporting events' reception modes has contributed to the expansion of sport viewers from the traditional supporters or fans (Crawford, 2004). The new participation forms and consumption logics of these new spectators seem to operate at several levels and social- and demographic backgrounds. This affects the way people support and follow their sport idols/teams and the meaning of social belonging and identification that is associated with sport (Bouchet *et al.,* 2011:42). Bourgein and Bouchet (2001) classified spectators into four profiles: opportunist, aesthete, supporter and interactive profiles. Bouchet *et al.* (2011) developed the Sport Event Experience Search (SEES) scale to measure these profiles. Although the scale failed, it can still be used to investigate the expectations of sport spectators when the sport event consumption type is available.

More-over, a number of contextual variables mitigate the psychological, social and cultural drives of sport spectator consumption, including demographic factors like age and gender, the expected quality of the event/game and the venue in which it is played. As a result, such factors moderate individual fan motivation and the resulting degree of emotional attachment held by fans, to teams and events (Smith & Stewart, 2010:4). A closer look at the motives of spectators is given in the following section.

3.3.3.2 Motives of sport spectators

The motivational definition will stay the same for spectators, but the need that drives them will vary, and other aspects are taken into account from a spectator's point of view. Kim *et al.* (2013:176) comes to the conclusion, after considering results from previous research and conceptualisations from previous sport motivational research, that there are likely some motives which are more relevant to spectators, some which are more relevant to fans, and that there are behavioural differences between fans and spectators. Interesting to note that there are not many available literature that focus on spectators' motives for a specific endurance sport, except for Kruger and Saayman (2012a) study. Kim and Chalip (2004:696) discuss push and pull factors for sport event spectators attending sport events and although there are different instruments, research unfailingly finds that fan motives are multidimensional, and attendance, frequency, likelihood, or interest are significantly predicted by fans' motives. Theories that support these motives can include, but are not limited to the social identity theory, the push and pull theory, the

model of sport consumer motivations, spectator commitment, behaviour intentions, Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS), Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) and the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Funk & James, 2001; Cronwell & Coote, 2003; Trail, Robinson, Dick & Gillentine, 2003). Some of these scales and theories will be discussed next shortly.

Sport fan motivation scale (SFMS)

This scale was developed by Al-Thibiti (2004) to assess sport fan motivation for team-sports and to study the relationship between motivation and ethnic identity of the sport fan, due to the lack of content validity needed to successfully evaluate these motives. The results showed that the fan motivation scale consisted of six components (escape, boredom avoidance, the quality of the game, social interaction, entertainment and sport atmosphere). The scale included items that reflected the following:

- The beauty of the game such as the high level of skills shown by players.
- The escape motive is to avoid the hustle and the bustle of daily activities.
- The boredom avoidance motive appeals to sport fans who follow sport because they are bored and want to kill time.
- The social motive assesses how some sport fans watch or attend sporting events because they want to spend time with family and friends.
- The entertainment motive is the one factor that many sport fans refer to as the reason for them to watch or attend sporting events.
- The sport atmosphere motive refers to the extent that the surroundings and the environment contribute to the enjoyment of sporting events.

Motivation scale for sport consumption (MSSC)

The motivation model was developed and tested by Kim and Trail (2010). The model explained the relationship among constraints, motivators and attendance in the spectator sport context. Fans were motivated to attend a game because they can relate with the team - supporting the notion of team identification is a key predictor of sport consumption behaviour, which is inconsistent with Kwon *et al.*'s (2005) findings. The lack of team success was also another aspect to include for sport consumption behaviour. It was noted in the study that some factors were explicitly internal to sport consumers, with a few components that were internal and external in nature.

Social identity theory

Central to this theory is the concept of identification where sport consumers employ social categories to define others and locate themselves in the social world (Cronwell & Coote, 2003). Team, club or athlete identification may be a means of constructing the self-concept (Jones, 2000;

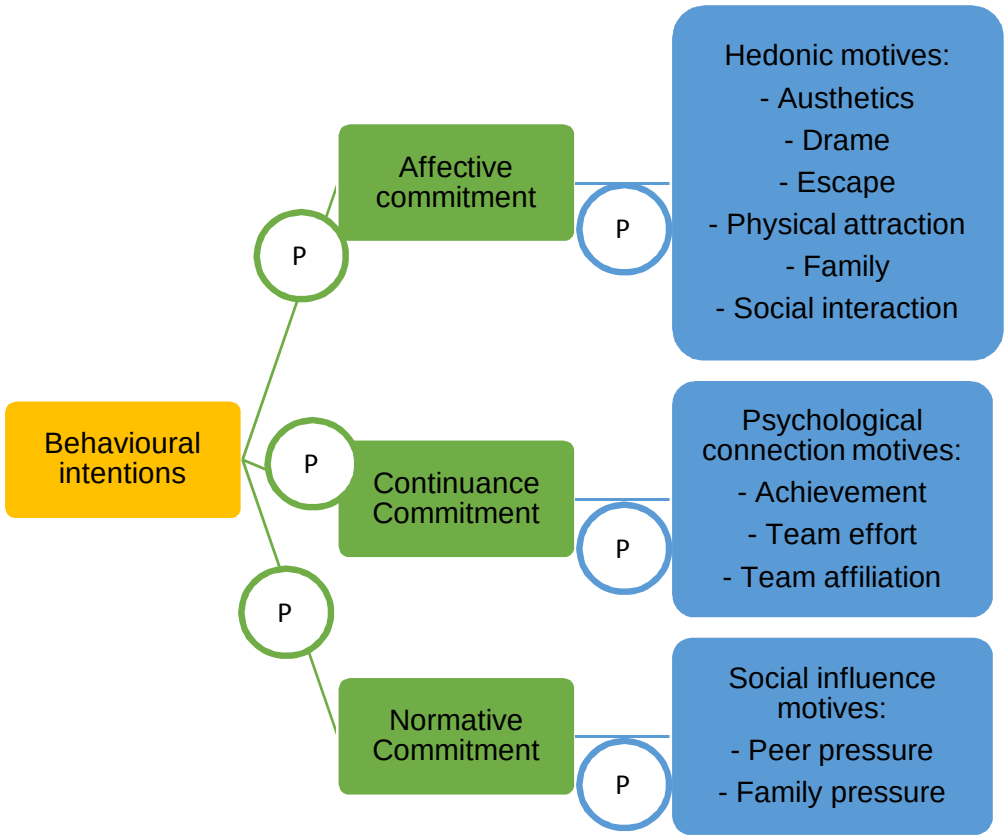
Wiley, Shaw & Havit, 2000) and can be motivated by three factors: the need to maintain and enhance positive personal and social self-evaluations, the need to belong and a sense of self-efficacy through vicarious achievement (Hughson, 1999; Fink *et al*., 2002). Emotional attachment is more strongly implicated when an individual is motivated to construct a sense of self through identification (Fink *et al*., 2002).

Consumer attitudes, feelings and emotions influence the way sport spectators think and consume products and services (Mullin, Hardy & Sutton, 2007:11). Sport is used to address their needs and extend their personal sense of self in the same ways that all consumers use discretionary leisure and luxury products to build self-esteem and confirm their identity (Ahuvia, 2005; Timothy, 2005).

For most spectators/fans, sport is subject to a "bewildering array of values, attitudes and behaviours", indicating that not all sport spectators are as passionate towards sport as others. These sport consumers' loyalty towards the sport, attendance and interest are unpredictable (Stewart *et al.*, 2003:206). For endurance supporters, this is not the case, for they are loyal to the participant, directly involved and help the participant to excel in the sport. This makes them different to other spectators (fans) in sport events and endurance sport events in specific.

The model of sport consumer motivations, spectator commitment, and behaviour intentions

Kim *et al*. (2013:174) proposed a model (Figure 3.5) to provide a rationale as to why sport consumer motives are believed to function as antecedents of the different dimensions of commitment, and to identify the potential impact of commitment on behavioural intentions. Kim *et al.* (2013) identified three specific drivers of sport consumer commitment. Within each driver there are sub-drivers that relate to sport organisation strategies and tactics. The key drivers of sport consumer behaviour are affective commitment (sport consumers like to), continuance commitment (sport consumers want to) and/or normative commitment (sport consumer have to).



P1	Hedonic motives will have a positive effect on affective commitment to a sport or team
P2	Psychological connection motives will influence commitment to a sport or team positively
P3	Social influence motives will effect on normative commitment to a sport or a team
P4	Affective commitment will effect behavioural intentions
P5	Continuance commitment will effect behavioural intentions
P6	Normative commitment will have a positive effect on behaviour intentions

Figure 3.5: The model of sport consumer motivations, spectator commitment, and behaviour intentions (Source: Adapted from Kim *et al.*, 2013:174)

Specifically, it is hypothesised that hedonic motives relate strongly to affective commitment, which reflects a positive emotional attachment to a sport or team. People consume spectator sport to fulfil their enjoyment of the experience, and the role of emotion is important in spectator sport (Ng, Russell-Bennett & Dagger, 2007). Therefore, the relationship between hedonic motives and affective commitment is defined as an emotional relationship. It is also expected that psychological connection motives relate strongly to continuance commitment, influencing consumers to stay with a sport or team due to a sense of being locked into the sport or team. Hence, the relationship between psychological connection motives and continuance commitment is defined as a self-interest relationship. The social influence motives relate strongly to normative commitment because normative commitment to a sport or team refers to the benefits that an individual receives through socialisation with a family or peer group by attending sport events. Thus, the relationship between the social influence motives and normative commitment is defined as a social influence relationship (Kim *et al.*, 2013:184).

3.3.4 Research summary of spectators' motivation

Some of the motives for sport spectators that have been identified from the theories are summarised in Table 3.3. A distinction is further made between individual and team-sport spectators.

Table 3.3: Motivational aspects for spectators

Motives	Individual/Supporter/Spectator	Team/Fan
Social interaction	Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Stavros, Meng, Westberg & Farrelly (2013); Kim *et al.* (2013)	Melnick (1993); Trail *et al*. (2000); Kahle & Riley (2004); Wann, Waddill & Dunham (2004); Smith & Stewart (2007); Stavros *et al*. (2013)
Sport interest	Trail *et al*. (2000); Wann *et al*. (2004); Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee & Mohony (2008)	Trail *et al*. (2000); Wann *et al*. (2004)
Entertainment	Appelbaum *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Stavros *et al*. (2013); Kim *et al.* (2013)	Melnick (1993); Wann (1995); Robertson & Pope (1999); Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa & Hirakawa (2001); Wann *et al*. (2001); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Armstrong (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); Fairley (2003); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007); Preuss, Seguin & O'Reilly (2007); Smith & Stewart (2007); Stavros *et al*. (2013)
Group affiliation	Appelbaum *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Kim *et al.* (2013)	Wann (1995); Wann *et al*. (2001); McDonald *et al*. (2002); Fairley (2003); Jacobson (2003); Jackson (2005); Chen (2007)
Family and friends	Appelbaum *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Kim *et al.* (2013)	Wann (1995); Trail *et al*. (2000); Wann *et al*. (2001); Fink *et al.* (2002); Trail & James (2001); Kahle & Riley (2004); Wann *et al*. (2004); Smith & Stewart (2007)
Escape	Appelbaum *et al*. (2012); Kruger & Saayman (2012a); Stavros *et al*. (2013); Kim *et al.* (2013)	Wann (1995); Trail *et al*. (2000); Funk *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Wann *et al*. (2001); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Armstrong (2002); Bilyeu & Wann (2002); Fink *et al.*

		(2002); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007); Smith & Stewart (2007); Stavros *et al*. (2013)
Personal identity		Funk *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Armstrong (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007)
Pride	Kim *et al*. (2008)	Funk *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Armstrong (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007)
Sense of community		Funk *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Armstrong (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007)
Stimulation		Funk *et al*. (2001); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Zhang *et al*. (2001); Armstrong (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); Crawford (2004); Hinch & Higham (2005); Chen (2007)
Eustress	Appelbaum *et al*. (2012); Stavros *et al*. (2013)	Wann (1995); Wann *et al.* (2004); Smith & Stewart (2007); Stavros *et al*. (2013)
Aesthetics	Kim *et al*. (2008)	Wann (1995); Trail *et al*. (2000); Bilyeu & Wann (2002); Fink *et al.* (2002); McDonald *et al.* (2002); Weed & Bull (2004); Smith & Stewart (2007)
Self-esteem		Trail *et al*. (2000)
Sport novelty	Kim *et al*. (2008); Kruger & Saayman (2012a)	

It becomes evident from Table 3.3 that there are not many research conducted as of yet, that focus on motivation for spectators at individual endurance sport events. There are, however, similarities when team and individual motivation is compared. These motivation similarities are:

- Social interaction
- Sport interest
- Entertainment
- Group affiliation
- Family and friends
- Escape

- Pride
- Eustress
- Aesthetics

Sport consumers are thus influenced by various factors that must be identified in order to manage consumers and sport events successfully. The following section will discuss additional factors that can influence ESCB and sport events.

3.4 Additional factors influencing ESCB and sport events

Some of the general factors influencing any event include: the economy, qualifying sport events for participants, weather, destination, distance to travel to event, marketing, location, facilities and the infrastructure, to name a few (Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Examples of influencing factors on sport events (Source: Adapted from Saayman 2001b:191)

Kruger and Saayman (2012a) identified these aspects as critical success factors for sport events. Studies done by Kahle *et al.* (1996); Hinch and Higham (2004); Saayman (2004); Yoshida and James (2010) and Kruger and Saayman (2012a) show the importance of these factors when creating a memorable and satisfying sport consumer experience and include factors like the distance travelled, the standard and capacity of transport, stadium infrastructure, the duration,

location and scheduling of the sport event, the standard of a team or individual performance, the competitive outcome of a contest, layout of the sport ground/terrain, information signs, ancillary activities and entertainment, effective marketing, atmosphere, spatial distribution and accessibility of sport facilities and venues. For a sport tourism destination, factors like quality sport and training facilities, variety and affordable accommodation, available transportation, favourable climate, image and location, favourable political situation, effective marketing, management and services, favourable media and broadcasting and accessibility of destination need to be considered (Melnick, 1993; Pease & Zhang, 2001; Zhang *et al.*, 2001; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2003; Hall & O'Mahony, 2006; Yu, 2010). Other important aspects to consider are memorabilia of the experience along with promotional activities such as in-game activities and fan–player interactions in the sport settings.

Each of the factors (Figure 3.6) will shortly be discussed to get an overview of why these aspects are of importance for endurance sport consumption behaviour.

3.4.1 Economy

Sports events are known for their revenue-generating potential. Visitors to the region generally contribute higher levels of expenditure due to additional costs, such as accommodation, meals and possible visits to local attractions. While the spending of local consumers on items such as event entry fee and merchandise may be attributed to the event, most of this expenditure should be classified as "displaced spending". This term refers to expenditure that would probably have occurred in the city on other items such as other forms of entertainment or retail spending, according to Ryan and Lockyer (2002:270). Therefore, spending by those who travel from outside the host region is not only likely to be greater but it is also more likely to be expenditure that enhances the region's economy (Gillett & Kelly, 2006:241). Important to keep in mind here are the push and pull motives of sport consumers. Examples of such motives identified in these studies include escape, relaxation (a mental state) and social interaction. As highlighted by Gibson (2005), these findings challenged the prevailing assumption that destination features (pull factors) dominate the travel decision. A similar research approach may therefore identify the important push motives which influence the decision to take part in sport events away from the home location (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2002; Wakefield, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2008; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Yu, 2010). Economic barriers and increasing ticket prices continue to act as a third disincentive that impedes access to events – high prices will prevent sport consumers to attend or partake in major events (Pitchard & Funk, 2006:298). Although this may be the case, higher entry fees can enhance the economy for the community, but a more targeted market will also be drawn to the events.

3.4.2 Qualifying events

At some of the major events there is a pre-qualifying event that participants partake in, in order to go to the major event. When these endurance consumers do not qualify, they cannot go to the event. According to the study of Renfree, Martin, Micklewright and Gibson (2014) it has been suggested that tactical considerations related to the demands of direct competition is important when determining the nature of pacing profiles (Thiel, Foster, Winfried & De Koning, 2012; Renfree & St Clair Gibson, 2013). However, there is currently little information in literature relating to tactical considerations that may consider the greatest likelihood of success in elite-level track athletic events, in particular, progression through qualifying rounds. Such information would be invaluable to coaches and athletes wishing to maximise their chances of progression through preliminary rounds of championship events where qualification is based largely on position achieved (Renfree *et al.*, 2014:362).

3.4.3 Weather

Weather can affect spectators' decision to go to a sport event and can play a role when attending a sport event and even participating in endurance events according to Trail *et al.* (2003). When the climate is similar to the climates the participants and spectators are used to; it makes sport consumers feel at home, participants are not shocked by the changes of the weather, therefore the consumer feels more comfortable and willing to enjoy the event (Garrahi, 2009:358).

3.4.4 Location

Geographical location is important when it comes to endurance sport. Altitude is of significance for the consumer participating, especially when it comes to the endurance of the event, for example the terrain and in climbs. The location of the event (discovery of an environment) is the major factor in the decision of participating athletes. Location also provides the opportunity for spectators to do some sightseeing while in the area and return visits are possible (Saayman & Saayman, 2006:630; Smith & Stewart, 2007:178). Therefore by investing in the area by means of tourism activities, sport events and upgrading sport facilities and infrastructure can influence the economic impact in a positive manner when visiting these locations for either sport or for holidays.

3.4.5 Marketing of events

Marketing of sport events plays an important role because it attracts larger numbers of tourists to the destination (Weed, 2006:9; Getz, 2008:421), with particular regard to group-orientated, event-based tourism (Regan, Carlson & Roseberger, 2012:186). Favourable affective destination images influence sport consumers' need to travel to the event and can be a significant marketing advantage when marketing a major sport events (Kim & Chalip, 2004:697; Regan *et al.*, 2012:197). Event marketers need to use marketing communication efforts to counteract these images by effectively positioning the destination in a positive light in conjunction with the event.

3.4.6 Destination image

A destination's image can be improved with sport tourism as studies have shown (Turco *et al.*, 2002; Chalip *et al*., 2003; Funk *et al.*, 2007; Gibson *et al.*, 2008; Yu, 2010). A primary goal of hosting a sport event is to promote a destination's positive image among actual and potential tourists. Cities build their marketing efforts around events and the hosting destination (for example Manchester and the Commonwealth Games, Rotterdam and Euro 2000, the Cape Epic etc.) in order to maximise the benefits from event-driven tourism, sponsorship and media exposure. Sporting events have the potential to grab the interest of people, rather than the region itself (Westerbeek *et al.*, 2002:305). The destination's image can be influenced by the actual experience, word-of-mouth, promotional materials such as media guides, local cultural and entertainment options, infrastructure and the ability to host events and the quality of the service/event (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45). If the destination is perceived as positive, event marketers should concentrate on developing promotional campaigns, which include emphasis on the distinctive personality attributes of the host destination (Gursoy & Uysal, 2004:173). Tourism marketing practitioners make use of communication appeals to attract potential event attendees who travel in groups, followed by event activities, socialisation aspects and cultural learning opportunities about the destination on offer at the event (Regan *et al.*, 2012:197). The fact that the event image can significantly influence the destination's image (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007:186) leads to the proposition that there may be a convergence of the event image with the destination image and thus a correlation between the two concepts (Kaplanidou *et al.,* 2009:218).

3.4.7 Distance travel

People seldom travel more than a day's drive back in the 19th century but as sport tourism is growing all consumers manage to travel good distances on certain occasions for entertaining purposes – be it active participation in events and sport, or simply as spectators (Zauhar,

2004:20). The quest for novelty and variety motivates consumers to take up the journey and are more likely to combine it with a holiday destination (Getz & McConnell, 2011:336). Ntloko and Swart's (2008) study shows that variety-seeking behaviour reduces the dissuasive effect of distance and that inertial behaviour increases it.

3.4.8 Facilities

Research has revealed that facilities need to be accessible to sport consumers when attending sport events (Lambrecht, Kaefer & Ramenofsky, 2009; Yu, 2010). Facilities can include, but are not limited to ablution facilities for participants as well as spectators, access to the finish line for the spectators, seating arrangements, accommodation and a variety of food and beverages, for example (Melnick, 1993; Hall & O'Mahony, 2006; Lambrecht *et al.*, 2009).

3.4.9 Infrastructure

Infrastructure refers to access to parking areas (sufficient parking), airports, subway lines and crowd control at the event, to name just a few aspects. With regards to infrastructure it is the norm that the community will benefit from it, once the event has finished (Melnick, 1993; Hall & O'Mahony, 2006; Dwyer & Fredline, 2008; Lambrecht *et al.*, 2009; Yu, 2010).

3.5 Importance of determining ESCB factors

With the mentioned factors that can have an influence on ESCB and sport events in mind, it is also important to create a memorable experience at sport events in order for return visits to and participation in these events to take place. Some of these factors have a bigger impact on events and Slabbert and Saayman (2011:209) classify them as critical, in order for a sport event to be managed successfully.

Studies show that success factors differ from one tourism product to the next (Hinch & Higham, 2004; Saayman, 2004; De Witt, 2006; Kruger, 2009; Yoshida & James, 2010; Appel, 2010; Erasmus, 2011; Manners, 2011; Kruger & Saayman; 2012a). Success factors at sporting events, specifically endurance sport events, have not been researched to date. The question that remains now is *will this also be the case for different endurance sport events?* While business and industry have long been concerned with consumer satisfaction (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Anderson & Mittal, 2000), research on consumer satisfaction in the sport industry is restricted (Van Leeuwen, Quick, & Daniel, 2002).

These factors are merely some of the aspects that must also be incorporated when marketing events and for managing ESCB. By taking these factors into consideration, endurance sport events will be more sustainable in the long term. Lambrecht *et al.* (2009) and Mullin *et al.* (2007) indicate in their study that these factors can aid sport organisers when focusing on customer satisfaction, since sport marketers have little or no control over their core product or event. For spectators the physical surroundings of the sport events are of importance, compared to participants, where the organisation of the event is of importance (Lambrecht *et al*., 2009:165).

Sport's special feature is the paradox of commercialism (Stewart & Smith, 2010:6) and marketing advice is geared towards bolstering the commercial success of sport brands. Rein *et al*. (2006) recognised the strain between sport as a business and sport as a game-centred and social institution. In this uneasy balance, sport is faced with the challenge of extracting commercial value from its brands, without compromising the intrinsic "integrity" and diminish its status as a heroic form of human endeavour. As a consequence, sport's quintessential nature is at risk whenever it commercialises itself to survive in the contemporary competitive landscape. This commercial paradox, which Stewart and Smith (2010:2) addressed only fleetingly, constitutes a genuine special feature of professional sport. Professional sport has effectively ridden on the back of international broadcasting and new media into the twenty-first century (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007:45). Sport has been transformed into a fast-moving consumable experience that fits neatly into the "iPad society" (Smith & Stewart, 2010:6).

3.6 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to analyse the ESCB of sport consumers in a tourism context. Due to the complexity of the concept the term was split into single concepts: sport, endurance sport, consumption in the sport context and behaviour. These concepts were defined and analysed to understand ESCB.

ESCB for both participants and spectators were analysed in the literature and found that the demographic and economic profiling are somewhat similar, but with various factors that can influence these profiles and motives, especially for the spectators' *viewing* profile, since their motives vary from participants' motives. Theories and measuring instruments backed this motion. These profiles influence ESCB along with additional factors that will also have an effect on endurance sport events. With regards to spectating, an interesting observation was made, namely the lack of research on individual- versus team-spectating sport and events. Future research is of the essence, since the spectators' needs/motives differ from one another when it comes to spectating a team or the participant at an event or sport.

The various factors are also not to be left out, since it plays a fundamental role in the decision-making of sport consumers and the ESCB, influenced by marketing. By focusing on the factors that influence ESCB for both participants and spectators, marketers and sport event organisers can better events and marketing of sport as well as endurance sport, by addressing the needs of the consumers. This will aid in the sustainability of endurance events, since there are only an x number of participants that can enter these types of endurance events. By specialising and focusing on the ESCB, these endurance events will enhance in speciality and participants will be more determined to qualify and up their performances, in order to meet the new standards that event organisers will be able to set for future events. This will also give event sponsors the opportunity to better invest in future endurance events and the consumers pursuing these events. The sport market is ever changing and developing and if these ESCB and factors are not taken into consideration, the market will not be sustainable on the long run.

ESCB gives advantage points to sport event planners and marketers and it must be utilised to give the sport market a new edge and a sense of excitement for consumers to chase this new opportunity that will become more enduring and challenging in the sport industry. This will also up the game for international sport consumption and South Africa will be able to have an advantage point for endurance sport in the region.

In the next chapter the methodology applied in this research to test and analyse the aspects mentioned in the foregoing chapters will be discussed in more detail.

Chapter 4: Methodology literature

4.1 Introduction

Research methods and statistical analyses can help to reduce improbability for effective planning and decision-making in the business and management field (Burns & Burns, 2008:4). The research process can be tweaked by asking questions that can help with the research and the data that must be collected (Pallant, 2010:107; Gratton & Jones, 2010:15). Data is used to provide reasons why certain events have happened in the research (Taylor & Cihon, 2004:1). Figure 4.1 gives an overview of the research process that can be followed, and which was followed for this particular study.

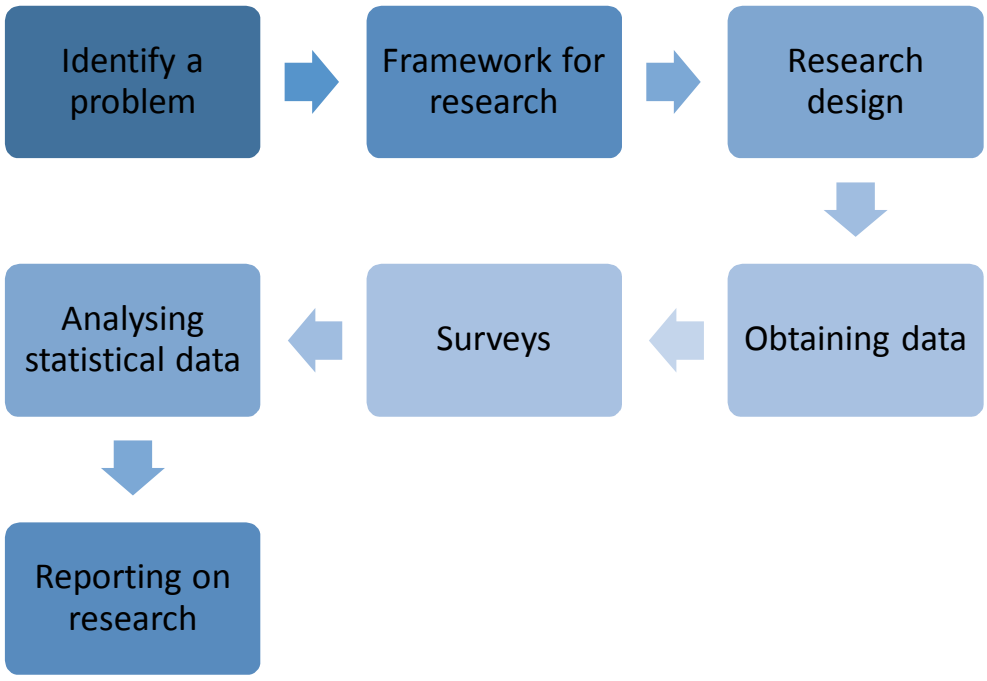


Figure 4.1: Research process (Source: Adapted from Burns & Burns, 2008:4)

As shown in Figure 4.1, one must first identify and investigate the possible problem by means of experience in the field, theories, journal articles or discussions with colleagues and peers (Burns & Burns, 2008:46). Secondly, the type of research study must be identified. According to Burns and Burns (2008:82); Pallant (2010:103); Gratton and Jones (2010:6) there are four types of research, namely:

- Exploratory studies: this study is mainly qualitative, using in-depth interview, observations, pilot studies and focus groups. The advantage of this study is that it is quick and affordable

and clarifies the direction the research should take. This type of study however lacks experimental control, adequate sampling and the results tend to be judgemental.

- Descriptive studies: Provides information that can help with simple decisions. Accurate information is provided, although causal links cannot be established.
- Correlational studies: The strength of the relationship between variables are determined. It is not to use values in one variable to predict values in another. The study is used in businesses as well as the social and behavioural sciences. Examples include the *t*-tests and one-way analysis of variance. The disadvantage of this type of study is that the associations found remains quite unclear. This is because no independent variables are being manipulated and the researcher therefore has no control over variables.
- Experimental studies: The level of the independent variable is manipulated in order to observe any corresponding change in the dependent variable. The purpose is to determine if there is a link between the two variables. These studies are also called laboratory studies due to strict control of all variables. The goals are to advance knowledge, extend a theory into a new area and provide evidence to support or refute a hypothesis/theory. They are however costly in time and money, with control often difficult to achieve.

For the purpose of this study (which derived from literature), a combination of descriptive analysis and correlations with quantitative data was used. This chapter gives a summary of possible methods and statistics that can be used in research methodology to solve the identified problem as well as to discuss the ones applied in this particular study. This chapter is compiled to discuss the research design that can be used for the study, methods on how to collect data, sampling and the options available to development questionnaires, surveys that can be used and lastly how to go about data analyses. The research design will be discussed first.

4.2 Research design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008:69); Pallant (2010:3) the research design is the blue print review literature, formulations of hypotheses as well as the recording of the collected data. Researchers are able to achieve greater insight when making use of diverse methodologies. There are various definitions for research design but the essentials for a research design come down to the following five points (Cooper and Schindler, 2008:195):

- It is an activity- and time-based plan;
- The design is always based on the research question;
- It guides the selection of sources and types of information;

- Provides a framework for specifying the relationships among the study's variables and lastly
- Outlines procedures for every research activity.

Aspects that must be kept in mind include the following:

- What type of data to use (primary or secondary data)?
- Techniques to gather data?
- Is it going to be a case study?
- Must a survey be used and if so, how will the survey be distributed?
- How will the questionnaires be structured?
- How big must the sample size be?

A combination of social survey and comparative design was used for this particular study. There are different design approaches and variations that can be considered, however, Cooper and Schindler (2008:195) classify eight different research designs that can be considered for research purposes in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Classification for research designs

Category	Options
The degree to which the research question has been formed	Exploratory study
	Formal study
The method of data-collection	Monitoring
	Interrogation/communication
	Archival sources
The power of the researcher to influence the variables under study	Experimental
	Ex-post facto
The purpose of the study	Descriptive
	Causal
	Predictive
The time dimension	Cross-sectional
	Longitudinal
The topical scope – breadth and depth –of the study	Case
	Statistical study (sample or census)
Research environment	Field setting
	Laboratory research
	Simulation
The participants' perceptions of research activity	Actual routine
	Modified routine

(Source: Adapted from Cooper & Schindler, 2008:196)

These categories will each be discussed shortly.

4.2.1 Research question

The essential distinction between exploratory and formal study is the degree of structure and the immediate objective of the study. The purpose of exploration is usually to develop hypotheses or questions for further research (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:196; Gratton & Jones, 2010:51). An experiment consists of assigning participants to at least two groups, with an independent variable in the experimental group (sometimes called treatment group), while holding conditions constant as a baseline against which to measure the treatment effect on the experimental group. The groups are then compared on the dependent variable (performance or change in behaviour) to determine the probability that the independent variable caused these changes in the experimental group. Experiments are *never* absolutely the actual "cause" that is being observed can change (Burns & Burns, 2008:84). The goal of a formal research design is to provide a valid

exemplification of the current state and to answer the research questions posed (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:196).

4.3 Surveys

For this research the participants have been surveyed during registration at each event (probability sampling), while spectators were surveyed on the day of the event (random sampling). Self-administrated questionnaires were used to gather information. The fieldworkers were trained to ensure that they understood the aim of the study as well as the questionnaire. Respondents were briefed about the purpose of the research beforehand to ensure that they participated willingly. Fieldworkers tried to retrieve a representative sample of the respondents with regards to age, gender, nationality and group classification pertaining to participants and spectators. Questionnaires for the Cape Epic were distributed between the number of teams (250 teams) that were entered into the event, thus the reason for the smaller amount distributed. No spectator survey was conducted at the Cape Epic. Each of the surveys will be discussed in detail in the next section.

4.3.1 Survey 1: Telkom Midmar Mile

For the swimmers participating in the Midmar Mile, the following approach was implemented: Based on stratified sampling, 348 respondents formed part of this survey. The registration area (the Cascades Mall in Pietermaritzburg) was used to distribute questionnaires among swimmers, while they were queuing for registration as well as queues on the morning of the event at Midmar Dam. The event took place from 11 to 12 February 2012. Because most respondents registered online (especially international participants) and also the fact that the queues were for late registrations only, it proved to be difficult to also target foreigners for this study.

For the spectators of the Midmar Mile, the following approach was implemented: Stratified sampling was used with 258 respondents that formed part of this survey. Questionnaires were distributed amongst respondents at the Midmar Dam, while they were watching the event on the day of the event.

4.3.2 Survey 2: Pick n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour

For the **cyclists** participating in the Cape Argus Cycle Tour, the following approach was implemented: Based on stratified sampling, 364 respondents formed part of this survey. The registration area at the Good Hope Centre in Cape Town Central Business District (CBD) was

used to distribute questionnaires amongst respondents after they had received their race packs. The survey took place from 8 to 10 March 2012. Only cyclists (per definition) completed the questionnaire.

For the purpose of this study: *A cyclist is a person riding a two or three-wheeled structure powered solely by human power/effort.*

- A seeded entrant is a person who is seeded on an index that equates to the entrant's best finishing time in any of the seeding events relative to the winning time for that event. The index calculation is 100 - (winner's time/your time x 100). The winner's time in certain events is adjusted, taking into account the degree of difficulty of the course and quality of the field.
- If the entrant does not qualify for seeding and is a member of PPA (formerly Western Province Pedal Power Association, WPPPA), the entrant will automatically be placed in the PPA category.
- Similarly, non-PPA members were placed in the Open category.

For the **spectators** of the Cape Argus Cycle Tour, the following approach was implemented: Based on structured, stratified sampling, 348 respondents formed part of this survey. Fieldworkers distributed questionnaires at the finish line, immediately adjacent to the Green Point Stadium in Cape Town. It was the first time that surveys were distributed amongst the spectators of this event. Questionnaires were distributed on the race day (11 March 2012).

4.3.3 Survey 3: Cape Epic

For the mountain bikers participating in the ABSA Cape Epic, the following approach was implemented: Stratified sampling was used and 205 respondents formed part of this survey. The registration area at the Forum at the VNA Waterfront in Cape Town was used to distribute questionnaires amongst participants after they had registered. The survey took place on Saturday, 24 March 2012.

4.3.4 Survey 4: Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon

Based on stratified sampling, 438 runners and 134 spectators formed part of this survey. A lower number of spectator questionnaires were obtained due to the extremely poor weather conditions (heavy rains). The registration area (Good Hope Centre in Cape Town) was used to distribute questionnaires (4-6 April 2012) amongst the athletes after they have registered and collected their

welcome packs. The spectators were approached on the day of the race (7 April 2011) at the UCT Sports Grounds.

4.3.5 Survey 5: The Comrades Marathon

Stratified sampling was used and 360 participants and 348 spectators formed part of the survey. The registration area (Bonitas Comrades Expo at the Durban Exhibition Centre) was used to distribute questionnaires (29 May to 2 June 2012) amongst the athletes after they have registered and collected their welcome packs. The spectators were approached on the day of the race (3 June 2012) at the Sahara Cricket Stadium in Durban (down run).

4.4 Data analysis

There are many data analyses that can be included but for the purpose of this chapter only analysis of variance techniques, chi-square and factor analysis will be discussed. Data of the five different events and the four events for the spectators were pooled to allow easier comparisons. Data was captured with Microsoft Excel© and SPSS© were used for the statistical analysis. Factor analysis will be discussed first.

4.4.1 Factor analysis

The aim of factor analysis is simplification, to make order out of chaos, by identifying basic underlying factors that explain a larger number of other related variables in a parsimonious way. The thing in common is called a factor. A factor is a sort of super-variable with its commonness expressed by the group of variables having high inter-correlations, but low correlations with any other group. Factor analysis is a generic term (Field, 2005:470). Two factor analysis can be used: Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

- EFA aims to reduce data sets comprising a large number of variables into a smaller number of factors, and thereby identify their underlying factor structure or model. EFA is therefore exploratory in nature.
- CFA aims to confirm theoretical predictions, in example hypothesis testing. CFA provides a way of confirming that the factor structure or model obtained in an EFA study is set up, based on the exploratory factor analysis, and then tested using a new set of data.

The approach involves finding a way of representing correlated variables together to form a new smaller set of derived variables with minimum loss of information. Factors are formed that are relatively independent of one another but the data must correlate, therefore all assumptions with

regards to correlations are applicable. The correlation coefficient between a variable and itself is always 1. The correlation matrix is examined by eye to see whether the PCA is worth attempting at all. There must be some large correlations present because, if there are no correlations between variables exceeding .03, there is nothing to explain.

After obtaining the correlation matrix, the researcher needs to determine which analysis to use: factor analysis or principal component analysis (types of factor analyses in EFA). The main difference between these types of analysis lies in the way the communalities are used. In the principal component analysis it is assumed that the communalities are initially 1. In other words, principal component analysis assumes that the total variance of the variables can be accounted for by means of its components (or factors), and hence there is no error variance. On the other hand, factor analysis does assume error variance. This is reflected in the fact that in factor analysis the communalities have to be estimated, which makes factor analysis more complicated than principal component analysis, but also more conservative (ANON, 2014a; Field, 2005:424).

Most factor analyses will produce a large number of factors (Pallant, 2010:183). The selection of factors for interpretation with eigenvalues greater than 1 is known as Kaiser's rule. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test (testing the significance) is used to measure the sampling adequacy, which should be greater than .6 and the Bartlett's test greater than 0.05 for a satisfactory analysis in order to proceed. Factors are rotated in order to aid interpretation by maximising the relationship between them and the variables, thus simplifying the factor structure (Field, 2005:681). Orthogonal rotation maintains factors' axes at 90 degrees, while oblique rotation creates correlated factors. Oblique solution helps to reduce artificiality and tends to produce varimax-looking factors, but which are oblique (Burns & Burns, 2008:461; Taylor & Cihon, 2004:34; Anon, 2014b).

EFA with a principal component analysis was used in the study to determine the motives for participating and spectating the different endurance events as well as the factors that influence spectators' memorable experience and the aspects that influence participants' travel behaviour.

4.4.2 Analysis of variance techniques (ANOVA)

ANOVA is a hypothesis testing procedure used to determine if mean differences exist for two or more samples or treatments (Burns & Burns, 2008:285; Taylor & Cihon, 2004:244; Pallant, 2010:258). ANOVA has the advantage in that it can compare two or more treatment conditions and several DVs, whereas *t*-tests are limited to two treatment conditions. When researchers are looking at a complex situation with more than two conditions of the IV and sometimes more than one IV, the methodology for dealing with this situation is classified under the general family of

analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques. Variance is a statistic that measures variability of values within a data set. It is closely related to standard deviation as variance = SD^2 or $\sqrt{}$variance = SD. Since variance is the sum of deviations of each value from the mean divided by N, the name often given to variance in ANOVA is the mean squared deviation, or for short, mean square or MS.

Like *t*-tests, the purpose of ANOVA is to decide whether the differences between means of observations is simply due to change (random sampling error) or whether there are systematic effects that have caused scores of observations in one or more groups to be statistically significantly different from those in other groups. That is, treatment effects are greater than those differences due to sampling error (Burns & Burns, 2008:265; Pallant, 2010:240).

ANOVA is built on comparing variances from two sources. These two estimates are:

- The between group variance – a measure of the effect of the independent variable and the error variance.
- The within groups variance – the error variance alone.

The ratio between them is called the F ratio. The ratio is interpreted in association with the degrees of freedom associated with sample sizes. The basic procedure is to derive two different estimates of the population variance from the data and then calculate a statistic from the ratio of these two estimates. A significant F ration informs the researcher that the group means are not all equal. When the variance between groups relative to within groups is large, then the F ratio is large. The larger the F ratio the more likely it is significant and that there are significant differences between some or all group means. A small F ratio close to 1 implies that the two variance estimates are very similar and therefore there are no significant differences between means, in other words, variations between the groups are no different from variations within the groups. The three major assumptions, according to Burns and Burns (2008:286) are:

- Normality. However, ANOVA is fairly robust for departures from normality as long as they are not extreme.
- Homogeneity of variance. This similarity of variance in each group is needed in order to 'pool' the variances into one within group source of variance.
- Independence of errors. Error here refers to the difference between each observation or score from its own group mean. In other words each score should be independent of any other score.

There are one way and two way analyses, which will be briefly discussed next.

4.4.2.1 One-way analysis

One way analysis of variance is an analysis of variance in which there is only one independent variable (Pallant, 2010:240). There are two basic components of the general variability between all subjects or observations in the one way ANOVA:

1. Between groups or treatments (conditions) variability. This variability is due to the differences between groups and is reflected in variability between sample means. The source of this variability are:
    a. Treatment effects, for example the different music noise conditions in a hypothetical study;
    b. Individual differences, for example the uniqueness of people and
    c. Experimental error, for example uncontrolled and unknown causes.
2. Within groups or treatment (conditions) variability. There is variability within each sample as each person within a sample produced different results from others in that sample. This is due to individual differences and experimental error.

Once analysed the total variability into its basic components are compared by computing the F ration. Independent measures ANOVA that are considered are:

$$F = \frac{\text{variability between treatments}}{\text{Variability within treatments}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\text{between treatment variance}}{\text{within treatment variance}}$$

Or

$$F = \frac{\text{treatment effect + individual differences + experimental error}}{\text{Individual differences + experimental error}}$$

The single, yet vital difference between the numerator and the denominator is variability caused by the treatment effect. If the null hypothesis is true then the numerator and the denominator are very similar because there is little or no treatment effect, for example different music noise levels had no effect – the samples are very similar with their slightly different means. The F ration then equals 1 or close to 1. If the null hypothesis is false, the treatments, for example various noise levels, have had some effects and the F ratio must be much greater than 1. This is because the treatment variable is having an effect over and above that of the change sampling variations of means, creating quite dissimilar sample means. The T ratio is therefore the ratio of the variation between samples to the variation within samples. So the bigger the value for F, the more likely that the difference is significant and will also be found in the population means. Something else is also important when calculating the probability – the larger the samples, the more likely the

differences also exist in the population (reflected in the 'degree of freedom') (Burns & Burns, 2008:290).
In some cases there are two variables or factors that may interact.

Post hoc tests are designed for situations in which the researcher has already obtained a significant omnibus F-test with a factor that consists of three or more means and additional exploration of the differences among means is needed to provide specific information on which means are significantly different from each other. Tukey's HSD test can be used and was designed for a situation with equal sample sizes per group where the significant at $p<.05$ (Stevens, 1999; Field, 2005:459; Pallant, 2010:249).

4.4.4.2 Two way analysis

In factorial ANOVA one can test a null hypothesis for each of the independent variables and also one for their interaction, the interaction effect. An interaction occurs when the effect of one independent variable on the dependent variable is not the same under all the conditions of the other independent variable. For example there is an interaction between gender and the payment regime that impacts on motivation level, as the effect of the payment regimes is not the same for both genders. Since the between treatments variability is split between the two factors and the interactions, the two factor or two way ANOVA has three distinct hypotheses (Burns & Burns, 2008:303);

1. The main effect of factor A (independent variable A). The null hypothesis states that there are no statistically significant mean differences between levels of factor A.
2. The main effect for factor B (independent variable B). There is a similar null hypothesis from factor B.
3. The A x B interaction. The null hypothesis states that there is no statistically significant interaction. That is, the effect of either factor is independent of the levels of the other factor.

Effect sizes are in both cases additionally calculated. An effect size is simple an objective and standardised measure of the magnitude of the observed effect (Field, 2005:79). This allows for quantitative information about the amount of impact an independent variable has had. Thus, they complement tests of statistical significance, which only give an indication of the presence or absence of an effect of an independent variable. Effect size can also help calculate the sample size needed for a study with a particular level of power (Pallant, 2010:210).

ANOVA's are used in the study to determine the significance between the various sport events and the type of endurance sport. Demographic and relevant factors influencing consumption of sport consumers are also tested against the five endurance events.

4.4.3 Chi-Square tests

Chi-square tests are used to test for independence and can be used in categories of respondents, such as sport type A, B and C of endurance sport, or participant or non-participant of the endurance event and the number of individuals, observations or events falling into each category of response (Pallant, 2010:217). Response distributions may be like those below:

Table 4.2: Association between preferences for sport types and respondent gender

Sport type	Male	Female
Cycling	21	46
Running	83	14
Swimming	27	63

Table 4.3: The relationship between sport consumers and type of endurance events

Sport consumer	Running	Swimming
Spectator	68	13
Participant	10	74

In each of the above examples, both variables consist of a small number of categories containing the number or frequency of the sample found in each. This constitutes nominal data. With such data, the only analysis possible is to determine whether the frequencies observed in the sample differ significantly from hypothesised or expected frequencies. Tables like those above are often called cross-tabulation or contingency tables. Each cell of the table is the intersection of a row and column and contains the frequency of individuals in that intersection (Taylor & Cihon, 2004:155; Field, 2005:725; Pallant, 2010:219). In example 1 above, 46 females prefer cycling, while 27 males choose swimming. In example 2, 13 out of 87 spectators prefer swimming events. Chi-square is therefore the most common and simple non-parametric test of significance suitable for nominal data where observations can be classified into discrete categories as treated as frequencies. Chi-square tests hypotheses about the independence of frequency counts in various categories. These hypotheses for the chi-square tests are:

H_0 where the variables are statistically independent or non- statistical association, and
H_1 where the variables are statistically dependent or associated.

The formula for chi-square is the summation for each cell of:

$$\frac{(\text{Observed frequency} - \text{expected frequency})^2}{\text{Expected frequency}}$$

The mathematical formula is chi-square = $\sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ where

O = observed frequency – the data observed in the research/survey
E = expected frequency, and
$\sum$ = the summation over all the cells in the table.

According to Bryman and Bell (2011:355) the chi-square value means nothing on its own and can be meaningfully interpreted only in relation to its associated level of statistical significance, which is $p < 0.0001$. This means that there is only one chance in 10, 000 of rejecting the null hypothesis.

There are two major uses of chi-square:

1. As a goodness-of-fit test when it tells the researcher how well an observed distribution fits a hypothesised or theoretical distribution.
2. As a cross-tabulation between two categories, each of which can be divided into two or more sub-categories.

Chi-square can be used to test the assumptions or a specific pattern. According to Pallant (2010:215) chi-square is often used to compare the proportion of cases from a sample with hypothesised values or those obtained previously from a comparison population. But to whichever of these uses chi-square is put, the general principle remains the same. One compares the observed frequencies in a sample with the expected (chance) frequencies and applies the chi-square test to determine whether a difference between observed and expected frequencies is likely to be a function of sampling error (non-significant – retaining the null hypothesis H_0) or unlikely to be a function of sampling error (significant association – reject the null hypothesis and support alternative hypothesis – H_1) (Burns & Burns, 2008:325).

Chi-square works like effect sizes where the value needs to be .05 or smaller to be significant, if lager, the results are not significant (Pallant, 2010:219). The chi-square tests were used to analyse the consumption behaviour of sport consumers against the factors influencing them at the five endurance events.

4.5 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to give an overview of the various data analyses that can be used and which were used for this particular study, including the research process that had to be followed and was followed. These methods and analyses will be used practically in the next chapter, to determine the sport consumption behaviour of sport consumers at endurance events.

Chapter 5: Empirical research

5.1 Introduction

The main goal of this study is to do a critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance sport events in order to profile and understand endurance sport consumption behaviour in South Africa. To achieve this goal, five surveys were conducted at five different endurance events, namely the Telkom Midmar Mile; the Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour; the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon; the Cape Epic, and the Comrades Marathon.

The first section of this chapter consists of descriptive analysis used to profile the participants and spectators survey at the various endurance sport events and will provide answers to the question raised with regards to differences in these profiles. A comparison is made between endurance sport participants and endurance sport spectators at the respective events.

The second section of this chapter includes a discussion of the factor analyses, ANOVAs and chi-squares, which were used to analysis the various factors that can impact the consumption behaviour of endurance sport consumers. Therefore providing answers to the question raised in chapter one to what extend these consumer behaviour differ at the various endurance sport events.

The goal of this chapter is thus to provide the profiles for endurance sport consumers, followed by the factors that can influence consumption behaviour, determine how these consumers differ in terms of the various endurance events and finally to determine how these consumers’ socio-demographic characteristics differ in terms of the endurance events. In the next session, the profiles of endurance sport consumers will be analysed first and consequently discussed.

5.2. Profiles of endurance sport consumers

The various endurance sport consumer profiles for the Telkom Midmar Mile (open water swimmers); the Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour (road cyclists); the Cape Epic (mountain bikers); the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon (short distance marathon runners) and the Comrades Marathon (longer distance marathon runners) will be discussed in the following sections.

5.2 1 Telkom Midmar Mile (open water swimmers)

The Midmar Mile was officially recognised in 2009 as the "World's Largest Open Water Swimming Event" by the Guinness Book of World Records. For the past 38 years, the event has attracted thousands of swimmers to the Midmar Dam, which is situated in close proximity to Pietermaritzburg in KwaZulu-Natal. The Midmar Mile caters for a variety of swimmers – amateurs as well as professional athletes – and encourages family, disabled, team, club, as well as company participation (Morgan, 2014).

Table 5.1 gives an overview on the sport consumer profile for the Telkom Midmar Mile. Each of these consumers (participants and spectators) will be discussed separately in the following section.

5.2.1.1 Telkom Midmar Mile participant

From Table 5.1 it becomes clear that there were more female respondents (54%) who took part in the survey than male respondents (46%). This is contradicting when compared to previous sport studies, which indicated that more males participated in sport events (Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Moens & Scheerder, 2004; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Downward, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Hallmann *et al.*, 2010; Van Tuyckom *et al.*, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Kruger *et al*., 2011b), however this should be interpreted with caution as it only reflects the number of respondents that took part in the survey. The average age for the respondents was 31 years old, married as well as not married (40%, respectively) and they were mostly English-speaking (72%). Similar results were found by Humphreys and Ruseski (2006); Hovemann and Wicker (2009); Eberth and Smith (2010); García *et al*. (2011); Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Kruger and Saayman (2014) with regards to the age, marital status and home language of endurance sport participants. The respondents resided in Kwazulu-Natal (44%) and Gauteng (42%) and were students (27%) or stood in a professional occupation (25%). The respondents were well-educated (33%) or in the process of obtaining a degree or diploma, supporting the positive relationship between a high level of education and endurance sport participation (Stratton *et al.*, 2005; Downward, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Wicker *et al*., 2009; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Lechner, 2009; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Kruger *et al*., 2011b). The average spending for respondents was R1946.00 with the highest spending on accommodation (R503.95), swimming gear (R484.42) and food (R366.50). Kruger *et al*.'s (2011b) study had similar findings in terms of average spending at the same endurance event. Although the spending was not that high compared to other sport events it indicates that income has a lesser impact on the occurrence of the respondents' participation,

which contradicts the findings by Gratton and Taylor (2000); Downward and Riordan (2007); Humphreys and Ruseski (2010) as well as García *et al*. (2011), who indicated that the higher the income the bigger the spending will be for sport consumers. However, this could be due to the fact that most of the respondents were local residents and had therefore fewer expenses, while Pietermaritzburg is also close enough for participants from Gauteng to travel without too much additional expenses.

Respondents initiated the trip themselves (49%) and most participated in the event for the first time (39%). Thirty nine percent (39%) have never before completed the race. Respondents heard about the Midmar Mile via word of mouth (65%), indicating the power of this medium, which corresponds with Kropp *et al*. (1999) and Bush *et al*. (1999) findings. Fifty eight percent (58%) of the respondents decided to partake in the event more than a month ago, but did not plan to visit other tourism attractions (71%) while in the area where the event was held. The respondents engaged in other sport activities such as running, swimming and cycling (44%) and participated in the Cape Argus (17%) as well. Most the respondents did not participate in any other annual sporting competitions/events (45%). Respondents indicated that the motives for participating in the Midmar Mile, were because they enjoyed open water swimming (73%), they wanted to feel proud of themselves and feel a sense of achievement (64%) and the fact that the Midmar Mile was a major challenge and well-organised event (62% respectively). This shows that the motives for these respondents were more intrinsic motives as found in other studies (Hudson, 1999; Weed, 2007; Cassidy & Pegg, 2008; Lonsdale *et al*., 2014).

The respondents' sport destination and holiday destination differed (44%) and they indicated that the sport allowed them to take family and friends along on the trip (42%) and gave them the opportunity to travel (40%). This shows that social interaction was important for the respondents' attitudes (Moradi *et al.,* 2012). The respondents engaged in four other swimming events on average, while only three of these events were finished on average, the favourite open water swimming distance being 1600m (39%) and 1000m (25%). These respondents participated in other sporting activities such as cycling (36%), running (26%) and only 7% did mountain biking. This shows that these respondents were versatile when it came to sport participation (Kim & Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2003; Yu, 2010).

5.2.1.2 Telkom Midmar Mile spectator

Important to note that there are not many studies conducted thus far with regards to open water swimming spectators profile and motives. Respondents were mostly female (67%), which is contradicting compared to other research studies which indicated that spectators were mostly male (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al*., 2009; Hallmann *et al*., 2010; Shapiro *et al.*, 2013) with an average age of 40 years. Fifty seven percent (57%) of the respondents were married and spoke English (69%). These findings were not similar to Kruger *et al.*'s (2011b) Midmar Mile profile, where the respondents were single English-speaking males in their early thirties. These respondents came from KwaZulu-Natal (62%) and obtained a professional occupation (25%) with a well-educated (33%) background. The average spending was consistent with that of the participants' (R1 855.00) with accommodation (R589.17), transport (R556.89) and food (R433.84) being the highest spending categories. The average spending compared to Kruger *et al.*'s study (2011b) for open water swimmers was higher. Respondents' trip initiators were family (83%). This can be due to a family member participating in the event and the family and friends going to the event to support individual participants. For 31% of these respondents it was their first year to support this event as spectators and word of mouth (75%) influenced their decision to support the event. The majority of respondents did not (74%) visit other tourism attractions.

The respondents' motivators to attend or support the Midmar Mile were summarised as:

- To support a friend or family member (91%);
- To spend time with family (77%) and
- To spend time with friends (77%).

These motives were in contrast with previous studies and theories, which indicated that spectators attended sporting events for the sense of community, escape, personal identity, eustress and aesthetics (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Funk & James, 2001; Cronwell & Coote, 2003; Trail *et al.,* 2003). One must note that previous studies were conducted on team sport events, while this study particularly focused on individual spectators, where the findings are similar to Kruger and Saayman's (2012a) study that was done on the Two Oceans marathon spectator memorable experience.

Table 5.1: Telkom Midmar Mile Consumer Profile

Sport Consumer Profile			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Criteria	Percentage / Average	Criteria	Percentage / Average
Gender	Male: 46% Female: 54%	Gender	Male: 33% Female: 67%
Average age	31 years old	Average age	40 years old
Marital status	Married: 40% Not married: 40%	Marital status	Married: 57% Not married: 18%
Language	Afrikaans: 26% English: 72%	Language	Afrikaans: 30% English: 69%
Province of residence	KwaZulu-Natal: 44% Gauteng: 42%	Province of residence	KwaZulu-Natal: 62% Gauteng: 30%
Occupation	Student: 27% Professional: 25%	Occupation	Professional: 25% Self-employed: 15%
Education	Well-educated 33% diploma, degree	Education	Well-educated 33% diploma, degree
Average spending	R1945.61 with the most spending on: Accommodation: R503.95 Swimming gear: R484.42 Food and restaurants: R366.50	Average spending	R1854.66 with the most spending on: Accommodation: R589.17 Transport: R556.89 Food and restaurants: R433.84

Consumer Behaviour			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Trip initiator	Self: 49% Friends: 38%	Trip initiator	Family: 83% Friends and children: 66%, respectively
Times participated in event	First time: 39% 2-3 times: 24%	Support	Family members: 53%
Times completed	Never: 39% 1-2 times: 21%	Years as supporter	1 year: 31%
Heard about event	Word of mouth: 65% Club: 17%	Media influence	Word of mouth: 75% Other (schools, families, clubs and work): 37% Radio: 32%
Trip decision	More than a month ago: 58%		
Visiting other attractions	No: 71% Yes: 29%	Visiting other attractions	No: 74% Yes: 26%
Participation in other sport events	Other (running, swimming and cycling): 44% Cape Argus: 17%	Quality of visitor experience	Adequate parking arrangements (83%) Adequate safety precautions in place during race (83%)
Motivators for participating	Because I enjoy swimming (73%) To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (64%) It is a major challenge (62%) Because the event is well-organised (62%) I do it annually (61%)	Motivators to support/attend	To support a friend or family member (91%) To spend time with family (77%) To spend time with friends (77%)

Influence of sport participation on holiday	My sport participation and holiday destinations differ (44%) Participation in sport allows me to take family and friends along on the trip (42%) Participation in sport gives me the opportunity to travel (40%)		
Average of open water swimming events finished	3 times		
Open water swimming competitions per year on average	3 events		
Number of days in town	1 day: (49%) 2 days: (32%)		
Favourite open water swimming distance	1600m (39%) 1000m (25%)		
Participation in other sporting activities	Cycling (36%) Running (26%) Mountain biking (7%)		

(Source: Adapted from Kruger, Scholtz & Saayman, 2012b)

5.2.2 Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour (road cyclists)

In 1977, Bill Mylrea and John Stegmann, who are the visionaries and inspiration behind the Cycle Tour, organised the Big Ride-In to emphasise the need for cycle paths in Cape Town. In 1978, The Argus, Cape Town’s largest newspaper, agreed to sponsor the ‘Argus Cycle Tour’. The event was held on 28 October 1978 and attracted 525 entrants who raced over a distance of 104 km from the Castle to Camps Bay. Over the following years, the Argus Cycle Tour grew in numbers and attracted top riders. The Giro del Capo attracted international entries and grew from just 70 in 1994 to more than 2000 entries in 2008. In 1981, due to the growth of the event, the start was moved to Hertzog Boulevard and has remained there since then. In 1982, an agreement was made with the Rotary Club of Claremont to take on the organisation of the Tour, thus enabling Rotary to use the Tour as a vehicle for raising funds needed for community projects. This arrangement continued until 2000 when the Cape Town Cycle Tour Trust was formed. In 1988, the Tour received TV-coverage from M-Net for the first time. Pick ‘n Pay came on board in 1991 as a naming-rights-sponsor and the event became the Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour. Today, the Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour has grown into a Life Cycle week, that consists of multiple events such as the Tricycle Tour, the Junior Cycle Tour, the Mountain Bike Challenge, the Giro del Capo, the Expo and finally, the Argus Cycle Tour. Entries in 2008 reached more than 32 000. In 2000, the traditional route had to be changed due to the rock falls on Chapman’s Peak. This caused disappointment to many cyclists, and it was only after 2004, when Chapman’s Peak was reopened, that entries grew to an astounding 42 614. For the past three decades, funds generated by the Cycle Tour have been ploughed back into the community, giving a financial boost to those who need it most. Working together with the Claremont Rotary Club and the Pedal Power Association (PPA), thousands of community organisations and individuals – ranging from schools and children’s homes to skills development programmes and development cyclists – have benefited (Cycle tour, 2014).

Table 5.2 gives a summary of the respondents (participants and spectators, respectively) and will be discussed individually in the following section.

5.2.2.1 Cape Argus Cycle Tour participants

The majority of respondents participating in the Cape Argus Cycle tour were married (64%) males (74%), with an average age of 42 years (Table 5.2). Daniels and Norman (2003); Turco *et al.* (2003); Chalip and McGuitry (2004); Scheerder *et al.* (2005); Funk *et al*. (2007); Kaplanidou *et al*. (2009); Hallmann *et al*. (2010) also indicated in their studies that the average age for sport participants in general was around 40 years. However, Streicher and Saayman (2010) found that sport cycling participants were younger with the average age of 35 years. The respondents in

the present study were English speaking (59%), with a professional occupation (32%), coming from the Western Cape Province (48%). Respondents were furthermore well-educated (37%) and spent on average R5258.11 at this event, with the highest spending on transportation (R1318.02) accommodation (R1111.10) and sport equipment (R 1095.94). This profile for participants at the Cape Argus was coherent with the endurance profile of sport participants who participate in previous Cape Argus events (Streicher & Saayman, 2010; Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

Friends (99%) had an influence when the trip was initiated. The respondents were also an initiator themselves (98%). Twenty six percent (26%) of the respondents were first-timers to the race, while 29% of the respondents indicated that they have never before finished this particular race. Word of mouth (59%) had an influence when the trip was initiated over a year ago (32%). These respondents also took part in other sport events like the 94.7 Cycle Challenge which is hosted in Johannesburg, therefore indicating that these endurance participants would travel for a particular event. While attending these events, respondents indicated that they do visit other attractions in the area (52%) when attending five annual cycling events on average. This was not a holiday for the respondents as it was indicated that their holiday destination differs (76%) from their sport destination, but that the sport does give them the opportunity to travel (75%) and explore the country (74%). Motivators for these respondents were the enjoyment of cycling (94%), feeling proud of themselves and what they have achieved (92%) and the fact that the event was well organised (90%). These findings were similar to Streicher and Saayman (2010); Kruger and Saayman (2014), with regards to the general profile of endurance sport participants and the willingness to travel long distances to participated and engage in active sport tourism.

Table 5.2: Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Sport Consumer Profile

Sport Consumer Profile			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Criteria	Percentage / Average	Criteria	Percentage / Average
Gender	Male: 74% Female: 26%	Gender	Male: 27% Female: 73%
Average age	42 years old	Average age	41 years old
Marital status	Married: 64% Not married: 21%	Marital status	Married: 65% Not married, in a relationship: 14% respectively
Language	Afrikaans: 39% English: 59%	Language	Afrikaans: 58% English: 41%
Province of residence	Western Cape: 48% Gauteng: 25%	Province of residence	Western Cape: 59% Gauteng: 21%
Occupation	Self-employed: 21% Professional: 32%	Occupation	Professional: 16% Self-employed: 16%
Education	Well-educated 37% diploma, degree	Education	Well-educated 43% diploma, degree
Average spending	R5258.11 with the most spending on: Transport (return): R1318.02 Accommodation: R1111.10 Sport equipment: R1095.94	Average spending	R5639.85 with the most spending on: Transport: R1765.97 Accommodation: R1605.96 Food and restaurants: R1318.16
Consumer profile (continuing)			

Consumer Behaviour			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Trip initiator	Self: 98% Friends: 99% Family: 93%	Trip initiator	Self: 54% Spouse: 30%
Times participated in event	First time: 26% 2-3 times: 22%	Support	Spouse: 38% Friend: 30%
Times completed	Never: 29% Once: 14% Three time: 13%	Times supported	First time: 20% 14 times and more: 11% Once: 10%
Heard about event	Word of mouth: 59% Television: 35%	Media influence	Word of mouth: 72% Television: 59% Newspaper: 54%
Trip decision	Annual commitment: 25% A year ago: 32%		
Visiting other attractions	No: 48% Yes: 52%	Visiting other attractions	No: 56% Yes: 44%
Participation in other sport events	Other (mountain biking, Die Burger Cycle Tour, Karoo2Coast, Knysna Forest Marathon): 18% 94.7 Cycle Challenge: 31%	Quality of visitor experience	Personnel that are trained to handle any race enquiries (96%) Adequate safety precautions in place during the race (96%) Adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds (95%)
Annual cycling events on average	4.9 events		
Motivators for participating	Because I enjoy cycling (94%)	Motivators to support/attend	To support a friend of family member (94%) To spend time with family and friends (89%)

	To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (92%) Because the event is well organised (90%)		Because the event is well organised (88%)
Influence of sport participation on holiday	My sport participation and holiday destinations differ (76%) Participation in sport gives me the opportunity to travel (75%) My sport participation provides the opportunity to explore the country (74%)		

(Source: Adapted from Kruger, Scholtz, Saayman, Saayman & Rossouw, 2012d)

5.2.2.2 Cape Argus Cycle Tour spectator

The respondents were Afrikaans (58%) speaking females (73%) supporting the Cape Argus Cycle tour (Table 5.2). This finding was in contrast with other studies that indicated that men showed a higher frequency of spectating at team sport events (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Downward *et al.*, 2011). These respondents were married (65%), residing in the Western Cape (59%) and had a professional occupation (16%) or were self-employed (16%), with a degree or diploma (43%). The average spending for these respondents was higher compared to the participants, namely R5639.85, with transport (R1765.97), accommodation (1605.96) and food and restaurants (R1318.16) being the highest categories of spending. The average spending was also in contrast with Kruger and Saayman's (2014) study of how mountain bikers and road cyclists differ where the average spending was lower for road cyclists.

Trip initiators were the respondents themselves (54%), to support their spouses (38%). For most of these respondents it was the first time (20%) supporting this event with word of mouth (72%) being the highest media influencer. These respondents did not (56%) engage in other tourism activities or attractions while attending the event. This was in contrast to those respondents participating in the event and for the fact that these respondents came to support their spouse. The respondents were of meaning that the quality of their experience was influenced by the trained personnel who handled their enquiries (96%), the adequate safety precautions that were in place during the race (96%) and the adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds (95%). The respondents were motivated to attend the event in order to support a friend or a family member (94%) and to spend time with them (89%).

5.2.3 Cape Epic (mountain bikers)

The Cape Epic, under current sponsorship as the "ABSA Cape Epic", is an annual mountain bike team race, held in the Western Cape, South Africa. First staged in 2004, the race covers more than 700 kilometres and, typically, lasts eight days. As the best known and most prestigious mountain bike stage race, the ABSA Cape Epic attracts top riders from around the world, who compete in teams of two. The ABSA Cape Epic was once described by Bart Brentjens, 1996 Olympic gold medallist in mountain biking, as the "Tour de France of mountain biking". The race is also open to amateurs, who enter a lottery in order to gain a place in the race. The race is broken into day-long segments, called stages. Times to finish each stage are aggregated to determine the overall winning team at the end of the race. The team with the lowest aggregate time at the end of each day wears the yellow leaders' jerseys. The course changes every year, but the race has always finished in the wine lands of the Western Cape. Since 2007, the climax of the final stage has been at the Lourensford Wine Estate (Cape-Epic, 2014).

5.2.3.1 Cape Epic participants

Important to note that only a participant survey was conducted for the study. According to Table 5.3, the majority of the respondents were English speaking (44%) males (89%) with an average age of 39 years, and were married (58%). These findings are corresponding with the road cycling participant profiles of Funk *et al*. (2007) and García *et al*. (2011). A large percentage (44%) of the respondents were foreigners coming from Australia, Belgium and the Netherlands. These respondents were well-educated (31%) and spent on average R25 728. This high spending can be due to the fact that the events' duration is eight days and that a large percentage of respondents were international. The high spending on registration (R7 679.00) and accommodation (R2 789.00) could be due to the fact that participants could only enter the event as a group.

The respondents normally initiated the trip themselves (55%) at least a year (52%) in advance. Whilst in South Africa these respondents also made use of the opportunity to visit attractions (60%) and other tourism activities. For most of the respondents (67%) it was their first attempt at the race and 58% indicated that they had never before finished this enduring race before. The respondents participated in 9 annual cycling events such as the Pick 'n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour (30%) and other international cycling events. These results support the notion that prior experience in sports activities are likely to raise participation in specific sport (Downward *et al.,* 2011). These respondents were motivated because they enjoyed cycling (87%) and believed that the Cape Epic was a huge challenge (86%). They participated in events like these because it gave them an opportunity to travel (64%). The findings were in contrast with previous research in terms of motives (which was extrinsic as well as intrinsic, such as escape and relaxation) (Hritz & Ramos, 2008; Kruger *et al*., 2011b), but in agreement with Bloom *et al.* (2005) and Fridberg (2010) research, where a sense of achievement and skill development were motivators for participants, for sport participation in general.

Table 5.3: Cape Epic Sport Consumer Profile

Sport Consumer Profile	
PARTICIPANT	
Criteria	Percentage / Average
Gender	Male: 89% Female: 11%
Average age	39 years old
Marital status	Married: 58% Not married: 17%
Language	Afrikaans: 25% English: 44%
Province of residence	Western Cape: 20% Gauteng: 25% Outside RSA: 44% (Australia, Belgium and The Netherlands)
Occupation	Self-employed: 20% Professional: 40%
Education	Well educated 31% post graduate
Average spending	R25 728.00 with the most spending on: Sport equipment: R9456.40 Registration Fee: R7679.00 Accommodation: R2789.00 Transport (return): R2263.00
Trip **Initiator**	Self: 55% Friends: 37%
Average times participated in event	1.5 times
Times completed	Never: 58% Once: 23%
Heard about event	Word of mouth: 57% Television: 44%
Trip decision	More than a month ago: 19% A year ago: 52%
Visiting other attractions	No: 40% Yes: 60%
Participation in other sport events	Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus Cycle Tour: 30% Other (Amashova, Desert Dash, Sani2c): 30% 94.7 Cycle Challenge: 23%

Average cycling events	8.9 events
Motivators for participating	Because I enjoy cycling (87%) The Cape Epic is a huge challenge (86%) To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (84%)
Influence of sport participation on holiday	Participation in sport gives me the opportunity to travel (64%) My sport participation and holiday destinations differ (42%)

(Source: Adapted from Kruger, Saayman, Saayman & Rossouw, 2012a)

5.2.4 Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon (short distance marathon runners)

The Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon is an annual marathon race held in Cape Town in the Western Cape Province on the Saturday of Easter weekend. The first race was held in 1970 and 26 runners participated. The race has become a national institution and a firm favourite with local, upcountry and international athletes. The Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon is known as the most beautiful marathon in the world and attracts close to 26 000 runners each year. The race consists of two marathons, namely the Ultra Marathon (56 km) and Half Marathon (21.1 km). Both races start in Main Roads, Newlands, and both follow the same route up to Gabriel Road Plumstead, and finish at the sports fields of the University of Cape Town. The 42nd race took place on 7 April 2012. A record number of 23 000 runners lined up for the marathon in 2011 with 14 000 runners competing in the Half marathon and 9 000 in the Ultra marathon (Two Oceans Marathon, 2014).

Table 5.4 gives a summary of the respondents (participants and spectators respectively) and will be discussed individually in the following section.

5.2.4.1 Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon participants

According to Table 5.4, 60% of the male respondents were well educated (36%) with an average age of 39 years. The respondents were married (51%), residing in the Western Cape (37%) with a professional occupation (26%). The average spending for these respondents was R5 197.54, with the most being spent on transport (R1 582.82), accommodation (R1 312.94) and food and restaurants (R744.38). This demographic profile was in correlation with Krugell and Saayman's (2013) study on the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon. This spending was higher compared to other endurance sport events such as the Midmar Mile and the Comrades Marathon, but the respondents indicated that their income did not influence their participation frequency and

therefore had a lesser influence on the frequency in which they participated in sport events (Gratton & Taylor, 2000; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; García *et al*., 2011). Krugell and Saayman's (2013) study indicated that these types of endurance participants are willing to pay for sporting events such as the Two Oceans Marathon.

The trip initiator for these respondents was themselves (59%) with word-of-mouth (57%) being the most influential media. Fifty two percent (52%) of respondents indicated that this would be their first time participating in the event, while 47% of respondents indicated that they had never before completed this event. This is normally an annual event for the respondents to participate in and participants also participated in the Comrades Marathon. Respondents participated on average 2.93 times in this event, and indicated that these types of events helped them to feel proud of themselves and feel a sense of achievement (94%) when competing, they felt that the events helped them to improve their health (92%) and they enjoyed these types of events (92%). This indicated that health and sport is part of the social phenomena where intrinsic motives drive participants to new challenges (Kim & Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2003; Yu, 2010; Moradi *et al*., 2012). Respondents also indicated that their holiday and sport destination differed, but that the holiday destination provided the opportunity to train (77%, respectively). Sport also gave the respondents an opportunity to travel (76%). The spectator respondents varied from the participants and will be discussed next.

5.2.4.2 Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon spectators

Respondents were mostly female (57%), were there to support their spouses (24%) and were on average 38 years old. Respondents were Afrikaans-speaking (48%) and originally also from the Western Cape (57%). These findings were somewhat contradicting compared to other sport studies which indicated that sport spectators were male and English-speaking (Wann, 1995; Mahony *et al.*, 2000; Wann *et al.*, 2001; Zhan *et al.*, 2001; Fink *et al.*, 2002; Crawford, 2004; Hinch & Higham, 2005; Chen, 2007; Smith & Stewart, 2007; Appelbaum *et al*., 2012). Kruger and Saayman's (2012a) spectator profile of the Two Oceans was the same compared to the current findings, except for the language spoken. Spectators were also well-educated (34%) but obtained a professional occupation (27%) or were students (18%), which was similar to other sport studies conducted before in terms of education and occupation (Shapiro *et al*., 2013; Schnitzer *et al*., 2014). As spectators, these respondents spent on average R3 259.48 during the event, with the highest expense being transport (R948.86), accommodation (R984.38) and food and restaurants (R721.86). This is in correlation with the endurance participants of this study, showing that sport cost can be expensive (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Lee & Bang, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Yu, 2010; Kruger & Saayman, 2012c).

The trip was initiated by themselves (40%) and it was their first time (50%) supporting the event. Word of mouth (74%) was again a very influential media for this event to engage with respondents supporting the event. These respondents did not visit other tourism attractions (60%) whilst attending the event. The quality of the spectator experience was influenced by the accessibility of the sport ground's entry point (98%), the good visibility at the sports grounds from all viewpoints (96%) and the layout of the sports grounds, as well as the adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds (95%, respectively). The respondents' motivators were to support a friend or family member (97%), to spend time with them (87%) and because the event was well-organised (70%) – this affected the way they attend and watch sporting events (Bouchet *et al*., 2011).

Table 5.4: Old Mutual Two Oceans Sport Consumer Profile

Sport Consumer Profile			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Criteria	Percentage / Average	Criteria	Percentage / Average
Gender	Male: 60% Female: 40%	Gender	Male: 43% Female: 57%
Average age	39 years old	Average age	38 years old
Marital status	Married: 51% Not married: 31%	Marital status	Married: 51% Not married: 20%
Language	Afrikaans: 30% English: 58%	Language	Afrikaans: 48% English:43%
Province of residence	Western Cape: 37% Gauteng: 30%	Province of residence	Western Cape: 57% Gauteng: 21%
Occupation	Management: 13% Professional: 26%	Occupation	Professional: 27% Student: 18%
Education	Well-educated 36% diploma, degree	Education	Well-educated 34% diploma, degree
Average spending	R5 197.54 with the most spending on: Transport: R1 582.82 Accommodation: R1 312.94 Food and Restaurants': R744.38	Average spending	R3 259.48 with the most spending on: Transport: R948.86 Accommodation: R984.38 Food and restaurants: R721.86

Consumer Behaviour			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Trip initiator	Self: 59% Friends: 23%	Trip initiator	Self: 40% Spouse: 30%
Average times participated in event	5.37 times	Support	Spouse: 24% Friend: 22%
Average times completed	4.7 times	Times supported	First time: 50% Two times: 17%
Heard about event	Word of mouth: 57% Television: 38%	Media influence	Word of mouth: 74%
Trip decision	Annual commitment: 33% A year ago: 26%		
Visiting other attractions	No: 33% Yes: 67%	Visiting other attractions	No: 60% Yes: 40%
Participation in other sport events	Comrades: 47% Other (Knysna Forest Marathon,, Om-die-dam Marathon, Soweto Marathon and Spar Women's Marathon): 20%	Quality of visitor experience	Accessibility of the sport ground's entry points (98%) Good visibility of the athletes from all viewpoints at the sports grounds (96%) Good layout of the sports grounds (95%) Adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds (95%)
Average marathon events	2.93 events		
Motivators for participating	To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (94%) To improve my health (92%)	Motivators to support/attend	To support a friend of family member (97%) To spend time with family and friends (87%) Because the event is well organised (70%)

	Because I enjoy running (92%)		
Influence of sport participation on holiday	My sport participation and holiday destinations differ (77%) My holiday destination needs to provide the opportunity to train (77%) Participation in sport gives me the opportunity to travel (76%)		

(Source: Adapted from Kruger, Scholtz, Saayman, Saayman & Rossouw, 2012e)

5.2.5 The Comrades Marathon (longer distance marathon runners)

The Comrades Marathon is a world-renowned ultra-marathon that takes place between the cities of Pietermaritzburg and Durban. This race owes its beginnings to World War 1 veteran Vic Clapham. After being a soldier in the Great War, Clapham felt that all those who had fallen should be remembered and honoured in a unique way, where an individual's physical frailties could be put to the test and overcome. The first Comrades Marathon took place on 24 May 1921, Empire Day, starting outside the City Hall in Pietermaritzburg with 34 runners. It has continued every year since then, with the exception of the war years 1941 to 1945, with the direction alternating each year between Pietermaritzburg and Durban, the so called up- and down-runs. The Comrades Marathon is a cherished national treasure and attracts thousands of runners, spectators and television viewers every year. The 87th race took place on Sunday 3 June 2012 and was a down-run starting in Pietermaritzburg and finishing in Durban. Over 18 000 athletes participated in the 2012 race (Comrades Marathon Association, 2014).

Table 5.5 gives a summary of the sport consumer profile for both participants and spectators. These respondents' behavioural profile with regards to the Comrades Marathon is also summarised and each of these categories will be discussed next.

5.2.5.1 The Comrades Marathon participants

The respondents with regards to the Comrades marathon were married (60%) males (76%), with the average age of 40 years (Table 5.5). Distance running were more preferred by the older age groups and seemed to affect males more than females which correlated with this study (Barber & Havitz, 2001; Farrell & Shields, 2002; Moens & Scheerder, 2004; Stratton *et al.,* 2005; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Downward, 2007; Downward & Riordan, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Wicker *et al.,* 2009; Bauman *et al.*, 2009; Fridberg, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011). Kruger and Saayman (2014) found in their comparison study of various runners that there were significant differences between recreational runners and serious runners but that their demographic profile was similar to the current findings of this study. The respondents were English speaking (57%) and came from Gauteng (32%). These respondents were well-educated (36%) and in a professional occupation (28%). During the event the respondents spent on average R5378.51, with the most being on accommodation (R1489.66), transport (R1198.19) and running gear (R1018.46). This profile was in correlation with previous studies in terms of the general sport profile of runners, who were males with the average age in the mid-thirties and early forties, educated and in a professional occupation (Delphy, 1998; Gidson, 1998; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Lera-López

& Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Hemmati Nezhad *et al.*, 2009; Streicher & Saayman, 2010; Cook *et al.,* 2010; García *et al.*, 2011; Kruger & Saayman, 2012c).

The respondents themselves were the initiators for the trip (57%) of which 36% of respondents indicated that it was their first time participating in the Comrades Marathon. Twenty nine percent (29%) of the respondents had never completed this marathon before. Television (51%) was an influential medium for advertising this event and already influenced the respondents over a year ago, making it an annual commitment for the respondents (36%, respectively), compared to the other events where word of mouth was the most influencing media. Fifty four percent (54%) of the respondents indicated that they did visit attractions while attending the Comrades Marathon, and they also participated in other sport events such as the Cape Argus (34%) and the Two Oceans (19%). Respondents competed on average in nine annual marathon events. This shows that there is commitment to the sport by these respondents (Mahony *et al*., 2000; Trail *et al*., 2000; Kwon & Trail, 2003; Funk & James, 2006; Heere & Dickson, 2008; Kim *et al.,* 2013). A feeling of pride and a sense of achievement (94%), the huge challenge that the Comrades Marathon provided and the fact that these respondents enjoyed running were motivators for participating in endurance events such as the Comrades Marathon, which is in unison with Weed's (2007) study. Kruger and Saayman (2014) found that there are differences in endurance runners and recreational runners when it comes to the group size, times participated and holiday choice behaviour, which is in line with the current findings of the study. Endurance runners' group size was larger, they participated on average six times in an endurance sport and their travel behaviour was influenced by their participation in endurance sport (Kruger & Saayman, 2014). There were contradicting findings in the current study pertaining to the group size and the average times participated.

5.2.5.2 The Comrades Marathon spectators

More male spectators (53%) formed part of the survey. These respondents were English speaking (41%), 38 years old on average, married (49%) and came from KwaZulu-Natal (50%). These findings were comparable with the demographic profile studies of runners who participate in these types of events (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al*., 2009; Hallmann *et al*., 2010; Shapiro *et al.*, 2013). The respondents were self-employed (16%) with 47% having a basic education (matric). The average spending for the respondents was R2926.11 with accommodation (R1269.27) being the highest, followed by transport (R723.07) and food and restaurants (R545.20). Length of stay had an economic impact for spectators since they only arrived the day of the event, whereas those who supported the participants stayed longer and engaged in other tourism activities since they stayed just as long as the participants, which is in

conjunction with previous research (Saayman & Saayman, 2001; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Saayman *et al.*, 2005).

Respondents initiated the trip (60%) to support family and friends (50%) at the event for the first time (26%). Television (65%) was a huge influencing media, followed by word of mouth (55%) and radio (50%). Respondents (50%) indicated that they were planning to visit other tourist attractions in the area. The adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds, visibility of security, good quality viewing of the race on a big screen, friendly and professional personnel in and around the sports grounds and adequate safety precautions in place during the race (93%, respectively) were all aspects that had an influence on the respondents quality of experience at the Comrades Marathon. Motivators to support or attend the Comrades Marathon were to support a friend or family member (89%), to spend time with them (86%) and due to the event being well-organised and the camaraderie associated with these types of events (82%, respectively). Motives were very intrinsic and showed that these respondents were more personally involved in the sport due to their relationship with the participant compared to team-sport events, which correlates with the findings by Kruger and Saayman (2014).

In the next section the statistical results for participants and spectators will be discussed individually in terms of factor analyses, the results of the ANOVAs and the cross-tabulations with Chi-square tests for these endurance consumers.

Table 5.5: The Comrades Marathon Sport Consumer Profile

Sport Consumer Profile			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Criteria	Percentage / Average	Criteria	Percentage / Average
Gender	Male: 76% Female: 24%	Gender	Male: 53% Female: 47%
Average age	40 years old	Average age	38 years old
Marital status	Married: 60% Not married: 20%	Marital status	Married: 49% Not married: 26%
Language	Afrikaans: 21% English: 57%	Language	Afrikaans: 23% English: 41% Other: 36% (isiZulu, Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi)
Province of residence	KwaZulu-Natal: 20% Gauteng: 32%	Province of residence	KwaZulu-Natal: 50% Gauteng: 21%
Occupation	Management: 19% Professional: 28%	Occupation	Self-Employed: 16% Professional: 12%
Education	Well-educated 36% diploma, degree	Education	Educated 47% matric
Average spending	R5 378.51 with the most spending on: Transport: R1 198.19 Accommodation: R1 489.66 Running gear: R1 018.46	Average spending	R2 926.11 with the most spending on: Transport: R723.01 Accommodation: R1 269.27 Food and restaurants: R545.20
Consumer profile (continuing)			

Consumer Behaviour			
PARTICIPANT		**SPECTATOR**	
Trip initiator	Self: 57% Friends: 25%	Trip initiator	Self: 60% Spouse: 15%
Average times participated in event	5.37	Support	Spouse: 21% Family and Friend: 50%
Average times completed	4.7 times	Times supported	First time: 26% Two times: 12%
Heard about event	Word of mouth: 36% Television: 51%	Media influence	Television: 65% Word of mouth: 55% Radio: 50%
Trip decision	Annual commitment: 36% A year ago: 36%		
Visiting other attractions	No: 46% Yes: 54%	Visiting other attractions	No: 50% Yes: 50%
Participation in other sport events	Pick ‘n Pay Cape Argus (34%), Two Oceans Marathon (19%)	Quality of visitor experience	Adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds (93%) Visibility of security on the sports grounds (93%) Good quality viewing of the race on a big screen (93%) Friendly and professional personnel in and around the sports grounds (93%)
Average marathon events	9.46		

			Adequate safety precautions in place during the race (93%)
Motivators for participating	To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (94%) Because I enjoy running (93%) The Comrades is a huge challenge (93%)	Motivators to support/attend	To support a friend of family member (89%) To spend time with family and friends (86%) Because the event is well organised (82%) I enjoy the camaraderie associated with these types of events (82%)
Influence of sport participation on holiday	To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement (94%) Because I enjoy running (93%) The Comrades is a huge challenge (93%)		

(Source: Adapted from Kruger, Scholtz, Saayman & Saayman, 2012c)

5.3 Statistical analyses for endurance sport participants

The results of the statistical analysis are presented in three sections. Firstly, the results of the two-factor analyses for endurance participants (motives to participate in endurance events and sport participations' travel behaviour) are discussed, followed by the results of the ANOVAs and cross-tabulations with Chi-square tests for these endurance participants. Important to note that the data was pooled together and that the theoretical analysis, as discussed in Chapter 4, will be applied practically in this chapter. The results of the factor analyses will be discussed next.

5.3.1 Factor analyses for endurance sport participants

The pattern matrix of two principal axis factor analyses, using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation, were performed on the 29 motivation items and the 11 travel behaviour items, identifying four (4) motives and two (2) travel behaviour factors that were labelled according to similar characteristics (Table 5.6).

These factors accounted for respectively 56% and 60% of the total variance. All the factors have relatively high reliability coefficients, ranging from 0.66 (the lowest) to 0.84 (the highest) for the motivational factors and 0.68 (the lowest) to 0.91 (the highest) for the travel behaviour factors. The inter-item correlation coefficients' values for the motivation factors were between 0.38 and 0.43; while the values for travel behaviour factors were 0.41 and 0.55.

All items that were loaded on a factor had a loading greater than 0.3 and the relatively high factor loadings indicated a reasonably high correlation between the factors and their component items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy of 0.88 for the motivational factors and 0.93 for the travel behaviour factors also indicated that patterns of correlation were relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005). Barlett's test of sphericity also reached statistical significance (p<0.001) in both cases, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010).

Factor scores were calculated as the average of all items that contribute to a specific factor in order to be interpreted in the original 5-point Likert scales of measurements. As shown in Table 5.6, the following factors were identified:

Table 5.6: Results of factor analysis of motives for participating in endurance sport events

Motivational factors and items	Factor loading	Reliability coefficient	Inter-item correlation	Mean value
Factor 1: *Commitment*		0.84	0.38	2.94
Because I am participating as part of a club	0.784			
Because I am a professional athlete	0.700			
The race allows the athlete to train, qualify or prepare for other events such as the Ironman etc.	0.630			
Pursuing a personal goal of participating in a certain number of endurance events	0.537			
Addiction to training and this event sets training targets for the athlete	0.514			
I share group identity with other athletes	0.442			
I am participating as part of a team	0.425			
Because the event is well organised	0.371			
It's an international event	0.321			
Factor 2: *Intrinsic achievement*		0.79	0.43	3.70
To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement	0.862			
It's a "must do " event	0.593			
To improve my health	0.538			
Because the event is well organised	0.369			
Because I enjoy the specific sport	0.356			
Factor 3: *Escape and socialisation*		0.76	0.39	3.17
To relax	0.795			
To get away from my routine	0.667			
To spend time with family and friends	0.638			

To meet new people	0.437			
It's s sociable event	0.374			
Factor 4: *Challenge*		0.60	0.43	3.83
Specific event is a huge challenge	0.594			
The event tests my levels of fitness and endurance	0.564			
Total Variance Explained	**56%**			
Travel behaviour factors and items				
Factor 1: *Travel Opportunity*		0.91	0.55	3.11
Sport participation is planned in order to see different places and destinations	0.972			
Sport participation provides the opportunity to explore the country	0.882			
Athlete takes a holiday during participation in specific events	0.679			
Participation in sport gives the athlete the opportunity to travel	0.676			
Sport participation provides the opportunity to travel overseas	0.649			
Holiday destination needs to provide the opportunity to train	0.646			
Participation in sport allows athletes to take family and friends along on the trip	0.619			
Athlete takes a holiday in the town or area where he/she has participated in	0.611			
Factor 2: *Travel omission*		0.68	0.41	3.00
Athlete's sport participation and holiday destination(s) differ	0.721			
Athlete prefers to go on holiday at a different destination than where he/she has participated - at least once a year	0.633			
Athlete prefers to not spend a lot of time at the destination where he/she participate in a particular sport	0.437			
Total Variance Explained	**60%**			

5.3.1.1 Motivational factors for endurance sport participants

As indicated in Table 5.6 the motivational factors for endurance sport participants were identified as: *commitment* (Factor1); *intrinsic achievement* (Factor 2); *escape and socialisation* (Factor 3) and *challenge* (Factor 4). Each of these factors will be discussed next.

Factor 1: Commitment

Interestingly, c*ommitment* had the lowest mean value (2.94) and was rated as the least important motive for endurance sport participants. *Commitment* is supported by research done by Gruen *et al.* (2000); Mahony *et al*. (2000); Trail *et al.* (2000); Kwon and Trail (2003); Bansal *et al.* (2004); Funk and James (2006); Heere and Dickson (2008); Kim *et al*. (2013); Kruger and Saayman (2014).

Factor 2: Intrinsic achievement

Intrinsic achievement had the second highest mean value (3.70) and had a reliability coefficient of 0.43. Research by Ogles and Masters (2003); Bloom *et al.* (2005); Streicher and Saayman (2010); Fridberg (2010); Kruger and Saayman (2012c); Lamont and Kennelly (2012); Ardahan (2012); Buckley (2012) also indicated *intrinsic achievement* as an important motivator. The self-determination theory which states that the reason *why* people participate in sport (need satisfaction), influence social-cognitive variables that predict energy and effort towards volitional behaviour, furthermore supports this notion.

Factor 3: Escape and socialisation

Escape and socialisation had the third highest mean value (3.17) with a reliability coefficient of 0.39. Various researchers (Delle Fave *et al*., 2003; Funk *et al.,* 2007; Berg & Greenspan, 2008; Streicher & Saayman, 2010; Kruger & Saayman; 2011c; Kruger *et al*., 2011b; Ardahan, 2012; Buckley, 2012; Shipway, 2012; Kruger & Saayman, 2014) identified this factor. The social theory also distinguishes between these variables.

Factor 4: Challenge

The *challenge* obtained the highest mean value (3.83), was considered the most important motive for participating in endurance events, and had a reliability coefficient of 0.60 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.43. This factor can also be linked with the planned behaviour theory as well as the sport motivation scale II. Researchers who supported this factor include McDonald *et al*. (2002); Delle Fave *et al*. (2003); Bloom *et al*. (2005); Gillett and Kelly (2006); Berg and Greenspan (2008); Fridberg (2010); Buckley (2012); Ardahan (2012); Lamont and Kennelly (2012); Shipway (2012).

5.3.1.2 Endurance sport participants travel behaviour factors

Table 5.6 also indicates the travel behaviour of endurance sport participants and includes the *travel opportunity* the sport provides and the *travel omission* (participation in sport does not influence travel behaviour). Important to note that there are currently not many studies which analysed the travel behaviour for endurance sport. These factors will be discussed next.

Factor 1: Travel opportunity

Travel opportunity obtained the highest mean value (3.11) of the two travel behaviour factors with a reliability coefficient of 0.91 and an inter-item correlation of 0.55. Kruger and Saayman (2014) classified this factor as a primary influence. This factor shows that participation in sport can have an influence on travel behaviour and can be used as a vehicle to expand sport tourism (Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

Factor 2: Travel omission

Travel omission had a slighter lower mean value (3.00) and obtained a 0.68 reliability coefficient and an inter-item correlation of 0.41. Kruger and Saayman (2014) classified this factor as a secondary influence and indicated that this factor showed that endurance sport participants' travel destinations might differ from their sport participation destination.

5.3.2 ANOVAs for endurance sport participants

ANOVAs were used to determine whether significant differences existed between the participants of five types of endurance events (road cycling, mountain biking, long distance marathon, open water swimming and short distance marathons). Table 5.7 shows the ANOVA results for endurance sport participants. Effect sizes (Table 5.8) were used to further identify any significant differences between the different endurance sport participants. The purpose of effect size is to establish whether any differences exist between the five endurance sport participants, in this case, in which combination of participants the mean values of the motives and travel behaviour factors as well as the averages of the socio-demographic and behavioural variables had the smallest or largest effect. Cohen (1988); Steyn (2000); Ellis and Steyn (2003) offer the following guidelines for the interpretation of the effect sizes: small effect: d=0.2, medium effect: d=0.5 and large effect: d=0.8. As shown in Table 5.7 there were statistical significant differences between endurance road cyclist, mountain bikers, long distance marathon runners, open water swimmers and short distance marathon runners, based on all the socio-demographic characteristics (p=<0.05 for all sub categories), spending categories (p=<0.05 except for entertainment, p=0.064), motives for competing in endurance events (p<0.05 with the exception of escape and

socialisation, p=0.118) and the travel behaviour for theses consumers (p<0.05, p=0.001). Table 5.8 will be discussed in conjunction with Table 5.7 in the next section.

5.3.2.1 Socio-characteristics for endurance sport participants

This section discusses the statistically significant differences between the endurance participants in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics (Table 5.7 and Table 5.8).

Average age

Open water swimmers were the youngest (31 years) compared to the other endurance participants. Road cyclists (39 years), mountain bikers (41 years) and long distance runners (40 years) as well as short distance runners (38 years) were all in their late thirties to early forties (Table 5.7). These results correlate with previous studies which indicated that the average age for sport consumers who participate in cycling, swimming and running was in the late thirties (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Kaplanidou *et al*., 2009; Hallmann *et al*., 2010; Kruger *et al.*, 2011b). Open water swimmers' younger average age, however contradicts these findings.

Average group size and average number of people paying for

Open water swimmers had the largest group size (average of 6.75 people) among the participants, while only paying for an average of two people when attending the event (Table 5.7). This finding was in correlation with Kruger *et al.*'s (2011b) study, where the average travel group size for swimmers was also six people. Road cyclist, mountain bikers and short distance runners had an average group size of three people, while paying mostly just for themselves, indicating that these groups do not differ that much, with a small effect between these groups (Table 5.8). This was not in conjunction with the findings of Kruger and Saayman's (2014) study, which indicated that short distance runners had larger group sizes and paid for two people on average, but was in conjunction with the findings of Kruger and Saayman (2014) for road cyclist and mountain bikers' group size and the number people paying for.

Length of stay (average number of nights spent in the area where the event was held)

Mountain bikers spent the most nights (8 nights on average) in the area where the event was held compared to road cyclist, long- and short distance runners, while open water swimmers spent the fewest nights (1 night on average) (Table 5.7). Kruger and Saayman (2014) also found similar results for mountain bikers and road cyclists while Kruger *et al.* (2011b) found similar results for open water swimmers in terms of the average length of stay during the event. This indicates that there is a noteworthy difference between mountain bikers and open water swimmers (effect size = 1.07) in terms of their length of stay (Table 5.8). These results confirm that the type of event

has an influence on participants' length of stay. It is also important to note that the Cape Epic's duration is eight days compared to the other events that are only held on one day.

Number of times participated and times finished

Mountain bikers have finished the least number of races (0.90) and have also participated in the least number of races (1.51) (Table 5.7), while long distance runners have participated the most times (5.37) and have also finished the most times (4.70) (Table 5.7). These findings are similar to Kruger and Saayman's (2014) findings on road cyclists and mountain bikers as well as Kruger and Saayman's (2014) study on short distance runners regarding times finished and times participated in an event.

Table 5.7: ANOVA results: Endurance sport participants

Socio –demographic characteristics	Road cyclists	Mountain bikers	Long distance marathon runners	Open water swimmers	Short distance marathon runners	F-ratio	Sig. level
	Cape Argus (1)	Cape Epic (2)	Comrades (3)	Midmar Mile (4)	Two Oceans (5)		
Average age	41.64[a]	39.22[a]	40.46[a]	31.59[b]	38.89[ab]	16.849	0.001*
Average travel group size	3.48[a]	3.34[a]	5.09[ab]	6.75[b]	3.75[a]	30.671	0.001*
Average people paying for during the event	1.56[a]	1.49[a]	1.99[ab]	2.31[b]	1.52[a]	11.212	0.001*
Length of stay	4.28[ab]	8.25[c]	4.00[ab]	1.95[a]	4.89[b]	71.375	0.001*
Number of times participated	4.25[b]	1.51[a]	5.37[b]	4.02[ab]	3.19[c]	36.024	0.001*
Number of times finished	4.02[b]	0.90[a]	4.70[c]	3.57[b]	2.42[ab]	37.809	0.001*
Spending categories							
Registration fee	R369.52[a]	R7678.70 [b]	R238.03[a]	R285.16[a]	R339.95[a]	144.313	0.001*
Accommodation	R1111.10[a]	R2788.60[b]	R1489.70a[b]	R552.28[a]	R1312.90[a]	13.202	0.001*
Transport (return)	R1318.00[b]	R2263.20[ab]	R1198.20[b]	R513.29[a]	R1582.80[b]	15.592	0.001*
Sport equipment	R1095.90[a]	R9456.40[b]	R1018.50[a]	R55.52[a]	R433.68[a]	52.419	0.001*
Food and restaurants	R757.63[b]	R1195.90 [c]	R576.64[a]	R377.11[a]	R744.38[ab]	15.962	0.001*
Beverages	R216.25[a]	R654.76 [b]	R281.43[ab]	R178.65[a]	R209.96[a]	4.239	0.020*
Medicine	R31.80[a]	R368.05 [b]	R98.19[a]	R22.42[a]	R51.96[a]	21.511	0.001*
Souvenirs / Gifts	R136.57[a]	R493.74 [b]	R190.96[a]	R110.04[a]	R224.35[ab]	4.374	0.001*
Entertainment	R163.60	R364.05	R209.38	R0.00	R255.18	2.247	0.064

Total spending	R5200.40[b]	R25263.00[ab]	R5300.90[b]	R1944.30[a]	R5155.20[b]	101.812	0.001*
Spending per person	R3461.60[a]	R18629.00[b]	R3901.90[ab]	R1028.30[a]	R3562.60[a]	81.169	0.001*
Motives to compete							
Commitment	2.69[a]	2.76[ab]	3.05[b]	3.28[b]	2.85[a]	15.136	0.001*
Intrinsic achievement	3.89[b]	4.00[b]	4.01[b]	2.64[a]	3.92[b]	127.780	0.001*
Family togetherness & escape	3.18	2.98	3.18	3.17	3.21	1.843	0.118
Challenge	3.58[a]	4.44[ab]	4.08[b]	3.62[a]	3.77[a]	19.598	0.001*
Travel behaviour							
Travel opportunity	2.95[a]	3.43[b]	3.38[b]	2.90[a]	2.98[a]	16.478	0.001*
Travel omission	2.85[a]	3.06[ab]	3.11[b]	3.05[ab]	2.94[ab]	3.195	0.012*

°Expenditure per person (in Rand), which was calculated by adding the spending of the respondent on the various components, and dividing the total by the number of people that respondents' indicated they were financially responsible for.

*Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$

[a] Group differs significantly from type (in row) where [b] is indicated and groups [c] differs significantly from type (in row) where [a] or [b] is indicated.

Table 5.8: Effect size results for endurance sport events for participants

Socio-demographic Characteristics	**Effect sizes**									
Event with event	**1 with 2**	**1 with 3**	**1 with 4**	**1 with 5**	**2 with 3**	**2 with 4**	**2 with 5**	**3 with 4**	**3 with 5**	**4 with 5**
Average age	0.20**	0.10	0.78***	0.23**	0.13	0.59***	0.03	0.69***	0.13	0.57***
Average travel group size	0.04	0.19	0.43**	0.07	0.21**	0.45**	0.11	0.20**	0.16	0.40**
Average people paying for during the event	0.05	0.15	0.38**	0.02	0.18	0.41**	0.02	0.12	0.16	0.40**

Length of stay	0.77***	0.08	0.64**	0.16	0.82***	1.22****	0.65***	0.99****	0.33**	1.07****
Number of times participated	0.52**	0.18	0.04	0.20**	0.62***	0.59***	0.37**	0.22**	0.35**	0.18
Number of times finished	0.58***	0.11	0.08	0.30**	0.60***	0.59***	0.36**	0.18	0.36**	0.26**
Spending categories										
Registration fee	0.69***	0.35**	0.22**	0.04	0.70***	0.70***	0.69***	0.14	0.13	0.07
Accommodation	0.23**	0.14	0.28**	0.08	0.18	0.30**	0.20**	0.34**	0.06	0.31**
Transport (return)	0.21**	0.07	0.45**	0.09	0.24**	0.39**	0.15	0.43**	0.12	0.34**
Sport equipment	0.41**	0.03	0.36**	0.23**	0.42**	0.46**	0.45**	0.44**	0.27**	0.45**
Food and restaurants	0.19	0.18	0.37**	0.01	0.27**	0.36**	0.20**	0.28**	0.16	0.35**
Beverages	0.12	0.15	0.11	0.01	0.10	0.13	0.12	0.23**	0.14	0.06
Medicine	0.31**	0.30**	0.09	0.07	0.25**	0.32**	0.29**	0.34**	0.16	0.10
Souvenirs / Gifts	0.15	0.12	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.17	0.12	0.18	0.03	0.11
Entertainment	0.12	0.09	0.40**	0.16	0.10	0.22**	0.07	0.39**	0.08	0.44**
Total spending	0.58***	0.02	0.57***	0.01	0.58***	0.67***	0.58***	0.69***	0.02	0.50***
Spending per person	0.56***	0.11	0.59***	0.02	0.54***	0.64***	0.55***	0.70***	0.08	0.62***
Motives to compete										
Commitment	0.07	0.32**	0.57***	0.15	0.26**	0.56***	0.08	0.21**	0.17	0.37**
Intrinsic achievement	0.13	0.13	1.37****	0.03	0.02	1.43****	0.09	1.45****	0.10	1.35****
Escape and socialisation	0.20**	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.19	0.19	0.23**	0.00	0.03	0.04
Challenge	0.63***	0.50***	0.04	0.19	0.13	0.54***	0.45**	0.42**	0.31**	0.14
Travel behaviour										
Travel opportunity	0.50***	0.45**	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.50***	0.42**	0.45**	0.37**	0.07
Travel omission	0.24**	0.26**	0.21**	0.09	0.05	0.01	0.11	0.05	0.16	0.10

Effect sizes: ** small effect: (a) d=0.2; (b) *** medium effect: d=0.5 and (c) ****large effect: d=0.8

5.3.2.2 Spending for endurance sport participants

Mountain bikers total spending on average (R25 263.00) were the highest compared to road cyclist (R5 200.40) as well as long and short distance marathon runners (R5 300.90 and R5 155.20, respectively), whilst open water swimmers spent the least (R1 944.30) (Table 5.7). The spending for mountain bikers are higher due to the length of stay (eight days compared to one day sporting events). Therefore indicating that length of stay will influence the spending of consumers at endurance sport events for the positive. Mountain bikers spent the highest amount (R9 456.40) on sport equipment (Table 5.7) and for the registration fee (R7 678.70) when compared to the other endurance sport participants. In addition mountain bikers spent the most, between these five groups, on beverages (R654.76), medicine (R368.05), souvenirs (R493.74) and entertainment (R364.05), therefore being the highest spenders amongst endurance participants. Open water swimmers spent the least on accommodation (R552.28) as well as transport (R513.29). Open water swimmers in general were the lowest spenders when the five endurance sports events were compared. Kruger *et al.* (2011b); Kruger and Saayman (2014) found similar results for the respective sport events when studied. There was no significant difference between these groups when entertainment was analysed, which differs from the findings of Daniels and Norman (2003) who indicated that entertainment accounts for 25% of the spending by sport participants. It is clear that the type and nature of the sport events also influences participants' spending (Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

5.3.2.3 Motives for competing in endurance sport events

According to Table 5.8, open water swimmers were motivated more by the motive *commitment* compared to road cyclists (effect size = 0.57). Long distance runners were more motivated by *intrinsic achievement* than open water swimmers (effect size = 1.45); whilst *escape and socialisation* was less important for mountain bikers (2.98) compared to short distance runners (3.21) who considered this motive as most important among the four factors. The *challenge* for mountain bikers (4.44) was the most important motive to compete compared to road cyclists (3.58), who regarded *challenge* as a less important aspect or motive to consider when competing (Table 5.7). Kruger and Saayman (2014) found comparable results and indicates that the type of event and nature of the event substantially influence participants' motives.

5.3.2.4 Endurance sport participant travel behaviour

Table 5.7 indicates that mountain bikers (3.43) and long distance marathon runners (3.38) regarded sport activity as an *opportunity to travel.* Road cyclists had a lower mean value for the factor *Travel omission* (2.85) compared to long distance marathon runners (3.11), indicating that

road cyclists see the opportunity for travelling while competing in endurance events, where long distance marathon runners did not.

5.3.3 Chi-square tests for endurance sport participants

Chi-square tests were used to determine whether additional significant socio-demographic differences existed between the five groups. Phi-values were used to further identify any significant differences between the groups of endurance sport participants. Cohen (1988) gives the following criteria to interpret phi-values: 0.1 for a small effect, 0.3 for a medium effect and 0.5 for a large effect. Table 5.9 shows that the five groups differed significantly based on gender (p=0.001); language (p=0.001); occupation (p=0.001); province (p=0.001); level of education (p=0.001); marital status (p=0.001); type of accommodation (p=0.001); heard about the event (p=0.001); participation initiation (p=0.001) and decision making for participation (p=0.001). Each of these aspects will be discussed next.

5.3.3.1 Gender

Gender needs to be interpreted with caution since it is not the quantity of males or females who participated in the event, but the number of respondents who participated in the surveys. Although the majority were male participants participating in road cycling (74%), long distance marathon (76%) and short distance marathon (60%), there was a higher percentage (89%) of males participating in mountain biking. Literature supports this notion (Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Moens & Scheerder, 2004; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Downward, 2007; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Hallmann *et al.*, 2010; Van Tuyckom *et al.*, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011). More females participated in the open water swimming event (54%) compared to the other sport events (Table 5.9). This is contradicting when compared with the findings of Kruger *et al.* (2011b) who profiled open water swimmers as mostly male participants.

5.3.3.2 Home language

All five groups of endurance sport participants were mainly English-speaking, with mountain bikers (31%) and long distance marathon runners (22%) also speaking other languages (Table 5.9). Kruger and Saayman (2014); Kruger *et al.* (2011b) found the same results in their studies for endurance participants (runners, swimmers and cyclists).

5.3.3.3 Occupation

Most endurance participants were standing in a professional occupation, with the exception of open water swimmers who were mostly students (27%) participating in this endurance activity (Table 5.9). This correlates with literature (Scheerder *et al*., 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Fridberg, 2010; Van Tuyckom & Scheerder, 2010) as well as the findings of Kruger *et al*. (2011b) in terms of more students participating in endurance open water swimming events. Twenty percent (20%) of road cyclist and mountain bikers were self-employed.

5.3.3.4 Province (country of origin)

More mountain bike cyclists (45%) were foreign participants compared to the other endurance participants (Table 5.9), while participants in general were from the Western Cape Province, except for long distance marathon runners who were mainly from Gauteng (32%). Kruger *et al*. (2011b); Kruger and Saayman (2014) found similar results in their studies but Streicher and Saayman (2010) indicates that road cyclists are more from the Gauteng region followed by the Western Cape region.

5.3.3.5 Level of education

All of the endurance participants were well educated with either a diploma/degree, post-graduate or standing in a professional occupation, which were in conjunction with the findings of previous literature (see Stratton *et al.*, 2005; Downward, 2007; Breuer & Wicker, 2008; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Lechner, 2009; Wicker *et al*., 2009; Humphreys & Ruseski, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010; Fridberg, 2010; Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Kruger *et al.*, 2011b; Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

5.3.3.6 Marital status

The majority of endurance sport participants were married, while more open water swimmers were not married (40%) which could be due to the fact that most of these respondents were students. These findings were in contrast with literature where it was indicated that married people tend to participate less in sport and physical activities and dedicate less time to it (Humphreys & Ruseski, 2006; Hovemann & Wicker, 2009; Eberth & Smith, 2010; García *et al*., 2011, Kruger *et al.,* 2011b; Kruger & Saayman, 2014), but were indeed supported by the studies conducted by Kruger and Saayman (2014) who indicated that endurance sport participants were mostly married.

Table 5.9: Chi-squares for endurance sport participants

Socio-demographic characteristics		Road Cyclist	Mountain bikers	Long distance Marathon runners	Open water swimmers	Short distance Marathon runners	CHI-Square value	df	Sign level	PHI-value
		Cape Argus (1)	Cape Epic (2)	Comrades (3)	Midmar Mile (4)	Two Oceans (5)				
Gender	Male	74%	89%	76%	46%	60%	139.870	4	0.001*	0.290**
	Female	26%	11%	24%	54%	40%				
Language	Afrikaans	38%	25%	21%	26%	30%	169.749	8	0.001*	0.316***
	English	59%	44%	57%	71%	58%				
	Other	3%	31%	22%	3%	12%				
Occupation	Professional	31%	41%	28%	25%	26%	271.676	48	0.001*	0.400***
	Manager	18%	13%	19%	9%	13%				
	Self-employed	20%	20%	11%	13%	12%				
	Technical	5%	1%	7%	2%	4%				
	Sales	2%	1%	5%	2%	6%				
	Administrative	3%	4%	8%	4%	6%				
	Civil service	1%	1%	2%	3%	2%				
	Education	2%	2%	3%	7%	6%				
	Professional athlete	1%	2%	1%	1%	2%				

	Pensioner	2%	1%	2%	1%	3%				
	Student	7%	5%	1%	27%	10%				
	Unemployed	3%	3%	3%	1%	4%				
	Other	5%	6%	10%	5%	6%				
Province of origin	Western Cape	48%	20%	20%	43%	37%	1857.393	340	0.001*	0.138**
	Gauteng	25%	25%	32%	42%	30%				
	Eastern Cape	4%	1%	3%	1%	6%				
	Free State	2%	1%	3%	8%	7%				
	KwaZulu-Natal	5%	4%	9%	1%	7%				
	Mpumalanga	2%	1%	3%	1%	1%				
	Northern Cape	1%	1%	1%	1%	2%				
	North West	1%	1%	1%	1%	4%				
	Limpopo	1%	1%	5%	1%	1%				
	Outside RSA border	11%	45%	23%	1%	5%				
Level of education	No school	1%	2%	1%	2%	1%	197.568	20	0.001*	0.343***
	Matric	18%	9%	23%	20%	25%				
	Diploma/degree	37%	28%	35%	33%	36%				
	Post-graduate	23%	31%	26%	16%	24%				
	Professional	20%	29%	11%	13%	12%				
	Other	1%	1%	4%	16%	2%				

Marital status	**Married**	**64%**		**58%**		**60%**		**40%**		**51%**		**101.033**	**20**	**0.001***	**0.246****
	Not married	21%		17%		21%		40%		31%					
	In a relationship	5%		16%		9%		14%		10%					
	Divorced	7%		5%		5%		3%		3%					
	Widow/er	1%		0%		2%		1%		1%					
	Living together	2%		4%		3%		2%		4%					
Type of accommodation	Local resident	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	97.990	5	0.001*	0.238**
		43%	57%	14%	86%	15%	85%	27%	73%	31%	69%				
	Family or friends	22%	78%	0%	100%	19%	81%	22%	78%	25%	75%	63.831	5	0.001*	0.192**
	Guesthouse/ B&B	9%	91%	34%	66%	15%	85%	12%	88%	15%	85%	73.977	5	0.001*	0.207**
	Hotel	16%	84%	31%	69%	35%	65%	13%	87%	11%	89%	105.895	5	0.001*	0.248**
	Camping	1%	99%	12%	88%	1%	99%	1%	99%	3%	97%	76.263	5	0.001*	0.210**
	Rent a full house	1%	99%	2%	98%	4%	96%	2%	98%	3%	97%	8.475	5	0.132	0.070**
	Self-catering	7%	93%	6%	94%	12%	88%	9%	91%	10%	90%	9.263	5	0.099	0.073**
Hear about the event	TV	35%	65%	44%	56%	51%	49%	15%	85%	41%	59%	87.113	4	0.001*	0.249**
	Radio	22%	78%	14%	86%	25%	75%	9%	91%	22%	78%	31.129	4	0.001*	0.151**
	Website	22%	78%	32%	68%	19%	81%	9%	91%	25%	75%	37.656	4	0.001*	0.165**
	Email	19%	81%	19%	81%	13%	87%	4%	96%	17%	83%	32.098	4	0.001*	0.153**
	Magazine	26%	74%	35%	65%	20%	80%	6%	94%	83%	17%	146.359	4	0.001*	0.356***
	Newspaper	20%	80%	14%	86%	17%	83%	10%	90%	60%	40%	69.260	4	0.001*	0.244**
	Word-of-mouth	59%	41%	57%	43%	36%	64%	65%	35%	65%	35%	79.332	4	0.001*	0.233**
	Club	13%	87%	10%	90%	26%	74%	17%	83%	45%	55%	120.181	4	0.001*	0.294**

	Facebook	7%	93%	14%	86%	12%	88%	5%	95%	65%	35%	83.279	4	0.001*	0.272**
	Twitter	3%	97%	9%	91%	7%	93%	2%	98%	50%	50%	60.568	4	0.001*	0.233**
	Internet blogs	4%	96%	11%	89%	9%	91%	2%	98%	83%	17%	130.054	4	0.001*	0.341***
Initiated participation	Self	98%	2%	55%	45%	56%	44%	49%	51%	64%	36%	113.541	4	0.001*	0.302***
	Spouse	82%	18%	7%	93%	9%	91%	7%	93%	12%	88%	172.685	4	0.001*	0.415***
	Media	0%	100%	1%	99%	3%	97%	3%	97%	3%	97%	1.598	4	0.001*	0.753****
	Friends	99%	1%	37%	63%	23%	77%	37%	62%	35%	65%	170.517	4	0.001*	0.399***
	Children	50%	50%	1%	99%	2%	98%	2%	98%	3%	97%	88.488	4	0.001*	0.307***
	Family	93%	7%	5%	95%	10%	90%	19%	81%	16%	84%	204.055	4	0.001*	0.455***
	Club	60%	40%	1%	99%	10%	90%	8%	92%	15%	85%	50.793	4	0.001*	0.232**
	Company	75%	25%	4%	96%	2%	98%	7%	93%	1%	99%	220.839	4	0.001*	0.482***
Decision to participate	Spontaneously	18%		20%		26%		33%		3%		413.838	16	0.001*	0.552****
	More than a month ago	17%		18%		53%		9%		3%					
	A year ago	14%		7%		36%		36%		7%					
	Annual commitment	31%		57%		12%		0%		0%					
	Other	21%		18%		32%		25%		4%					

* indicates significance at the 5% level; phi-value: **small effect=0.1; ***medium effect=0.3 and **** large effect=0.5

5.3.3.7 Type of accommodation

Mountain bike riders (86%) and long distance marathon runners (85%) were not local residents of the area where the events were held. Mountain bikers did not stay with friends and family (100%) and preferred to stay at a guesthouse or B&B (34%). Twenty two percent (22%) of road cyclists stayed with family and friends if they were not local residents (57%). Long distance runners preferred to stay in hotels (35%), while 31% of short distance runners were local residents when competing in these types of events. If not local these short distance runners stayed with friends and family (25%). Kruger and Saayman's (2014) study indicated that participants preferred to make use of paid accommodation when competing in endurance events. Those who competed in open water swimming events were mostly local (27%) and if not local these open water swimmers stayed with family and friends (25%) who lived in the area. Kruger *et al.* (2011b) also found that open water swimmers were mostly local residents of the area where the event was held.

5.3.3.8 Heard about the event

Word of mouth was the most sufficient way of promoting an endurance event for road cyclists (59%), mountain bikers (57%), open water swimmers (65%) and even short distance marathon runners (65%). For long distance runners, television was the main source to take note of the long distance marathon. This can be due to the fact that the Comrades Marathon is broadcast on television annually. Short distance runners were also influenced by the magazines they read and the internet blogs they visited. Bush *et al.* (1999) findings indicated that advertisements through sport could influence decisions to participate in these endurance events and are similar to the current findings.

5.3.3.9 Initiated participation

Although road cyclists themselves (98%) initiated the participation in the event, they were also pushed by various influences such as their spouses (82%), friends (99%) and family (93%). Mountain bikers initiated participation mainly by themselves (55%) but friends (37%) also have an influence for participation. This was also true for long distance marathon runners (self-initiation=56%; friends=23%), open water swimmers (49% self-initiated; 37% friends) and short distance marathon runners (64% self-initiated; 35% friends). Kruger and Saayman (2014) as well as Kruger *et al.* (2011b) support these notions that participants initiated participation in endurance sport events themselves and that friends also had an influence on participation for sport consumers.

5.3.3.10 Decision to participate

Road cyclists and mountain bikers commit to these endurance events annually (31% and 57%, respectively), while long distance marathon runners (53%) made the decision to participate a month in advance leading up to the event. Kruger and Saayman (2014) found similar results in their study on cyclists and marathon runners. Open water swimmers decided to participate in open water swimming events a year in advance (36%).

The statistical analysis for endurance sport spectators will be discussed in the following section.

5.4 Statistic analyses for endurance sport spectators

The results and statistical analysis are presented in three sections. Firstly, the result of the factor analyses for endurance spectators (motives for supporting endurance events as well as the factors important for a memorable spectator experience) is analysed. There-after the results of the ANOVAs and cross-tabulations with Chi-square tests are discussed. Important to note that the data was pooled together, with the exception of the Cape Epic where spectators were not included due to logistics of the event and accessibility to the terrain for spectators. The theoretical analysis, as discussed in Chapter 4, will be applied in this chapter practically. The factor analyses will be discussed next.

5.4.1 Factor analyses for endurance sport spectators

The pattern matrix of two principal axis factor analyses, using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation, were performed on the 11 support motives items and the 29 memorable experience items, identifying two (2) support motives and five (5) memorable experience factors that were labelled according to similar characteristics (Table 5.10).

These factors accounted for 62% and 67% of the total variance. All the factors have relatively high reliability coefficients, the highest ranging from 0.93 and the lowest 0.81 for the memorable experience and 0.73 (lowest) and 0.87 (highest) for the support motives. The inter-item correlation coefficients' values for the support motives were between 0.41 and 0.53, while for the memorable experience inter-item correlation coefficients' value were between 0.55 and 0.66.

All items that were loaded on a factor had a loading greater than 0.3 and the relatively high factor loadings indicated a reasonably high correlation between the factors and their component items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy of 0.89 for the support motives and 0.96

for the memorable experience factors. This also indicated that patterns of correlation were relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005). Barlett's test of sphericity also reached statistical significance (p<0.001) in both cases, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010).

Factor scores were calculated as the average of all items that contribute to a specific factor in order to be interpreted in the original 5-point Likert scales of measurement. As shown in Table 5.10, the various factors that were identified for endurance sport spectators will be discussed next.

5.4.1.1 Endurance sport spectators' support motivational factors

As indicated in Table 5.10 the support motivational factors for endurance sport spectators were identified as *sport novelty* (Factor 1) and *social interaction* (Factor 2). These two factors will be discussed next.

Factor 1: Sport novelty

Sport novelty was rated lower between these two factors, with a mean value of 3.53. The reliability coefficient was 0.87 and the average inter-item correlation was 0.53. Sport fan motivation scale support this concept along with Kim *et al.* (2008); Kruger *et al*. (2012a).

Factor 2: Social interaction

Social interaction was rated the highest (mean value: 3.71) between these two factors with a reliability coefficient of 0.73 and the average inter-item correlation was 0.41. Various researchers (Melnick, 1993; Trail *et al*., 2000; Kahle & Riley, 2004; Wann *et al*., 2004; Smith & Stewart, 2007; Kruger *et al*., 2012a; Kim *et al*., 2013; Stavros *et al*., 2013) also identified *social interaction* as an important factor for sport spectators. The social theories pertaining to sport spectators concluded the same findings.

Table 5.10: Results of factor analysis of support motives and memorable experience factors for endurance sport spectators

Support motives	**Factor loading**	**Reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha)**	**Inter-item correlation**	**Mean value**
Factor 1: *Sport novelty*		0.87	0.53	3.53
It is a well-known international event	0.882			
To meet new people and to interact with other spectators	0.781			

To see world-class sport participants compete	0.698			
To enjoy the camaraderie associated with these types of events	0.671			
Support and attend this event annually	0.519			
Because the event is well organised	0.493			
To be part of this specific event	0.440			
Factor 2: *Social interaction*		0.73	0.41	3.71
To spend time with family and friends	0.649			
To support a friend or family member	0.615			
To relax and to get away from my routine	0.553			
Because I enjoy watching these specific events	0.549			
Total Variance Explained	**62%**			
Memorable experience factors				
Factor 1: *Personnel and provisions*		0.93	0.55	3.88
Visibility of security on the sports grounds	0.702			
Visibility of emergency personnel	0.674			
Friendly and professional personnel in and around the sports grounds	0.649			
Affordable food and beverage at the sports grounds	0.586			
Variety of food and beverages available (e.g. Halaal, vegetarian)	0.570			
Personnel that are trained to handle any race enquiries	0.550			
Adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds	0.544			
Race personnel that are easily noticeable	0.500			
Good quality viewing of the race on a big screen	0.439			
Effective signage and directions to the sports grounds	0.374			

Affordable and variety souvenirs (e.g. caps, t-shirts etc.)	0.301			
Factor 2: *Amenities*		0.87	0.66	4.18
Clean and hygienic ablution facilities	0.521			
Adequate parking arrangements	0.465			
Adequate security at parking areas	0.410			
Adequate ablution facilities inside/outside the sports grounds	0.356			
Factor 3: *Comfort and visibility*		0.81	0.59	3.78
Adequate seats in the sports grounds	0.819			
Comfortable seating	0.814			
Factor 4: *Infrastructure (Sports grounds)*		0.87	0.57	4.02
Good layout of the sports grounds	0.900			
Adequate information boards on the terrain	0.708			
Good visibility of the athletes from all viewpoints at the sports grounds	0.506			
Accessibility of the sports grounds' entry points	0.455			
Factor 5: *Marketing*		0.93	0.69	3.99
Adequate information regarding the race	0.987			
User-friendly website with adequate information	0.913			
Correct information given through marketing (e.g. date, time, venue etc.)	0.723			
Effective marketing prior to the race regarding date ,time, venue etc.	0.666			
Adequate safety precaution in place during the race	0.624			
Adequate supporter "hotspots" along the route	0.513			
Total Variance Explained	**67%**			

5.4.1.2 Memorable experience factors for endurance sport spectators

Table 5.10 also indicates the memorable experience factors for endurance sport spectators and include the following: *Personnel and provisions* (Factor 1); *Amenities* (factor 2); *Comfort and visibility* (Factor 3); *Infrastructure (Sports grounds)* (Factor 4) and *Marketing* (Factor 5). Each of these factors will be discussed next.

Factor 1: Personnel and provision

Personnel and provision was less important (mean value: 3.88), although still important; with a reliability coefficient of 0.93 and inter-item correlation of 0.55. Van der Westhuizen (2003); De Witt (2006); Kruger (2009); Appel (2010); Manners (2011) and Erasmus (2011) identified personnel (human resource management) and provision (Van der Westhuizen, 2003; Kruger, 2009; Manners, 2011; Erasmus, 2011) of a variety of services and facilities as a factor enhance the memorable experience.

Factor 2: Amenities

Amenities was rated the most important factor for endurance sport spectators with a mean value of 4.18, and had a reliability coefficient of 0.87 and inter-item correlation 0.66. Kahle *et al.* (1996); Hinch and Higham (2004); Saayman (2004); Yoshida and James (2010) and Kruger *et al.* (2011a) indicated *amenities* as a factor that can influence the memorable experience and the satisfaction of sport spectators.

Factor 3: Comfort and visibility

Comfort and visibility rated the lowest (mean value: 3.78, which is still high) and had a reliability coefficient of 0.81 and an inter-item correlation of 0.59. Only Kruger and Saayman (2014) have identified this factor before as a factor that influences the memorable experience of sport spectators.

Factor 4: Infrastructure (Sports grounds)

Infrastructure in terms of the sports grounds has the second highest mean value (4.02), with a reliability coefficient of 0.87 and an inter-item correlation of 0.57. Melnick (1993); Hall and O'Mahony (2006); Dwyer and Fredline (2008); Lambrecht *et al.* (2009) and Yu (2010) explained the significance of *infrastructure* and the potential benefits sport facilities and infrastructure can have for the community.

Factor 5: Marketing

Marketing had a mean value of 3.99, rating it as the third highest factor. The reliability coefficient was 0.93 and the inter-item correlation 0.69. Kim and Chalip (2004); Weed (2006); Getz (2008)

as well as Regan *et al.* (2012) found that m*arketing* played an important role for future tourism in the area.

5.4.2 ANOVAs for endurance sport spectators

ANOVAs were used to determine whether significant differences existed between the spectators at the four types of endurance events (road cycling; long distance marathon; open water swimming and short distance marathons). Table 5.11 shows that ANOVA results for endurance sport spectators. Effect sizes (Table 5.12) were used to further identify any significant differences between the endurance sport spectators. The purpose of the effect size is to establish whether any differences exist between the spectator groups, in this case, in which combination of groups the mean values of the motives and the averages of the socio-demographic and behavioural variables have the smallest or largest effect. Cohen (1988); Steyn (2000); Ellis and Steyn (2003) offer the following guidelines for the interpretation of the effect sizes: small effect: d=0.2, medium effect: d=0.5 and large effect: d=0.8. As shown in Table 5.11, there were statistical significant differences between endurance road cyclist; long distance marathon runners; open water swimmers and short distance marathon runners, based on the socio-demographic characteristics (p=<0.05 for all sub categories), spending categories (p=<0.05) and motives to support the events (p<0.05). There were however, no statistical significant differences based on the memorable experience factors. Table 5.11 will be discussed in conjunction with Table 5.12 in the next section.

5.4.2.1 Socio-characteristics for endurance sport spectators

This section discusses the statistically significant differences between the endurance spectators in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics (Table 5.11).

Average age

Spectators who support short distance marathon events were the youngest (37 years) compared to those supporting road cycling events (41 years). Spectators supporting road cycling events (41 years), long distance marathon events (38 years) and short distance marathon events (37 years) were all in their late thirties and early forties (Table 5.11). This correlates with previous studies of Kruger and Saayman (2014) which indicating that the average age for sport consumers are in the late thirties and early forties.

Average group size and average number of people paying for

Spectators supporting swimming events had the largest (6.290) group size while only paying for two people when attending the event (Table 5.11). This finding was in correlation with Kruger *et al.* (2011a) study where the average travel group size, for those supporting swimmers, was five

people per group. Spectators who support road cycling events, mountain biking events and long distance marathon events had an average group size of four people, while paying mostly for two people, except for those who support short distance marathon events who paid on average, only for one person, indicating that these groups did not differ that much with a medium effect size difference between these groups (Table 5.12). This was in conjunction with the findings of Kruger *et al.* (2011a) study which indicated that those supporting marathon running events have larger group sizes (five people in a group) and pay for two people on average.

Length of stay (average number of nights spent in the area where the event was held)

Spectators supporting short distance marathon running events and road cycling events spent the most nights (4 nights on average) compared to those supporting long distance marathon running events, while spectators for open water swimming events spent the fewest nights (1 night on average) (Table 5.11). Kruger *et al.* (2011a) also found similar results for spectators at short distance marathon running events in terms of average nights (5 nights on average) spend. This indicates that there is a substantial difference between spectators who supports road cycling events, long- and short distance marathon running events and open water swimming events (effect size = 1.14), in terms of their length of stay (Table 5.12).

Years supporting a specific endurance event

Spectators have been supporting road cycling events on average for seven years compared to spectators who support short distance marathon running events for two years (Table 5.11). These findings were different compared to the findings of Kruger *et al* (2011a) who found that spectators supported the short distance marathon events an average four times.

Table 5.11: ANOVA results: Endurance sport spectators

Socio-demographic Characteristics	Road cycling event	Long distance Marathon running event	Open water swimming event	Short distance Marathon running event	F-ratio	Sig. level
	Cape Argus (1)	**Comrades (2)**	**Midmar Mile (3)**	**Two Oceans (4)**		
Average age	41.487[a]	38.356[ab]	0.000[a]	37.875[a]	3.864	0.021*
Average travel group size	4.984 [a]	4.618 [a]	6.290[b]	4.777[a]	4.108	0.006*
Average people paying for during the event	2.795 [b]	2.709 [b]	2.894[a]	1.301[a]	7.704	0.001*
Length of stay	4.238[ab]	3.148[b]	1.460[a]	4.507[ab]	12.001	0.001*
Years supporting	7.094[b]	6.362[b]	0.000[a]	2.409[a]	21.792	0.001*
Spending categories						
Accommodation	R3 657.10 [b]	R961.23 [a]	R589.17[a]	R984.38[a]	79.669	0.001*
Transport (return)	R2 543.80 [b]	R547.54[a]	R556.90[a]	R948.86[a]	42.697	0.001*
Food and restaurant	R1 560.30[b]	R412.89[a]	R433.84[a]	R721.86[a]	40.739	0.001*
Beverages	R581.16[b]	R98.01[a]	R167.25[ab]	R295.71[ab]	37.146	0.001*
Souvenirs / Gifts	R1 061.40 [a]	R87.80[c]	R101.20[ab]	R100.00[b]	99.907	0.001*
Entertainment	R1 112.80 [b]	R95.19[a]	R0.00[a]	R180.10[a]	92.216	0.001*
Total spending	R 5 567.60[b]	R2 202.70[a]	R 1 848.40[a]	R 3 230.90[a]	28.468	0.001*
Spending per person	R 2 639.00[b]	R1 264.20[a]	R 836.35[ab]	R 2 186.90[a]	20.048	0.001*
Motives to support						
Sport novelty	3.486[ab]	3.587[b]	3.788[b]	2.909[a]	15.950	0.001*
Social interaction	3.982[ab]	3.745[b]	3.295[a]	3.687[b]	19.978	0.001*
Memorable experience						
Personnel and provision	3.912	3.925	3.848	3.786	0.958	0.411

Amenities	4.192	4.068	4.283	4.195	2.237	0.082
Comfort and visibility	3.795	3.897	3.694	3.693	1.901	0.127
Infrastructure (Sports grounds)	4.074	3.964	4.043	3.993	0.820	0.482
Marketing	4.030	3.976	4.059	3.818	1.906	0.126

°Expenditure per person (in Rand), which was calculated by adding the spending of the respondent on the various components, and dividing the total by the number of people that respondents' indicated they were financially responsible for.

*Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$

[a] Group differs significantly from type (in row) where [b] is indicated and groups [c] differs significantly from type (in row) where [a] or [b] is indicated

Table 5.12: Effect size results of endurance sport events for spectators

Socio demographic Characteristics	**Effect sizes**					
Event with event	**1 with 2**	**1 with 3**	**1 with 4**	**2 with 3**	**2 with 4**	**3 with 4**
Average age	0.23**	0.00	0.26**	0.00	0.04	0.00
Average travel group size	0.08	0.26**	0.05	0.34**	0.03	0.30**
Average people paying for during the event	0.02	0.04	0.60***	0.05	0.36**	0.64***
Length of stay	0.51***	1.30****	0.10	0.81***	0.51***	1.14****
Years supporting	0.11	0.00	0.77***	0.00	0.60***	0.00
Spending categories						
Accommodation	0.90****	0.01	0.25**	0.89****	1.03****	0.20**
Transport (return)	0.48**	0.28**	0.01	0.38**	0.48**	0.28**
Food and restaurant	0.50***	0.29**	0.03	0.36**	0.49**	0.27**
Beverages	0.57***	0.28**	0.32**	0.33**	0.48**	0.18
Souvenirs / Gifts	0.87****	0.03	0.05	0.86****	0.86****	0.00
Entertainment	0.89****	0.14	-	0.82****	-	-
Total spending	0.41**	0.23**	0.13	0.28**	0.45**	0.30**

Spending per person	0.39**	0.28**	0.24**	0.13	0.51***	0.40**
Motives to support						
Sport novelty	0.08	0.55***	0.16	0.49**	0.28**	0.75***
Social interaction	0.21**	0.05	0.40**	0.31**	0.64***	0.37**
Memorable experience						
Personnel and provision	0.01	0.15	0.08	0.15	0.08	0.08
Amenities	0.12	0.13	0.21**	0.00	0.10	0.09
Comfort and visibility	0.09	0.20**	0.20**	0.09	0.09	0.00
Infrastructure (Sports grounds)	0.11	0.03	0.08	0.10	0.04	0.06
Marketing	0.05	0.16	0.08	0.23**	0.03	0.26**

Effect sizes: ** small effect: (a) d=0.2; (b) *** medium effect: d=0.5 and (c) ****large effect: d=0.8

5.4.2.2 Spending for endurance sport spectators

The supporters of road cycling events were in general the highest spenders (average total spend: R5 567.60) amongst all the spectators of the various endurance events with the highest spending being on accommodation (R3 657.10) compared with spectators of open water swimming events (R589.17) (Table 5.11). These road cycling supporters spent the most on transport (R2 543.80) compared to long distance marathon supporters (R547.54). Food and restaurants (R1 560.30) were the third highest spending category for road cyclist spectators compared to short distance marathon spectators. These spectators also spent the most on entertainment (R1 112.80) when compared with short distance marathon spectators (R180.10); long distance marathon spectators (R95.19) and swimmer spectators who did not spent money on entertainment (Table 5.11). These findings vary compared to the findings of Kruger and Saayman's (2012c) study on short distance marathon events, which indicates that the average spending was R3 300.00 per group who supported endurance events.

5.4.2.3 Motives to support endurance sport events

Sport novelty for supporters at the open water swimming event (3.788) was a more important motive compared to those who supported the short distance marathon (2.909, effect size=0.75) (Table 5.11 and Table 5.12). The *social interaction* for supporters at road cycling events (3.982) was a greater motive compared to open water swimming event supporters (3.295) (Table 5.11). Kruger and Saayman (2014) indicated that sport novelty was important for cyclists in particular. There is currently a lack in literature in terms of individual motives for sport spectators (c.f. section 3.3.3.2).

5.4.2.4 Memorable experience for endurance sport spectators

There were no statistical significant differences for endurance spectators based on the memorable experience factors. However, when interpreting the mean values *Amenities* was regarded as the most important factor for all the spectators at the various events. Based on the highest mean values, additional differences among the spectators included the following: spectators who supported the road cycling event regarded *infrastructure* (4.074) as important, while *Personnel and provisions* (3.925) along with *Comfort and visibility* (3.897) were more important factors for spectators at the long distance marathon event. *Marketing* was a more important factor to the spectators at the open water swimming event compared to the spectators at the other events. Kruger *et al.* (2011a) identified *amenities; marketing; personnel and provision* and *comfort and visibility* as critical success factors for a memorable visitor experience at a marathon running event.

5.4.3 Chi-square tests for endurance sport spectators

Chi-square tests were used to determine whether additional significant socio-demographic differences existed between the four groups. Phi-values were used to further identify any significant differences between the groups. Cohen (1988) gives the following criteria to interpret phi-values: 0.1 for a small effect, 0.3 for a medium effect and 0.5 for a large effect. Table 5.13 shows that the four groups differed significantly based on gender (p=0.001); language (p=0.001); occupation (p=0.001); province (p=0.001); level of education (p=0.001); marital status (p=0.006); type of accommodation (p=0.001); mode of transport (p=0.001); who supported at the event (p=0.001) and decision making for supporting (p=0.001). Each of these aspects will be discussed next.

5.4.3.1 Gender

Although the majority were female spectators who supported road cycling (73%), open water swimming (67%) and short distance marathon running (61%) events, there was a higher percentage (53%) of males supporting long distance marathon running events. Literature contradicts this notion in terms of female spectators (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al.*, 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al.*, 2009; Hallmann *et al.*, 2010; Shapiro *et al.,* 2013), except for Kruger *et al.* (2011a) who found that more spectators who supported short distance marathon runners were female (Table 5.13).

5.4.3.2 Home language

The home language of the endurance sport spectators varied. Spectators were either English- (40% of long distance marathon spectators and 69% swimmer spectators) or Afrikaans–speaking (57% road cycling spectators and 47% short distance marathon spectators) with 36% of long distance marathon running event supporters also speaking other languages (Table 5.13). This contradicts the findings of Kruger *et al.* (2011a) who found that spectators at short distance marathons were English-speaking.

5.4.3.3 Occupation

Most endurance spectators were standing in a professional occupation, with the exception of long distance marathon spectators who were mostly self-employed (16%) (Table 5.13). This correlates

with literature that indicates spectators having a well-educated profession (Shapiro *et al*., 2013; Schnitzer *et al.*, 2014).

5.4.3.4 Province (Country of origin)

Spectators were from the Western Cape Province in general with only 30% of open water swimming spectators who were from Gauteng. These findings correlate with the findings of Kruger and Saayman (2012a) who found that short distance marathon spectators were from the Western Cape Province.

5.4.3.5 Level of education

Long distance marathon spectators had matric (46%), while all other endurance spectators were well-educated with a diploma/degree, post-graduate or a professional level of education which were in conjunction with the findings of previous literature (see Shapiro *et al*., 2013; Schnitzer *et al.,* 2014).

5.4.3.6 Marital status

All endurance sport spectators were married. These findings were in conjunction with literature where it was indicated that married people support endurance sport events (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Turco *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuitry, 2004; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005; Funk *et al*., 2007; Meng & Uysal, 2008; Kaplanidou *et al*., 2009; Hallmann *et al*., 2010; Shapiro *et al.,* 2013; Kruger & Saayan, 2014).

5.4.3.7 Type of accommodation

All the spectators who supported the events were mostly local residents and therefore did not necessarily make use of alternative accommodation. The spectators, who were not local residents, preferred to stay with family and friends in the area, except for long distance marathon spectators who preferred to stay in hotels (18%) and open water swimming spectators who would stay in guesthouses/ B&B's.

Table 5.13: Chi-square for endurance sport spectators

Socio-demographic characteristics		Road cycling event	Long distance Marathon running event	Open water swimming event	Short distance Marathon running event	CHI-Square value	df	Sign level	PHI-value
		Cape Argus (1)	**Comrades (2)**	**Midmar Mile (3)**	**Two Oceans (4)**				
Gender	Male	27%	53%	33%	39%	50.653	3	0.001*	0.220**
	Female	73%	47%	67%	61%				
Language	Afrikaans	57%	24%	30%	47%	290.925	6	0.001*	0.521****
	English	41%	40%	69%	44%				
	Other	2%	36%	1%	9%				
Occupation	Professional	16%	12%	25%	27%	143.366	36	0.001*	0.368***
	Manager	12%	9%	9%	13%				
	Self-employed	16%	16%	15%	9%				
	Technical	4%	7%	5%	5%				
	Sales	5%	4%	6%	3%				
	Administrative	15%	10%	11%	5%				
	Civil service	1%	4%	0%	2%				
	Education	4%	5%	7%	6%				
	Professional athlete	0%	1%	3%	2%				
	Pensioner	8%	4%	3%	2%				
	Student	10%	8%	14%	18%				

	Unemployed	5%	10%	1%	4%				
	Other	4%	10%	1%	4%				
Province of origin	Western Cape	60%	50%	61%	57%	94.321	30	0.001*	0.298**
	Gauteng	22%	21%	30%	21%				
	Eastern Cape	5%	6%	1%	5%				
	Free State	1%	5%	1%	2%				
	KwaZulu-Natal	2%	4%	1%	5%				
	Mpumalanga	1%	5%	3%	0%				
	Northern Cape	2%	0%	0%	0%				
	North West	2%	4%	2%	2%				
	Limpopo	1%	2%	0%	1%				
	Outside RSA border	4%	3%	1%	7%				
Level of education	No school	1%	2%	1%	0%	61.276	15	0.001*	0.241**
	Matric	37%	46%	28%	28%				
	Diploma/degree	42%	31%	40%	34%				
	Post-graduate	12%	10%	16%	19%				
	Professional	8%	5%	9%	11%				
	Other	0%	6%	7%	8%				
Marital status	Married	65%	49%	57%	50%	32.030	15	0.006*	0.173**
	Not married	14%	26%	18%	20%				
	In a relationship	14%	17%	13%	19%				
	Divorced	4%	5%	6%	5%				
	Widow/er	1%	2%	3%	2%				

	Living together	2%		1%		3%		4%					
Type of accommodation	Local resident	42%		28%		31%		42%		116.677	21	0.001*	0.345***
	Family or friends	19%		16%		18%		30%					
	Guesthouse/B&B	11%		14%		21%		8%					
	Hotel	12%		18%		6%		7%					
	Camping	2%		2%		12%		0%					
	Rent a full house	2%		5%		2%		6%					
	Self-catering	11%		15%		10%		5%					
	Other	1%		2%		0%		2%					
Mode of transport	Own car	74%		52%		94%		66%		231.375	15	0.001*	0.469***
	Rental car	9%		9%		3%		11%					
	Bus	1%		22%		1%		4%					
	Train	1%		5%		1%		1%					
	Airplane	10%		5%		1%		14%					
	Other	5%		7%		0%		4%					
Supporting at the event		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No				
	Child(ren)	78%	22%	90%	10%	100%	0%	88%	22%	69.179	3	0.001*	0.252**
	Spouse	62%	38%	79%	21%	76%	24%	76%	24%	28.868	3	0.001*	0.163**
	Family member	75%	25%	73%	27%	47%	53%	78%	22%	71.335	3	0.001*	0.256**
	Friend	70%	30%	77%	23%	73%	27%	81%	19%	8.932	3	0.001*	0.091**
	Colleague	95%	5%	91%	9%	90%	10%	99%	1%	18.076	3	0.001*	0.129**
	Fellow athlete	99%	1%	89%	11%	97%	3%	95%	5%	36.204	3	0.001*	0.182**

Decision making	Self	54%	46%	60%	40%	45%	55%	40%	60%	18.161	3	0.001*	0.143**
	Participant	18%	82%	12%	88%	45%	55%	19%	81%	67.079	3	0.001*	0.283**
	Spouse	30%	70%	15%	85%	59%	41%	30%	70%	74.498	3	0.001*	0.305***
	Friends	19%	81%	13%	87%	66%	34%	20%	80%	101.686	3	0.001*	0.363***
	Children	13%	87%	5%	95%	66%	34%	6%	94%	157.833	3	0.001*	0.458***
	Family	13%	87%	14%	86%	83%	17%	12%	88%	179.340	3	0.001*	0.486***
	Club	5%	95%	8%	92%	41%	59%	5%	95%	33.943	3	0.001*	0.218**

* indicates significance at the 5% level; phi-value: **small effect=0.1; ***medium effect=0.3 and **** large effect=0.5

5.4.3.8 Mode of transport

Due to spectators being mostly local residents, these spectators made use of their own car to get to the event. Long distance marathon spectators on the other hand, if not local, made use of busses (22%) to attend these endurance sport events (Table 5.13).

5.4.3.9 Who are spectators supporting at events?

All the spectators were mainly there to support their children with swimmer spectators dominating in this category with 100%. More spouses were supported by long distance marathon spectators (79%); while spectators of short distance runners were there to support their family members. Swimmer spectators did not attend the event to support family members (53%). Eighty one percent (81%) of short distance marathon spectators supported their friends while other spectators, at the same event, supported their colleagues (99%) (Table 5.13).

5.4.3.10 Decision to support the event

The majority of the spectators made the decision themselves to support the event with the exception of swimmer spectators (55%). Fifty nine percent (59%) of the spectators' spouses encourage them to support the event while 66% (respectively) of friends and children made the decision for swimmer spectators. Clubs had very little influence on spectators' decision making process in general (Table 5.13).

5.6 Conclusions

The goal of this chapter was to do a critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance sport events by providing a profile for these consumers and to understand sport consumption behaviour in a sport tourism context. This chapter interpreted the different findings for participants and spectators attending endurance sport events. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences in terms of all the socio-demographical and behaviour characteristics as well as their motives. These differences indicated that there were various aspects that drove these endurance sport consumers.

In the following chapter the final conclusions and recommendations will be made for the study in general, addressing issues such as: the managerial aspects that sport event organisers can consider, future marketing ideas and aspects that must be kept in mind when organising upcoming endurance events and lastly recommendations for future research and the limitations this study held.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study was to do a critical assessment of sport consumption at endurance sport events for both participants and sport spectators in South Africa. To achieve this aim the following objectives were set in Chapter 1 and achieved in their respective chapters:

The first objective was to analyse sport tourism, sport events and endurance sport events by means of a literature review. This was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study. Findings included that there are numerous definitions and facets to consider when analysing the various aspects pertaining to endurance sport events. Sport events hold certain benefits when hosting them, no matter in which category the event is placed and can result in economic, tourism, media, and socio-cultural, environmental, infrastructural or even political benefits. Sport events were classified in order to indicate where endurance sport events fit into the sport event context. It was determined that endurance events can serve as an umbrella term for events that test participants' endurance in a variety of sports in environmental conditions. There are both similarities and differences between different groups of endurance athletes, whether they are runners, cyclists or swimmers. Endurance events have the capacity to increase participation in sport events in general, enhance pre- and post-event tourism, aid in bidding for events and enhance the reputation as a sport destination for a country like South Africa.

Objective two was to analyse the endurance sport consumption behaviour (ESCB) of sport consumers in a tourism context and was achieved in Chapter 3. Literature showed that consumer (participant and spectator) profiles influence ESCB along with additional factors that will have an effect on the participation in and support of endurance sport events. By focusing on the factors that influence ESCB for both participants and spectators, sport marketers and sport event organisers can expand the marketing of sport as well as endurance sport by addressing the needs of the consumers.

The third objective was to do an empirical study to determine the differences between the consumer profiles, travel motives, behaviour of sport consumers and the differences between endurance sport events. Two chapters aid to achieve this goal. Chapter 4 gave a literature overview on the methodology that was used to interpret the results. The background of Chapter

4 was used in conjunction with Chapter 5 to interpret the results. By identifying the differences, the results helped to understand the sport consumer behaviour in order to provide a better product for sport consumers and to address their needs. Results showed that there were statistical significant differences for endurance sport consumers pertaining to socio-demographic characteristics, type of sport, type of event and motives for participating and supporting these endurance sport events. Please refer to section 6.4.3 for these findings.

The last objective was to draw conclusions and to make recommendations pertaining to the study for future research. This chapter concludes the findings of the research and will be used to make recommendations concerning the effective organising and management of endurance sport events as well as how to effectively influence the ESCB of these types of endurance sport consumers and further research that can be done. These aspects have the potential to enhance tourism growth and increase the interest in endurance sport.

6.2 Personal journey

This epic journey had challenges, with long hours, sweat, tears, the thought of giving up just like the athletes participating in the endurance events that were surveyed in the study – but you push through with the notion that the end is worth the struggle and the endurance to keep going.

With so few studies that is currently available, that focus on the individual endurance sport spectator, one had to search in other areas that might have similar ideas and notions about spectators' views on why they would attend a sport event. The mind opens and one tries to identify with the spectator and the participant in order to understand them in the literature when it is researched. Endurance was indeed needed for handling such a substantial amount of data that had to be worked through. One tends to get confused with which data you are working with – individual or the pooled data, tables begin to look similar, events are switched around in discussion and one must constantly remind oneself where you are going and what the main focus of the study was from the beginning.

Statistical analyses had its own challenges with questions arising such as whether the data will be sufficient or which analysis will give the best and most useful information in order for the results to reflect all of the differences and similarities, if there were any. Various appointments were made with the statistic consultant to understand all of the data and how to interpret it, in order to present it to the reader in the most understanding way possible.

The responsibilities of the participant are dedication to the daily training of reading the articles, books and websites, to do and re-do until the skills are perfected and even when they are

perfected, to still keep checking in with your coaches (mentors) for new techniques and aspects to consider when attending this endurance event. It helps to be close to your coach - even if you do not see or speak with them every day -they will give you the boost when you feel like giving up, encourage you to keep going, no matter how hard it feels. Spectators, who cannot be left out, are those who keep believing in you and pray for your success – the friends and family on the side lines of the endurance event (PhD).

The journey is tough and you question yourself why you ever attempted this uphill climb, this enduring, almost never-ending event – but when the last 100m is in sight, you get renewed energy to push and peddle with all your might to cross the finish line in first place. There is no specific time linked to the success of a PhD journey, just perseverance and the passion to complete this mile stone in one's life.

6.3 Contributions of the study

The study has two main areas (literature and practical) of contributions which are consequently discussed.

6.3.1 Literature contribution

- This research fills the gap in literature pertaining to the profile of endurance sport consumers in South Africa. It was the first time that both participants and spectators were critically assessed regarding their behaviour across five different endurance events. The data was pooled in order to get a general profile for endurance participants and the spectators who attend and participate in endurance sport events. As a result, this study can aid future researchers to better understand these consumers and the aspects that influence their consumption. Sport literature, to date, has focused on general aspects such as team sport, economic impact of sport, marketing of sport events, managing of sport events and triathlon events to name only a few. Limited research, where the profiles are compared with one another, pertaining to South African and international endurance sport consumers attending these types of sport events, currently exist in sport literature. This study compared participants as well as spectators who participate and support some of the most popular South African endurance events.
- There is currently no distinct definition or description for endurance sport consumption behaviour with regards to both participants and spectators. The following description for endurance sport consumption behaviour (ESCB) is proposed to fill this gap: **ESCB refers to sport consumers (participants) who adapt their lifestyles after realising their desire to**

be self-complete by testing and developing their bodies through sport activities. Sport consumption becomes the essence when participating in competitive activities in a natural environment for both professional and amateur sport consumers. These sport activities involve physical skills and specialised facilities and equipment that will enable them to withstand longer strain for the successful completion of a sport event, for example. The endurance sport consumer's purpose, when it comes to endurance sport and event participation, is to obtain benefits for him/her-self as well as the development of oneself. For spectatorship these behaviours differ, but endurance sport events give them the opportunity to engage in sport on a different level, where they can associate with the participants as well as enjoy the event at the same time, unlike the normal supporter who are mainly there for the event and not necessarily the journey of the participant. These behavioural intentions can be influenced by the sport consumer's attitude and subjective norms (drive, inhibitions and the need to engage in a specific behaviour).

- There is currently a gap in sport tourism literature with regards to endurance spectators' view on endurance sport events, as the focus in the current literature is mainly on the participants or supporters of team-sport events. By addressing this gap, this study indicates that spectators of endurance events are more personally involved, since they are there to support the individual who is participating in the event before, during and after the event. Individual endurance sport spectators also differ from fans or general sport supporters who support a team or individual members participating as part of a team at high profile sport events such as rugby.
- As there are currently no fixed criteria to analyse sport consumers, the results of this study furthermore contribute to the criteria that must be taken into account when analysing specifically endurance sport consumers in South Africa and their sport consumption. Since endurance sport consumers' are not homogeneous, their consumption behaviour differs and various aspects play a role for endurance sport participants and spectators. Consumer profiles, the sport context and the marketing of these events influence ESCB.

6.3.2 Practical contribution

There are two main practical contributions that can be made, which will have a positive influence for various role players that are involved, such as the sport event organisers, tourism organisations, sponsors, local- and provincial municipalities and sport consumers. These contributions will be discussed in more detail in section 6.5 but can be summarised as:

- Endurance sport event organisers and marketers can enhance awareness, participation in and support of endurance sport events when taking into account the ESCB aspects as identified through this study's critical assessment. These results can be used to not only

sustain the endurance events under investigation, but also aid smaller events to expand across the country.

- Endurance sport events can be used as a means to grow and expand sport- and especially tourism in destinations on a local, provincial as well as international level enhancing South Africa's image as an endurance sport destination.

The conclusions for the study will be discussed in the following section.

6.4 Conclusions

The conclusions will be discussed with regard to the literature reviews and the surveys, as reported in respectively Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5.

6.4.1 Conclusions with regards to the literature study for endurance sport events (Chapter 2)

The following conclusions are drawn from the literature review pertaining to endurance sport events:

- Sport tourism was analysed to indicate where it fits into the tourism context. This was followed by a conceptual framework (See Figure 2.1) that was designed to show the various components that sport tourism can consist of. These components included, but were not limited to sport attractions, sport tours and sport events to name but a few (c.f. 2.1).
- Due to the massive growth and the contribution that sport makes to the economy and the community, it was important to define and analyse sport and sport events to enhance tourism and sport event demand and to aid the organisations who organise these sport events – thus the focus being on sport events specifically. An illustration was given of sport and events being sub-sets for sport event tourism (c.f. 2.2).
- Because there are various events, sports and sport events, the chapter defined sport tourism and a sport tourist in order to better classify endurance sport events and its consumers (c.f. 2.2.1).
- An overview of sport history was provided for international as well as South African sport events. The top ten sports events were identified for South Africa and it became clear that South Africa has the capability to host major sport events as well as endurance sport events (c.f. 2.2.2; 2.2.3).
- Sport events were defined and the benefits of hosting these types of sport events were summarised. Some of these benefits include tourism increase, job creation, image

improvement of destinations and tourism destinations, greening events and social cohesion (c.f. 2.3.1; 2.3.2).

- There are certain managerial factors to consider when hosting and organising sport events and they were also discussed, for example the needs of the consumers, system laws, accessibility of the destination, quality sport and training facilities (c.f. 2.3.3).
- It became evident that there were certain key role players involved at sport events in order to manage and drive these types of events successfully (c.f. 2.3.4).
- These role players included event organisers, local government, community, sponsors, sport consumers, event marketers, media and volunteers. Their involvement in sport events were discussed, as well as their various responsibilities (c.f. 2.3.4).
- Sport events were classified and it became clear that there were overlaps of sport events and sport activities. Endurance events formed part of the classification and were defined as the skill to withstand longer strains, pertaining to time, distance and the level of fitness required for successfully completing this considerably higher impact sport events when compared to other sport events (c.f. 2.3.5).
- Thus endurance sport events can be used as an umbrella term for sport events that test endurance on various sports and various intensity levels. Only three sport activities (running, swimming and cycling) were used to analyse endurance sport events but are not the only activities to consider and can be used in a combination (c.f. 2.5).
- Endurance events were further discussed in a sport context as well as the success and the importance of hosting such events (c.f. 2.5.3).
- Endurance sport events can have vast impact on the sport tourism industry as a whole, with positive impacts on destination imaging and positioning. Endurance events have the capacity to increase participation in sport events in general, enhance pre-event tourism, aid in bidding for events and influence the economic growth for a country like South Africa (c.f. 2.6).

Behaviour also influences sport events and the decision to participate, support and attend sport events, and was analysed in the following chapter. The conclusions are discussed next.

6.4.2 Conclusions with regard to the literature study for endurance sport consumption behaviour (ESCB) (Chapter 3)

The following conclusions can be drawn from the literature review of Chapter 3:

- There are differences between sport and endurance sport as well as the factors influencing these consumers' sport consumption, as well as sport tourism (c.f. 3.1).
- Therefore, endurance sport consumption behaviour was analysed by defining the four entities sport, endurance sport, sport consumption and behaviour (c.f. 3.2).

- **Sport** was described as an institutionalised activity or opportunity, where the consumer realises the desire to be self-complete through the testing and development of the body, which involves physical skills and specialised facilities and/or equipment and is conducted according to an accepted set of rules to determine a winner in a case of an event (c.f. 3.2.1).
- **Endurance sport** was described as the ability to withstand longer strains, because the distance, time and the level of fitness differ in the sport and the intensity of the sport is higher when compared to other sport, whether the sport is done professionally, and amateur or for recreational purposes (c.f. 3.2.2).
- **Sport consumption** can be described as the process in which sport activities, goods and services are used with a variety of determinants influencing the overall consumption of sport (c.f. 3.2.3).
- **Behaviour** was pointed out to be different from consumption and that the behaviour can indeed influence the consumption of endurance sport (c.f. 3.2.4).
- **Endurance Sport Consumption Behaviour** (ESCB) was therefore described as sport consumers who adapt their lifestyles after realising their desire to be self-complete by testing and developing their bodies through sport activities. Sport consumption becomes the essence when participating in competitive activities/sport for both professional and amateur sport consumers. For spectatorship these behaviours will differ, since the intentions of fans and supporters differ as well as the reasons for spectating, but sport events give them the opportunity to engage in sport on a different level, whether for the event or for the participant. These behavioural intentions can be influenced by the sport consumers' attitude and subjective norms (c.f. 3.2.4).
- These sport activities involve physical skills and specialised facilities and equipment that will enable them to withstand longer strain for the successful completion of a sport event. Endurance consumers' purpose, in terms of endurance sport events, is to obtain benefits as well as the development of one-self (c.f. 3.2.4).
- Various questions came to mind for participants and spectators who consumed these endurance sport events and were analysed separately in terms of their ESCB. For each of these consumers a conceptualised framework was drawn, indicating the differences for these consumers through influential factors (c.f. 3.2.4).
- Factors that were identified for participants (c.f. 3.3.1) include the demographic, economic and sport profile as well as motives for participating.
- Sport profile consisted of the media, type of sport event, time spent on sport/event and available infrastructure, but was not limited to only these, yet these aspects influence consumers to attend or participate in sport events (c.f. 3.3.1.3).
- Motives also have a fundamental role in the sport profile. Various theories, models and scales, such as the theory of planned behaviour, self-determination theory, sport commitment

model, social theories and sport motivation scales have been used and tested to determine the motives and drives for sport consumption (c.f. 3.3.1.4).

- Literature for individual sport spectators are limited and the focus is towards team sport. There are however differences between these two groups, since those spectating are there for the participants, and fans are more concerned with the sport (c.f. 3.3.3).
- A similar classification was used for spectators (demographic, economic and the sport *viewing* profiles) (c.f. 3.3.3).
- These spectating consumers' sport *viewing* profiles differ from those participating, as well as their motives (c.f. 3.3.3.1). Motives for spectators were identified from scales and theories such as the sport fan motivation scale, motivation scale for sport consumption, social identity theories and the model of sport consumer motivations, spectator commitment and behaviour intentions (c.f. 3.3.3.2; 3.3.4).
- Not only does ESCB influence endurance sport events but there are other factors to consider as well, such as the economy, qualifying events, weather, and location, marketing of these events, destination image, distance travel, facilities and infrastructure (c.f. 3.4).
- It is thus important to identify these influencing factors and aspects to ensure a memorable experience for sport consumers. By taking these factors and aspects into consideration, endurance events will be more sustainable in the long run (c.f. 3.5).
- These factors can aid sport organisers when focusing on customer satisfaction and memorable experience. The physical surroundings of the sport events are important to sport spectators, for example (c.f. 3.6).
- By specialising and focusing on ESCB these endurance events will enhance in speciality and participants will be more determined to qualify and up their performance in order to meet the new qualifying criteria set by sport organisers and event planners. Event sponsors will be able to invest in future endurance events and the consumers pursuing these events as a profession (c.f. 3.6).
- Sport event planners and marketers must use these ESCB findings to give the developing sport market a new exciting edge. In doing so new opportunities for sport consumers can be provided nationally as well as internationally – creating an advantage point for endurance sport in South Africa (c.f. 3.6).

6.4.3 Conclusions from the surveys (Chapter 5)

The findings from the research will be discussed in two parts, namely the profiles of endurance sport consumers, followed by the comparisons of consumers at the endurance sport events surveyed. The findings of the consumer profiles will be discussed next.

6.4.3.1 Conclusions for endurance sport consumer profiles

Table 6.1 summarises the endurance sport consumers' profiles and the following findings can be made in terms of the endurance sport consumers' profiles:

Participants

- Endurance **sport participants, who engage in running and cycling events**, are English speaking, married, **males** with the average age in their **late thirties to early forties**. This supports the notion of Kruger and Saayman (2012a, 2014) that endurance sport can become a lifespan sport – **depending on the type of endurance activity and event** – in which ESCB can be enhanced. These consumers were well-educated with a professional occupation and lived in the Western Cape. They were willing to spend a decent amount of money when travelling to attend endurance sport events. These **profiles are in line** with previous research done on individual endurance sport participants. Research revealed that **older participants have little intention to withdraw from endurance sport**, corresponding with previous research, which is an important stimulator to increase age and fitness over time.
- Endurance **sport participants, who engaged in swimming events**, however, were **females in their early thirties** who lived in KwaZulu-Natal. These participants were English, married women who were either students or standing in a professional occupation. These findings **contradict the findings** of previous research which indicated that **open water swimmers were mostly men**.
- Endurance sport participants initiated the trips at least a year in advance and visited tourism attractions although their sport and holiday destinations differed. Sport events gave them the opportunity to travel but also provided a new environment for training. This indicates that **endurance participants alter their travelling according to their sport activities and travel to certain destinations due to their sport.**
- It was the **first time** for the majority of endurance sport participants **to compete in the specific event they chose, but they participated in at least three other endurance races/events before**. Although most of them have **never before finished** one of these events, it shows that **endurance participants engage in a variety of sport events and activities to enhance their skills and capabilities**. These findings **were in line with endurance success of participants** where self-confidence is one of the most important mental parameters that influence sport performance. Endurance sport participants were up for challenges that would strengthen the body and their minds indicating that **they would pursue sport events to obtain the benefits of developing themselves in a specific sport**.
- **Endurance sport participants were motivated because they enjoyed the sport, but also for the sense of achievement and the feeling of pride they experienced when participating in these types of sport events, indicating that endurance sport is an**

intrinsic achievement that is pursued over time. Previous research **supports this finding** that endurance athletes select events that will challenge their abilities, and the mere fact that they enjoy it, makes it acceptable to push their skills for a desirable performance.

- Four **travel motives for endurance sport participants** were identified namely ***commitment***, ***intrinsic achievement***, ***escape and socialisation*** **and the** ***challenge*** these events provides to the participants. These **results correspond** with previous research where achievement and challenge, escape and socialisation, intrinsic achievement and commitment were found as influential motives for sport participants. ***Commitment*** **was the most important motive to compete in endurance events,** which corresponds with the self-determination theory that states that sport participants will push themselves to achieve their goals through intrinsic pressures, and the sport commitment model, which indicated that the focus of the participant will be on the loyalty of the sport.
- In terms of travel behaviour, **endurance participants regarded endurance events as an** ***opportunity to travel*** **and that participation in sport did not influence travel behaviour although their holiday and sport destination differed (*travel omission*).**

Spectators

- **Endurance spectators were married, English and Afrikaans speaking women, except for those who supported the Comrades Marathon who are male spectators**. These spectators were in their late thirties, early forties and were from the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, respectively. These spectators were educated and were in a professional occupation. When attending endurance sport events these consumers **spent a small amount of money,** indicating that these consumers did not spend more when travelling to a sport event. This could be because these spectators were local residents from the area or province where the event was held. These **profiles are in line** with previous research that was done with regards to spectators' profiles for sport events.
- These **spectators initiated the trip to go and support family and friends** who were participating in the event. These **findings correlate** previous studies as to why spectators are supporting an event. The majority **did not intend to visit tourism attractions, except for the men who supported the Comrades Marathon**. **Sport spectators** therefore **travelled mainly to support the event and not to visit other tourism attractions** and did not think of the possible tourism attractions that they could visit while in the area.
- It was the majority of **spectators' first time supporting** the specific event they visited and they were **motivated to support friends and family**.
- **Endurance spectators** were **motivated to attend an event due to the** ***sport novelty*** **and the** ***social interaction*** associated with these types of events. Their **memorable experience**, however were **influenced by** ***event personnel and provision***, ***amenities***, ***comfort and visibility***, ***infrastructure*** **and** ***marketing*** at these endurance events. Examples

include: **the adequate number of rubbish bins, parking, and access to sport grounds, friendly and professional staff and the safety precautions taken during the race**. The **findings correlate** with previous research and support the notion that **facilities and infrastructure influence sport event consumption.** Previous research supports these findings, indicating that these factors are key aspects for a memorable visitor experience.

Word of mouth influenced all the consumers to either participate in the event or to go and support the event. Television was the only other medium that had a significant influence on consumers who supported the Comrades Marathon.

Table 6.1: Summary of endurance sport consumer profiles

Event	Criteria	Participant	Spectator
Midmar Mile (Open water swimming)	Socio-demographic	Married, English–speaking females (age 31 years on average) who are students or standing in a professional occupation indicating that they are indeed educated. Participants reside in KwaZulu-Natal and spend on average R1 946.00 when attending the event.	English speaking, married females, who are 40 years of age and reside in KwaZulu-Natal. Spectators are well-educated professionals who spend on average R1 855.00 when supporting the event.
	Travel behaviour	Participants initiated the trip themselves and made the decision to partake in the event more than a month in advance. The participants did not plan on visiting tourism attractions when in the area and therefore the difference in sport and holiday destination. It did give them the opportunity to take family and friends on the trip.	The trip was initiated by family and they did not visit tourism attractions while in the area. Spectators were motivated to support a friend/family member while travelling to the event.
	Sport consumption	Word of mouth aided the participants to participate in the event for the first time, since they enjoyed swimming. The participant did partake in other sporting activities such as running and cycling and engaged, on average, in four swimming events.	Word of mouth helped aid the decision to support the event for the first time. The event experience was influenced by the adequate parking arrangements at the event.
Cape Argus Cycle Tour	Socio-demographic	Forty-two year old males who speak English and were married. The participants resided in the Western Cape and were well-educated with a professional occupation. On average, they spent R5 258.11 at the event.	The spectators were 41 year old women who were married and spoke Afrikaans. They were well-educated and lived in the Western Cape with a professional occupation and/or self-employed. The spending on average was R5 639.85 for the event.

	Travel behaviour	Friends initiated the trip for participants over a year ago and they visited other tourism attractions while in the area, although their sport participation destination and holiday destinations differed.	Although the spectators were the initiators of the trip, they did not intent to visit other attractions in the area.
	Sport consumption	It was the first time participating in the event and the participants have never before completed such an event. Positive word of mouth had an influence but they also have participated in other events such as mountain bike races already. The participants participated on average in 5 events because they enjoyed cycling.	The spectators supported their spouses for the first time and were motivated to support friends and family. Word of mouth had an influence on the decision to attend the sport event. Their event experience was influenced by the personnel that were trained to handle any race enquiries and the adequate safety precautions that were in place during the race.
Cape Epic (Mountain biking)	Socio-demographic	English speaking, well-educated, males who were in their late thirties and married. Participants resided outside of RSA (Australia, Belgium and The Netherlands) and stood in a professional occupation. While attending the event they spent on average R25 728.00.	N/A – no survey was conducted for spectators at the event
	Travel behaviour	Participants initiated the trip and also visited other tourism attractions while attending the event. Participation in sport gave them the opportunity to travel.	
	Sport consumption	It was the first time for participants to participate in the specific event and the decision was made a year before due to positive word of mouth about the event. They did participate in other events such as Cape Argus, with an average of 9 events because they enjoyed cycling.	

Event	Criteria	Participant	Spectator
Two Oceans Marathon (short distance marathon)	Socio-demographic	The participants were 39 years old, married and spoke English. They resided in the Western Cape. They were well-educated and in a professional occupation. While attending the event the average spending was R5 197.54.	These spectators were married, 38 year old women who spoke Afrikaans and lived in the Western Cape. They stood in a professional work environment and were well-educated, with an average spending of R3 259.48 during the event.
	Travel behaviour	The participant initiated the trip and visited other tourism attractions while in the area, although their sport participation and holiday destinations differed – they preferred that their holiday destination provide them the opportunity to train.	The spectators initiated the trip but did not visit other tourism attractions in the area when attending the sport event
	Sport consumption	The participant preferred to participate in half-marathons, but made an annual commitment to attend the event because of the positive word of mouth. They also attended Comrades events, with an average of 3 events. The participant felt proud of themselves and felt a sense of achievement when participating in these types of events.	It was the spectators' first time as supporters and the motive was to support a friend or a family member. The accessibility of the sport ground's entry points had an influence on their event experience.

Event	Criteria	Participant	Spectator
The Comrades Marathon (long distance marathon)	Socio-demographic	Male participants in their 40s, who were English-speaking. The participants were married and lived in Gauteng, with professional occupations. Their average spending for the event was R5 378.51	The spectators were 38 year old men. Married and English-speaking, while living in KwaZulu-Natal. They were educated, self-employed spectators and spent on average R2 926.11 at the event.
	Travel behaviour	The participants initiated the trip and visited other tourism attractions while in the area.	The spectators initiated the trip and visited other tourism attractions while in the area.
	Sport consumption	It was the first time participating in the event for the participants, and they have never really completed such a race before. They heard about the event on television and made an annual commitment to participate. They also participated in other events such as Cape Argus, with an average of 9 events in general. Endurance sport gave them a sense of achievement and made them feel proud of themselves.	Spectators supported friends and family and saw the event on television. It was the first time as a supporter and the event experience was influenced by the adequate number of rubbish bins at the sports grounds and friendly professional personnel who assisted them during the event.

6.4.3.2 Factors influencing ESCB

The factors that influence ESCB can be summarised in three main categories: demographic and behavioural profile; motives and travel behaviour and lastly the commitment to the sport/event for the sport participants. For spectators these factors differ and can be grouped in two categories: socio-demographic and behavioural profile and the motives for supporting endurance events. Each of these influence categories will be discussed separately for endurance sport participants and endurance sport spectators – keeping in mind the description of ESCB.

Endurance sport participants

a. Demographic and behavioural profile for endurance sport participants

In general the profile of these endurance consumers may seem homogeneous, however for participants there are various aspects indicating that the type of sport influences these consumers. **Age** has an influence on sport participants, **especially for runners and cyclists,** where their **performance seem to start peaking in their late thirties and early forties,** compared to **swimmers** who are much younger (**early thirties**). **The length of stay has a noteworthy influence for participants** who participated in the Cape Epic or Cape Argus (mountain and road cycling events) and the Midmar Mile (open water swimming event). The **group size** of **swimming** participants participating in the **Midmar Mile** is the **largest compared** to those participating in **running or cycling events**. **Media had no influence** on this decision for **participants who attended** the various events. **Friends and family** were the highest **influencers** for participants to attend these types of events. It is thus important to ensure that these consumers are satisfied with social interactions and entertainment, since they are important influencers for participants and future endurance sport event consumers.

Mountain bike participants stayed longer in the area where the event was held (due to the event taking place over eight days) **compared to the open water swimmers** of the Midmar Mile who only stayed for the event (one day). Endurance sport consumers' spending increase especially when specialised equipment such as mountain bikes and safety gear are required for the event. Runners do not need this type of specialised gear, which results in a lower spending. **Runners** are **committed to participate in endurance sport, even if their spending is lower, compared to cyclist** whose **expenses are very high when cycling** is taken up as an endurance sport. Runners have the tendency to **participate in more races and also finishing the race more time compared to endurance cyclists**. **Women** enjoy **swimming** where there is a **lesser strain in the challenge and the focus is more on the endurance over time,** compare to **men** who are engaging in sport where there are **more of a physical challenge** such as **running and cycling**. These consumers plan in advance (at least a year on average) and make annual commitments, which is evident from this study. Literature stated that these consumers will not

give up sport, therefore these consumers are committed to adapt their lifestyles and would travel for their sport. Endurance sport events provide the participants with opportunities to compete in order to test their abilities, thus gaining the benefits to develop themselves through sport and thereby increasing their sport consumption to become the best. One can therefore state that participating in endurance sport can be regarded as a lifestyle, where the participants will adapt their lifestyle and sport consumption behaviour for intrinsic achievement.

b. Motives for participating in endurance events and travel behaviour

The desire to be self-complete becomes evident from the study with the two main motivational factors *challenge* and *intrinsic achievement*. ***Challenge*** was the most influential motivational factor for all endurance sport participants to participate. Endurance sport participants challenge themselves in order to develop their bodies through testing themselves when competing in these endurance events – the events however must also challenge them. Event organisers can change these routes every two or three years, like the Comrades Marathon for example, so that the participants do not get too familiar with the specific route year after year. Whether competing or finishing for the first time, personal best time achieved or just being around achievers from the same sport, enhance the consumers' intrinsic achievement. ***Intrinsic achievement*** **was the most influential factor for participants** at the Comrades Marathon **compared to the swimmers** who participated in the Midmar Mile. The Cape Argus and Cape Epic participants were also more motivated by *intrinsic achievement* when compared to Midmar Mile participants. Word of mouth with regards to these types of events influenced their decision to travel and participate in the events. These consumers therefore initiated these trips and were willing to travel for the sport. Sport thus influences participants' ***travel behaviour*** but their tourism destinations differ (***travel omission***). **Cyclists** see the **opportunity for travelling** while competing in endurance sport while **for runners this is not the case**. Sport can however be used as a tool for travelling as long as it gives the consumer the opportunity to train. Tourism destinations should keep this in mind and use it to their advantage when marketing respective destinations where these consumers can train for sport events.

c. Commitment to the sport/event

From the above-mentioned as well as from the results it is clear that sport consumption becomes the essence for these participants. Participants will therefore compete in various events (with an average of four events, across the five difference endurance events mentioned in the study) to test and develop their bodies. In all of the events, endurance participants made the decision to attend the event at least a year in advance or made an annual commitment. Various events are considered where these participants, on average, competed in four events over the five different events, thereby supporting the description of ESCB that these consumers will adapt a lifestyle committed to their sport.

There are thus differences between the various sport participants and the type of event and the sport types that influence the sport consumption for these participants. It also becomes evident that participants do participate in a variety of endurance sport events throughout the year. With these aspects in mind, event organisers and marketers can promote and market these endurance sport events at smaller sport events leading up to "highlight" sport endurance like the Comrades Marathon and the Cape Epic, thereby increasing the exposure and interest for endurance sport. It is important that these "highlight" events are properly marketed at various endurance sport events such as Ironman South Africa and other triathlon events and for example, since these events also focus on the three disciplines of endurance.

Endurance sport spectators

a. Socio-demographic and behavioural profile for endurance sport spectators

In general the profile of these spectators might seem homogeneous, however, as in the case of the participants, there are various differences. The results indicate that endurance spectators regard endurance sport events as an opportunity to engage in the sport as well as the social interaction that these types of sport events provide. **Women support most endurance events except for those supporting long distance marathon running events, who were mostly male spectators. The length of stay has a noteworthy influence on spectators** who attended the **running and cycling events** (spend four nights on average) compared to those who **support open water swimming events** (spend only one night). **Cycling spectators also spend the most** in comparison to the other spectators who attend endurance events. **Accommodation, gifts and entertainment spending for spectators at the Cape Argus were higher compared to the rest of the spectators** attending other endurance events. The spending for the spectators is high due to the length of stay (average three nights across the four different sport events).

Since the spectator is also on the journey alongside the participant, they want to be able to enjoy the event at the same time while supporting the participant. These spectators have been supporting the participants for the past four years over the course of four events (on average), which is similar to the participants who are competing in these events. That is why factors such as amenities, comfort and visibility influence their memorable experience at the sport events. There were **no differences for endurance spectators based on the memorable experience factors**. When interpreting the various factors pertaining to the memorable experience (personnel and provisions, amenities, comfort and visibility, infrastructure and marketing), ***amenities* was regarded as the most important factor for all the spectators** at the various events. The **Midmar Mile** is also more **family-orientated** when compared to the other endurance events, **but these consumers stay the shortest** time when compared to those consumers who attend running and cycling events. **Road cycling supporters are the most loyal and spend**

the most when attending endurance events. **Cycling** spectators have been **supporting these events the longest** compared to spectators who supported **shorter distance running** events. The **group size** of the **spectators who attend swimming** events to **support their children** is the **largest compared** to those **supporting friends and family at running or cycling events**. **Media had very little influence** on the decision for **supporting** the various events, except for television which had an influence on the Comrades Marathon spectators.

b. Motives for supporting endurance events

Endurance spectators associate with the participants, since they have adapted their lifestyles, in order to enjoy the journey alongside the participant who is competing in the sport events. The ***social interaction*** is still the highest motivator for supporting endurance sport events followed by ***sport novelty*** where the social theories supported this finding.

6.5 Recommendations with regard to the study

Recommendations will be discussed in three sections: recommendations for sport event organisers and marketers, recommendations for tourism practitioners and finally recommendations for future research pertaining to ESCB.

6.5.1 Recommendations to sport and event organisers regarding endurance sport events

The endurance events in this study currently cannot grow in numbers due to entrance restrictions, therefore the following recommendations are made in order to sustain endurance sport participation and support among these endurance sport events, as well as to expand participation of and support for these events on a larger scale in the country. The following recommendations can be made for endurance sport event organisers and marketers with regard to participants, spectators and expanding endurance sport participation and support:

6.5.1.1 Attracting and retaining endurance sport participants

- Results indicate that *intrinsic achievement* and *challenge* are important factors for participating in endurance sport events. Sport event organisers and marketers can address the *intrinsic achievement* need of participants by *challenging* them with new time durations, terrain variances along with skill requirements to motivate them in participating in these types of endurance sport events. Sport event organisers must consider alternating the routes, create new time frames for age and skill level groups along with new challenging routes (steeper

inclines on different courses pertaining to the different entrance categories). Knowing that endurance sport participants seek a challenge, marketers must adapt their marketing messages by notifying potential participants that these types of events are the ultimate endurance events on the African continent. Emphasis should be placed on the fact that these events will challenge them physically and mentally and, at the end of the event, participants will feel that they have overcome a major challenge and feel a sense of self-worth and personal gratification. Marketers should also highlight the distinct aspects of the events, for example the Midmar Mile is the leading open water event in the world, the Cape Argus Cycle Tour is the biggest individually-timed event in the world and the Comrades Marathon is one of the toughest endurance marathons in the world. These marketing messages can be distributed at other endurance events nationally and internationally, in order to attract participants as well as to create awareness regarding the international standing of the country's endurance sport events.

- Results reveal that endurance participants are willing to spend money on their sport. Therefore endurance participants are willing to spend on additional sporting gear and nutrition to enhance their performance. Endurance sport organisers, marketers and sport equipment exhibitors should take this into consideration for the pre-event expos. Sport exhibitors can focus on the newest and best equipment and gear as well as nutritional products for the specific sport discipline (i.e. running, swimming or cycling), which will be available for purchase at the expos. Marketers could also divide the expos into different sections for different age-groups of participants, making sure that the products sold are each adapted and marketed for each specific age group. The expos should also be marketed as "the best lifestyle expos" pertaining to the events' particular sport, to encourage participants to not only collect their registration information and race numbers but to also use it as an opportunity to be exposed to the latest trends and equipment.
- Age is a factor when it comes to participation in endurance sport events. It is generally believed that sport participation tends to decline as age increases. However the results show that participants (with the exception of open water swimmers) are in their late thirties to early forties, indicating that participants have little intention to quit their sport. Endurance sports can therefore be regarded as lifespan sports. Marketing messages of endurance sport events should thus highlight that, although it is believed that performance declines with age, it is less of a factor in endurance sport events and that experience, which comes with age, can have a positive impact on performance. This is also an important aspect that can help to motivate the public by stressing that one is never too old to start participating in these types of sport events. Additional support can be provided to potential participants, for example sport event marketers can organise seminars, mentor sessions, training programmes and schedules as well as training sessions leading up to the main endurance events, where professionals can teach younger, and less experienced participants.

- Event organisers and marketers should consider developing a personal endurance sport event “App” that can be downloaded on smart phones and tables for participants, where they can keep track of all of their personal and professional sport event records, the different events they have participated in as well as dieting and training programmes that can aid with their training for the endurance events. This can also be a way to establish a support system for participants, as well as a chance to interact with other participants and to share experiences.

6.5.1.2. Attracting and retaining endurance sport spectators

- Results indicate that spectators do not spend that much when supporting the endurance sport events surveyed. In order to increase the economic spin-offs from these consumers, various aspects can be considered by endurance sport event organisers, for example specialised spectator merchandise with slogans such as “I am a proud supporter of…” can be sold at the expos to adults as well as children (and can also be used as a way to facilitate social interaction on the day of the events). Although this is done already at many of the events, prices of this merchandise should be affordable. Tourist attractions for the whole family, in the area where the events are held, should be marketed at the expos as well as on the website. This information should also be included in the participants’ “goodie” bags in order to reach a larger percentage of spectators. Event organisers should also liaise with various sectors of the tourism industry for example restaurants, attractions and accommodation establishments to give away discount vouchers to supporting and participating families. This can be a way to encourage spending in the area. Since spectators spend the majority of the event race day at the finish line, event organisers should ensure that there are adequate and a variety of facilities such as food and beverage outlets, at affordable prices, to encourage spectator spending.
- An endurance sport spectator “App” for smart phones and tables can also be developed for spectators. This application can be used to provide information to spectators with regard to their participants’ progress during the race, information on tourist attractions that are close to the respective events or training areas, and information on spectator viewing points and parking arrangements can be provided to ensure that spectators have a stress-free event experience.
- *Social interaction* is important for spectators as well as proper infrastructure at the event. Therefore, event organisers can consider introducing activities, for example a creativity market, competitions and lucky draws for spectators and the children who are there for support, while the event is happening in areas where the spectators cannot view the event due to restricted areas. Endurance event organisers can also consider hosting a music event at the end of the race, either on the same day or the following day to encourage both participants and spectators to increase their length of stay. Sport events marketers can work in collaboration with local

music event planners to arrange local artists to perform. Competitions can also be launched where the music event is used as a platform to announce the winners. Prizes can include sporting gear, discount for local tourism attractions, and one night's free stay at a B&B or guesthouse on their next visit to the destination. Event marketers can also promote these social activities at the various sport clubs in town as well as the region. Adverts can be placed at schools and sport stores as well as in local newspapers and sporting websites. Sport event marketers can promote bigger competitions where the entries can be launched during the pre-event expo and the winners are announced during the closing concert of the event.

- *Amenities* and *Infrastructure (sports grounds)* are regarded as a fundamental factor for a memorable spectator experience at the endurance evens surveyed. Event organisers must invest in regularly upgrading infrastructure, amenities (like sufficient ATM's, food and beverage stands) and ensure that activities are in place for spectators when attending these types of events. Adequate directions to the sports grounds that are communicated prior to, and on the day of the event, should be a priority. Communication sources that organisers could use include radio stations, newspapers, newsletters, roadside information boards, billboards and posters. Sufficient parking should be available to the spectators, protected by adequate security. This is important because of the difficulty in finding parking at the starting point and at the sports grounds is a common spectator problem. Parking information could be distributed during registration and included in the participants' welcome packs to offer to their supporters, and can also be available on the App for spectators. A supporter information desk could also be introduced at the registration areas where spectators could obtain information – currently it is mostly the participants who receive information. Spectators at these events have three options for viewing the action: they can watch along the route from a specific spectator spot or various spots, they can wait and watch at the finish line, or they can do both. This implies that spectators should be able to see the athletes easily from all viewpoints, and the sports grounds or other finish line venues should offer comfortable and adequate seating. Comfortable facilities are extremely important because the spectators have to wait for an extended period for the participants to finish. Big screens should be set up at the finish line for spectators/supporters to be up to date of the race and how the participants are doing. Finishing points must be clear from high obstacles that can limit or restrict spectators/supporters view. Event organisers must ensure that these aspects are taken into account and implemented at all endurance events when the planning and organising is done in so doing meeting consumer expectations and therefore ensuring a successful event.
- Spectators are mainly from the specific province where the sport events are held, which may implicate that they already know or even have visited the attractions that are available in the area. This does however indicate that, when other events are organised in different provinces, spectators will attend these events, which will lead to additional income for the sport sector. Sport organisers must add new endurance sport events in different regions, which will

increase the spending for spectators and also increase the social interaction for these consumers when visiting different regions and not just the same province year after year. Sport organisers and marketers must work with the respective regional tourism departments to compile and identify attractions, activities and accommodation that can be used and visited when organising these events in the different regions.

6.5.1.3 Expanding endurance sport participation and support

Sport event organisers and marketers of smaller, lesser-known endurance events can use these results and learn from the respective endurance events' success to market and organise endurance events for the various provinces and not just for the Western Cape region per se, taken into account the ESCB when segmentation for sport consumers is done. The following recommendations are therefore proposed:

- Results show that participants are committed to their sport. Participants plan and make annual commitments towards endurance sport events. These consumers need to train and seek opportunities to test their skills. Sport organisations therefore can organise smaller endurance events between different clubs. Sport event marketers and club managers must ensure that these events are well marketed in the town or city where it is held in order for those who do not belong to the clubs to have the opportunity to participate. This will grow the sport and develop new sport events in the area. This can also grow sport club memberships.
- As the pre-event registration and lifestyle expos at the surveyed endurance sport events are extremely successful, a national sport lifestyle expo should be considered that can be held in various metropolitan cities across the country such as Johannesburg and Cape Town. This expo can focus on providing potential participants information on the latest trends and gear for endurance sport activities such as running, swimming and cycling. Organisations that specialise in this can be invited for demonstrations and training. This can be a way to not only create cohesion among the different endurance events, but also give exposure of sport to the general public which in return can expand the participation in and support of these events This can also be an opportunity to market different endurance sport events such as canoeing, horse riding, kayaking, rowing and speed skating to name some examples. Different combination of these types of sport can be combined to develop new endurance events which can be promoted and introduced during the expo with perhaps special promotions when signing up for monthly newsletters or magazines that will provide them with techniques and training tips with regards to the various sport events.
- The results show that endurance sport events have the potential to be lifespan sports. Sport event marketers should introduce endurance events at local and provincial schools by frequently marketing and arranging road shows to promote endurance sport events for young and upcoming participants. Endurance fun races can be promoted at the schools for children

to compete in before the different endurance sport events. This will help promote different sport disciplines among children. It is however important that the local and provincial municipalities and government are involved in order to enhance the destination marketing. This will help grow the sport, event and tourism market under the youth but also for the supporters (parents, friends and family members) who attend the events to support their children. Endurance sport marketers and tourism organisations can negotiate special packages (accommodation and attractions to visit) to prolong the stay of the consumers when attending the events.

- Endurance training camps can be organised by sport event planners and clubs for different skill- and age groups where they can travel to different destinations in order to train for their upcoming endurance events. Sponsors can also invest in young upcoming athletes with special recognitions such as merits that can be handed out in schools, sport scholarship or bursaries at universities which will motivate these young athletes to pursue and develop in endurance sport.
- Sport organisers from different endurance sports (for example kayaking, water rafting) can be approached by sport event marketers to exhibit at the current expos. This can be a way to encourage existing consumers to compete in other sport that can help with their training. New consumers can be reached who wants to pursue these endurance sports and therefore growing the sport market as well as the endurance sport event market.
- Sport event organisations can organise endurance sport conferences that can be held across the country where endurance veterans can discuss motivational and training aspects in workshops for new-up and coming participants (young and old) in the sport which will aid with the growth of the endurance sport industry.
- Sport event marketers, in collaboration with the event organisers, can develop an endurance website where all endurance events are promoted to consumers. The website can include aspects such as links to the individual endurance event site, winners of the various endurance events, record holders, and category winners pertaining to the various endurance events, dates of the individual endurance events, registration forms for participants and sponsors who want to be a part of the respective endurance events. The website developer and host must make event website spectator/supporter friendly and not just with the focus on participants. Event marketers can provide frequent information to the web service provider who manages the endurance website such as special entertainment that will be held during the event and attractions that they can visit before and after the event. Spectator route map with various facilities can also be uploaded for spectators to have access to it via the website or an app which they can download to keep them up to date with the results of the event. Endurance sport events website must have access for spectators to choose special tourism attraction packages that they can book online before the event. Various activities for the children as well as friends and family can be promoted on the site in conjunction with the local

tourism department. This can also be an opportunity to market South Africa to international consumers as a sport destination.

- Results indicate that television has the potential to attract spectators to these types of events. Endurance sport event organisers of larger sport events must ensure that media coverage is interactive with the spectators by for example interviews to capture their excitement and how they experience the event – this will promote the festivities and the entertainment available. Event marketers must work alongside the media crew to ensure that the spectators experience, camaraderie and social interactions is captured; this will increase spectatorship for the future by creating a "bucket list" sport event for spectators that can be enjoyed even if one does not have a participant to support in the races. Smaller, lesser known events with a smaller media budget can start by reporting on the event in local newspapers and radio stations. This will provide much needed exposure to these events.

6.5.2 Recommendations pertaining to tourism practitioners

From the critical assessment it is clear that endurance sport participants and spectators are willing to travel for sport. Spectators have time on their hands while participants are preparing for the event. Tourism organisations as well as sport event organisers can make use of this opportunity to use endurance sport events to facilitate tourism in the areas where these events are held as well as in the rest of the country. The following recommendations are made in order to enhance tourism:

- Sport tourism destination marketers must consider the ESCB as identified in this research to promote the provincial destinations with opportunities where participants can train while spectators can enjoy social events and conventions that are held in the area. However, the necessary infrastructure must be available, accessible and must be maintained. Infrastructure such as roads, dams; race tracks; public training areas/parks for running and cycling and sport facilities such as stadiums, gyms, ablution facilities, seating areas in parks, trash receptacles, adequate illumination for after dark when people want to train; information boards with maps and directions for buildings and locations are aspects that must be considered and will play a fundamental role. It is important to work in collaboration with the local municipalities to keep these facilities and infrastructures maintained and accessible for sport consumers. These aspects should also feature on destinations' websites as "things to do in the area".
- Results indicate that endurance participants are willing to travel for their sport, yet their holiday destinations differ from their sporting destinations. When choosing a holiday destination it is important for these consumers to be able to train for their sport. Tourism marketers therefore must forcefully market physical activities such as cycling and running routes as well as swimming areas that are in the surrounding area of the tourism destination. Tourism marketers can make use of tourism websites, activity brochures and "things to do"

brochures that can be available at accommodation and tourism information centres. Distinctive routes for cycling and running at game farms or tourism parks can be developed and destination marketers can then promote these destinations with sport activities (for example cycling, running, swimming) as a trade mark for endurance participants to train. Holiday and tourism clubs can invest in additional sporting gear such as bicycles that tourists can rent for a day, whereby the whole family can enjoy the different routes, while the participants are training. Sport and wellness exposure will be emphasised amongst consumers but they will also have the opportunity to explore and enjoy tourism destinations and the various activities that tourism has to offer.

- Endurance sport participants are willing to travel, therefore these events can be held at different sport and tourism destinations. The endurance sport and tourism market will grow when different provinces are visited for the sport events. Sport organisers can develop additional endurance events with the collaboration of the respective provincial tourism departments, where consumers can break away for a weekend to attend the event while enjoying the tourism attractions as a family. Participating in sport events is expensive and this will provide the opportunity to still train and attend sport events without the high expenses and long travelling to sport events. These events must have similar characteristics for the participants who are competing in the event to enable them to train for the upcoming endurance events. These provincial events can serve as qualifying events.
- Spectators play a major role in initiating the trip to go and support endurance events but do not think of visiting tourism attractions while in the area. Event marketers must work in collaboration with the local tourism department in order to ensure that these spectators receive information about attractions in the area. Event marketers and local tourism department can compile special event tourism attraction packages as well as special conference packages for those accompanying the participants to the event. These package deals can be promoted during sport expos where participants register for the events as well as on the endurance sport event webpage. Tourism organisations can compile packages for consumers that offer accommodation, activities and attractions that they can visit after the event. Since spectators greatly influence participants' decisions, this can be a way to lengthen these consumers' stay; grow tourism and the local economy.

6.6 Recommendations for future research

Based on this research, the following aspects need to be further researched pertaining to endurance sport consumption behaviour:

- A comparison study between international and national level for endurance sport consumers (participants and spectators) is recommended to determine if these profiles are similar for all endurance sport consumers or merely for South African endurance sport

consumers. If the profiles are similar South Africa can broaden their sport market for international endurance sport events as well as the marketing for these types of events – which in return will boost the economy for South Africa.

- The current research should be expanded to other endurance events, such as canoeing and horse riding, for a broad overview of all endurance sport participants to give a holistic overview of endurance sport participants in South Africa. Events with alternating routes such as the Comrades Marathon that has an 'up' and a 'down' run should also be considered and both races should be compared.
- The environmental- and community impacts of these endurance sport events need to be determined, since these role players are directly influenced when these events are held at the respective destinations. If the communities do not support these events and the environmental impact are severe, should these events be held at different destinations over a course period or should the destinations alter to give consumers the opportunity to test their endurance in new surroundings? These findings will help endurance sport organisers to determine if the respective destinations are still acceptable for the consumers and addressing the needs of these sport consumers in terms of testing their skills.
- Further research should determine how sponsorships for the various endurance events influence and impact the consumers before and during the respective events, as well as how these sponsorships influence the endurance sport events. This can help sponsorships and sport event marketers with organising these events and also to identify the various consumers who truly could be the best candidate for sponsoring and who could be an ambassador for the respective sponsor organisations.
- Charity involvement for endurance sport events should be analysed, where the impact on participants and spectators consumption must be analysed. This will aid charity organisers and event organisers to determine which charity events could be associated with endurance sport events and what the benefits could be for hosting these endurance events for charity organisations.
- Sport participants are loyal to the sport, but how do organisers create that loyalty for spectators? Is the loyalty created by the adventure of the sport type or is it created due to the traditions that come with the sport event? Spectators' loyalty should be analysed as this could provide valuable information on the nature of these sport consumers and their consumption behaviour. This will aid marketers and organisers for future endurance events.
- An analysis can be done between team and individual endurance sport consumers to determine if the influential factors are still relevant for team sport consumers or if there are different factors influencing team endurance sport consumers. Examples of such events can include white water rafting versus canoeing; Ironman versus Cape Epic; Dusi Canoe Marathon versus Midmar Mile. This will aid future sport organisers and marketers with market segmentation and sport event marketing.

- With regard to endurance sport spectators, more research should be done to include different types of spectators at the various spectator points along the routes and not only those at the finish line as this will provide a more comprehensive over of the types of spectators (local versus non-local, affiliated with a participant or not etc.) that these events attract.
- There are a range of other general factors such as the weather, the economy, destination and the marketing of events that can also influence the ESCB which has not been measured in this study. These factors should be researched in order to determine to what extend these factors influence ESCB and how these aspects can be managed in order to boost the ESCB for future sport events and sport markets.

From this study it is evident that a combination of aspects and factors influence endurance sport consumption behaviour when participating in and attending endurance sport events. These aspects and factors need to be taken into consideration to prolong sustainability and competitiveness of these events as well as to expand tourism in the areas where these events are held. The results provided by this innovative study are therefore invaluable for the future organising and management of endurance sport events in South Africa.

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Appendix

OLD MUTUAL TWO OCEANS MARATHON PARTICIPANT SURVEY 2012

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender

M	1
F	2

2. In which year were you born? 19

3. Home language?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
Other (Specify)	3

4. Occupation

Professional	1
Management	2
Self-employed	3
Technical	4
Sales	5
Administrative	6
Civil service	7
Education	8
Professional athlete	9
Pensioner	10
Student	11
Unemployed	12
Other (Specify)	13

5a. How many people are travelling in your group (including yourself)?

5b. How many people are you paying for during the Two Oceans?

5c. If not a local resident of Cape Town Metro Area, how many nights will you spend in the area?

6. Province

Western Cape	1
Gauteng	2
Eastern Cape	3
Free State	4
KwaZulu-Natal	5
Mpumalanga	6
Northern Cape	7
North West	8
Limpopo	9
Outside RSA borders	10

7. Country of residence (if outside RSA borders)

8. How much have you spent or intend to spend during the event on the following?

Registration fee	R
Accommodation	R
Transport (return)	R
Sport equipment	R
Food and restaurants	R
Beverages	R
Medicine	R
Souvenirs / Gifts	R
Entertainment	R
Other (Specify)	R
a.	R
b.	R

9. Highest level of education.

No school	1
Matric	2
Diploma, degree	3
Post-graduate	4
Professional	5
Other, specify	6

10. Marital status

Married	1
Not married	2
In a relationship	3
Divorced	4
Widow/er	5
Living together	6

11. What type of accommodation do you use during your stay?

Local resident	1
Family or friends	2
Guesthouse or B&B	3
Hotel	4
Camping	5
Rent full house	6
Self-catering	7
Other (Specify):	8

SECTION B: BEHAVIOUR

12a. Including 2012, how many times have you previously participated in the Two Oceans? ☐

12b. How many times have you previously finished the Two Oceans? ☐

13. How did you hear about the Two Oceans?

Television	YES	NO
Radio	YES	NO
Website	YES	NO
Email	YES	NO
Magazines	YES	NO
Newspapers	YES	NO
Word-of-mouth	YES	NO
Club	YES	NO
Facebook	YES	NO
Twitter	YES	NO
Internet blogs	YES	NO
Other (Specify):	YES	NO

14. Who initiated your participation in the Two Oceans?

Self	YES	NO
Spouse	YES	NO
Media	YES	NO
Friends	YES	NO
Children	YES	NO
Family	YES	NO
Club	YES	NO
Company	YES	NO
Other, specify	YES	NO

15. When did you make the decision to participate in the Two Oceans?

Spontaneously	1
More than a month ago	2
A year ago	3
Annual commitment	4
Other, specify	5

SECTION C: MOTIVES TO COMPETE

16. Rate on the scale of importance why you participate in the Two Oceans?

	Not at all important	Less important	Important	Very important	Extremely important
To get away from my routine	1	2	3	4	5
To relax	1	2	3	4	5
To spend time with family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
To meet new people	1	2	3	4	5
It is a sociable event	1	2	3	4	5
Because I enjoy running	1	2	3	4	5
Because the event is well organised	1	2	3	4	5
I do it annually	1	2	3	4	5
The Two Oceans tests my levels of fitness and endurance	1	2	3	4	5
It is an international event	1	2	3	4	5
I am participating as part of a team	1	2	3	4	5
The Two Oceans is a huge challenge	1	2	3	4	5
To feel proud of myself and to feel a sense of achievement	1	2	3	4	5
It is a "must do" event	1	2	3	4	5
To share group identity with other runners	1	2	3	4	5
To improve my health	1	2	3	4	5
I am pursuing a personal goal of participating in a predetermined number of marathons	1	2	3	4	5
Because I am participating as part of a club	1	2	3	4	5
Because I am a professional athlete	1	2	3	4	5
I am addicted to training and this event sets training targets for me	1	2	3	4	5
Because this race allows me to train, qualify or prepare for other events such as the Ironman etc.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR AND SPORT PARTICIPATION

17a. Have you, or will you visit any tourist tourist attractions in the area?

Yes	1
No	2

17b. If YES in 17a, please specify which tourist attractions you have or plan to visit.

_____

_____

18. On average, how many nights do you stay over in the city/town where the cycling events you participate in are held? ☐

19. How many cycling events do you participate in per year? _____

20. What other sporting competitions/events are you participating in during 2012?

Comrades	YES	NO
Cape Argus Cycle Tour	YES	NO
Midmar Mile	YES	NO
94.7 Two Oceans	YES	NO
Cape Epic	YES	NO
Ironman	YES	NO
Other, specify	YES	NO

_____

21. Please indicate to what extent your sport participation influences your holiday choices.

	Never	Almost never	Sometimes	Regularly	Always
Participation in sport gives me the opportunity to travel	1	2	3	4	5
My sport participation and holiday destination(s) differ	1	2	3	4	5
I do take a holiday in the town or area where I have participated in	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to go on holiday at a different destination than where I have participated – at least once a year	1	2	3	4	5
My holiday destination needs to provide the opportunity to train	1	2	3	4	5
My sport participation provides the opportunity to travel overseas	1	2	3	4	5
My sport participation provides the opportunity to explore the country	1	2	3	4	5
I plan my sport participation in order to see different places and destinations	1	2	3	4	5
I also take a holiday during my participation in cycling events	1	2	3	4	5
Participation in sport allows me to take family and friends along on the trip	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to not spend a lot of time at the destination where I participate in a particular sport	1	2	3	4	5

22. In your opinion, where do you think the profits of the Two Oceans go?

Have no idea	YES	NO
To promote running	YES	NO
To fund next year's race	YES	NO
Charities	YES	NO
NGOs	YES	NO
Communities of Cape Town	YES	NO
Other, specify	YES	NO

_____

23. Will your family and friends be watching the race at home on television?

Yes	1
No	2

24. Any suggestions or recommendations?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you and good luck with the race!

Research conducted by TREES (Tourism Research in Economic, Environs and Society) at the North West University, Potchefstroom Campus in collaboration with the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon)

OLD MUTUAL TWO OCEANS SPECTATOR SURVEY 2012
SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender

M	1
F	2

2. In which year were you born? 19

3. Home language?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
Other (Specify)	3

4. Occupation

Professional	1
Management	2
Self-employed	3
Technical	4
Sales	5
Administrative	6
Civil service	7
Education	8
Professional athlete	9
Pensioner	10
Student	11
Unemployed	12
Other (Specify)	13

5a. How many people are travelling in your group (including yourself)?

5b. How many people are you paying for during the Two Oceans?

5c. If not a local resident of Cape Town Metro Area,how many nights will you spend in the area?

6a. Province

Western Cape	1
Gauteng	2
Eastern Cape	3
Free State	4
KwaZulu-Natal	5
Mpumalanga	6
Northern Cape	7
North West	8
Limpopo	9
Outside RSA borders	10

7b. Country of residence (if outside RSA borders)

8. How much have you spent or intend to spend during the event on the following?

Accommodation	R
Transport (return)	R
Food and restaurants	R
Beverages	R
Souvenirs / Gifts	R
Entertainment	R
Other (Specify)	R
a.	R
b.	R

9. Highest level of education.

No school	1
Matric	2
Diploma, degree	3
Post-graduate	4
Professional	5
Other, specify	6

10. Marital status

Married	1
Not married	2
In a relationship	3
Divorced	4
Widow/er	5
Living together	6

11. What type of accommodation do you use during your stay?

Local resident	1
Family or friends	2
Guesthouse or B&B	3
Hotel	4
Camping	5
Rent full house	6
Self-catering	7
Other (Specify):	8

SECTION B: BEHAVIOUR

12. Which mode of transport do you use to travel to the Two Oceans?

Own car	1
Rental car	2
Bus	3
Train	4
Airplane	5
Other, specify	6

13.Who are you supporting at the Cycle Tour?

Child(ren)	1
Spouse	2
Family member	3
Friend	4
Colleague	5
Fellow athlete	6
Not applicable	7
Other, specify	8

14. How many years have you previously supported someone at the Two Oceans?

15. Which other sporting events, for example Two Oceans are you supporting in 2012?

16.To what extent did the following media influence your decision to support the Two Oceans?

	Completely	To a greater extent	To a lesser extent	Not at all
Television	1	2	3	4
Radio	1	2	3	4
Website	1	2	3	4
Email	1	2	3	4
Magazines	1	2	3	4
Newspapers	1	2	3	4
Word-of-mouth	1	2	3	4
Facebook	1	2	3	4
Twitter	1	2	3	4
Internet blogs	1	2	3	4
Other (Specify):	1	2	3	4

17. Who made the decision to attend the Two Oceans?

Self	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Participant	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Spouse	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Friends	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Children	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Family	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Club	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Other, specify	Ja/Yes	Nee/No

SECTION C: MOTIVES TO SUPPORT

16. Rate on the scale of importance why you support events such as the Two Oceans?

	Extremely important	Very important	Important	Less important	Not at all important
To relax and to get away from my routine	1	2	3	4	5
To spend time with family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
To meet new people and to interact with other spectators	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy the camaraderie associated with these types of events	1	2	3	4	5
Because I enjoy watching running events	1	2	3	4	5
To support a friend or family member	1	2	3	4	5
Because the event is well organised	1	2	3	4	5
To be part of the Two Oceans	1	2	3	4	5
It is a well-known international event	1	2	3	4	5
To see world-class athletes compete	1	2	3	4	5
I support and attend it annually	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: FACTORS IMPORTANT FOR A MEMORABLE EXPERIENCE

17. Please indicate how important the following aspects are for a quality spectator experience when supporting an event such as the Two Oceans. Please answer all statements.

	Extremely important	Very important	Important	Less important	Not at all important
Adequate information boards on the terrain	1	2	3	4	5
Good layout of the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Good visibility of the athletes from all viewpoints at the sports grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Accessibility of the sport grounds' entry points	1	2	3	4	5
Comfortable seating	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate seats in the sports grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Accessibility for the disabled	1	2	3	4	5
Effective technical aspects during the event (sound, announcements)	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate parking arrangements	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate security at parking areas	1	2	3	4	5
Effective signage and directions to the sports grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Affordable and variety souvenirs (e.g. caps, t-shirts etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate ablution facilities inside/outside the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Clean and hygienic ablution facilities	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate amount of rubbish bins at the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Visibility of security on the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Visibility of emergency personnel	1	2	3	4	5
Affordable food and beverages at the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of food and beverages available (e.g. Halaal, vegetarian)	1	2	3	4	5
Good quality viewing of the race on a big screen	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly and professional personnel in & around the sport grounds	1	2	3	4	5
Personnel that are trained to handle any race enquiries	1	2	3	4	5
Race personnel that are easily noticeable	1	2	3	4	5
Effective marketing prior to the race regarding date, time, venue etc.	1	2	3	4	5
User-friendly website with adequate information	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate information regarding the race	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate safety precautions in place during the race	1	2	3	4	5
Correct information given through marketing (e.g. date, time, venue etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate supporter "hotspots" along the route	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: TOURISM BEHAVIOUR

18a. Did you or are you planning to visit any tourist attractions while you are in the area?

Yes	1
No	2

18b. If YES in 18a, please specify the attractions.

_____

_____

19. Any recommendations/suggestions?

_____

_____