

The value of event sport tourism bundles

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Abstract

This research investigates the potential for sport tourism bundling in the context of an international Rugby League test match at Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin and explores how the stadium can be best utilised to maximise the tourism potential that it offers. Bundling involves the sale of at least two separate products in a single package (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002) and in the context of sports events, bundling is further understood as a leveraging strategy to maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts of an event (Chalip, 2004). Creating and selling sport tourism bundles that consist of a sports event and tourism products and services at the host destination could therefore achieve great benefits for both the development of the sport tourism destination and the success of the sports event. In order to successfully sell sport tourism bundles however, they need to be of value to the sport tourist. This research therefore applies the concept of consumer value, as developed by Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991), in order to assess to what extent, and in what ways, sport tourists visiting Dunedin value sport tourism bundles for a Rugby League test match at the Forsyth Barr Stadium. It focused on events and activities before or after the Rugby League test as potential bundle components and the importance of social, emotional and epistemic consumer value for event sport tourists. Data was collected from a sample of n=165 via a questionnaire-based visitor survey at the Kiwis vs England Four Nations Rugby League test match in Dunedin on 8 November 2014 and subsequently analysed with descriptive and inferential statistics, such as cross-tabulations and confidence intervals. It was found that the most popular bundle components for Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin were meet & greet and autograph & photo sessions with players as well as a concert before or after the sports event. Social and emotional value were identified to be the most salient consumer values. Findings showed that there is significant potential for the development of sport tourism bundles in Dunedin since these were valued highly by sport tourists and may enhance Dunedin as a sport tourism destination. Based on research findings, suggestions for suitable sport tourism bundles were made, which may inform marketing and development strategies of sport event organisers and destination managers.

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List of abbreviations

DCC	-	Dunedin City Council
DVML	-	Dunedin Venues Management Limited
e.g.	-	for example
EVS	-	Experiential Value Scale
FIFA	-	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
ICC	-	International Cricket Council
NZ	-	New Zealand
NZRU	-	New Zealand Rugby Union
UK	-	United Kingdom
vs.	-	versus

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1) Study context

The Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin is a sports facility that was completed in 2011, just in time for the Rugby World Cup 2011 (Ministry of Business Innovation & Employment, 2012). Its construction followed a passionate public debate about whether to redevelop the Carisbrook, Dunedin's dated but heritage-rich Rugby sports ground, or to build a new stadium in a new location (Hall & Wilson, 2010). A significant proportion of construction and development cost of about \$224.4 million was covered by public funds (Dunedin City Council, 2012) and opinions were divided with regard to which option would be the best for the city and its residents (Sam & Scherer, 2006). When the Rugby World Cup 2011 was appointed to Australia and New Zealand, the decision was made to build a world class multi-purpose stadium that would meet the requirements to host international sports fixtures, such as Category A or World Cup rugby games (Hall & Wilson, 2010). As with all new stadium developments, especially when publicly funded, it was and still is crucial that strategies are developed that can maximise the benefits of the new facility and the events it can host for the host destination and community, for example by increasing visitor numbers and their length of stay and expenditure (Stevens, 2005). The development of these strategies, which maximise the benefits of an investment, is called leveraging and in the case of sports events, bundling has been identified as a promising leveraging strategy (Chalip, 2004).

Bundling means to sell "two or more products in one package" (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002, p. 56) and there are many possibilities of bundling a sports event with tourism elements at the host destination, hence creating sport tourism bundles. This study will discuss bundling as a leveraging strategy for sports events and their host destination in the case of an international Rugby League sports event taking place at Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin. Although some researchers have made suggestions with regard to potential tourism components that can be bundled with sports events (e.g. Garcia, 2001; Green, 2001; Chalip, 2004; Chalip & McGuirly, 2004), our understanding of which bundles are valued and are consequently most likely to be purchased by sport tourists is still very limited. This is based

on the concept of consumer value according to which a product or service is only purchased if it is perceived to be of value by the consumer. Research on the consumer value of bundles in general and on sport tourism bundles in particular has been very scarce to date. This research aims to address the identified gaps in the body of research by exploring to what extent, and in what ways, sport tourism bundles are valued by Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

1.2) Research question

The research question at the heart of this research is therefore the following:

To what extent, and in what ways, do event sport tourists visiting Dunedin value sport tourism bundles for an international Rugby League test match?

In order to answer this research question and to guide the theoretical and practical research in this study, three research objectives were identified:

Objective 1: To determine the most popular bundle component(s) among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Objective 2: To determine the most salient consumer values for Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Objective 3: To assess the potential relationship between salient consumer values and the choice of sport tourism bundle components.

1.3) Structure of the study

The first part of this study describes the findings from a literature review. This is presented in three chapters. First, sport tourism and its development as both an industry and an academic field are explored in Chapter 2. The last part of that chapter focuses particularly on event sport tourism, which is most relevant for this study. Next, leveraging and bundling are discussed in Chapter 3, first in general and then in the context of sport tourism and

sports events. Therefore, the chapter starts with an overview of leveraging before it focuses on bundling as a means of leveraging sports events. This includes a review of literature and practical examples of sport tourism bundles leading to a list of tourism activities and events that could be bundled with a sports event. This contributes to the context required to address research objective 1.

In order to be successful on the market, a sport tourism bundle, as well as any other product or experience, needs to be of value to the consumer. Therefore, Chapter 4 reviews the meaning and sources of consumer value and discusses conceptualisations for its measurements, especially the conceptualisation by Sheth et al. (1991). Consumer value is discussed both in a general and a sport tourism context. Together with Chapter 3, this chapter constitutes the fundamental theoretical background for research objectives 2 and 3. In the second part of this study, the research methodology and findings are discussed. Chapter 5 explains the approach and design of the empirical research conducted as part of this study. Chapter 6 then presents the findings from data analysis and draws conclusions to meet the research objectives and answer the research question. Finally, this study concludes with a discussion of the research findings set against the theoretical background of this research in Chapter 7 before concluding with a critical appraisal and outlook in Chapter 8.

Chapter Two: Sport tourism

2.1) Introduction

With sport tourists and sports events being at the centre of this research, this first chapter of the literature review aims to provide the required background on sport tourism. It starts with a review of the historical development of sport tourism, its establishment as an academic field and its significance as a segment of the tourism industry today. Then, a number of definitions, typologies and conceptualisations of sport tourism are presented, which help to define sport tourism as it is understood in this study and to narrow down the type of sport tourism that is relevant for the research conducted. The chapter therefore concludes with a section on event sport tourism and a differentiation between active and passive sport tourists.

2.2) Development of sport tourism

Sport tourism is not a new phenomenon. Sport-related travel has existed for centuries (Gibson, 1998a). In Ancient Greece, people travelled to watch and participate in sport festivals, the most obvious being the ancient Olympic Games in Olympia, which date to 776BC. It is estimated that the games at that time attracted up to 40,000 people from all over Greece. Similarly, during the time of the Roman Empire, chariot races and gladiatorial combats were held to entertain the people to distract them from poor living conditions and to demonstrate the power and wealth of the emperors and government officials (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999; Bull & Weed, 2009). As opposed to the Greek emphasis on athleticism, specialised physical skill and individualism, the purpose of sports events held by the Romans was diversion and dramatic spectacle. Much later, during the Middle Ages, jousting and crossbow tournaments were organised for similar reasons (Coakley, 1990). These ancient antecedents of modern sports events do not only prove that sport tourism has taken place for more than two millennia, but also show that the strategic use of sports events to achieve various goals of the hosts is not a new idea. It further illustrates that reasons for spectating have always been multifaceted, ranging from supporting individual athletes and witnessing

athletic skill and prowess to social interaction, distraction, entertainment, and experiencing a special atmosphere. Hence, a variety of consumer values (Sheth et al., 1991) have always played a role in sport tourism.

Sport tourism developed significantly in the 20th century, with an especially dramatic expansion from around the 1980s (Bull & Weed, 2009). Even though many sports activities like hiking, fishing, skiing, golf, and tennis have been practiced by tourists for most of the 20th century, in the last two to three decades, sports increasingly became a primary reason for travel (Gibson, 1998a). This recent evolution of sport tourism actually has its origins in the 19th century. An increase in leisure time and disposable income made it possible for more people to travel in general and to travel for sport (Weed & Bull, 2009). Furthermore, improved technology, communication and transport, such as the development of cheap rail, and later air travel, had a major impact on the evolution of sport tourism (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1993). Other developments influencing the popularity of sport tourism include the democratisation, commercialisation and globalisation of sport (Bull & Weed, 2009; Hinch & Higham, 2011).

Democratisation of sport means that both active and passive sports activities became more widely available to the masses and in some cases became less restricted to social classes than previously (Hinch & Higham, 2011). Globalisation is used as a concept to summarise various developments in sport tourism, such as the growth of international tournaments and competitions and of international sporting bodies. International sporting competitions require athletes and teams to travel the world and attract increasing numbers of spectators (Higham & Hinch, 2009). Globalisation also sometimes refers to the development in communication and the coverage of sports by global media, both on television and online (Maguire, 1999). At the same time, this development accelerated the commercialisation of sport. Bull and Weed (2009) point out that more and more money is involved in broadcasting rights, sponsorship, advertising and merchandising, and that the remuneration of elite athletes has reached a level that was unimaginable not too long ago. Increased coverage of events helped to make sport more accessible by all members of society and supported the growth of fandoms. Furthermore, coverage on television can highlight and sometimes exaggerate the atmosphere and excitement at the sports grounds, which persuades many people to want to experience it themselves. Mega events such as the

Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup or the Commonwealth Games have become tourist attractions in their own right (Weed, 2008a).

Nowadays, sport tourism is considered one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Gibson, 1998b; Tourism-review.com, 2011). It is further estimated that sport tourism adds up to a yearly spending of US\$600 billion worldwide (Wood, 2014). Although these estimates are impressive, international statistics on sport tourism are hard to find as many countries do not collect data on incoming tourism. Even if they do, often no differentiation is made between leisure and recreation, which would include most holidays, and sport. Some countries however have published data that underlines the significance of sport tourism today. An estimate by VisitBritain (2012) states that sport tourism contributed £2.3 billion to the British economy in 2011, including spending by both active and passive sport tourists. VisitBritain further acknowledges that live sports events play an important role in attracting tourists to the country. In that same year, 1.3 million foreign visitors attended a live sports event, spending over £1.1 billion. In Canada, sport tourism is one of the fastest growing tourism industry segments and a significant economic driver. In 2010, sport tourism related spending reached CAD\$3.5 billion, an increase of 8.8% from 2008 (Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2012). General statistics for the contribution of sport tourism to New Zealand's tourism industry could not be found, but it is estimated that in 2011, about 133,000 international visitors came to New Zealand for the Rugby World Cup and spent about NZ\$400-500 million during their stay (Wood, 2014).

Research in the field of sport tourism has developed over the last two to three decades and evolved from research in both sport and tourism as separate fields. Although academic interest in the relationship between sport and tourism began to develop slowly in the 1970s (Bull & Weed, 2009), the concept of sport tourism only started to receive more attention from the early to mid-90s, both in research and in practice (Gibson, 1998a; Hinch & Higham, 2001). Glyptis (1991) was one of the first academics to draw attention to the relationship between sport and tourism and her work was a major contribution to stimulate further research on sport tourism. Nevertheless, it was not until the mid-1990s that in-depth studies (e.g. Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1995) and the first models of the sport tourism concept (Gammon & Robinson, 1997) were published (Hinch & Higham, 2001). Another important early contribution to the development of research in the field was Gibson's (1998a) review

of sport tourism research. Gibson acknowledged the increasing academic interest in the topic and summarised important academic contributions. She found however that at the time, there was still a lack of conceptualisation and theorisation in the study of sport tourism. Furthermore, she critiqued early scholarship on sport tourism, which she felt focused too much on mega events and economic impacts. In the subsequent years, a number of studies have been published addressing this limitation and suggesting sport tourism theories and concepts. Some of these will be reviewed below. Increasing academic attention over the last two decades is also reflected by an increasing number of publications of various types. These include special issues of marketing or sport management journals like the *Journal of Vacation Marketing* (1998) or the *Journal of Sport Management* (2003) and the launch of a sport tourism journal (*Journal of Sport & Tourism*). Furthermore, numerous edited books compiling work on sport tourism (e.g. Gammon & Kurtzman, 2002; Ritchie & Adair, 2004; Higham, 2005; Weed, 2008b) and authored books devoted to the topic (e.g. Standeven & DeKnop, 1999; Higham & Hinch, 2009; Hinch & Higham, 2011) have contributed to research in the field, drawing upon established works in fields such as sports geography (Bale, 2003).

2.3) Typologies and conceptualisations

As indicated above, early insights into sport tourism were based on research in related fields. Hence, Hall (1992) provided an early categorisation of sport tourism by describing three areas of special interest tourism related to sports: sporting events, outdoor activities or adventure tourism, and health and fitness related tourism. In the decade following Hall's work, further typologies were developed and published. Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997) identified five sport tourism categories: sport tourism attractions, sport tourism resorts, sport tourism cruises, sport tourism tours and sport tourism events. Standeven and DeKnop (1999) provide a more complex typology as they differentiate between holiday and non-holiday as well as active and passive sport tourism. Active sport tourism can take the form of a sport activity holiday, when one or multiple types of sport are the main purpose for travel. Alternatively, it can take the form of organised or independent sport activities during the holiday. The two main consumer groups of passive sport tourism are connoisseur observers,

who are characterised by high passive involvement in a particular sport, and casual observers, who watch sport occasionally and incidentally and for whom the fun and enjoyment plays a major role while watching. Therefore, Standeven and DeKnop (1999, p. 12) define sport tourism as “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organized way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality”. This definition has been criticised by Weed (2008b) as merely describing a tourism activity that involves sport.

A very different approach to the categorisation of sport tourism is taken by Gammon and Robinson (1997). They acknowledge that sport can be the primary or secondary motivation for travel, or can even only be an incidental element during the holiday. Consequently, they suggest a differentiation between sport tourism and tourism sport. In the case of sport tourism, active or passive participation in recreational or competitive sport is the prime motivation for travel while the tourism element may serve to enhance the overall experience. In the case of tourism sport, the holiday or the visit of the destination is the prime motivation for travel and active or passive participation in sport only adds to the travel experience or is undertaken incidentally during the holiday. The authors point out that secondary motives for travel are not necessarily inferior but may rather be seen as a source of enrichment of the primary motives and of the overall travel experience.

A typology that is frequently used in sport tourism research is that by Gibson (1998a). It differentiates between active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. Active sport tourists travel to participate in sports whereas event sport tourists travel to watch sports. While these two types of sport tourism are included in other typologies mentioned above, the third type in Gibson’s classification, nostalgia sport tourism, is a new extension. Nostalgia sport tourism involves visiting and paying homage to sports facilities, attractions and destinations, such as sports halls of fame or museums, famous stadia and sports grounds, sports reunions or sports heritage events. Based on this typology, Gibson (1998a, p. 49) defines sport tourism as “leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities”. The type of sport tourism at the focus of this research is event sport tourism. It will be discussed in detail in section 2.4.

Few attempts have been made to conceptualise sport tourism beyond classifications and definitions. Bull and Weed (2009) emphasise that sport tourism is a phenomenon that is “related to but more than the sum of sport and tourism” (p.63) by describing it as the interaction of people, place and activity. Hinch and Higham (2011) define sport as a tourist attraction by applying Leiper’s (1990) tourist attraction theory. According to this theory, a tourist attraction consists of three elements: a human element, a central or nucleus element, and an informative element, which is also called a marker. The nucleus is the site or attraction that is visited and that is central to the tourist experience. In the case of a sport tourist attraction, this could be a sporting activity, sports event or a sports venue. The nucleus can be a primary, secondary or tertiary attraction, depending on its importance for the tourist and its power to influence the tourist’s travel decision. The human element could be the sport tourist, being a person who travels away from home and whose behaviour is motivated by sport and sport-related factors. The third element, the marker, is any item of information about the attraction constituting the nucleus, for example a sport-specific advertisement or a broadcast about the host destination of a sports event (Hinch & Higham, 2011).

An alternative conceptualisation of sport tourism is also presented by Hinch and Higham (2001, 2011). It is based on three key dimensions defining both sport and tourism: spatial, temporal and motivational. In sport tourism, sport can take the place of the motivational dimension as the purpose for travel. Therefore, their framework for sport tourism research includes a sport dimension, a temporal dimension and a spatial dimension (see Figure 2.1). The themes in each dimension can provide guidance for research and are based on theories and existing contributions to the field. Nevertheless, they are not definite and can be modified depending on the research topic. In this framework, sport is considered the nucleus of the tourist attraction, but each sport has its own characteristics with regard to rules, physical competition and playfulness. When discussing the temporal dimension of sport tourism, the trip duration, tourism and sport seasonality and the evolution of destinations or products over time are themes that the researcher may want to consider. Spatial dimensions include location, region and landscape, each of these based on theories found to be influential in sport tourism research (e.g. Bale, 2003). The framework and its dimensions are presented and explained in depth in Hinch and Higham’s book *Sport tourism development* (2011).

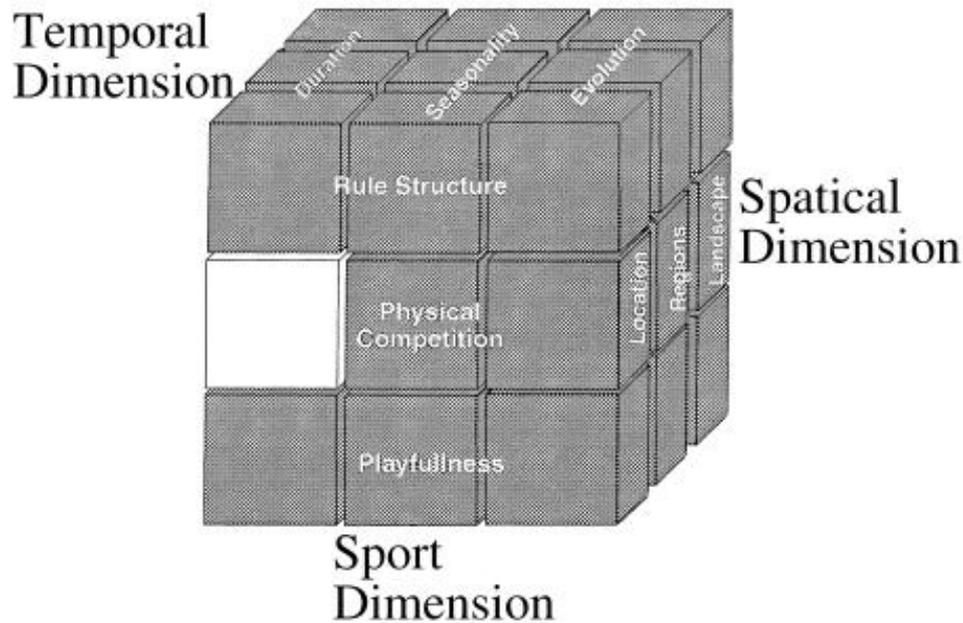


Figure 2.1: Framework for sport tourism research (Higham & Hinch, 2001)

2.4) Event sport tourism

Depending on the type of sport, the setting, the research focus and many other factors, a number of types of sports events can be identified and typologies seem to be a common way to classify them. Consequently, several multi-dimensional typologies have been provided in the literature. Some typologies distinguish between indoor and outdoor, and public and private sports events (e.g. Graham, Delpy-Neirotti, & Goldblatt, 2001). These two dimensions can be narrowed further by differentiating between the type of venue for indoor events or between land-based and water-based for outdoor events (Getz, 2005). Another approach includes the format of the sports event, such as regularly scheduled games, championships or competitions (e.g. in a league), one-off events, sport festivals or multisport events (Getz, 2005). Downward, Dawson, and Dejonghe (2009) developed a typology of sports events with 6 dimensions classifying sports events based on their frequency (sporadic vs. regular), format (single vs. multi-sport), level of competition (e.g. international, national, regional), ownership (private vs. official sporting organisation), location and assignment (returning to the same location vs. rotating and requiring bids), and economic impact. The latter is based on factors like attendance numbers, sponsorship or media coverage. According to this typology, the Rugby League sports event at the focus of

this study is a regular single sport event at the international level that takes place in rotating locations (New Zealand Rugby League, n.d.). The event will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5 (section 5.2).

From a different perspective, Hinch and Higham (2011) differentiate between elite and non-elite sports events based on the participant-spectator ratio. Although there are exceptions, elite events usually attract a small number of elite athletes and a large number of spectators, whereas non-elite events attract high numbers of athletes and fewer spectators. This ratio can also vary with the type of sport. Cricket or golf events typically attract more spectators than competitors and can therefore be classified as spectator-driven events. On the other end of the continuum are competitor-driven events such as swimming or badminton, which usually attract more competitors than spectators (Gratton & Taylor, 2000).

With regard to event sport tourists it is important to note that some researchers consider both participants (active) and spectators (passive) as event sport tourists (e.g. Carmichael & Murphy, 1996; Getz, 2003; Hinch & Higham, 2011). This study however only means passive spectators when referring to event sport tourists, based on Gibson's (1998a) sport tourism typology, which describes event sport tourism as travel to spectate an event. An important differentiation for the purpose of this study is that between spectators who travel to attend the sporting event but are generally not very interested in pre- and post-event activities (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003; Hinch & Higham, 2011) and those who are casual consumers and whose "general interest and match attendance can shift in response to wins and losses, the state of the venue, the appearance of start players and a change in the weather" (Stewart, 2001, p. 17). The latter are therefore more likely to be interested in tourism activities or events offered just before, during, or after the actual sports event, which is also sometimes referred to as flow-on tourism (Taks, Chalip, Green, Kesenne, & Martyn, 2009).

2.5) Chapter conclusion

A review of the development of sport tourism over time has shown that it is not a new phenomenon and that increasing numbers of people in different societies have travelled for

sport for more than two millennia. Surprisingly, academic interest in the relationship between sport and tourism only developed relatively belatedly, evolving from research in sport and tourism as separate fields. The first attempts to conceptualise sport tourism were made in the 1990s (e.g. Hall, 1992; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997; Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). Since then however, academic interest in sport tourism has increased continually, which may be based on its acknowledgement as one of the fastest growing fields in the tourism industry (Gibson, 1998b; Tourism-review.com, 2011). Based on Gibson's (1998a) typology, the main focus of this research lies on event sport tourism, with spectators, being passive event sport tourists, as the primary consumer type. Bundling and leveraging opportunities associated with this category of event sport tourism will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Three: Leveraging and bundling

3.1) Introduction

This chapter addresses the topic at the heart of this study: bundling. It aims to provide an in-depth and critical understanding of the concept of bundling as a leveraging strategy and first reviews the topic from a general perspective, proceeding to a more detailed insight into the most relevant aspects of bundling. Hence, this chapter first discusses leveraging, including its development, key authors contributing to the field and a leveraging model developed by Chalip (2004). Then, bundling is discussed in detail. The second section of the chapter includes definitions of bundling, reviews bundling strategies and compares different understandings in economics, management and marketing literature. Narrowing the topic down even further, the chapter then continues with a review of bundling in a sports event and tourism context, leading to a discussion of possibilities for sport tourism bundles and suggestions for bundle components. This last section of the chapter is crucial for this research as it contributes directly to meeting research objective 1, which aims to determine the most popular bundle components among sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

3.2) Leveraging

According to the Oxford Dictionary, to leverage something means to use it to maximum advantage (Oxford Dictionary Online, 2015a). In business literature, the term refers to strategies to maximise the benefits of an investment or of a particular business opportunity, for example to maximise the return on marketing investments (Slywotzky & Shapiro, 1993). Leveraging also involves identifying existing resources and using them in ways to create maximum value for the customer and maximum revenue for the business (Hamel & Prahalad, 1993). This original notion of leveraging also applies in an event-related context, for example in the case of event sponsorship 'activation' (Smith, 2014). This means that in order to achieve the desired effects and maximum benefits from the sponsor's investment, leveraging strategies like programmes and activities to strengthen the event-sponsorship relationship are required.

A more common understanding of leveraging in an event-related context today is that of strategies and activities around an event that help to maximise its positive impacts and minimise its negative impacts (Chalip, 2004). This understanding is tightly connected with impact studies that look at economic, social, ecological or other impacts of an event on its host destination or community (Ritchie & Adair, 2004; Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005; Ziakas, 2007; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Economic impacts of events have received particularly high attention. Many studies claim that events can enhance the host city's economy, for example by generating employment or an improved destination image (Smith, 2005), increased visitation (Ritchie & Smith, 1991), or general urban development (Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2001). However, several analysts and researchers have also critiqued these economic impact studies for being inaccurate or partial (Black & Pape, 1995) and for being misused for commercial purposes, to justify public subsidy of the event (Porter, 1999), or to generally portray the event in a positive light (Crompton, 1995). It was also found that when events failed to obtain the desired or forecasted positive economic impact, this was often the case because no strategies had been in place to increase economic gains or to retain them in the host destination. Instead, the event was staged with the presumption that economic benefits would occur automatically (Chalip, 2004). Chalip (2000, 2004) argues that these deficiencies can be addressed with leveraging strategies.

Chalip has contributed significantly to a change of perspective in research and practice. It changed from an ex post perspective of impact studies, which evaluate impacts and outcomes after the event has taken place, to an ex ante perspective that is applied in leveraging studies. A much more strategic approach to managing impacts and benefits of events is now taken throughout the industry (Chalip, 2004) and leveraging strategies are developed for most mega events (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). To name a few examples, leveraging strategies were developed and applied for the Olympic Games 2008 (Canadian Tourism Commission, n.d.) and 2012 (Visit Britain, n.d.) and the Rugby World Cup 2011 (Ministry of Business Innovation & Employment, 2012), and the Queensland Government (2013) has already published the leverage strategy for the Commonwealth Games 2018 at the Gold Coast in Australia. The strategy aims to leverage the Commonwealth Games for business and employment opportunities that can strengthen the state's economy, for the promotion of an active and healthy lifestyle leading to a healthy community, and for the

creation of opportunities to celebrate diversity and to promote community pride (Queensland Government, 2014).

Chalip can also be considered one of the key authors in the field of event leveraging as he has authored and co-authored many important studies on the topic. His earlier work focuses on the Olympic Games and their legacy (Chalip, Green, & Vander Velden, 1998) and leveraging efforts and possibilities during the Olympic Games 2000 in Sydney (Chalip, 2000). His subsequent work analysed general sport event leveraging strategies and social leveraging (e.g. Chalip, 2004; Chalip & McGuirly, 2004; Chalip, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Another important contribution by Chalip was the development of a model of event leveraging (see Figure 3.1), which was very influential in the field because it formalises the concept of event leveraging and provides a framework for research.

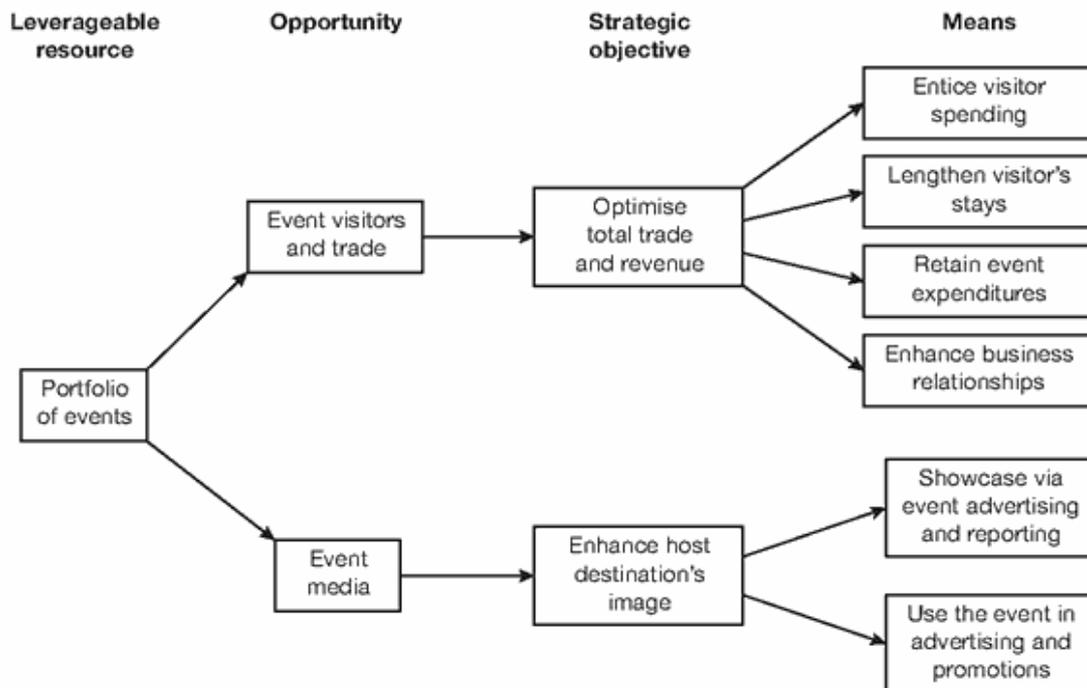


Figure 3.1: Model of event leverage (Chalip, 2004)

The model suggests six leveraging strategies for all types of events. These strategies are based on two strategic objectives. One objective seeks to optimise revenue from event visitors as well as from total trade. This can be achieved by four tactics: First, by enticing visitor spending, for example through advertising, special promotions or theming; second, by lengthening visitor stays, for example through additional event-related activities or

services; third, by retaining event expenditures in the region by using local supply chains, and fourth by enhancing business relationships, for example by developing hospitality programmes for sponsors and involved businesses. The remaining two leveraging strategies evolve around event media because a well-reported event can help to enhance the host destination's image. It is not guaranteed however that hosting an event automatically leads to reports on the host destination. On the contrary, Green, Costa, and Fitzgerald (2003) have shown that without managing and influencing the media, the host destination may receive much less coverage than expected. Therefore, Chalip suggests active strategies, such as providing images or stories with desirable content to the media. Through these measures, not only the event but also the host destination is showcased to those who view the broadcast coverage (Chalip, 2004).

Chalip's model has been tested and applied by several researchers, for example in the context of the Gold Coast Marathon (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004), a surfing event in Australia (O'Brien, 2007) and the Olympic Games (Weed, 2008a). Ziakas (2014) identified another dimension of event leveraging when applying the model to a portfolio of events. He found that event visitors and destination assets can be leveraged in order to optimise the product mix and tourism flows at the destination, for example by offering a range of events that appeal to different target groups, by scheduling some events during the off-season, or by uniting all assets and resources at the destination to optimise their usage. O'Brien and Chalip (2008) take several concepts of event leveraging together and argue that all leveraging strategies should aim to meet a triple bottom line by maximising economic, social and ecological benefits. This takes strategic event leveraging to the next level and gives it a new direction for future research.

When applying leveraging strategies to sports events, researchers identified the practice of bundling as a promising leveraging method (e.g. Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002; Gibson et al., 2003; Chalip, 2004; Chalip & McGuirly, 2004). The following chapter therefore looks at this method in detail.

3.3) Bundling

3.3.1) Background and strategies

Bundling has its origins in the fields of marketing and economics. Based on the English verb 'to bundle', which means to tie up a collection of items into a parcel or package (Oxford Dictionary Online, 2014), bundling is used as a term to describe a strategic marketing method doing exactly that. One of the earliest definitions of bundling by Adams and Yellen (1976) simply describes it as selling goods in packages. Guiltinan (1987) later added the dimension of the price, specifying that the package of two or more products is sold at a single and possibly discounted price. Frequently named examples of bundles include season tickets offered by cultural and sporting organisations, a complete menu at a restaurant, or computer hardware that can only be purchased together with particular software already installed on it (Guiltinan, 1987; Schiffman, Bednall, O'Cass, Paladino, & Kanuk, 2005).

Stremersch and Tellis (2002) conducted a review of bundling literature and identified an inconsistent and confusing use of the term bundling over the years. Some authors treat any product with two or more components that are sold as an aggregated product as a bundle, for example a car with all its assembled parts (Telser, 1979), or a pair of shoes (Salinger, 1995). Hence, Stremersch and Tellis offer a refined definition of bundling, which will also be used as a reference for the discussion of bundling in this study. According to their definition, bundling is "the sale of two or more separate products in one package" and the term product in this definition refers to both goods and services (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002, p. 56). Most importantly, they clarify that *separate products* means that at least some consumers want to purchase the products separately and as a result, there are separate markets for these products. According to this definition, a pair of shoes can therefore not be considered a bundle because there is normally no demand for only a left or a right shoe.

Bundling strategies can be differentiated based on their focus on price (price bundling) or on value creation (product bundling) (Adams & Yellen, 1976; Guiltinan, 1987; Venkatesh & Mahajan, 2009). Price bundling is defined as "the sale of two or more separate products in a package at a discount, without any integration of the product" (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002, p. 56). As in price bundling the products are not integrated, there are no obvious benefits for the consumer from purchasing the bundle instead of buying the products separately.

Therefore, the bundle needs to be offered at a discounted price to motivate purchase. Examples where price bundling is typically applied are six-packs of beverages, a combo meal, or a season ticket.

Product bundling is defined as “the integration and sale of two or more separate products or services at any price” (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002, p. 56). Here, the products are integrated and additional value, such as convenience, interconnectivity or reduced risk, is created for the customer. Thus, there is not necessarily a need for discounting (Harris & Blair, 2006b). If the additional value created through bundling is high enough, the bundle can even be sold at a price higher than the sum of the prices of the included products (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002). An example of product bundling is a gift basket, which saves the busy consumer the time and effort to compile and wrap the products and ensures that the included products go well together. While price bundling is usually applied as a short-term pricing and promotional strategy, product bundling is more of a long-term strategy that may require some preparation, such as research on suitable products to be combined in the bundle or an adaptation of the sales and service delivery process. As product bundling creates additional value, it can lead to a competitive advantage (Venkatesh & Mahajan, 2009).

Another way of differentiating bundling strategies is based on the type of bundle. This can be either mixed or pure. Mixed bundling means that the customer can purchase the bundle either separately or as a bundle, the latter usually being offered at a discounted price. When a pure bundling strategy is applied, the bundled products can only be purchased as part of the bundle and at a set price but cannot be purchased separately (Adams & Yellen, 1976; Guiltinan, 1987; Bojamic & Calantone, 1990). Pure bundling is often referred to as tie-in sales when the customer is unable to purchase one product (the tying product) without also purchasing the other product (the tied product) (Burstein, 1960). This is the case for example when computer hardware can only be purchased together with particular software already installed on it or when one television channel can only be purchased as part of a bundle of channels (Waugh, 2004). Although both terms describe the same strategic sales method, tie-in sales is more frequently used in anti-trust literature (Niels, Jenkins, & Kavanagh, 2011), so this study will refer to pure bundling hereafter.

Literature in economics suggests that bundling strategies are applied either for anticompetitive or for efficiency reasons (Kuhn, Stillman, & Caffarra, 2004). One

anticompetitive reason is price differentiation. For example, it is argued that a monopolist selling two separate products can realise more revenue by selling these as a bundle than by selling them separately. Customers with a strong preference for one of the products for example are more likely to purchase the bundle when the price for the desired product is increased. Furthermore, bundling can be used as a strategy for product differentiation (Carbajo, De Meza, & Seidmann, 1990) or to make market entry unprofitable for potential rivals (Whinston, 1990). Bundling can also lead to efficiencies in production, e.g. through economies of scope by supplying two or more products together, or in consumption, e.g. through transaction cost savings (Kuhn et al., 2004). In line with the discussion of effects of bundling on competition, a considerable amount of economics literature deals with monopoly building and anti-trust laws (e.g. Guiltinan, 1987; Whinston, 1990; Kuhn et al., 2004; Niels et al., 2011). A famous anti-trust case is that of Microsoft, which has been discussed in court for many years after Microsoft was accused of monopolising the market for operating systems and internet browsers. At the heart of the case was the fact that Microsoft had bundled Windows with its browser Internet Explorer (Pian Chang, 2011).

From a management perspective, bundling is also considered one of several leveraging strategies available to a company to gain a competitive advantage (Hamel & Prahalad, 1993), which is achieved when the company can produce greater value and utility for the customer than its competitors (Sirmon, Hitt, & Ireland, 2007). According to the resource-based view of the firm, the possession of rare and valuable resources is the basis for value creation in every company (Barney, 1991). In order to gain a competitive advantage however, effective resource management is required to leverage the resources by accumulating, combining and exploiting them with the goal of maximum value creation for the customer. Bundling is one way of doing this (Hamel & Prahalad, 1993).

In marketing literature, bundling is discussed as a sales strategy and although this is based on economic realities and theories, some of which have been briefly discussed above, research in this field is more practical. Researchers examine for example when to apply which bundling strategy and how to price the bundle and/or the individual products (Guiltinan, 1987; Venkatesh & Mahajan, 2009). One assumption underlying the pricing of bundles is that bundling can transfer consumer surplus from highly valued to less valued products. If a company offers two products, the reservation price for each product, which is the maximum a customer is prepared to pay, may vary. If a customer's reservation price is

higher than the current market price, it is called a consumer surplus. By bundling the two products, it is assumed that the consumer surplus of the highly valued product can be transferred to the less valued one and consequently, the customer is prepared to purchase the bundle and spend more money than he/she would have for a single product. Hence, the company's revenue can be increased (Guiltinan, 1987).

This assumption is based on the leverage theory, which maintains that a monopolist can extend its power from one market to another through pure bundling (Seidmann, 1991). Consequently, from a marketing perspective, bundling can make the selling process more productive because more products can be sold to the same customer – sometimes even more than the customer initially wanted to buy. The cost for retaining current and attracting new customers can be reduced. This can improve the return on marketing investment and also lead to a competitive advantage (Waugh, 2004). More recent literature also considers the perception and implications of bundling by and for the consumer, finding that the act of bundling may create both benefits and costs for the consumer (Harris & Blair, 2006b). These include reduced search and assembly efforts (Guiltinan, 1987) and convenience (Naylor & Frank, 2001; Yu, 2010), but also reduced freedom of choice during the decision making process (Kinberg & Sudit, 1979). These benefits and costs will be discussed in detail in section 4.3.

Due to developments in technology and retail, new aspects of bundling have emerged, such as bundling of e-products and online competition (Bakos & Brynjolfsson, 2000). Interestingly, there is also not only a trend towards bundling, but for some products the opposite is the case: a trend towards unbundling (Venkatesh & Mahajan, 2009). In the music industry for example, songs can now increasingly be purchased individually as opposed to only as part of an album.

3.3.2) Bundling in the sports event industry

In the sports event industry, bundling is commonly applied as a pricing and sales strategy to maximise the number of and revenue from ticket sales to sports events (e.g. Solberg, 2001; Winfree & Rosentraub, 2012; Yakici, Özener, & Duran, 2014). A typical example are season passes, when the tickets to all or most games of a particular team during one season are bundled together and sold at one price. Variations are weekend passes, pre-season passes,

or passes for all games against a particular opponent. Depending on variables like the type of sport, the league and quality of the game, the time of the matches or demand for matches throughout the season, there are plenty of options for marketers to bundle several tickets (Solberg, 2001). During the ticket sales period of the Rugby World Cup 2011, tickets were sold in 'Venue Pool Packs' (tickets to all pool matches at a venue) or in 'Team Pool Packs' (tickets to all pool matches of a chosen team). These were made available before individual tickets went on sale (Nordqvist, 2010; New Zealand Tourism Guide, 2014).

As in the case of commodity goods, two different bundling strategies can be applied to the sale of sports event tickets: pure bundling and mixed bundling (see section 3.2.1). Mixed bundling is applied if tickets of the same type can be purchased both individually and as part of a bundled pass (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). In some situations however, for example when a particular team or game is very popular, marketers may decide to apply a pure bundling strategy and sell all tickets in one seating category only as part of a bundle (Blair, 2012). Pure bundling is most effective when there is a high discrepancy in value perception among fans between the games included in the bundle. If their reservation price for one game is very high but for the other one much lower, the sports team or event organiser can maximise their revenue by bundling and selling these together (Winfree & Rosentraub, 2012; Yakici et al., 2014). For the Rugby World Cup 2011 for example, tickets to the semi-final and final were only available to those who had also purchased or applied for a ticket to one of the other matches of the tournament (New Zealand Tourism Guide, 2014). It can be assumed that this had several benefits. Since the semi-final and final of such a tournament usually are the most popular matches and hence the reservation price for those is much higher than for pool games, the pure bundling method can spread the demand and increase total revenue. It also guarantees that fans purchase tickets to the earlier games instead of for the final or semi-final only. The pure bundling strategy may also have served as a means to retain international visitors at the host destination for longer.

This shows that the decision as to which strategy to choose depends on multiple factors, including the consumer's reservation price and consumer surplus (Guiltinan, 1987) as well as sport and event specific factors. Solberg (2001), whose paper is one of the seminal works in this area and compares the economic benefits of different bundling strategies, suggests that mixed bundling is generally the optimal and most profitable strategy. He argues that the

difficulty with pure bundling is that in order to choose the optimal price for the bundle and therefore to maximise revenue, the consumer's reservation price needs to be known.

Other types of bundles that are frequently offered for sports events combine a ticket to the event with a drink or meal at the stadium, a merchandise product, free parking, a programme or game statistics report, or even with a unique experience for the fan like the opportunity to meet a current or former player in person (Getz, 2005; Freed, 2010; Winfree & Rosentraub, 2012). 'All-you-can-eat' tickets at baseball stadia in Los Angeles and Atlanta for example offer match tickets bundled with concession and have been recognised as a successful method to increase the revenue of the respective sports teams or franchises (Freed, 2010; Winfree & Rosentraub, 2012). Corporate hospitality packages are essentially product bundles as well, commonly including a match ticket, access to a special area such as a lounge or corporate box and meals and drinks throughout the night (Experience Group, 2014).

3.3.3) Bundling in the tourism industry

In tourism, bundling has also been a common practice for a long time (Bojamic & Calantone, 1990; Naylor & Frank, 2001). The most common form of bundling in tourism is that of package tours (Hudson, 2008; McKercher & du Cros, 2012). Sometimes also referred to as all-inclusive tours or package holidays, they are a pre-arranged combination of at least two tourism services that are sold as a single product at an inclusive price (Evans, Campbell, & Stonehouse, 2003; Kolb, 2006; Pearce, 2008). Typical tourism services included in package tours are transport to/from a tourist destination, activities or events at the destination, such as a visit of a tourist attraction, accommodation, and restaurant services (Evans et al., 2003; Mak, 2004; Pearce, 2008). In addition to those, Getz (2005) names shopping as a frequently included element. He also points out that transport can be of varying importance. In some package tours, it is a crucial part of the experience, for example in bus tours, whereas other package tours require the tourist to arrange their own transport.

When designing a tourism bundle or package tour, the required products and services need to be selected from a range of suppliers, individual prices need to be negotiated and all elements coordinated to create a smooth travel itinerary. This process requires destination

and supplier specific knowledge and becomes more complex the more services and destinations are included (Pearce, 2008). Therefore, tour operators have specialised in this task. They bundle the product and either sell it directly to the tourist or collaborate with intermediaries like travel agencies, ticketing agencies or destination management companies (Getz, 2005; Dwyer, Forsyth, & Dwyer, 2010). Due to the purchase of bundle components in bulk, discounts can be negotiated with the suppliers and the bundles can be offered to the traveller at a discounted price, providing a cost advantage to both the consumer and the provider (Mak, 2004; Hudson, 2008). This does not mean however that package tours can only be bundled by tour operators. On the contrary, the number and type of providers is growing, including travel agencies, destination management organisations, individual tourist attraction or service providers (Kolb, 2006), carriers (e.g. airlines), event organisers or sport teams, and many more (Getz, 2003). Tourism Australia (2008) describes several best practice examples where multiple tourism businesses collaborate in order to create a bundle of complementary products and services and to market it together to the tourist.

The earliest well-known example of a package tour is that of the European Grand Tour undertaken by wealthy young men from around the mid-16th century through to the 19th century. They travelled through Europe following specific itineraries for the purpose of studying arts and sports (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). The first commercially organised package tour was organised by Thomas Cook in 1841, and from the 1880s or 1890s, both Cook and the entrepreneur Henry Lunn offered overseas package tours on a large scale (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999; Page, 2011). Today, the nature, inclusivity and price of package tours can vary significantly and range from very basic tours only including airfare and accommodation to tours where every detail is planned, following a tight schedule (Mak, 2004). Packages offered in tourist resorts or on cruise ships are often all-inclusive, meaning that all the services and products the tourist usually wants and needs during the holiday, for example meals, drinks and entertainment, are included in the bundle price (Getz, 2005). This is a typical example of pure bundling in tourism. When a mixed bundling strategy is applied, the tourist has the choice between a pre-bundled package tour and a range of elements and services that can be booked individually. The latter is usually preferred by independent travellers (Pearce, 2008). A third alternative, which is typical for the tourism

industry, is a method called dynamic packaging. This option allows tourists to build their bundle themselves by choosing which elements should be included in their holiday (Dwyer et al., 2010). In this case, there is usually a core product, which can be bundled with a variety of additional products and services (Kolb, 2006).

The benefits of bundling for the tourism destination or the sports event organiser can be numerous. It can encourage tourism to the destination (Kolb, 2006), build event attendance and increase the market share (Getz, 2005). As a result, general revenue for tourism and non-tourism related businesses can be generated and return on investment for sponsors can be increased. They can also be used strategically to increase the length of stay of tourists at the destination (Green, 2001; Chalip & McGuirly, 2004; Kolb, 2006). Depending on the type of event and type of bundle, either a broader target market or more specific high-yield market segments can be attracted, both during the peak season and during the off-season, which may reduce seasonality (Kolb, 2006). Furthermore, attractive bundles can help the destination to differentiate its offerings from those of other destinations and increase general destination competitiveness (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005; Ziakas, 2007). In some cases bundles can generate awareness of products or services at the destination that the tourist may otherwise not have known about (Gibson et al., 2003) or increase the awareness of less well known products (Kolb, 2006). The popularity of one attraction or tourist activity can therefore be leveraged by bundling it with another one, which may be less popular or well known (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005). All in all, bundling can be a solution to the challenge to “incorporate events more strategically into the host destination’s overall mix of tourism products and services” (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004, p. 267). The next section will elaborate on this by discussing possibilities for creating sport tourism bundles.

3.4) Sport tourism bundles

In the previous sections, bundling in sport and tourism have been discussed respectively. Bundling however can not only be applied within fields but also across fields, for example by bundling sport and tourism products. This kind of bundle is hereafter referred to as a sport tourism bundle. Depending on their components, some holiday packages can be considered

sport tourism bundles, for example in the case of a ski holiday package including transport to the ski field, accommodation, a lift pass and lessons (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005). There is generally a vast number of possibilities to combine sport and tourism products. For the purposes of this study however, the following section will only discuss sport tourism bundles in which the sport product is a sports event. Furthermore, this research will focus on activities and events as product types to be bundled with a sports events because including all potential product types (i.e. including transport and accommodation) would have exceeded the scope of this study.

Researchers in various fields have supported the development of sport tourism bundles for more than a decade and called for increased cooperation between destination marketers and sports event organisers. Pennington-Grey and Holdnak (2002) explain for example that sports events are often insular, meaning that spectators come to the destination to attend the sports event and leave again soon after. They spend little time at the destination outside the event venue and therefore generate little revenue for local businesses. In the case of the Gatornationals, a drag race in Florida, 50% of surveyed spectators did not spend time in the host city before or after the event. Gibson et al. (2003) add that especially when the sports event is the primary motivation for the visit and attractions and activities at the host destination are not promoted actively, spectators may not consider including those in their itineraries. One reason for this may be that they are unaware of what attractions and activities the destination offers. Leveraging strategies like bundling the sports event with activities and attractions at the host destination can help to solve this problem (Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002; Gibson et al., 2003).

Ritchie et al. (2002) profiled sport tourists attending a Super 12 Rugby Union match in Australia, examining their sporting and travel behaviour. They point out that some spectators do visit attractions or participate in activities while at the host destination, but that there is a lot of potential to increase numbers. One third of the sample of 243 spectators did not stay at the host destination overnight. Furthermore, 41% of that group did not visit any attractions or participate in any activities at all even though a significant number visited the destination for the first or second time (30% and 19%). Hence, there is a lot of leveraging potential and again, bundles can be used to make these spectators stay at the destination for longer. The authors suggest bundles of tickets to the game with accommodation or with a tour at the destination.

Yu (2010) studied the factors that motivate international fans to travel to the United States to attend a sports event and found that one of the key factors was the ease of making travel arrangements. Although fans were generally very interested in tourist activities before or after the sports event, a lack of awareness of options as well as search efforts were hindering factors. Yu therefore also recommends the provision of attractive sport tourism bundles along with sufficient information about the event and the host destination. Again, this is facilitated by a cooperation between sports organisations and tourist agencies.

Some researchers take the topic one step further and, in addition to supporting bundling as a leveraging strategy, make more practical suggestions as to which components are the most suitable to be bundled with a sports event. An overview of suggestions made in literature is presented in Table 3.1. When Chalip (2004) applied his leveraging model (see Figure 3.1) to sports events, he suggested bundling the sports event with pre- or post-event tours and activities at the host destination in order to lengthen visitor stays. He names parties, festivals or shows, such as trade shows, live music events, arts events and events related to the sport of the main event as potential bundle components. In the case of the Preakness, a horse race in Australia where additional events and activities take place in the week preceding the main race, this strategy has successfully increased total event attendance and length of visitor stays (Chalip, 2004; Maryland Jockey Club, 2015). Chalip adds that for destination-related tours or activities, generally all of the destination's amenities can be used as potential complements to the sports event because sightseeing is generally rated highly by tourists (Dellaert, Borgers, & Timmermans, 1995). All these options serve as opportunities for like-minded people to spend time together and can entice visitor spending and lead to longer stays at the host destination (Chalip, 2004).

The work of Chalip and McGuirty (2004) is especially relevant for this study since it assesses the opportunity of bundling a sports event (the Gold Coast Marathon) with tourist attractions at the host destination and evaluates the perception of various bundles among participants. Based on their findings, they suggest bundling sports events with visits to attractions specific to the host destination, such as heritage sights, iconic architecture or displayed local achievements, distinctive natural attractions, theme parks, or nightlife. The prospect of seeing iconic or special attractions can not only attract tourists but can also

entice them to stay at the destination for longer (Swarbrooke, 2002). Visits can be arranged as private or group trips to individual attractions, or in form of organised sightseeing tours.

Table 3.1: Suggested sport tourism bundle components and their benefits for sport tourists

Author(s)	General suggestions for bundle components	Specific examples	Benefits for sport tourists
Chalip (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •pre-/post event activities •tours/activities/visits to attractions at the host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •party, festival, show (e.g. trade show, live music event, arts event) •additional event related to the sport of the main event •sightseeing tour •visits to any attraction at the host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opportunity for like-minded people to socialise and get to know the host destination •lengthened event period
Chalip & McGuirly (2004):	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •visit of destination-specific attractions •activity at host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sightseeing tour •(organised) visits of destination-specific attractions (e.g. heritage sights, iconic architecture, local achievements, distinctive natural attractions) •opportunity to participate in local nightlife •visits of theme parks •active sporting package •coaching clinic •event party (e.g. official event party, concert) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •enjoy the atmosphere •have fun with friends •celebrate with like-minded people/members of the subculture •strengthen skills and knowledge •lengthened event period
Chalip (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •event-related or ancillary events 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •participatory sports event •concert •parades •pub crawl •arts events (based on Garcia, 2001) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •increase emotions among spectators, e.g. energy, excitement, heightened sense of community •heighten 'feel good character' of event •increase sense of celebration and fun •enable social interaction and camaraderie •possibility to meet people
Green (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •formal social events •informal opportunities to socialise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •fan fest •concert •sport-related additional events •any opportunity for social interaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •provide opportunities, space and time to celebrate the subculture and related identity → reinforce and nurture values of the subculture •opportunity to celebrate in general •fun and excitement

Continued over page

Table 3.1 continued

Author(s)	General suggestions for bundle components	Specific examples	Benefits for sport tourists
O'Brien (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •activities and events before, during and after the main sports event 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opening and closing ceremony •concert •sport-related auction •coaching clinic •sport or destination-related movie screenings •speeches by athletes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •lengthened event period •added social and cultural value •celebration of the sport's subculture
Weed (2008a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sport-related activities •accommodation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •pre-or post-event tours •'learn-to-play' courses •bundles of tickets + accommodation •big screen festivals 	-
Garcia (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •arts and cultural activities (ideally related to the sport of the event) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •exhibitions of sport-inspired + sport-related artwork •cultural performances (e.g. dance, music, traditional clothing or practices) •arts contest for kids •concert •theatre performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •enhance the sports event experience •opportunities for social interaction, subjective valuation and personal identification •combine entertainment + pedagogic aspects •showcase human skill and excellence
Taks et al. (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •suitable bundle component depends on type of event and visitor profile (identity, type, travel motive) 	<p>General tourist activities that can be included in bundles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •visits of museums/galleries •sightseeing tour •visits of historical sights •visits of parks & gardens •recreational activities •shopping •dining, nightlife & gaming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •socialising •escape •learn about the sport event •learn about the host destination
Kim & Chalip (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opportunity to learn about the host destination and its culture 	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •learn about the destination •enjoy + enhance festive atmosphere
Kim & Chalip (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •activity related to the sport that is primary motivation for travel •activity that can be associated with the destination •tourist activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sports-related competition •master classes •outdoor experience •city tour •organised visits of attractions 	-

Furthermore, Chalip and McGuirly (2004) test the attractiveness of an active sporting package, in which entry to the marathon is bundled with one or several sport activities at the host destination, such as fishing, golf or mountain biking. Depending on the sport, this could also involve a coaching clinic. Although this is based on the assumption that participants of a sports event like a marathon value an active lifestyle in general, this might also appeal to passive sports event spectators who are otherwise physically active. Official event parties before or after the event can also be bundled with the main event. Chalip and McGuirly further suggest shopping as a component for sport tourism bundles, which could be included as a longer stop in a popular shopping area as part of a tour. At the same time, they exclude the beach as a potential attraction to be bundled with sports events because it is not necessarily destination-specific and usually available to anyone without any added cost or organisational effort. This could however be treated similar to shopping as free time at the beach.

By bundling one or several of these components with the main sports event, the length of the overall event as well as of visitor stays can be increased. Visitors – both participants and their companionship – have opportunities to enjoy the atmosphere and to have fun with friends and family. They can socialise with like-minded people and celebrate their subculture (see Green, 2001). In some cases they can even strengthen their knowledge about the host destination or enhance their practical skills (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004).

More ideas for sport tourism bundle components can be gathered from other leveraging studies, for example from Chalip's (2006) concept of social leveraging of events. Sports events have the power to create a variety of emotions among individual spectators and the community in general, such as energy and excitement. They have a 'feel good character' and can create a heightened sense of community, social camaraderie and celebration. Chalip (2006) argues that these emotions can be leveraged for maximum social impacts of the event on the host destination. By providing opportunities for informal interaction between event attendants or by organising additional and event-related social events or activities and bundling these with the core event, social interaction and the general sense of celebration can be fostered. Examples of suitable events or activities are concerts, parades, pub crawls, arts events and social activities like participatory sports events.

This is related to the notion of the importance of subculture as a motive for sport event attendance. A subculture can be understood as values, beliefs and symbolic expressions shared by a group of people (Green, 2001). Green and Chalip (1998) analysed participants' motivation to travel to a women's flag football tournament in the United States. They found that the opportunity to celebrate their identity as football players and their related subculture was not only a key motive to participate but also to return to the tournament in subsequent years. Green's (2001) research confirmed the importance of subculture for active and passive sports event attendance. When discussing the implications of these findings for event marketing and management, she suggests that the motive to celebrate subculture and personal identification with the subculture can be leveraged and incorporated in sport event marketing strategies. It should for example be considered when creating ancillary events and activities as these should provide opportunities, space and time to celebrate the subculture and related identity. Fan fests, concerts and sport-related additional events are recommended and can easily be included in sport tourism bundles.

O'Brien (2007) applies Chalip's (2004) model to assess leveraging efforts at a regional surfing festival in Australia and found that several suggested tactics for event leveraging had been applied. The period of the event was stretched from two to five days by offering ancillary events like an opening and a closing ceremony, concerts, auctions, coaching workshops, movie screenings, and speeches by athletes. The analysis revealed that by staging these additional events and activities and by celebrating the sport's subculture and history as suggested by Green (2001), the length of visitor stays could be noticeably lengthened and social and cultural value was added to the event. Although in this case, the activities and events were not directly bundled with the event, they constitute possible components for other sports event bundles. The strategy seems to still be successful as the period of the event has now even been stretched to eight days full of activities and events (Noosa Festival of Surfing 2015, 2015).

Weed (2008a) also applies Chalip's model of event leveraging to Olympic tourism. In order to encourage tourism at the host destination beyond event attendance itself he suggests bundling event tickets with accommodation, pre- or post-event tours and event-related activities like learn-how-to-play courses. He further notes that in case of mega events, efforts should be made to spread economic impacts by creating bundles that encourage

event attendants to visit the rest of the host country. Examples are organised tours and big screen festivals for public viewing throughout the country.

Another component that can be bundled with sports events are cultural activities and arts. These include exhibitions of sport-inspired and sport-related artwork, cultural performances of dance, music, traditional clothes and traditional practices, arts contests for kids, concerts and theatre performances. Arts and sports experiences have got many factors in common, including their international appeal, the combination of entertaining and pedagogic aspects and the ability to showcase skills and human excellence. Arts and cultural programmes also provide opportunities for social interaction, subjective valuation and personal identification, all of which are considered to be part of the sporting event experience. By including arts and cultural programmes into a bundle, the appeal of sports events can be increased and the sporting experience enhanced (Garcia, 2001).

Taks, Chalip, Green, Kesenne, and Martyn (2009) studied the ability of a one-off medium-sized sports event to stimulate flow-on tourism, which is “tourism activity beyond the event but around the time of the event” (p.121), with the goal of contributing to leveraging strategies. They found that for sufficient leverage of small and medium sized one-time events, an active integration of event and destination experiences is required. Moreover, they suggest that a number of variables should be considered in leveraging strategies like bundling. These include the identity of the sports event attendant (e.g. local, non-local, first-time visitor, repeat visitor), the type of visitor (e.g. alone, group, family, as an accompanying person), and the motive for visiting the destination. As opposed to mega events, which are often the main motivation to visit the host destination, the motives of attendants of smaller events are much more diverse and the sports event can be the primary or the secondary motive for travel (Robinson & Gammon, 2004).

The four main motives that could be identified in Taks et al.'s (2009) study were socialising, escape, learning about the sport practised at the main event and learning about the host destination. Accordingly, event attendants whose main motive was to learn about the sport or the tourist destination participated mainly in tourist activities like sightseeing tours, visiting historical sights, museums and galleries, and recreational activities. Repeat visitors to the destination engaged less in the activities named above and more in dining, shopping, visits of parks and gardens and nightlife and gaming. Furthermore, it was found that visitors

who had looked at information about the host destination previous to their trip were more likely to participate in tourism activities during their stay. Consequently, the authors recommend making information about the destination easily available and accessible.

Kim and Chalip (2004) also found that an interest in and a desire to learn about the host destination and its culture was a highly important motive for overseas sports tourists to travel to the 2002 FIFA World Cup in South Korea and Japan. The anticipation of the festive atmosphere at the destination also played an important role. They suggest that these findings should be incorporated in leveraging strategies and when creating bundles. In a later study (Kim & Chalip, 2010), they showed that not only sports events but even a destination's association with a sport can be leveraged for the promotion of a tourism destination. In that study they tested the preferences of North American Tae Kwon Do practitioners for eight tours and activities in South Korea that were related to the sport of Tae Kwon Do, such as Tae Kwon Do competitions and master classes. Furthermore, they tested preferences for various packages including tourist activities like outdoor experiences, city tours, and organised visits of attractions. It showed that activities that were directly related to the sport of Tae Kwon Do and its cultural origins in South Korea were ranked higher than tourist activities unrelated to the sport. Nevertheless, opportunities to engage in other outdoor physical activities as well as to visit attractions at the destination were highly valued among some tourists. Their findings support Green's (2001) theory of the importance of the subculture for flow-on tourism and the leveraging of sports to promote a tourism destination. As preferences vary between different segments of tourists however, Kim and Chalip also stress the importance of considering background characteristics such as age, skill and involvement the sport. Consequently, they suggest to include a variety of tours and activities in sport tourism bundles (Kim & Chalip, 2010).

In addition to sport tourism literature, practical examples of sport tourism bundles provide an insight into what can be bundled with a sports event. Allblackstours.com for example is a tour operator that sells various packages including All Blacks games all around the world as the sports event component. It also offers packages for the Rugby World Cup 2015. Typical bundles offered by this tour operator include a match ticket linked with flights to the host destination or accommodation at the destination. Other bundles include welcome functions for members of the travel group or official All Blacks supporter functions. Frequently,

organised sightseeing tours or passes for city tour buses are also included in their packages (Allblackstours.com, n.d.). Another New Zealand example were sport tourism bundles offered by ICC Travel, the official travel agency for the Cricket World Cup 2015. Bundles offered by this agency included tickets to Cricket World Cup games in Australia or New Zealand as well as transport, accommodation, and city travel passes. The latter usually consisted of passes which facilitated public transport in bigger cities and could also be used for sightseeing tours (ICC Travel, 2012).

Overseas travel operators seem to bundle a greater variety of products and services with sports events. Thomas Cook Sport for example offers the Manchester United Dream Break (Thomas Cook Sport, n.d.), which is also advertised on the official website of the English football club (Manchester United Ltd, 2015). The basic version of this package or sport tourism bundle includes a match ticket and accommodation with breakfast, but can be augmented with a stadium tour at Old Trafford, a Manchester museum tour and visits of local attractions. In the United States, sport tourism bundles are commonly created around baseball or football games. Sports Traveler (2015) is one of the United States' leading sport tourism agencies offering sport tourism bundles for all major sports and sports events. Examples of bundle components included in packages besides accommodation and transport, are pre-game dinners with entertainment, pre-game parties, and appearances of former or current players with opportunities for autograph signing and photos.

The applied literature in the field of sport tourism bundles informed the design and content of the questionnaire for this research project (see Chapter 5, section 5.3.2).

3.5) Chapter conclusion

Bundling is a leveraging strategy that refers to selling two or several separate products as one package (Stremersch & Tellis, 2002). It can occur in the form of price or product bundling or of mixed or pure bundling. It has been strategically applied in the sports event and tourism industry and can lead to a great variety of positive outcomes. These include increased numbers of tourists or event attendants, increased revenue, awareness of the destination or particular events or attractions, reduced seasonality and improved competitiveness. With regard to sport tourism, bundling can be considered a solution to the challenge to “incorporate events more strategically into the host destination’s overall mix of

tourism products and services” (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004, p. 267) and several authors have called for an increased cooperation between destination marketers and sports event organisers and for the creation of sport tourism bundles (e.g. Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002; Ritchie et al., 2002; Yu, 2010). Opportunities and possibilities of creating sport tourism bundles are manifold and suggestions in the literature of products and services that can be bundled with sports events have been collated and presented in Table 3.1. The findings of the literature review in this chapter, particularly the summary of potential components for sport tourism bundles in Table 3.1, are crucial for the research conducted in this study and will be advanced in the next chapter (see Table 4.1) and included in the quantitative research (see Chapter 5.3.2).

The next chapter will now address consumer value, the second main concept in this research.

Chapter Four: Consumer value

4.1) Introduction

The preceding chapter identified events and activities that could be bundled with a sports event in order to create sport tourism bundles. Creating bundles is only one step however. In order to successfully sell the bundle, it also needs to be of value to the consumer. The next step is therefore to understand what is valued by the target market so that the right bundles with the right components can be created and marketed (McCarville & Stinson, 2014). The concept of consumer value offers a useful theoretical framework to gain this understanding and will be discussed in this chapter. After briefly reviewing the origins and key terminology of consumer value, the chapter will move on to explain its special role with regard to bundling. Subsequently, a number of frameworks and conceptualisations of consumer value are presented, concluding with the framework suggested by Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991), which is adopted and applied in this study. The last section of this chapter will consider potential components for sports event bundles, as informed by the consumer value framework presented in this chapter and the conclusions arising from Chapter 3. This chapter will contribute to meeting research objectives 2 and 3, which seek to determine the most salient consumer values for sport tourists and their link to the choice of bundle components, by providing the theoretical background on consumer value.

4.2) Origins and meaning of consumer value

With increasingly demanding customers and more competition in the market, it has become more and more important for companies to find ways to differentiate their products from those of competitors (Peteraf, 1993; Woodruff, 1997). In the 1980s, quality management became a popular strategy to gain a competitive advantage by improving both the quality of the products and the company's internal processes (Leonard & Sasser, 1982). Although quality management led to performance improvements, it was soon realised that the customer's perceptions also need to be taken into account, and the concept of customer satisfaction management emerged (Dutka, 1994). Goals and strategies were set and

customer satisfaction was measured, but then another problem was noticed: even though some customers indicated that they were satisfied with the product and the company's performance, they were still lost to the competitor (Woodruff, 1997). As a result, attempts were made to better understand the customer's perception of a product's value as an explanation for why customers buy what they buy, and to develop ways to measure this value perception (Sheth et al., 1991; Butz & Goodstein, 1996). Hence, the concept of consumer value emerged.

Depending on the context, the term value has varying meanings. Sometimes, values (usually in plural) refer to a person's desirable life goals (Widing, Sheth, Pulendran, Mittal, & Newman, 2003), beliefs and understanding of right and wrong (Woodruff, 1997). In an economic context, the term usually stands for the monetary worth of a good or, in case of a service, for its worth in relation to the price paid (Oxford Dictionary Online, 2015b). The term consumer value can also be understood in two different ways. From the perspective of a company, consumer value describes the economic value of the consumer to the company (Woodruff, 1997; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The more common understanding of consumer value however, and the one applied in this study, is that from a consumer perspective, describing the consumer's perception of the value of a product or service (Widing et al., 2003). In the literature, a number of terms are used to describe this phenomenon, including customer value (Woodruff, 1997; Holbrook, 1999; Oh, 1999), market value (Widing et al., 2003), and consumption value (Sheth et al., 1991). For clarity purposes, this study will hereafter only use the term consumer value, even when referring to findings from the above authors.

Zeithaml (1988) defines consumer value as the "consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (p.14). This definition indicates that consumer value is usually the result of some sort of trade-off. Schiffman, Bednall, O'Cass, Paladino, & Kanuk (2005) detail this trade-off by describing consumer value as "the ratio between the customer's perceived benefits (economic, functional and psychological) and the resources (monetary, time, effort and psychological) used to obtain those benefits" (p.23). The perception of these benefits and costs, and consequently the perception of value, varies from person to person (Zeithaml, 1988; Holbrook, 1999) and can be influenced by factors like individual wants and needs, desires,

previous experience, knowledge, and financial resources (Holbrook, 1999; Grönroos, 2011). Moreover, value perception may vary with the product type (Zeithaml, 1988), the time of purchase and the purchase situation (Byon, Zhang, & Baker, 2013), and other products available on the market (Kotler, Armstrong, Wong, & Saunders, 2008). Consumer value is therefore a very complex and dynamic construct (Lereoi-Werelds, Streukens, Brady, & Swinnen, 2014).

4.3) Sources of value of product bundles

It has been found that the perceived consumer value of product bundles and its measurement are significantly different from that of individual products or services (e.g. Gultinan, 1987; Harris & Blair, 2006b; Kolb, 2006; Nguyen, Heeler, & Buff, 2009). When assessing the consumer value of product bundles, two sources of value need to be differentiated. One source of value are the products included in a bundle. This varies with the type of the product bundle (e.g. mixed or pure) and with the individual components included (Yadaf, 1994; Harris & Blair, 2006a, 2006b). The second source of value of product bundles is what Harris and Blair (2006a) call 'the act of bundling' and what refers to the act or service of tying several products into one aggregated product. As Harris and Blair (2006a, p. 507) explain, "[t]he perceived value of a bundle may be influenced by utilities or disutilities created by the act of bundling. That is, bundles as entities may carry costs or benefits for consumers over and above the sum of their parts".

Possible disutilities of bundling include a reduced freedom of choice during the decision-making process (Kinberg & Sudit, 1979) and an increased risk of waste when one or several components of the bundle are not desired or when the consumer fears that he/she may be unable to consume all components (Mak, 2004; Venkatesh & Mahajan, 2009). The value of a package tour for example decreases rapidly if it includes a number of services that the tourist is not interested in but nevertheless pays for as part of the package price. At the same time, it is crucial to communicate very clearly what exactly is included in a bundle and what is not. If the consumer purchases a bundle and then finds it to be incomplete, i.e. when components are missing that were expected to be included, the perceived cost of the bundle may be higher than its benefits (Naylor & Frank, 2001).

One of the major utilities created by the act of bundling are reduced search, assembly and purchase efforts that would be required if choosing and purchasing individual products (Guiltinan, 1987; Monroe, 1990; Naylor & Frank, 2001). This often leads to savings in time and money and simplifies the purchase process greatly (Kolb, 2006). Harris and Blair (2006a) conducted an experiment with stereo equipment, which they describe as a product that is complex and often requires search effort. They report that consumers were likely to choose a product bundle when this reduced their search effort. Naylor and Frank (2001) observed similar behaviour among tourists. They found that vacationers at a health and fitness resort for example preferred all-inclusive service bundles over individual bookings even when the bundle was the more expensive option. Of course, when interpreting the behaviour of tourists, one needs to take into account that tourists usually want to relax while on holidays and may therefore be more prepared to spend more money on convenience. Nevertheless, Naylor and Frank's findings show that psychic savings, i.e. reduced effort or inconvenience, can be more valuable to consumers than monetary savings. Other research also showed that consumers are more likely to purchase bundles when they encounter them early in the decision-making process, so before time and effort is invested into considering the individual options (e.g. Harris & Blair, 2006b).

Another utility or benefit created by the act of bundling is a lower perceived risk of functional incompatibility or insufficient quality of the bundle components, particularly among consumers with a limited product knowledge (Harris, 1997; Harris & Blair, 2006a). It can be assumed that many pure bundling strategies in the consumer goods sector are based on this benefit. In the case of the example of computer hardware that can only be purchased with the software already installed on it (Guiltinan, 1987), the benefits of an already bundled product that requires no specific product knowledge may actually outweigh the potential disutility of decreased flexibility or choice.

It seems like in the tourism industry, the value created for the tourist through the act of bundling can be even greater. This is because bundling can not only reduce search and assembly efforts, especially in the case of package tours and holidays (Mak, 2004; Wong & Kwong, 2004), it can also generate awareness of attractions or activities that the tourist may not have learned about otherwise (Gibson et al., 2003). Moreover, bundles can be customised, combining a range of products or services related to a particular area of

interest or adapted to personal taste and requirements (Kolb, 2006). For Rugby League fans for example, a ticket to a Rugby League game bundled with a meet and greet of a Rugby League player or of a tour of the stadium where the match is played may be of great perceived value. The ability of bundles to reduce the perceived risk of incompatibility or low quality of products is another major benefit of travel packages, especially among international tourists or when the knowledge about the destination is limited (Enoch, 1996). Instead of booking the accommodation, transport or activity at the destination themselves and risking an unpleasant stay or experience, many tourists highly value the expertise, local knowledge and connections of tourism professionals who put the bundle together (Mak, 2004). Purchasing a bundled product also generally guarantees a well-coordinated course of activities and services, allowing for a trouble-free holiday (Yu, 2010).

4.4) Conceptualisation of consumer value

As a result of the complex nature of consumer value, its conceptualisation is no simple task. The earliest attempts were one-dimensional constructs based on the trade-off between quality and price (Dodds & Monroe, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988). It was soon found however, that those constructs are too simple and do not capture the complexity of the phenomenon adequately (Sheth et al., 1991; Woodruff, 1997; Holbrook, 1999). Later, conceptualisations with more dimensions were developed, some of which are described below.

4.4.1) Multi-dimensional conceptualisations

One of the earliest widely accepted multi-dimensional conceptualisations of consumer value is a framework developed by Holbrook (1999). It presents eight different types of consumer value reflecting three key dimensions: extrinsic vs. intrinsic, self-oriented vs. other-oriented, and active vs. reactive. While extrinsic value refers to the functional or utilitarian aspect of a product where consumption helps to accomplish a goal or objective, intrinsic value occurs when the consumption itself is appreciated. As described in the second dimension, consumption may be self-oriented and for one's own sake, in which case value is derived from its personal effect or one's reaction to it. Other-oriented consumption occurs for the sake and the reaction of others and the effect it has on them. Finally, Holbrook differentiates between active consumption, which involves the mental or physical

manipulation of the consumed object or where the product is part of the consumption experience, and reactive consumption, where value is derived from a reaction to the product, for example through admiring or appreciating it. The matrix resulting from these three dimensions includes eight consumer values displayed in Figure 4.1: efficiency, play, excellence, aesthetics, status, ethics, esteem, and spirituality (Holbrook, 1999).

		<i>Extrinsic</i>	<i>Intrinsic</i>
Self-oriented	Active	EFFICIENCY (O/I, Convenience)	PLAY (Fun)
	Reactive	EXCELLENCE (Quality)	AESTHETICS (Beauty)
Other-oriented	Active	STATUS (Success, Impression Management)	ETHICS (Virtue, Justice, Morality)
	Reactive	ESTEEM (Reputation, Materialism, Possessions)	SPIRITUALITY (Faith, Ecstasy, Sacredness, Magic)

Figure 4.1: A typology of consumer value (Holbrook, 1999)

A variation of Holbrook's (1999) conceptualisation is the Experiential Value Scale (EVS) by Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon (2001), which can be used to measure the value of consumption experiences. It is based on the assumption that value is not only derived from the purchased product or service itself, but also from the consumption experience, either during direct usage of the product or service or during its distanced appreciation (Holbrook, 1999; Vargo, Maglio, & Akaka, 2008). Therefore, the EVS only considers those consumer values of Holbrook's matrix that are self-oriented (see Figure 4.1). These include efficiency (renamed in consumer return on investment), play (renamed in playfulness), excellence (renamed in service excellence) and aesthetics (see Figure 4.2). In Mathwick et al.'s (2001) study, the EVS is applied to an online shopping context.

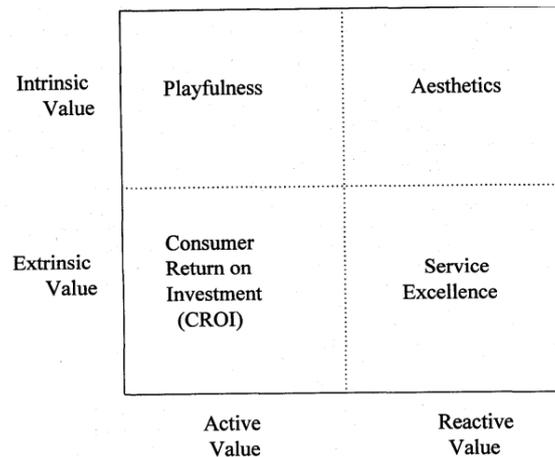


Fig. 1. Typology of experiential value.

Figure 4.2: A typology of experiential value (Mathwick et al., 2001)

Another understanding of consumer value is the capacity of a product or service to satisfy the consumer's needs and wants (Widing et al., 2003). The authors define two value dimensions and nine resulting consumer values, which they call market values. The first dimension defines the consumer's role, for example whether the consumer is the buyer, the payer or the user of the product or service. Depending on the purchase situation, a consumer can hold one, two or even all three of these roles. The second dimension differentiates between universal values, which are values that generally every consumer seeks in a product or service, and personal values, that differ from person to person. While universal values satisfy needs, personal values satisfy wants. For example, while the universal value of a meal at a nice restaurant is that of the satisfaction of hunger and the need for nutrition, for some people it may also satisfy the want for a special treat or for a status symbol. Personal values can then be divided further into group-specific values, which are likely to be sought by a whole group or segment of consumers, and individual-specific values, which may be found in customised or personalised products. As a result, nine different values can be defined (see Figure 4.3). The user of a product (first column) usually wants it to perform as expected, and may purchase it because it conveys a particular social image or satisfies emotions. In addition to a fair price, the payer (second column) may perceive a credit option, for example by paying with a credit card, or a financing option of additional value. And finally, for a consumer in the buyer role (third column), value may be generated by good service, convenience or personalisation during the purchasing process. A product or service usually offers several of these values (Widing et al., 2003).

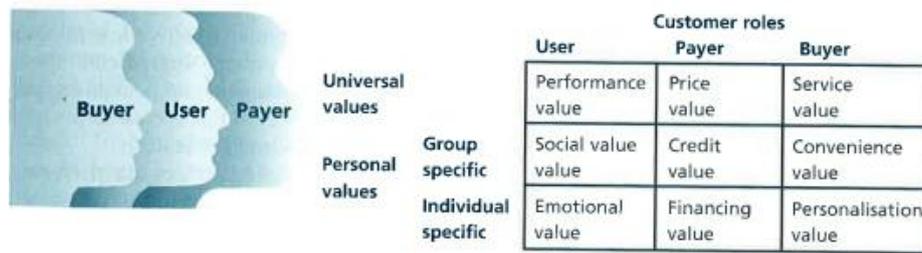


Figure 4.3: Matrix of values and customer roles (Widing et al., 2003)

4.4.2) The conceptualisation by Sheth, Newman, and Gross

In this study, the conceptualisation by Sheth, Newman, & Gross (1991) is used to assess consumer value. According to their theory, there are five consumer values that influence the consumer's consumption choice. These are functional value, social value, epistemic value, emotional value, and conditional value (see Figure 4.4).

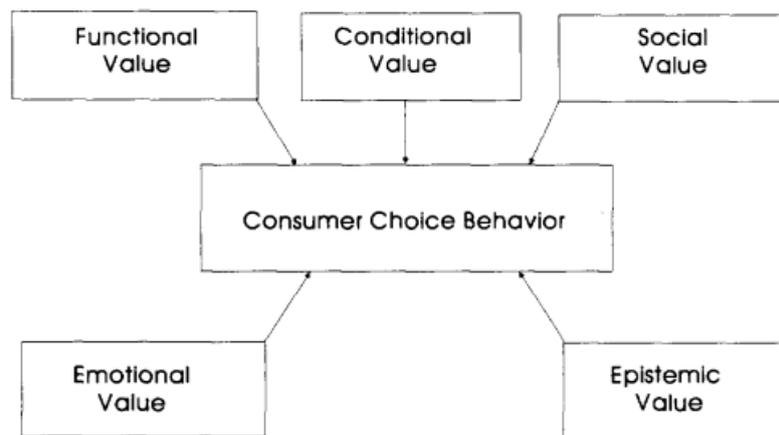


Figure 4.4: The five values influencing consumer choice (Sheth et al., 1991a)

Functional value is based on functional, physical, or utilitarian product attributes, such as performance, durability, reliability, and price. When purchasing a car, attributes like its fuel efficiency or horse power may be of varying functional value to consumers. In the case of a sport tourism bundle including a match ticket and accommodation, functional value may be enhanced if the hotel is within walkable distance to the stadium and therefore no additional transport is required. The influence of functional value on market choice is based on the

utility theory, which argues that the consumer always chooses the alternative with maximum utility (Stigler, 1950; Sheth et al., 1991).

Social value can be acquired through the association of a product or service with one or several social groups, for example with demographic, cultural-ethnic, or socioeconomic groups and their positive or negative stereotypes. Social value is often involved in the choice of a product, activity or location that is shared with others, for example in the case of a recreational activity, or when the product is highly visible and believed to be noticed by a member of a specific social group (Sheth et al., 1991). Often, culture plays an important role because the affiliation with or integration in a social group is more important in some cultures, for example in some Asian cultures, than in others (Nevis, 1983; de Mooij, 2004). Over the last few years, research has also increasingly recognised the importance of social groups with regard to sport consumption. Social values sought by sport consumers can include a sense of identity, for example being a fan of a particular team, a sense of community or a sense of shared achievement (McCarville & Stinson, 2014). When attending a sports event as part of a fan group, an individual chooses to join a social group and the values, norms and consumption habits of the group also affect those of the individual (Holt, 1995; Stewart, Nicholson, & Smith, 2012).

Some consumption choices are based on the ability of a product to arouse desired feelings and emotions like excitement, comfort, passion or fear. In this sense, choice may be based on the emotional value of a product or service. Typical examples of products that offer emotional value are art, music, religion, or products affecting a person's self-image, like cosmetics or clothing. Both sports, especially sports events, and travel can offer a high emotional value to consumers (Widing et al., 2003; Pons, Mourali, & Nyeck, 2006), partly due to their high level of sensual and emotional involvement (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). Epistemic value is perceived when the product or service can arouse curiosity or offer something new or different to the consumer, either through a new product or experience or even just by a change from habits or from what the consumer knows. A sport tourism bundle breaking the usual routine may therefore be purchased for its epistemic value. Furthermore, epistemic value is created by the ability to satisfy the consumer's desire for knowledge. This includes being curious about something new or wanting to learn about an alternative. Guided tours have epistemic value because they can satisfy curiosity and enhance knowledge (Sheth et al., 1991).

Finally, some products and services offer conditional value, which is value based on their utility in a specific situation or context. Seasons, cultural norms and emergency situations may affect the conditional value. For example, there is an increased demand for Christmas cards or skiing gear at certain times of the year, some cultural norms dictate the purchase of a white wedding gown, and in an emergency situation ambulance service is of extraordinary value. An example of a product with a more subtle conditional value is popcorn at the cinema or hot chips at a sports stadium. Conditional value is often combined with one of the other four values if those are enhanced in a specific situation. In an emergency situation for example, functional value is usually of increased importance (Sheth et al., 1991). The same applies in a sport tourism context. For example, when due to the high visitor numbers for an All Blacks test match all accommodation providers are fully booked, the conditional functional value of a sport tourism bundle including accommodation may increase drastically. Similarly, if a trip to New Zealand is a once-in-a-lifetime occasion for an overseas tourist, the desire to see and learn about New Zealand and hence the conditional epistemic value of a sightseeing tour may be increased.

According to Sheth et al.'s (1991) conceptualisation, a product is purchased when the consumer perceives it to have at least one of the values described above, in other words when it is perceived to be valuable in at least one way. The contribution of those values to a purchase decision however is usually unequal. Each decision may be more influenced by some values than by others, and the consumption decision may be made based on just one consumer value, or on a mixture of several or all of them. Nevertheless, the consumption values are independent and not inter-correlated. That means that if the consumer perceives the product to offer less of one value, he/she may still perceive it as highly valuable in another respect. Often, a trade-off is accepted.

This framework by Sheth et al. (1991) was found to be most suitable for this research for several reasons. First, it can be applied to both products and services as well as to three different levels of consumer decisions: whether to buy or not to buy a product or service, which product type to purchase, and which brand to choose. The bundle components to be included in sport tourism bundles can be both products and services and the application of this framework may not only help to determine which bundle component is most popular, i.e. which bundle type the consumer would choose, but also whether the consumer is likely

to buy the sport tourism bundle or not. Then, the framework has been tested and applied by Sheth et al. (1991) and a number of other researchers (e.g. Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez, & Moliner, 2006) and has therefore been confirmed to be a valid framework for research. Moreover, the examples included in the description of each of the consumer values above showed the applicability of these values in a sport tourism consumption situation.

4.5) Consumer value of sport tourism bundles

Despite the academic interest in consumer value in general, and numerous suggestions for its conceptualisation and measurement, research on the measurement of consumer value in the context of product bundles, specifically sport tourism bundles, is very scarce. While some attention has been paid to the appropriate pricing of bundles and the impact of price bundling on the consumer's value perception (e.g. Johnson, Herrmann, & Bauer, 1999; Naylor & Frank, 2001; Soman & Gourville, 2001; Nguyen et al., 2009; Tanford, Baloglu, & Erdem, 2012), the general value perception or consumer value of product bundles has been discussed and analysed in very few studies (e.g. Yadaf, 1994; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Hsu & Chang, 2007) and has been identified as a gap in the body of research (Naylor & Frank, 2001). This study addresses this lack of research and aims to determine to what extent, and in what ways, sport tourists value sport tourism bundles. More precisely, it aims to determine the most salient consumer values for sport tourists visiting Dunedin (Objective 2) and how these consumer values may affect the consumption of sport tourism bundles (Objective 3).

In order to fulfil these objectives, the framework by Sheth et al. (1991) is adopted and applied. When reviewing Table 3.1 (see p.27) presented in the previous chapter, and in particular the column with the benefits that sport tourists may derive from the consumption of the suggested sport tourism bundles (Table 3.1, column 4), it can be noted that for each sport tourism bundle, some of the consumer values defined by Sheth et al. (1991) are more evident than others. Chalip (2004) for example suggests to bundle a sports event with pre or post event activities in order to create an opportunity for like-minded people to socialise. The salient consumer value of this sport tourism bundle would therefore be social value. If

the bundle includes a sightseeing tour or visit to attractions at the host destination with the additional benefit of getting to know the host destination, epistemic consumption values may also play a role. Chalip and McGuirly (2004) suggest a variety of examples of activities at the host destination, the sightseeing tour being one of them. They note that in addition to socialising with like-minded people and getting to know the host destination, emotional benefits like having fun with friends or enjoying the atmosphere, and therefore emotional value, may be sought. In this way – as exemplified with the two examples above – the remainder of Table 3.1 was reviewed and the most salient consumer values were determined for all possible sport tourism bundle components (see column 5 in Table 4.1). Table 4.1 shows that social, epistemic and emotional values were usually the dominant consumer values, with functional and conditional value not being salient in most cases. Possible explanations for this are that although functional value can influence some purchase decisions in sport tourism, sport tourism bundles do not seem to be purchased predominantly for their functional value. Conditional value is important but difficult to measure or identify as the most salient consumer value as it depends not only on the general consumption situation but also on individual conditions and preferences. It was therefore decided to focus on social, emotional and epistemic values in this research.

Table 4.1: Consumer value of sport tourism bundles

Author(s)	General suggestions for bundle components	Specific examples	Benefits for sport tourists	Consumer values (Sheth et al., 1991)
Chalip (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •pre-/post event activities •tours/activities/visits to attractions at the host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •party, festival, show (e.g. trade show, live music event, arts event) •additional event related to the sport of the main event •sightseeing tour •visits to any attraction at the host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opportunity for like-minded people to socialise and get to know the host destination •lengthened event period 	social, epistemic
Chalip & McGuirly (2004):	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •visit of destination-specific attractions •activity at host destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sightseeing tour •(organised) visits of destination-specific attractions (e.g. heritage sights, iconic architecture, local achievements, distinctive natural attractions) •opportunity to participate in local nightlife •visits of theme parks •active sporting package •coaching clinic •event party (e.g. official event party, concert) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •enjoy the atmosphere •have fun with friends •celebrate with like-minded people/members of the subculture •strengthen skills and knowledge •lengthened event period 	social, emotional, epistemic
Chalip (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •event-related or ancillary events 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •participatory sports event •concert •parades •pub crawl •arts events (based on Garcia, 2001) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •increase emotions among spectators, e.g. energy, excitement, heightened sense of community •heighten 'feel good character' of event •increase sense of celebration and fun •enable social interaction and camaradie •possibility to meet people 	social, emotional
Green (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •formal social events •informal opportunities to socialise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •fan fest •concert •sport-related additional events •any opportunity for social interaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •provide opportunities, space and time to celebrate the subculture and related identity → reinforce and nurture values of the subculture •opportunity to celebrate in general •fun and excitement 	social, emotional

Continued over page

Table 4.1 continued

Author(s)	General suggestions for bundle components	Specific examples	Benefits for sport tourists	Consumer values (Sheth et al., 1991)
O'Brien (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •activities and events before, during and after the main sports event 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opening and closing ceremony •concert •sport-related auction •coaching clinic •sport or destination-related movie screenings •speeches by athletes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •lengthened event period •added social and cultural value •celebration of the sport's subculture 	social, (emotional), (epistemic)
Weed (2008a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sport-related activities •accommodation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •pre-or post-event tours •'learn-to-play' courses •bundles of tickets + accommodation •big screen festivals 	-	epistemic
Garcia (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •arts and cultural activities (ideally related to the sport of the event) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •exhibitions of sport-inspired + sport-related artwork •cultural performances (e.g. dance, music, traditional clothing or practices) •arts contest for kids •concert •theatre performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •enhance the sports event experience •opportunities for social interaction, subjective valuation and personal identification •combine entertainment + pedagogic aspects •showcase human skill and excellence 	social, epistemic, (emotional)
Taks et al. (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •suitable bundle component depends on type of event and visitor profile (identity, type, travel motive) 	<p>General tourist activities that can be included in bundles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •visits of museums/galleries •sightseeing tour •visits of historical sights •visits of parks & gardens •recreational activities •shopping •dining, nightlife & gaming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •socialising •escape •learn about the sport event •learn about the host destination 	social, epistemic
Kim & Chalip (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •opportunity to learn about the host destination and its culture 	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •learn about the destination •enjoy + enhance festive atmosphere 	epistemic, emotional, (social)
Kim & Chalip (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •activity related to the sport that is primary motivation for travel •activity that can be associated with the destination •tourist activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •sports-related competition •master classes •outdoor experience •city tour •organised visits of attractions 	-	-

4.6) Chapter conclusion

This chapter on consumer value concludes the literature review of this study and at the same time links the theoretical background to the empirical contribution of this research project. It briefly reviewed consumer value in general, including its origins, definitions and conceptualisation. The remainder of the chapter discussed consumer value in the context of bundles. Being a very special type of product, bundles offer two sources of consumer value. One source of value are the products included in the bundle. The other source is the act of bundling itself, which offers a number of utilities and disutilities to the consumer. Research on consumer value of product bundles has been scarce to date, some of it purely focusing on the role of the price, and only a small number of studies have addressed sport tourism bundles. The study at hand therefore aims to address this gap by determining the relative salience of consumer values with regard to sport tourism bundles. It adopts and applies the framework by Sheth et al. (1991), which names functional, social, emotional, epistemic and conditional value as the five consumer values influencing the consumer's consumption decision. A review of sport tourism bundles suggested in literature, and the benefits they may offer to the consumer, revealed that these bundles are most likely to offer social, emotional and epistemic value to the consumer. The design and interpretation of a quantitative research project to address event sport tourism bundling and its perceived value is described in the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Research Methodology

5.1) Introduction

This research project commenced in May 2014. It started with a thorough literature review on sport tourism, leveraging, bundling and consumer value (Chapters 2-4). A number of activities and events that can be bundled with sports events have been identified and it was found that these are most likely to offer social, emotional and epistemic value to the sport tourist attending the sports event. The second part of this research project consisted of quantitative research that addressed these findings. A questionnaire-based survey was conducted with the help of eight research assistants on 8 November 2014 in the three hours before the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game at Forsyth Barr Stadium. The questionnaire survey was specifically designed and pre-tested to address the following research question and three associated research objectives:

To what extent, and in what ways, do event sport tourists visiting Dunedin value sport tourism bundles for an international Rugby League test match?

Three research objectives were created in order to guide the research and to help to answer this complex research question. These were:

Objective 1: To determine the most popular bundle component(s) among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Objective 2: To determine the most salient consumer values for Rugby League sport tourists in Dunedin.

Objective 3: To assess the potential relationship between salient consumer values and the choice of sport tourism bundle components.

This chapter presents an overview of the methodology of the quantitative research project of this study. First, the research setting is described in detail, including details on Dunedin as a tourist destination, on the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League test and on the Forsyth Barr Stadium and its background. Then, the research approach and design are reviewed. This

includes the questionnaire design and content, its pre-test, the sampling method, procedures to gain ethical approval for the research and the actual survey administration. It then outlines the questionnaire response and reflects on the methodology applied. The chapter concludes with a description of the data analysis process.

5.2) Research setting

Dunedin is one of New Zealand's major cities located on the east coast of the South Island. It has a population of about 123,000 with one fifth (approximately 25,000) of these being students at the University of Otago or the Otago Polytechnic (DunedinNZ.com, 2015a). It is the second biggest city in the South Island after Christchurch (New Zealand Travel Guide, n.d.) and the centre of the Otago region (DunedinNZ.com, 2015a). Tourism is an important industry in Dunedin, providing employment and bringing financial resources into the city and the region (DunedinNZ.com, 2015b). About 5% of all businesses in Dunedin are tourism-related, providing 7% of the city's total full-time jobs (Tourism Dunedin, 2014). In 2011, Dunedin received about 2 million visitors and 3 million visitor nights. Approximately 1.5 million of all visitors (about 75%) were domestic visitors and Otago, Canterbury, Southland, Auckland and Wellington are its most important regional domestic markets. International tourists accounted for the remaining 25% (500,000) of total tourist arrivals. The most important international tourist markets for Dunedin are Australia, Europe (especially the United Kingdom), the United States, and China. Although the number of international visitors to Dunedin is lower than that of domestic tourists, they account for 50% of total visitor nights since domestic visitors tend to stay in the city for only one night, if at all (Tourism Dunedin, 2014). By 2016, international tourist numbers are expected to increase by about 10% (Tourism Strategy Group, 2010). There are however a number of factors constraining the growth of tourist numbers to Dunedin. These include the city's remote location and limited capacity and frequency of flights into the destination (Tourism Dunedin, 2014). During big events, limited accommodation has also been identified as a factor that constrains visitors from coming into the city or staying overnight (Lewis, 2012; Morris, 2015).

In Chapter 2 (section 2.2), the importance of sport tourism in New Zealand was discussed briefly. Exact numbers for sport tourists to Dunedin could not be found because statistics on the main purpose of travel of visitors only differentiate between holiday, visiting friends and relatives, business, education, and other (Tourism Strategy Group, 2010). An article in the Otago Daily Times however states that “sport tourism is taking off and Dunedin is on board” (Manins, 2014, para.1), referring to sports events being hosted in Dunedin as part of mega events like the Cricket World Cup 2015 and the FIFA U20 World Cup 2015.

In general, there is a myriad of reasons to visit Dunedin for sport. The city offers a broad variety of sports and tourism resources and hosts a significant number of sporting events every year (Tourism Dunedin, 2014). One of its major sport tourism resources is the Forsyth Barr Stadium, constructed and completed in time for the Rugby World Cup 2011, during which it was successfully used as a venue for four games (Ministry of Business Innovation & Employment, 2012). It is a relatively new sports facility and is the only entirely roofed stadium in New Zealand, and the only stadium in the world with a natural turf under a permanent roof (Dunedin Venues Limited, 2013). After the AMI Stadium in Christchurch was damaged beyond repair in the 2011 earthquakes, it is also currently the main stadium in the South Island (Rugby: Stadium damage casts doubt on Cup matches, 2011), which constitutes a significant opportunity for the development of sport tourism in Dunedin and may result in higher visitor numbers from Canterbury. Forsyth Barr Stadium is a multi-purpose facility with seating capacity for 30,000 spectators in three permanent stands, one temporary stand and various corporate hospitality facilities (Dunedin Venues Limited, 2013). It is managed by Dunedin Venues Management Limited (DVML), an organisation regulated by the Dunedin City Council (DCC). As its development was realised through a high level of civic investment (Hall & Wilson, 2010) and due to its ongoing cost to Dunedin taxpayers (Dunedin City Council, 2012) the facility’s existence is still not welcomed by everyone (Porteous, 2014). Strategies to increase numbers of event attendants and to leverage sport tourism for the benefit of the host destination and community are therefore more important than ever.

The sports event at the focus of this research is the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League test match that took place at Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin on 8 November 2014. The game was part of the 2014 Rugby League Four Nations tournament. This tournament was initiated as the Tri-Nations series in 1999 with Australia, New Zealand and Great Britain (later

changed to England) facing each other in a round robin format. In 2009, the decision was made to add a fourth team, which would qualify prior to the start of the tournament. The series was renamed as the Four Nations series and would be hosted by alternating European and Pacific host nations (Rugby League Planet, n.d.).

The 2014 Four Nations tournament was co-hosted by New Zealand and Australia between 25 October and 15 November 2014, and Samoa qualified as the fourth nation facing Australia, New Zealand and England. A total of seven matches were played, four in Australia's cities Brisbane, Melbourne and Wollongong, the other three in Whangarei, Dunedin and Wellington in New Zealand. The final of the Four Nations Tournament took place in Wellington on 15 November 2014 (New Zealand Rugby League, n.d.). The choice of host cities for this tournament was unusual, especially because Auckland, which is often considered New Zealand's Rugby League stronghold (Rugby: Benji Marshall signs with the Blues, 2013; Savory & Johnstone, 2014), was not appointed any games. According to Phil Holden, the Chief Executive Officer of New Zealand Rugby Union (NZRU), the purpose of these allocations was promoting Rugby League outside Auckland (Savory & Johnstone, 2014) and "testing the interest in the regions" (Dunedin Venues Limited, 2014, para. 7). With the Rugby League World Cup 2017 to be hosted in Australia and New Zealand, the NZRU wants to increase the interest in Rugby League all over New Zealand, and especially in the regions that usually do not host international Rugby League matches (Hepburn, 2014).

The Kiwis vs. England game on 8 November 2014 was the first international Rugby League match to be hosted in Dunedin in 86 years (Hepburn, 2014) and was attended by approximately 15,500 spectators (Dunedin Venues Management Limited, 2015). The kick-off was scheduled for 8pm, following a curtain raiser game between South Island XIII and NZ Universities and Tertiary Students XIII at 5.30pm (van Royen, 2014). The game was an important fixture in the course of the tournament since the winner would play in the final of the Four Nations 2014 tournament (New Zealand Rugby League, n.d.). Furthermore, the historical rivalry between the Kiwis and English – the English beat New Zealand in the 2013 Rugby League World Cup – added to what was predicted to be an exciting game (Dunedin Venues Limited, 2014). With it also being a one-off international sports event, it could already be assumed at the time of planning the quantitative data collection that the event would attract a large crowd and a high number of spectators not only from Dunedin, but also from the surrounding regions and from the North Island and overseas. This meant that

a high number of sport tourists, who are at the focus of this study, would be attending the event. Moreover, the amount of alternative sports events taking place at Forsyth Barr Stadium during the time frame for data collection was limited and the crowd numbers for these alternative events were predicted to be much lower. The Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game was hence considered a suitable event for this research project. One of the major challenges of conducting research on this sports event was that the Kiwis vs. England game was a one-off event and visitors would only arrive on site a few hours before kick-off. This challenge was addressed by the research design and survey administration, which will be detailed in the following sections.

5.3) Research approach

For the purposes of data collection, both a qualitative and/or quantitative research approach could have been applied. A simplified distinction between the two approaches is that qualitative research collects and analyses non-numeric data (i.e. words) and quantitative research collects and analyses numeric data (i.e. numbers) (Curtis & Curtis, 2011; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012; Punch, 2014). With qualitative techniques, the contact with research participants usually lasts relatively long, especially when the research focuses on attitudes and meanings or on interaction between several group members (Veal, 2006). Hence, the research sample is usually small and may only include a limited number of individuals, depending on the method and resources available to the researcher (Dawson, 2002). When using quantitative techniques, the contact with research participants is usually much shorter and data is interpreted with the application of statistical analyses, which allows for data collection from a larger sample (Dawson, 2002). An international Rugby League game, like the one at the focus of this study, is generally attended by thousands of people with different profiles and attitudes. Therefore, quantitative research was deemed more suitable for this research project. Quantitative research methods are also often used for descriptive (finding out and describing what is) and explorative (explaining how and why things are and using findings for predictions) studies (Veal, 2006) that follow a deductive research approach, which is also the case in this study. A deductive approach means that data collection is used to test a theory that has been developed from the literature review,

as opposed to using data collection to explore the phenomenon of interest and develop a theory or conceptual framework afterwards, which is called an inductive approach (Saunders et al., 2012).

For both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, a number of research methods or techniques can be applied. Some are more suitable for qualitative research, such as interviews, focus groups, participant observation or text analyses, others are more suitable for quantitative research, such as experiments or surveys (Saunders et al., 2012). Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages and depending on the research question, a multi-method or mixed method approach may even be required (Dawson, 2002). The method applied in this research was a questionnaire-based on-site survey with printed questionnaires. Surveys allow for the collection of standardised data from a large sample in an economical way, allowing for easy comparison and analysis with descriptive and inferential statistics (Saunders et al., 2012). They are often used to understand and explain how a population thinks and behaves with regard to a certain issue, or to learn about visitors' or users' opinions. They are therefore popular in leisure and tourism research (Veal, 2006; Saunders et al., 2012).

The disadvantages of this research method are that there is a limit to the number of questions that can be asked without being too time-consuming and that it is dependent on information provided by the respondent. Therefore, the validity, accuracy and generalisability can be affected by the respondent's honesty, self-assessment and ability to recall. Some of these limitations however can be influenced to an extent by the questionnaire design (Veal, 2006), which will be detailed in section 5.3. Moreover, the decision was made to use a respondent-completion format where the respondent completes the questionnaire independently as opposed to having it read out and completed by an interviewer (Veal, 2006). Considering the limited time-frame for data collection in this research, it was hoped that this approach would lead to higher numbers of completed questionnaires. The exact details of the survey administration will be explained further in section 5.4.6.

Previous research on consumer values typically presented a number of products or product bundles to the consumer and subsequently analysed data with regard to which motives, consumer values or other reasons the purchase decision was made (e.g. Dodds & Monroe,

1985; Sheth et al., 1991; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Tanford et al., 2012). Limitations of this approach are that while it tests whether the consumer does or does not value a particular product or product bundle, it does not clarify whether this also applies to a similar product or bundle that was not tested in the study. For sport tourism bundles especially, where the possibilities of which components to include in the bundle depends to a great extent on the destination and its providers as well as on the type of sport and sports event, this approach seems to limit the insight gained. The study at hand sought to avoid these limitations. In addition to testing the attractiveness of sport tourism bundles suggested in literature, it also assessed which consumer values were generally important for the sport tourist in this specific consumption situation. The goal was to obtain results that can be used not only to make suggestions for specific sport tourism bundles that appeal to Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin, but also to provide an insight into what kind of bundles may generally appeal to these consumers based on the consumer values they seek.

5.4) Research design

5.4.1) Questionnaire design

The questionnaire utilised in this survey contained 11 questions on two pages (one sheet, double-sided) and was organised into three main parts (see Appendix A). The questionnaire design was influenced by the research approach and setting and especially by the limited time frame for data collection. Hence, it was crucial to keep the questionnaire at a length that would not discourage spontaneous participation or hold up spectators for too long and impair their overall experience. A tidy and well organised layout also aimed at encouraging and facilitating participation.

The majority of questions in the questionnaire were closed questions, where the respondent was asked to choose one or several of the provided answers. Closed questions can usually be answered very easily and quickly and allow for easy coding and comparison during data analysis. Disadvantages are that they can force the respondent to choose one of the answers provided even though this may not be the answer he/she would have given spontaneously – especially when asking about attitude, opinion or values (Davidson & Tolich, 1999; David & Sutton, 2004). Additionally, three open-ended questions were

included, which required the respondents to write the answer in their own words. Their analysis can be more time-consuming since they need to be coded and interpreted, and respondents often keep the answers short instead of providing a complete answer. However, open questions can enrich the data significantly and provide additional insight into the sample's attitudes, values and opinions as they do not limit the respondents to the answers provided (David & Sutton, 2004; Veal, 2006). Two of the questions in the questionnaire - Q1 and Q4 - were designed to be open-ended merely for the purpose of keeping the questionnaire short as this saved listing all possible answers.

With regard to the order of questions, the questionnaire design followed a few rules suggested in the literature. The questions in part 1 of the questionnaire were clearly related to the topic of the survey as stated in the introduction and the participant information sheet (see Appendix B), and as explained by research assistants. This can help to arouse the respondent's interest and demonstrates the questionnaire's relevance (Davidson & Tolich, 1999; Veal, 2006). Furthermore, the questions in part 1 were intended to be relatively easy to answer to encourage participation and to build confidence (Denscombe, 2003). This prepared for Part 2, which contained more difficult and complex questions, only followed by two very short demographic questions in part 3. If difficult and complex questions are positioned near the end of the questionnaire, respondents are less likely to break off (Davidson & Tolich, 1999).

5.4.2) Questionnaire content and justification

At the very start of the questionnaire, an introductory statement outlined the purpose and topic of the survey and informed the respondent how much time the completion of the questionnaire would approximately take. It also emphasised the strictly confidential treatment of all data for academic purposes only. An advantage of the site survey, where the questionnaire is handed out to each person individually, is that additional explanations and clarifications can be made if necessary. When research assistants approached spectators, they verbally informed them of the purpose of the survey as being part of a Master's research project at the University of Otago on visitor experiences in Dunedin and

at the Rugby League game. So even if respondents did not take the time to read the introductory statement, they knew what the survey was about.

The remaining questionnaire was organised in three parts. Part 1 ('Your visit to Dunedin') aimed to understand the travel and spectating behaviour of participants as this determines preferences, perceived value and the purchase decision. It also collected data that will be used to create a profile of the sample population. Part 2 ('During your stay') was designed to identify the most salient consumption values and the sport tourism bundle components that appealed most to Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Part 3 ('About yourself') contained selected key demographic questions. All parts of the questionnaire are explained in detail below.

Part 1: Your visit to Dunedin

Part 1 of the questionnaire was created to collect background information on the respondent's travel and rugby spectating behaviour, beginning with Q1 asking about the region and country of origin. Some of the subsequent questions were then based on factors that past research had found to influence the travel and consumption behaviour and therefore the purchase decision making with regard to sport tourism bundles. Taks et al. (2009) for example highlighted that flow-on tourism can differ between first-time and repeat visitors. Therefore, Q2 asked how many times the respondent had been to Dunedin before. The answer 'Never' identifies first-time visitors. For all others, a differentiation based on the number of visits can be useful because their interest in events or activities before or after the event may differ. Q3 was based on the primary motivation for travel to Dunedin, based on Gammon and Robinson's (1997) differentiation between sport tourism and tourism sport. This needs to be taken into account because their interest in sport tourism bundles may vary significantly depending on why they came to Dunedin in the first place. The question was designed as an open question to allow for an insight into travel purposes other than sport or tourism.

The length of stay can also influence the value perception of a sport tourism bundle as it restricts or enables participation in activities or events before or after the sports event. Q4 addressed this aspect by recording the number of nights respondents were staying in Dunedin. The instructions informed participants to write zero or 0 if they were only visiting

Dunedin for the day. Therefore, a differentiation between day visitors and over-night visitors can be made. The preferences of these two groups may differ significantly (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996; Gibson et al., 2003). In Q5, respondents were asked to indicate whether they have attended a Rugby League match before (i.e. once, less than 5 times, regularly) or whether this was the first time. This question sought to gather information on Rugby League spectating behaviour. Taks et al.'s (2009) differentiation between casual spectators and primary purpose spectators is closely linked to the primary travel motive (Gammon & Robinson, 1997) and results can help to profile respondents based on whether they are casual spectators or passionate fans, who are most likely to be regular spectators (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999).

Q6 collected data on who respondents attended the game with and finally, Q7 asked the respondents to write down what they had done or were going to do in Dunedin apart from attending the Rugby League game. Activities named here may qualify as potential bundle components and provide an overview of preferences of the target group. This question was intentionally formulated as an open-ended question as the researcher hoped to gain further insights into preferences and did not want to limit possible replies. On the downside this meant that some survey participants did not provide a satisfactory reply and that a big variety of answers was given, which made it more difficult to create categories for data analysis.

Part 2: During your stay

Part 2 of the questionnaire contained questions that contributed most directly to achieving the three research objectives and to answer the research question. Q8 was designed to test the importance of the three consumer values that had been identified in section 4.5 as the most dominant ones with regard to sport tourism bundles: social value, emotional value and epistemic value. The perceived consumer value also always depends on the type of product or service and in Table 4.1 it was shown what kind of benefits or values various sport tourism bundles can offer to the consumer. In order to test the importance of each of these consumer values for the spectators at the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game, these benefits that possible bundle components may offer were translated into 16 statements that could be included in the questionnaire (see Table 5.1). The consumer is often unaware of the value they want from the product (Woodruff, 1997), which is why the questions were

formulated as statements that respondents could agree or disagree with. Each statement starts with 'While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to...' and survey respondents were asked to tick all statements that applied. The data from this question will contribute directly to reaching Objective 2, which is to determine the most salient consumer values for Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Table 5.1: Item justification for Question 8

Consumer value	Definition by Sheth et al., 1991	Benefits of sport tourism bundles for sport tourists	Questionnaire item
SOCIAL VALUE	<p>Social value is derived from a product or experience that...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is shared with others • is associated with one or more social groups (and their related stereotypes) • evokes a certain social image 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • opportunity for like-minded people to socialise (Chalip, 2004; Chalip, 2006; Taks et al., 2009) • celebrate with like-minded people/members of the subculture (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004) • provide opportunities, space and time to celebrate the subculture and related identity (Green, 2001) • have fun with friends (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004) • possibility to meet people (Chalip, 2006) 	<p>While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • '... meet and spend time with like-minded people' • '... socialise with other people who have seen this game' • '... socialise with Rugby League fans who support the same team I do' • '... spend time with the person/people I attend this game with' • '... meet new people' • '... get in touch with locals in Dunedin'
EMOTIONAL VALUE	<p>Emotional value is derived from a product or experience that...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arouses feelings or affective states • perpetuates feelings • is associated with specific feelings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • celebrate and have fun with friends (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Green, 2001) • enjoy the atmosphere (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004) • increase emotions among spectators, e.g. energy, excitement, heightened sense of community (Chalip, 2006) • heighten 'feel good character' of event (Chalip, 2006) • increase sense of celebration and fun (Chalip, 2006) • fun and excitement (Green, 2001) 	<p>While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • '... celebrate after the game' • '... soak up the atmosphere in town' • '... attend some pre-match entertainment (e.g. in town or at the stadium)'
EPISTEMIC VALUE	<p>Epistemic value is derived from a product or experience that...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arouses curiosity • provides novelty • satisfies a desire for knowledge or learning • provides a new experience • brings a change from something known 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • get to know the host destination (Chalip, 2004) • learn about the host destination (Taks et al., 2009; Kim & Chalip, 2010) • combine entertainment + pedagogic aspects (Garcia, 2001) • showcase human skill and excellence (Garcia, 2001) • strengthen skills and knowledge (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004) • learn about the sport or sports event (Taks et al., 2009) 	<p>While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • '... visit/do something that is specific to Dunedin' • '... see and experience the new Forsyth Barr Stadium' • '... discover something in Dunedin that I haven't seen/done during previous visits' • '... do something I never do at home' • '... learn something about New Zealand's or Dunedin's culture' • '... develop or improve my practical Rugby League skills' • '... learn something about Rugby League (e.g. players, coach, history, strategy)'

Q9 then tested the appeal of specific bundle components. In total, 16 events or activities that were identified in section 4.5 as potential components to be bundled with a sports event in Dunedin were included in this question (see Table 5.2). These were derived from bundle components suggested in the literature, as collated in the 'Specific examples' columns of Tables 3.1 and 4.1 and adapted to a Rugby League sports event in Dunedin. Some components were also based on practical examples of sport tourism bundles specified in section 4.5. A number of components suggested in the literature were deemed unsuitable for this context, such as trade shows, which typically take place during participation sports events, and were consequently not included in the questionnaire. The description of bundle components in the questionnaire was kept general, i.e. 'concert' or 'dinner with entertainment', without specifying what kind of concert or entertainment this might involve so that it would not be restricted to a particular consumer group or taste.

In the first part of the question respondents were asked which of these activities or events they would participate in before or after the Rugby League match if they had the option to do so. Multiple responses were possible as instructions asked to tick all items that appeal. The second part of the question asked respondents to rate their top 3 events and activities among the ones they chose. As a result, an insight was gained not only into which activities and events appealed to the research population in general but also which ones they would be most likely to choose in a purchase situation. Findings from this question will contribute directly to meeting research objective 1 to determine the most popular bundle component(s) among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Table 5.2: List of sport tourism bundle components included in the questionnaire as suggested in specified sources

Bundle component	Source
① stadium tour	Thomas Cook Sport (n.d.), Sports Traveler (2015)
② concert	Chalip (2004), Chalip & McGuirty (2004), Chalip (2006), Green (2001), O'Brien (2007), Garcia (2001)
③ dinner with entertainment	Sports Traveler (2015)
④ official event party	Chalip (2004), Chalip & McGuirty (2004), Green (2001), O'Brien (2007),
⑤ meet & greet with the players	Sports Traveler (2015)
⑥ practical Rugby League clinic	Chalip & McGuirty (2004), O'Brien (2007), Weed (2008a), Kim & Chalip (2010)
⑦ cultural performance	Garcia (2001), Chalip (2006)
⑧ organised pub tour in Dunedin	Chalip & McGuirty (2004), Chalip (2006),
⑨ speech by a Rugby League-relevant personality	O'Brien (2007)
⑩ autograph/photo session with players	Sports Traveler (2015)
⑪ organised sightseeing tour around Dunedin	Chalip (2004), Chalip & McGuirty (2004), Weed (2008a), Taks et al. (2009), Kim & Chalip (2010), Allblackstours.com (n.d.), ICC Travel (2012), Thomas Cook Sport (n.d.)
⑫ visit of a local museum	Chalip (2004), Garcia (2001), Taks et al. (2009)
⑬ outdoor activity	Kim & Chalip (2010), Taks et al. (2009), (Chalip & McGuirty (2004))
⑭ screening of rugby/sports movies	O'Brien (2007)
⑮ social Rugby League game/tournament	Chalip (2006), Green (2001), Kim & Chalip (2010)
⑯ art exhibition (e.g. sport/rugby inspired)	Garcia (2001)

Part 3 – About yourself

At the end of the questionnaire, respondents were asked about their gender and age in Q10 and Q11. In order to indicate their age, respondents were required to tick one of seven age categories. As only adults aged 18 and over were included in the target group, the '<18' category helped to eliminate questionnaires that were completed by respondents who did not meet the eligibility criterion. These two demographic questions also provided further background information about the sample.

5.4.3) Pre-test

A pilot study is a complete rehearsal of all aspects of the research design. This means that for example the sample selection, location and procedure of data collection and data analysis should be conducted exactly the same way as planned for the final study, only on a smaller scale (Gorard, 2003). Pre-testing means “administering a questionnaire to a limited number of potential respondents and other individuals capable of pointing out design flaws” (Parasuraman, Grewal, & Krishnan, 2007, p. 303). Due to the unique research situation of this study, which includes data collection on the match day of a one-off international Rugby League game, a full pilot study of the research design was not possible. Instead, the questionnaire was pre-tested by a number of senior lecturers, postgraduate colleagues from the tourism department, and friends. It was ensured that both male and female participants of various age and background, e.g. students and non-students, New Zealanders and foreigners, were included in the pre-test to represent the sample of the final study as closely as possible.

Two pre-tests were conducted. The first involved eight respondents and led to major changes described below. Subsequently, the revised questionnaire was tested again with another five respondents. For both pre-tests, respondents were asked to put themselves into the position of visitors to Dunedin to attend the Rugby League test match at Forsyth Barr Stadium. After completing the questionnaire, they were asked whether all questions were understandable and clear and easy to answer, and to provide general feedback. The researcher also noted how long it took to complete the questionnaire and whether any questions had not been answered as intended, which could indicate a wording or design problem (Gorard, 2003).

After the first pre-test it became clear that Q8 and Q9 needed to be revised. In the first version of the questionnaire, the 16 items in Q8 had been mixed up randomly to avoid repetitive answers. However, feedback from the pre-test indicated that the order was confusing and going through all items was time consuming. It also seemed repetitive as the small but significant differences between some items were not obvious if not read one after another (e.g. ‘...socialise with other people who have seen this game’ and ‘...socialise with Rugby League fans who support the same team I do’). As a result, the items were rearranged and all items testing one consumer value were grouped together.

In Q9, respondents were initially asked to tick all bundle components that appeal to them and to rank their top three choices by writing the numbers 1 (first choice), 2 (second choice) and 3 (third choice) on lines next to the boxes they ticked. Again, the pre-test showed that these instructions could be confusing and easily misunderstood, so Q9 was split into two sub-questions. All components were numbered and respondents were then asked to first tick all bundle components that appeal to them, and then, in a separate question, to write down the numbers of those that appeal most.

The revised questionnaire was subsequently pre-tested with five more people, which confirmed that it was now understandable and easy to complete. Following the second pre-test, only a few smaller changes were made. In Q8 in particular, some items were shortened and reworded and clarifications deemed necessary by respondents were added (e.g. ‘...to attend some pre-match entertainment (*in town or at the stadium*)). Furthermore, the design was improved, for example by adding ‘Please turn over’ at the bottom of the page. The questionnaire could now also be completed by all respondents in under 5 minutes.

5.4.4) Sampling method

For many research questions, it is impractical or impossible to collect data from the entire research population, which is every possible case or element the research question applies to (Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, data is usually only collected from a sample that is drawn from the population, Findings from data analysis, if applicable, can then be inferred back to the entire population (Punch, 2014). There are two types of sampling techniques. One is probability sampling, where the possibility of being chosen is equal for every individual in the research population. This is also sometimes referred to as representative sampling (Saunders et al., 2012). The other type of sampling techniques is called non-probability sampling, where the selection of sample units is based on the researcher’s personal judgement or where the probability of an individual being selected is unknown (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007).

The sampling technique used for this research was systematic random sampling, a probability sampling technique. With this technique, the sample unit is selected at defined and regular intervals from all cases of the population until the desired sample size is reached

(Saunders et al., 2012). So, one spectator was approached at random at the beginning of the survey and subsequently every 5th or 10th person passing was selected to be included in the sample. Both males and females of all nationalities were included, but survey participants were required to be aged 18 or older. This eligibility criterion was based on the assumption that for those under 18, the decision to attend the game and events or activities before and after the game may be influenced by parents or guardians. If unsure, research assistants were instructed to ask about the age of respondents before handing out the questionnaire. Corporate members were also excluded from the survey as they are considered to be a distinct group of consumers. They could be easily identified by their corporate member cards and lanyards, by their designated seating areas or again by questioning before handing out the questionnaire. Since this research aims to determine the value perception of sport tourism bundles among sport tourists, the key criterion for survey participants was that they had to come from out of Dunedin. Otherwise they would not qualify as sport tourists (Gibson, 1998a; Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). So, every person approached was asked whether they lived in Dunedin and only if that was not the case, the questionnaire was handed out.

Another important step of the sampling process was the determination of the adequate sample size. For this, a variety of factors needed to be taken into account. These included the likely response rate and the number of subdivisions that was going to be made during data analysis (Denscombe, 2003). Sampling theory suggests several approaches for a statistic calculation of the ideal sample size, for example based on the margin of error for statistical inference (Saunders et al., 2012). In reality however, resources available to the researcher often have the biggest influence on the determination of the sample size (Denscombe, 2003). In this survey, there was a very short time frame from when spectators started arriving at the venue until kick-off, during which they could be surveyed without impairing their experience. The desired sample size was therefore determined to be 160-200 questionnaires, based on the assumption that each of the eight research assistants would practically be able to collect 20-25 completed questionnaires during a limited opportunity prior to kick-off.

5.4.5) Ethical approval

“Ethics is the study of what are good, right, or virtuous courses of action” (Punch, 2014, p. 36). Research ethics are concerned with the right code of ethical practice for planning, communicating, conducting and following up on the research. Many institutions now require researchers to consider and present potential ethical issues of access, consent, anonymity, confidentiality, risks and benefits to an ethical committee in order to obtain its approval (Punch, 2014). This is also the case at the University of Otago, where all staff and student research involving human participants must first receive ethical approval before being able to proceed (University of Otago Council, n.d.). Approval for this research was sought from the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee through departmental processes. This involved a brief description of the research method, participant recruitment, data collection, potential problems that may occur during the research and solutions for their mitigation (see Appendix C). The questionnaire as well as the participant information sheet were also submitted with the application. The participant information sheet is important ethical practice, ensuring that the participant is provided with sufficient information on what will be asked and what the obtained data will be used for. Participants can then make an informed decision on whether they want to participate in the research or not (Curtis & Curtis, 2011). For further questions or enquiries, both the researcher’s and the supervisor’s contact details were included on the information sheet and at the bottom of the questionnaire. Ethical approval was granted on 4 November 2014.

In accordance with the University of Otago’s Policy for Research Consultation with Māori, the Ngai Tahu Research Consultation Committee was also informed about this research project.

5.4.6) Survey administration

Data collection took place on 8 November 2014, match day of the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League test, and started at 5pm when the gates opened for the curtain raiser South Island XIII vs. NZ Universities and Tertiary Students XIII scheduled to start at 5.30pm. It was completed at 7.50pm, 10 minutes before the kick-off of the main event. This resulted in a time frame of almost three hours for data collection. If absolutely necessary, that is if a

minimum of 50 questionnaires could not be collected during this time, a second session of data collection could have been run for about one hour after the end of the game. However, a number of arrangements were made so that the desired sample size could be reached before kick-off, if at all possible. One of these arrangements was the recruitment of eight research assistants for the administration of the survey. Recruitment was initiated by emailing a letter with key dates, times, and a description of what was expected and what was offered in return to a number of friends considered suitable for the task (see Appendix D). They in turn recommended friends who might be interested in helping. The researcher contacted all potential helpers over the phone to provide further details and to answer remaining questions. Thereupon, eight people agreed to assist in the survey. The group consisted of six female and two male undergraduate and postgraduate university students, aged between 21 and 30.

Before the start of the survey, all research assistants were briefed thoroughly on the survey schedule, procedure and target group, as well as on the content of the questionnaire and information sheet for respondents. Each assistant received a briefing sheet with maps of the venue, their individual positions during the survey and detailed instructions on all survey procedures (see one example in Appendix E). Additionally, a safety and security briefing was conducted on assessment of intoxication and aggressive behaviour, cooperation with on-site security and emergency procedures. A brief summary of this was also included in the briefing sheet.

During the first hour of the survey, research assistants were positioned in pairs outside each gate open for the game (Gate A, C, D and H) (see Figure 5.1). They were also asked to include the wider area around their assigned gates, especially the University Plaza, Union Street East/Butts Road and the car park. One of the assistants positioned at Gate H also covered the area around the South Stand ticket booth and was briefed to pay special attention not to include corporate members, whose entrance is by Gate J. According to the random sampling technique, all assistants then approached every 10th person that passed them when it was busy and every 5th person when it was quieter, asked them whether they were from Dunedin, and if *not*, further asked whether they would like to participate in a survey conducted as part of a Master's research project. Wherever possible, more details were provided, namely that the survey was about their visit to Dunedin and their

experiences before and after the Rugby League game, and that participation would take about 5 minutes. If the respondent agreed to participate in the survey, a questionnaire was handed out on a clipboard, together with a participant information sheet if the respondent wanted to receive this. The research assistants would then stay close by to assist with the completion of the questionnaire if necessary and to collect it once completed.

After the first hour of data collection, at about 6pm, two research assistants continued surveying on the University Plaza and around the ticket booths, while the remaining assistants shifted inside the stadium, working in pairs in the TicketDirect Stand, Speight's Stand and Mitre 10 Mega Stand respectively. Their briefing sheets contained detailed information on which stand aisles to include in the survey (see Appendix E). There, assistants followed the same sampling procedure as described above, only that they would approach spectators seated in the stands, starting from the middle of the stands and working towards the aisle as the stand was filling up.

During the whole process, the researcher managed the survey and moved between assistants to assist or answer questions and to monitor progress. In between, the researcher also approached spectators according to the random sampling process and distributed questionnaires in various places around the stadium.



Figure 5.1: Map of Forsyth Barr Stadium

5.5) Questionnaire response

A total of 177 completed questionnaires was returned to the researcher at the end of data collection. Due to the research approach, which involved personal interaction between the research assistants and the respondents as well as the completion of surveys on the spot, the team of surveyors had a very high uptake. Hence, no response rate was calculated. During data entry, 12 invalid questionnaires were identified and excluded from data analysis. Seven of these were invalid because the respondents were students or workers in Dunedin and two because the respondents were under 18 years old (as identified in Q11). Another three questionnaires were excluded because they were incomplete. This resulted in a new sample size of $n=165$ for data analysis. Thanks to ticket sales data that was collected and provided to the researcher by DVML, the approximate population size for this survey was known. In total, 13,578 tickets had been sold. This is nevertheless only an approximate population size because some people may have purchased tickets to the game but then been unable to attend. The number of tickets that were scanned into the venue on match day and therefore indicate actual spectator numbers is unknown by the researcher. The sample represents approximately 1.22% of the whole population.

5.6) Methodological review

This research methodology was designed in an attempt to undertake rigorous and insightful empirical research and all in all, the survey can be considered successful. Nevertheless, it had its limitations and challenges, which will be briefly summarised below.

The biggest challenge of this research project lay in the short amount of time available for data collection. The event was a one-off sports event, which meant data needed to be collected on that day and many spectators would only arrive shortly before kick-off. The criterion that only visitors from out of Dunedin would be included in the sample also slowed data collection down to some extent. In order to address these challenges, research assistants were recruited for the data collection. Of course, including temporary assistants also always represents an element of uncertainty because the quantity and quality of data directly depends on their work. In order to avoid any variances from the intended research procedures and to ensure smooth, uniform and consistent data collection, all assistants were briefed thoroughly and monitored as far as possible. Nevertheless, personal factors such as how comfortable they were with approaching strangers or dealing with intoxicated people or negative reactions naturally came into play. It was found that the preparation for these eventualities before the survey and regular reassurance throughout made a big difference. Overall, the help of the research assistants was highly valuable and added to the success of this research.

The fact that gates opened three hours before kick-off of the main event for the curtain raiser also contributed significantly to the success of the survey. Most spectators who had arrived early and were approached with a questionnaire were very relaxed and happily agreed to complete it. It was generally noticed that spectators were more comfortable taking the time to fill in the questionnaires once they were inside the venue, even if it was just inside the turnstiles. Closer to kick-off, the recruitment of participants became more difficult and intoxication level increased noticeably. During that time, most participants could be recruited among those spectators who were already seated, presumably because they were ready for the game to start and did not have to worry about queues at food and beverage stalls or toilets. The short length of the questionnaire was also crucial and helped to convince undecided spectators. Resuming the survey after the end of the game, as

considered as a back-up option, would have been all but impossible. As soon as the match finished, thousands of spectators collectively left the venue, heading towards town or into the adjacent roads, and it would have been very difficult to interrupt the crowd flow. Moreover, it seemed like it would have been challenging to motivate the research assistants for another round of data collection.

A high flexibility from both the researcher and the research assistants was required throughout the survey. Although exact positions and timings had been planned before the survey, changes had to be made during the data collection due to circumstances at the time. These ranged from weather conditions, such as cold wind on the east side of the stadium, which caused the assistant positioned there to move inside earlier than planned, to the arrival times of spectators. For example, the three stands did not fill up evenly, which directly affected data collection of those assistants positioned there. The Ticket Direct and Speight's Stands filled up gradually from when gates opened, and with plenty of time until kick-off most spectators seated in these stands were open to the survey. The Mitre 10 Mega Stand however was very empty until about 30 minutes before the game, when a large amount of spectators arrived at the same time. This resulted in queues at the food and beverage stalls and toilets and lower willingness to participate in the survey. The assistants who were meant to collect data in the Mitre 10 Mega Stand from 5.30pm remained outside Gate C until about 6.30pm to distribute questionnaires there. They then moved into the stand and research assistants from other areas who had already collected a high number of questionnaires, were asked to assist during the last 40 minutes of data collection.

With regard to the research method, a different approach could have been chosen to address the challenge of limited time available for data collection. For example, the time before kick-off could have been used to collect contact details of spectators to mail or post the questionnaire to after the game with the request to return it to the researcher via email or with provided pre-paid envelopes. Although this or another approach may have led to a higher number of distributed questionnaires, a higher response rate would not have been guaranteed.

Moreover, although the use of a questionnaire allowed for the collection of data from a relatively big sample in the short amount of time available, a qualitative approach could have provided more in-depth information in some areas. Indeed, a mixed methods

approach, for example a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, would have been the ideal approach for this research. In that case, the questionnaire could have been followed up by interviews, which allow for much more detail and can provide more clarity on answers and reasoning. Alternatively, expert interviews, for example with tourism service providers or with event managers or marketers at DVML could have enhanced the research. Due to time and resources constraints however, it was not possible to include both quantitative and qualitative methods in this research project. These limitations should however be addressed in future research.

In an attempt to add depth to the quantitative method, some open ended questions were included in the questionnaire. Their limitations lie within the degree to which the respondent wants to cooperate and provide complete and detailed answers. In some cases the answers to the open-ended question raised new questions because with a quantitative approach the respondent cannot be asked for clarification. Otherwise, the questionnaire design was successful and an easy and fast completion of the questionnaire was possible.

5.7) Quantitative data analysis

The objective of systematic data analysis is to make it comprehensible and reasonable for any third party who may be interested in the results of the research. The quantitative data in this study was analysed with version 22 of the statistics programme SPSS Statistics. In preparation for data analysis, every question in the questionnaire was coded so it could be entered into the statistics programme and analysed more easily. Coding is the “application of numerical values to the different possible responses to questions in a questionnaire” (David & Sutton, 2004, p. 609). For closed questions, this involved applying a number to each possible response in the questionnaire. For open questions, all answers provided to this question were listed and grouped into categories before a number could be applied to an answer or answer category. Data was then entered into SPSS Statistics for analysis and descriptive statistics, such as frequency distributions and cross-tabulations, and inferential statistics, such as chi square (χ^2) tests and confidence intervals, were calculated.

5.8) Chapter conclusion

This chapter discussed the methodology of the empirical research that was conducted as part of this study. In order to answer the research question and to meet the research objectives defined at the start of this study, a questionnaire-based site survey with printed questionnaires was conducted. It took place at Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin on 8 November 2014, match day of the Kiwis vs. England game, which was part of the Rugby League Four Nations 2014 tournament. Data collection started at 5pm when the gates opened and continued until 10 minutes before kick-off of the game, which resulted in a duration of the survey of just under three hours. Due to this short time frame, research assistants were recruited to assist with data collection. These assistants were positioned near the gates and in the stands of the stadium. They approached spectators based on a random sampling procedure and handed out questionnaires to those who agreed to participate in the survey and did not live in Dunedin. The researcher managed and monitored the survey and contributed to data collection where possible.

The questionnaire consisted of 11 open and closed questions on two pages. It contained a number of demographic questions as well as questions to collect background information on the respondent's travel and Rugby League spectating behaviour. It further tested the importance of social, emotional and epistemic consumer values to the respondent and the appeal of 16 activities and events that could be bundled with the Rugby League sports event. At the end of the survey, a total of 165 valid questionnaires could be prepared for analysis. Data was then analysed with the SPSS statistics programme and the findings will be presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 6: Research findings

6.1) Introduction

In this chapter, the findings from the data analysis of the empirical research, including both descriptive and inferential statistics, are presented. The results are organised in three sections. First, the results from the analysis of part 1 and 3 of the questionnaire are used to create a profile of the research sample. Then, findings from the analysis of part 2 of the questionnaire are presented and interpreted in order to determine the most popular bundle components and the most salient consumer values among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. This aims to meet research objectives 1 and 2. In order to meet research objective 3, those findings are then used for further analysis to determine a relationship between most salient consumer values and the choice of bundle components. The order in which data is analysed and presented in this chapter differs from the order of questions in the questionnaire. While the questionnaire was designed in a way that would facilitate and encourage its completion, data analysis and the presentation of results are in accordance with each of the three research objectives.

6.2) Sample profile

In order to create a profile, and understand the basic characteristics of the sample population, frequency distributions were calculated for the questions in part 1 and 3 of the questionnaire. Thereby, frequencies for gender, age and origin of the sample population were calculated first because the results were subsequently used for further analysis. Part 1 and 3 had been completed by all survey participants, so the size of the sample group for most frequency distributions is $n=165$. Only in some cases, for example when the geographic distribution of New Zealand visitors was calculated and overseas tourists were excluded, the sample size differs and is noted accordingly.

The calculation of gender distribution (see Figure 6.1) showed that about 65% ($n=107$) of the sample group were male and about 35% ($n=58$) female. Survey respondents were selected with a random sampling technique, so the unequal distribution between genders

indicates that the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League match was attended by a higher proportion of males than females. This is not unusual at live sports events (Gibson et al., 2003) and especially at Rugby games (Ritchie et al., 2002).

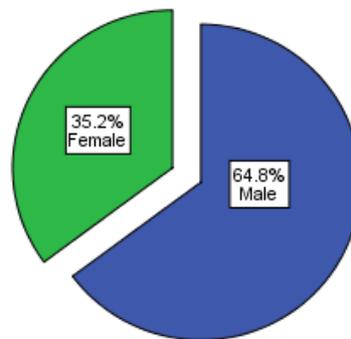


Figure 6.1: Gender of respondents, percentage (n=165)

With regard to age, a dominant age group of respondents did not exist. As Figure 6.2 illustrates, all age groups were represented and between the age of 25 to 64, numbers were relatively evenly distributed. The group of 35-44 year olds was slightly bigger than the others with 23.6% (n=39) and the groups of 18-24 and 65+ year olds had the smallest numbers of representatives (both under 10%).

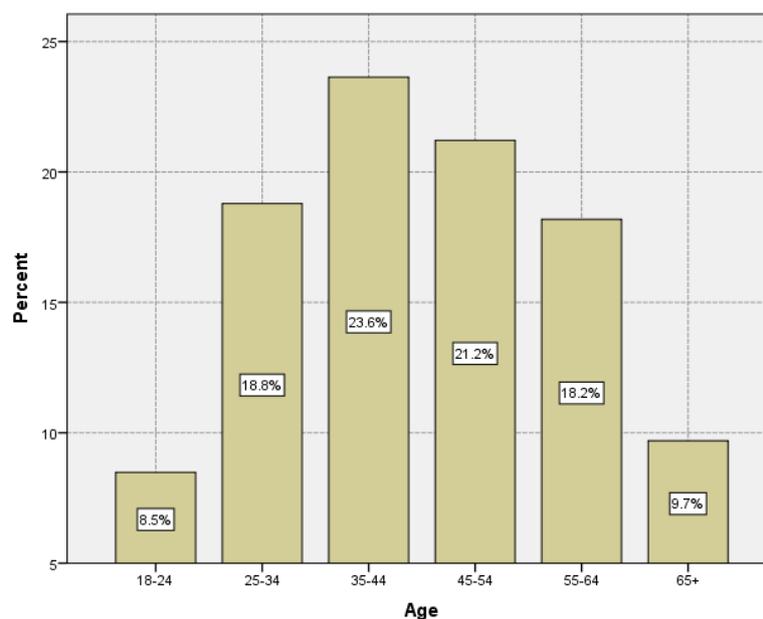


Figure 6.2: Age of respondents, percentage (n=165)

The majority of survey respondents (77.6%, n=128) came from New Zealand's South Island, while 9.7% (n=16) of the sample travelled to Dunedin from the North Island and 12.7%

(n=21) came from overseas. The following analysis will first examine the geographical distribution of New Zealand visitors and then of international visitors to Dunedin.

Figure 6.3 shows the geographical distribution of New Zealand survey respondents based on their region of origin. As overseas tourists (n=21) were excluded, the sample size for this analysis was n=144. It reveals that among New Zealanders, most came from Canterbury (34%, n=49), Southland (28.5%, n=41) and Otago (22.2%, n=32). With Dunedin being located in Otago, and Canterbury and Southland being the two closest neighbouring regions, it is not surprising to see that these three regions were the most dominant regions of origin of sport tourists at this event. Since Canterbury is a stronghold of Rugby League on the South Island (Fox Sports Pulse, n.d.) and there are currently no large sports events taking place in Christchurch due to the earthquake damage to the AMI Stadium, higher numbers of visitors from Canterbury were attracted to Dunedin (Rugby: Stadium damage casts doubt on Cup matches, 2011). What was less expected was that Otago would be positioned in the 3rd place of the ranking. One possible explanation for this could be that due to the location of regional boundaries, the travel time from Timaru in southern Canterbury for example is much shorter than from places in Central Otago, even though these are still part of the same region. With increasing distance from the place of origin, tourist numbers usually decrease (Boniface & Cooper, 1994). Furthermore, Rugby League clubs are generally located in cities (Weed, 2008c), which leads to higher number of Rugby League fans in urban areas like Christchurch than in predominantly rural areas like Central Otago.

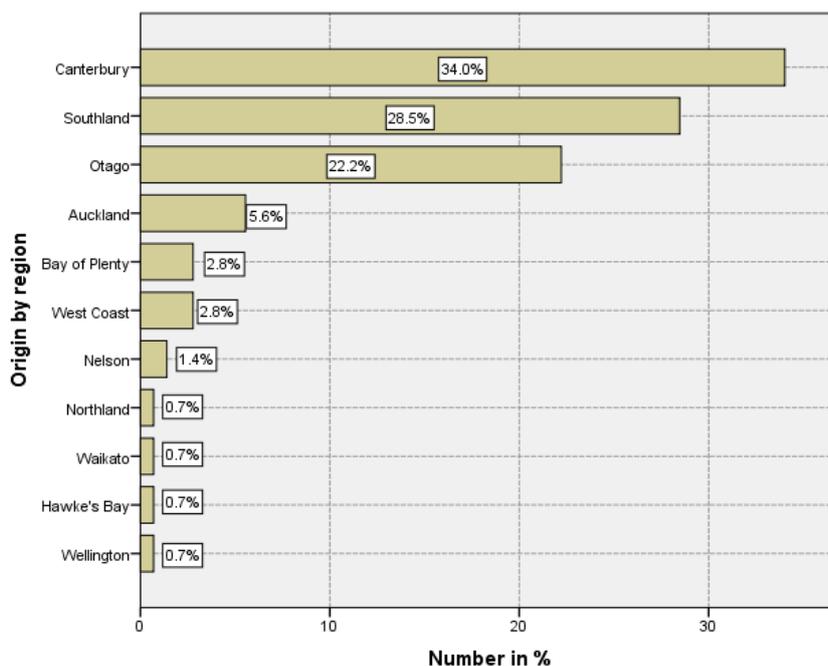


Figure 6.3: Region of origin of New Zealand visitors, percentage (n=144)

A small number of people also visited from more distant regions in the South Island like the West Coast (2.8%, n=4) and Nelson (1.4%, n=2) (see Figure 6.3). Interestingly, 3 of the 4 people who travelled the long way to Dunedin from the West Coast were regular Rugby League watchers and their main purpose for the visit was the Kiwis vs. England game. The fact that the game in Dunedin was the only Four Nations 2014 game taking place in the South Island (New Zealand Rugby League, n.d.) might have attracted a higher number of Rugby League fans from all over the South Island. The Marlborough and Tasman region were not represented.

Among those who travelled to Dunedin from the North Island, most respondents came from Auckland (5.6%, n=8) and the Bay of Plenty (2.8%, n=4). Wellington, Hawke's Bay, Waikato and Northland were represented by n=1 (0.7%) respectively. The Warriors, the only New Zealand team currently playing in the National Rugby League premiership in Australasia, are based at Mount Smart Stadium in Auckland (NRL Telstra Premiership, n.d.). Therefore, the number of passionate Rugby League fans, who would travel a considerable distance for a live game, is much higher in Auckland than in other parts of the North Island, or even New Zealand. This could explain why the highest number of North Island visitors came from Auckland. Other influencing factors could simply be the higher population numbers and frequency and price of flights from Auckland to Dunedin. The low number of visitors from

Wellington, New Zealand's capital and also one of the major cities in the North Island, could be due to the fact that the Four Nations 2014 final took place at Westpac Stadium in Wellington the week after the Kiwis vs. England game in Dunedin. Whangarei in Northland hosted the third of the three games taking place in New Zealand (New Zealand Rugby League, n.d.), which may also have led to the generally low number of visitors from the northern regions of the North Island. In total, 11 of 16 New Zealand regions were represented among the research sample.

Among international visitors to Dunedin ($n=21$), almost half ($n=10$) came from the United Kingdom (UK) (see Figure 6.4). This result could be expected because the New Zealand Rugby League team was facing the English. The second most represented country was the Netherlands ($n=3$), followed by Sweden and Australia (both $n=2$). The remaining overseas visitors came from Germany, Spain, France and Kenya (all $n=1$). It can be assumed that the majority of visitors who were not from the UK were probably tourists visiting Dunedin who decided to attend the Rugby League match during their stay. Nevertheless, this is a group of potential consumers of sport tourism bundles that should not be neglected.

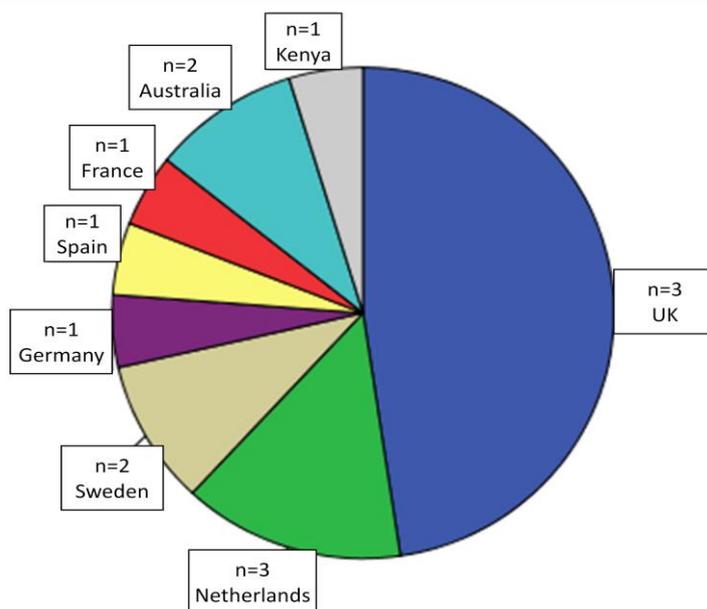


Figure 6.4: Country of origin of overseas visitors, percentage ($n=21$)

For many visitors, Dunedin was not a new destination. Only 12.7% ($n=21$) of respondents had never been to Dunedin before (see Figure 7.5). All other visitors had been to Dunedin once (9.1%, $n=15$), 2-5 times (20.6%, $n=34$) or more than 5 times (57.6%, $n=95$) before. A

cross-tabulation of previous visits to Dunedin with the origin of visitors (as presented above) allowed for further insights. The majority of those visitors who had never been to Dunedin before were from the North Island or from overseas (90.4%, n=19). Most of those who had visited more than 5 times before were from Otago, Southland or Canterbury (over 90%). These results should be considered when creating and marketing sport tourism bundles for sports events at the Forsyth Barr Stadium.

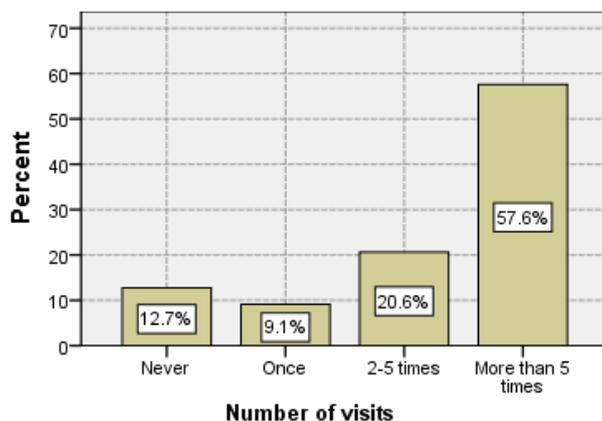


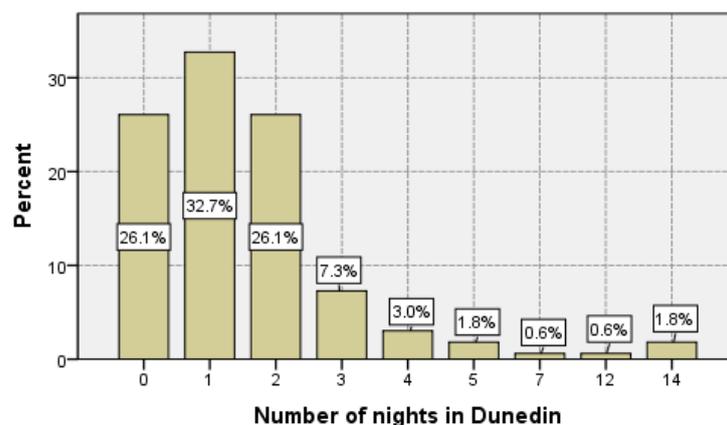
Figure 6.5: Previous visits to Dunedin, percentage (n=165)

The next analysis determined the primary reasons of respondents to travel to Dunedin. In the questionnaire, this question had been formulated in an open-ended format, so during data analysis, the answers were coded and organised into categories. Results are presented in Table 6.1. With such a big proportion of returning visitors to Dunedin, it is not surprising that for 78.2% (n=129) of respondents the main reason for visiting this time was the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game. Based on Gammon & Robinson's (1997) categorisation, this can be classified as sport tourism because sport is the primary motivation for travel. In the case of 6.1% (n=10) of respondents, the primary motivation for travel to Dunedin was holiday, which classifies their visit as tourism sport. Among other reasons stated for coming to Dunedin were work, family, participation in another event or sport, university, and party or drinking. More than half of the visitors from the UK (60%, n=6) stated the Rugby League game as their main purpose for the visit. Overseas visitors from other countries almost exclusively came for holidays.

Table 6.1: Main purpose for this visit to Dunedin (n=165)

Main purpose for the visit	Count	%
Rugby League game	129	78.2
Holiday	10	6.1
Work	6	3.6
Family	6	3.6
Another event	4	2.4
Play / watch another sport	4	2.4
Party / Drinking	2	1.2
University	2	1.2
Airport	1	0.6
Shopping	1	0.6
Total	165	100.0

An analysis of the duration of stays of survey respondents (see Figure 6.6) revealed that if visitors stayed in Dunedin over night, they most commonly stayed for 1 night (32.7%, n=54) or 2 nights (26.1%, n=43). Few people (n≤12) stayed for 3 nights or longer. However, about a quarter of the sample group (26.1%, n=43) did not stay in Dunedin overnight at all. A cross-tabulation and chi square test of significance showed that 99% of visitors who did not stay overnight came from Otago, Southland and Canterbury ($\chi^2=23.42$, $df=6$, $p=0.0001$). As visitors from these regions also made up 84.7% of the sample population (see Figure 6.3), this should be seen as a significant opportunity and could be addressed with the appropriate sport tourism bundles.

**Figure 6.6:** Duration of stays in Dunedin, percentage (n=165)

Questions 5 and 6 of the questionnaire addressed the sport spectating behaviour of the sample group. Frequency analysis showed that the sample was relatively heterogeneous with regard to their Rugby League experience (see Figure 6.7). There was only a difference of about 7% between those who indicated that they regularly attend Rugby League matches (39.4%, n=65) and those for whom the Kiwis vs. England match was their first live Rugby League game experience (32.1%, n=53). Similarly, the difference between those who had attended one Rugby League game before (12.1%, n=20) and those who had gone to a few games but were not regular spectators (16.4%, n=27) was not significant.

Most respondents (accumulated: 89.1%, n=147) attended the game with their friends, partner or family (see Figure 6.8). Only 7% (n=11) attended the match alone, 3% (n=5) with a club or group, and 1% (n=2) with colleagues.

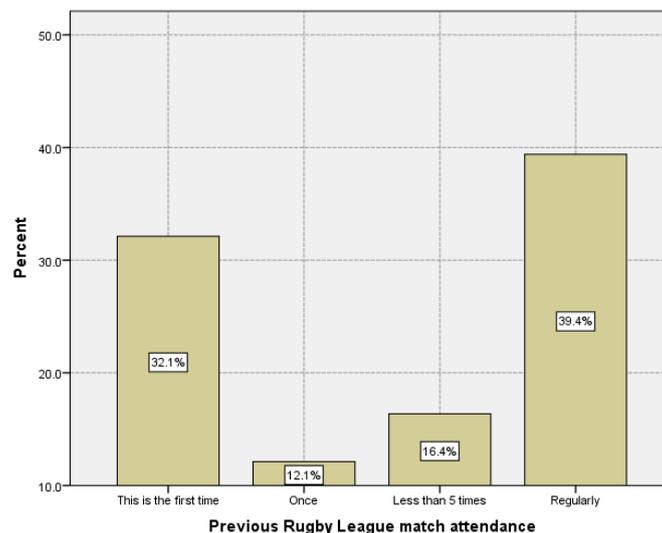


Figure 6.7: Previous Rugby League match attendance, percentage (n=165)

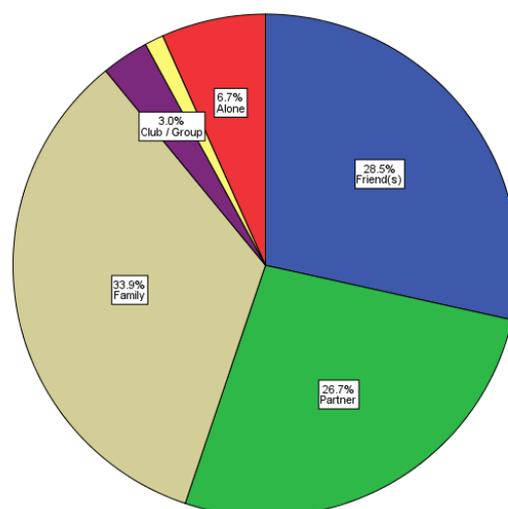


Figure 6.8: Companion taken to the Rugby League game, percentage (n=165)

The sample group engaged in a variety of activities in Dunedin before and/or after the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League match. Again, this was an open-ended question in the questionnaire and responses were coded and categorised. Table 6.2 presents the results. Some survey participants noted several activities, so the total number of cases was $n=246$. Those who did not reply anything to this question were grouped in one category with those respondents who wrote 'nothing'. A disadvantage of the quantitative approach and the open-ended format of this question was that it cannot be said with certainty whether these respondents actually did not engage in any activities in Dunedin or whether they simply did not want to write anything down. Similarly, respondents may only have written down an activity they considered worth noting.

Nevertheless, some interesting findings could be obtained from the data. The most popular activity before or after the Rugby League game was to drink, party or celebrate in Dunedin, as noted by 17.9% ($n=44$) of the sample group. It is unknown whether this activity depended on the outcome of the game. When differentiating between different wordings of this activity (not included in the table below), 14 respondents said that they would 'drink', 8 people wrote 'social drinking' and another 4 wrote that they wanted to 'get drunk'. The second most popular activities were to eat or dine out or to shop before or after the game (both 14.2%, $n=35$).

Sightseeing in or around Dunedin was an activity 11.8% ($n=29$) of survey respondents did or were planning to engage in. Within this category, several attractions were mentioned, such as Larnach Castle ($n=3$), historic buildings ($n=3$), Baldwin Street ($n=2$), the Railway Station ($n=2$), Mt Cargill look out ($n=2$), Port Chalmers ($n=2$), and the Farmers market ($n=2$). Museum visits or tours, for example at the Cadbury Chocolate Factory or the Speight's Museum, and visits to an art gallery in Dunedin were treated as a separate category in this frequency distribution due to their popularity ($n=18$). The Taieri Gorge Railway trip was also mentioned specifically by 4 respondents. When taking these three categories together (Sightseeing + Museum/Tour/Art gallery + Taieri Gorge Railway) it shows that 20.7% ($n=51$) of the sample group did sightseeing or visited an attraction in or around Dunedin before or after the Rugby League match, which makes this the most popular activity among the research sample.

Further activities noted by survey respondents were visits to friends and family, trips to one of Dunedin's beaches, wildlife experiences, visits to the Botanical Gardens or the Casino, playing a sport, work, relaxing or attending a concert.

Table 6.2: Activity undertaken before or after the Rugby League game

Activities in Dunedin	Count	%
Drink/Party/Celebrate	44	17.9
Eat / Dine out	35	14.2
Shop	35	14.2
Sightseeing in/around Dunedin	29	11.8
Nothing	26	10.6
Museum / Tour / Art gallery	18	7.3
Visit family & friends	16	6.5
Beach	9	3.7
Wildlife experience	7	2.8
Gardens	5	2.0
Casino	5	2.0
Play sport	5	2.0
Work	4	1.6
Taieri Gorge Railway	4	1.6
Relax	3	1.2
Concert	1	0.4
Total	246	100.0

6.3) Bundle components

The next part of the analysis was conducted with the goal of meeting objective 1 to determine the most popular bundle component(s) among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Question 9 was at the centre of this analysis. In the first part of the question respondents were asked to tick all activities and events that appealed to them in a list of 16 bundle components. Multiple items could be selected and there was no limit to how many items could be chosen per person. Therefore, the total count of responses was n=691.

Only 7 respondents (4.2%) indicated that none of these events or activities would appeal to them. Further analysis of the characteristics of this group through cross-tabulation with selected questions from part 1 of the questionnaire showed that one of these 7 respondents was a visitor from the UK, all others came from Southland, Canterbury or Otago and had also been to Dunedin more than 5 times. They all came to Dunedin primarily for the Rugby League match but their previous attendance of Rugby League matches varied. They also

stayed in Dunedin for various lengths of time, ranging from 0 nights to 2 nights. Hence, it was not possible to identify particular consumer characteristics or even a group of consumers who would typically not be interested in sport tourism bundles.

With only 4.2% of respondents indicating that none of the potential components appealed to them, clearly 95.8% of the sample group were interested in participating in an event or activity before or after the Rugby League match. In fact, each person selected an average of 4 bundle components that appealed to them. This included the relatively big group of regular visitors to Dunedin from Southland, Otago and Canterbury as well as the considerable group of day visitors. Consequently, even though in this questionnaire the sample group only indicated their interest in bundle components and did not indicate any purchase intention, it shows the potential of creating sport tourism bundles including a Rugby League match and an activity or event before or after the game. It also justifies a more detailed analysis of which bundle components are most popular among the target group and would therefore be most suitable to be included in sport tourism bundles. This will be detailed in the next section.

After a general interest in events or activities as sport tourism bundle components has been proven, it is worth analysing which items were most popular among the sample group. Therefore, data collected with the second part of Question 9 was analysed, where respondents were asked to name the activity or event that appealed most to them. This is hereafter referred to as their 'first choice' of bundle components because it can be assumed that if given the choice, they would pick this activity or event first. Frequency distributions were calculated for this first choice of bundle components, first for the entire sample population and then for different consumer groups and characteristics.

The most popular bundle component among all respondents was 'Meet & Greet with the players' as this was the first choice of 33.5% (n=53) of the sample group. The second most popular item was a 'Concert', chosen by 16.5% (n=26), and the third was an 'Autograph/Photo session with players', chosen by 10.1% (n=16) of all respondents (see Figure 6.9).

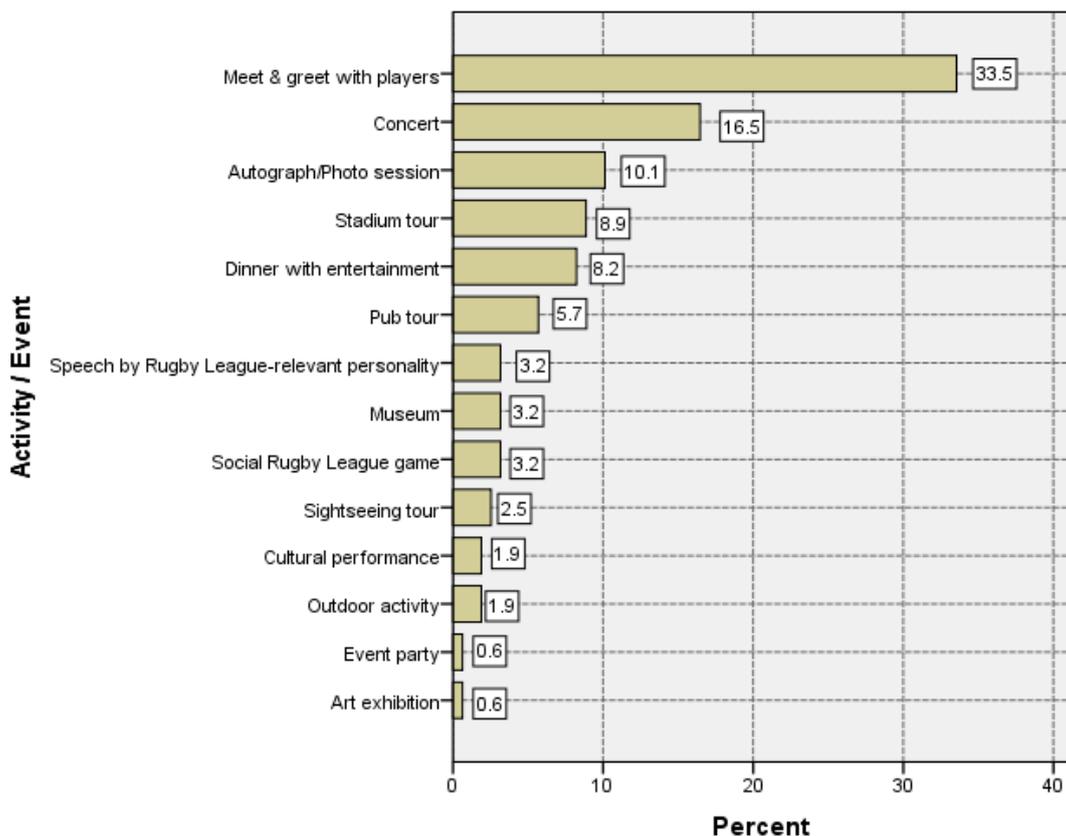


Figure 6.9: First choice of bundle components, percentage (n=158)

When differentiating between male and female consumer groups, 'Meet and Greet with the players' was still ranked first (male: 57.1%; female: 50%) and a 'Concert' ranked second (male: 27.0%; female: 26.5%) among both. The third most popular component among men however was the 'Autograph/Photo session with players' (15.9%), whereas for women it was the 'Dinner with entertainment' (23.5%).

Differentiation based on age provided further insight into the preferences of the sample group. Although 'Meet & Greet with the players' was among the top 3 components of all age groups, the preferences of the youngest and oldest age group were slightly different from the other age categories. For all respondents aged between 25 and 64, 'Meet & Greet with the players' was the most popular activity/event, in all cases followed by a 'Concert'. The third most popular activity/event was either an 'Autograph/Photo session', 'Dinner with entertainment', 'Pub tour' or 'Sightseeing tour'. For 18-24 year olds however, a concert was the most popular bundle component and for 65+ year olds it was a stadium tour.

In section 6.2 of this chapter, visitors from Southland, Otago and Canterbury were identified as an important target group for sport tourism bundles since most of them had been to Dunedin multiple times before, travelled primarily for the Rugby League match and did not tend to stay overnight. The majority of this group did not spend much time in the city before or after the game. This was identified as a significant opportunity, which could be addressed with bundling. Cross-tabulation showed that for spectators from all three regions, 'Meet & greet with the players' would be the most popular bundle component. In the case of respondents from Southland, about 45% indicated that this would be their first choice, for Otago and Canterbury it was about 40% respectively. For visitors from Southland and Otago, a concert would be the second most popular event or activity, and the 'Dinner with entertainment', 'Stadium tour' and 'Autograph/photo session with players' were also among the top 3 favourites. If these activities would be bundled with a Rugby League or similar sports event and specifically marketed in Southland, Otago and Canterbury, a lot of sport tourists from these regions could decide to stay in the city for longer.

For visitors from the North Island and from overseas, a favourite bundle component could not be identified. For North Islanders, the meet & greet with players, concert, dinner with entertainment, autograph/photo session, sightseeing tour and visit of a museum were equally attractive (all 12.5%, n=2). Among overseas tourists, the autograph/photo session was selected by 15% (n=3) of respondents and was the favourite among UK tourists, followed by the meet & greet with players. A more detailed analysis of the frequencies for North Island and overseas tourists did not seem practical or insightful due to the small numbers in each subcategory.

From the results presented so far it is evident that 'Meet & Greet with the players' was clearly the most popular bundle component among almost all types of consumers. In most cases, the 'Concert' was the second or the third most popular event/activity. This was also true for both regular and first time Rugby League spectators and for spectators staying 0, 1, or 2 nights in Dunedin. It could be suspected that respondents perhaps tended to choose particular bundle components based on their position in the list of items in the questionnaire, for example the first two components in the list, especially when approached closer to kick-off. This is however very unlikely because the 16 items were deliberately listed

in a random order, with Meet & Greet being listed as number 5 and the Concert as number 2.

An interesting observation could be made when comparing the main purpose for travel and first choice of bundle component. Among those who travelled for Rugby League (sport tourism), the Meet & Greet with the players was the most favoured bundle component (40.2%, n=64) (2nd: concert, 14.8%; 3rd: autograph/photo, 12.3%). Among those who came for holidays however (tourism sport), the most popular activities were the stadium tour, the speech by a Rugby League-relevant personality, and the cultural performance (all 20%). Based on these findings, and the ones described above, sport tourism bundles could be customised for particular consumer groups and marketed accordingly. In this instance, bundles including a Meet & Greet with the players could be marketed through sports or event-specific channels, for example on the website of the venue or the ticket provider, which is where they are most likely to be noticed by those who are primarily interested in the sports event. Bundles including a stadium tour, cultural performance or speech could be marketed through tourism-specific channels, such as tour operators, accommodation providers or the destination marketing organisation, in order to reach those who travel primarily for a holiday. Further suggestions for customised sport tourism bundles and target marketing will be made in Chapter 7 and 8.

It was further noticed that the less often people had previously visited Dunedin, the more diverse their preferences were with regard to bundle components, which made it difficult to determine the most popular ones. Moreover, frequency analyses of the second and third choice of bundle components did not lead to any further insights, which is why the results are not discussed here.

To summarise, based on the research findings described above, the most popular bundle components among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin could be determined to meet research objective 1. The three most popular bundle components were:

- 1) Meet and greet with the players**
- 2) Concert**
- 3) Autograph/Photo session with the players**

The most popular bundle components in various consumers groups based on the consumer profile are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: The most popular bundle components in various consumer groups

Most popular bundle component	Consumer group
Meet & Greet with the players	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Men and women ✓ 25 – 64 year olds ✓ Visitors from Southland, Otago and Canterbury ✓ First time, returning and regular visitors ✓ Day visitors and short trip visitors (1-2 nights) ✓ Rugby League game as main purpose for travel ✓ First time and regular Rugby League spectators
Stadium tour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 65+ year olds ✓ Holiday as main purpose for travel
Sightseeing tour around Dunedin / Speech by rugby-relevant personality / Cultural performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ First time visitors to Dunedin ✓ Holiday as main purpose for travel ✓ Visitors from the UK
Concert	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 18-24 years olds

6.4) Consumer values

The second objective of this study was to determine the most salient consumer value(s) for Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. The analysis of data collected in Q8 of the questionnaire helped to meet this objective. Q8 consisted of a list of 16 statements finishing the sentence ‘While I’m in Dunedin, I’m hoping to...’. Each of these statements represented an aspect of social, emotional or epistemic consumer value and the respondents were asked to tick all statements that applied. In total, there were 6 statements for social value, 3 for emotional value, and 7 for epistemic value. It was assumed that the most important consumer value for each respondent was the one with the highest amount of selected

items. As each category had a different number of items however, a simple comparison of frequencies was not sufficient. Therefore, proportions were calculated for each category by dividing the amount of selected items by the total number of items per category. By comparing these proportions, it could then be determined which consumer value was the most important for each respondent. This was entered into SPSS by creating three new variables ('Social Top', 'Emotional Top' and 'Epistemic Top') with the value 1 for the value with the highest proportion and the value 0 for the other two. By using these three variables, data were then analysed with descriptive and inferential statistics, such as frequencies, cross-tables, chi square analyses and confidence intervals, in order to determine the most salient consumer value among the sample group.

Calculations of frequencies and confidence intervals showed that emotional value was the most important consumer value for 52.7% (n=87) of the sample group (see Table 6.4). It can be said with 95% confidence that the true proportion of the entire population falls within a confidence interval of 45.1% and 60.3%. Social value was the most important consumer value for 47.9% (n=79) of the sample group and the confidence interval ranges from 40.3% to 55.5%. Since the confidence intervals of these two values overlap, there is no significant difference between the importance of social and emotional values among survey respondents. With 10.3% (n=17) and a 95% confidence interval of 5.7% and 14.9% however, the importance of epistemic value among the sample was significantly lower than the importance of the other two consumer values. Consequently, social and emotional values both seem to be the most salient consumer values for the sample group.

Table 6.4: Proportions of the most salient consumer values among the sample group (with 95% confidence intervals), n=165

Consumer value	Proportions (%)	95% confidence interval
Social	47.9%	(40.3 , 55.5)
Emotional	52.7%	(45.1 , 60.3)
Epistemic	10.3%	(5.7 , 14.9)

This distribution was also reflected among both genders (see Table 6.5). While percentage values suggest that emotional value was the top consumer value for men (57.9%, n=47) and social value for women (55.2%, n=32), there was no significant difference between the importance of social and emotional value across genders as the confidence intervals

overlap. However, for both men and women, epistemic value was of significantly lower importance than the other two consumer values.

Table 6.5: Proportions of the most salient consumer values based on gender (with 95% confidence intervals)

	Men	Women
Social	43.9% (34.5 , 53.3)	55.2% (42.4 , 68.0)
Emotional	57.9% (48.5 , 67.3)	43.1% (30.4 , 55.8)
Epistemic	11.2% (5.2 , 17.2)	8.6% (1.4 , 15.8)
n	107	58

Across age groups, the group of 35-44 year olds was the only one that showed differing preferences (see Table 6.6). For respondents of this age group, emotional value was of significantly higher importance than social and epistemic value, between which there was no significant difference. It could also be noticed that they valued social value much less than older respondents. All other age groups were consistent with the results of the total sample group, with social and emotional value being of similar and significantly higher importance than epistemic value (except age group 18-24, for whom there was no significant difference between epistemic and social value).

Table 6.6: Proportions of the most salient consumer values based on age groups (with 95% confidence intervals)

	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
Social	35.7% (10.6 , 60.8)	41.9% (24.5 , 59.3)	28.2% (14.1 , 42.3)	60.0% (43.8 , 76.2)	60.0% (42.5 , 77.5)	68.8% (46.1 , 91.5)
Emotional	57.1% (31.2 , 83.0)	58.1% (40.7 , 75.5)	59.0% (43.6 , 74.4)	42.9% (26.5 , 59.3)	60.0% (42.5 , 77.5)	31.3% (8.6 , 54.0)
Epistemic	7.1% (-6.4 , 20.6)	12.9% (1.1 , 24.3)	12.8% (2.3 , 23.3)	11.4% (0.9 , 21.9)	6.7% (-2.2 , 15.6)	6.3% (-5.6 , 18.2)
n	14	31	39	35	30	16

Chi square tests and confidence intervals for comparisons based on the country of origin (New Zealanders vs. overseas visitors) and region of origin (visitors from Southland/Otago/Canterbury vs. visitors from other regions) showed that the origin of

spectators did not affect the salience of consumer values. Epistemic value was perceived as significantly less important than social and emotional value, which were both of similar importance to the respondents. Further tests based on other consumer characteristics, such as their reason for visiting Dunedin or their previous Rugby League experience, did not reveal differing results.

The above results showed that overall, social and emotional value were the most important consumer values for the sample group. Since Q8 consisted of a number of individual items, data could be further analysed with regard to the importance of individual aspects of consumer values for the participants.

The item in Q8 that was ticked most frequently, by 71% (n=115) of all survey respondents, was ‘..to spend time with the person/people I attend this game with’ (see Figure 6.10). Based on Sheth et al.’s (1991) conceptualisation of consumer value, this item represents an aspect of social value. Since 93.3% of the sample group attended the match with family, partner or friends (see Figure 6.8), it is not surprising that this aspect of social value was perceived as important.

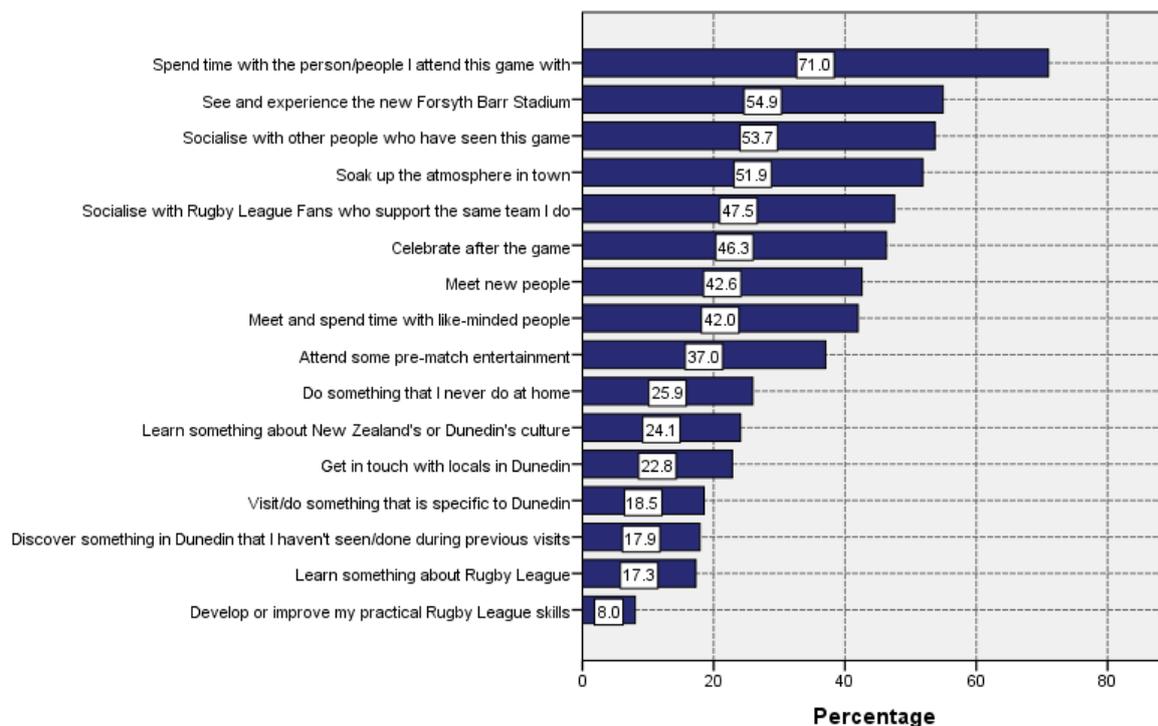


Figure 6.10: Frequencies of selected aspects of consumer values in Q8, percentage (n=146)

Interestingly, the second most frequently selected item (55%, n=89) was ‘...to see and experience the new Forsyth Barr Stadium’ (see Figure 6.10). This item was included in the questionnaire as an aspect of epistemic value representing the desire to see and experience something new or different. The result was therefore unexpected because epistemic value had been identified as the consumer value of the significantly lowest importance among all respondents (except age group 35-44). So although overall, that is when taken all aspects of a consumer value together, epistemic value was perceived as the least important consumer value, respondents rated this particular aspect highly. This could be explained by recognising this item as an aspect of *conditional* epistemic value, which means that it provides epistemic value in a specific situation or context. The specific situation in this case was that many survey respondents had probably never attended an event at the relatively new Forsyth Barr Stadium and therefore hoped to see and experience it during their stay in Dunedin. Apart from this aspect however, they did not perceive their visit to Dunedin or attendance of the match to be of much epistemic value. The third and fourth most frequently selected items in Q8 were ‘...to socialise with other people who have seen the game’ (social) and ‘...to soak up the atmosphere in town’ (emotional). Subsequent analyses compared the frequencies of selected items based on consumer profiles to determine whether and how their preferences influenced the overall frequencies.

It was found that the statement ‘...to spend time with the person/people I attend this game with’ was the most frequently selected item across both genders (men: 66%, n=71; women: 80%, n=44), followed by ‘...to see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium’ (men: 58%, n=62; women: 49%, n=27). In third place, it was also important for men to soak up the atmosphere in town, whereas for women it was to socialise with other people who had seen the game. As found with the analysis of bundle components, four of the six age groups, namely all respondents aged between 25 and 64, showed very similar preferences. For all respondents in this age bracket, ‘...to spend time with the person/people I attend this game with’ was the item that was ticked most often (all between 67%, n=20 and 77%, n=23) and ‘socialising with other people who have seen this game’ was either the second or third most important consumer value. The results of the youngest and oldest age group were slightly different. Among 18-24 year olds, the item ‘soak up the atmosphere in town’ was selected

most frequently (n=8, 57%), among 65+ year olds it was to 'see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium' (87%, n=13). The 65+ age group was in fact the only consumer group where this item was most popular.

To spend time with the person/people they attended the game with was also most important for respondents from Southland (80%, n=31), Otago (67%, n=21) and Canterbury (70%, n=34). Among the three most frequently selected items for these three regions were furthermore 'to socialise with other people who have seen this game', 'to soak up the atmosphere in town' (Otago) and to 'see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium' (Southland). Cross-tabulations based on other regions and countries of origin, the length of stay in Dunedin and past Rugby League event attendance produced similar results to those described above. Among all these consumer groups, aspects of social value, especially to 'spend time with the person/people they attend this game with', were most important.

Two consumer groups however stood out. First time visitors to Dunedin selected 'soaking up the atmosphere in town' most often (76%, n=16) and also wanted to 'meet new people' (57%, n=12). For those survey respondents whose main purpose for travelling to Dunedin was a holiday, it was most important to 'soak up the atmosphere in town'. Indeed, this item was selected by 100% (n=10) of people in this category. The next most frequently selected items for this group were 'to meet new people' (70%, n=7) and to 'do something they never do at home' (60%, n=6). The fact that those visitors who primarily visited for holidays had different preferences from the rest of the sample group was consistent with findings regarding the most popular bundle components. This should be considered when creating and marketing customised sport tourism bundles.

Based on the results presented in this section, the most salient consumer values for Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin were identified to be social and emotional value, with no significant difference with regard to their importance. Furthermore, Table 6.7 presents the most frequently selected items of Q8 based on consumer profiles, all being individual aspects of one of the three consumer values.

Table 6.7: The most salient aspects of consumer value per consumer groups

Questionnaire item (aspect of consumer value)	Consumer value	Consumer profile
‘Spend time with the person/people I attend this game with’	Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Men and women ✓ 25 – 64 year olds ✓ Visitors from Southland, Otago and Canterbury ✓ Returning and regular visitors ✓ Day visitors and short trip visitors (1-2 nights) ✓ Rugby League game as main purpose for travel ✓ First time and regular Rugby League spectators
‘Soak up the atmosphere in town’	Emotional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 18-24 year olds ✓ Holiday as main purpose for travel ✓ Visitors from Auckland and the UK ✓ First time visitors to Dunedin
‘See and experience the new Forsyth Barr Stadium’	Epistemic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 65+ year olds

6.5) The relationship between consumer values and selected bundle components

Objective 3 of this research aimed at determining whether there was a relationship between the most salient consumer values and the activity or event selected as the first choice of bundle components among survey respondents. In other words, it aimed at testing whether respondents for whom a particular consumer value was most important, for example social value, were more likely to prefer a certain bundle component over others. Therefore, the variables Social Top, Emotional Top and Epistemic Top, which were calculated as part of meeting research objective 2 and represent the proportion of selected items per consumer value category (see Chapter 6.4) were cross-tabulated with the most popular bundle

components identified as part of research objective 1 (see Chapter 6.3). Since including all activities and events that had been identified as the most popular components among various consumer groups (see Table 6.4) would have spread the data too much to allow for statistically significant results, only the three most popular bundle components among the whole sample group were included. These were 'Meet & greet with the players', 'Concert' and 'Autograph/Photo session with the players'. All other activities and events were combined into the variable 'Others'. The relationship between the variables was then assessed by testing for significant differences between them by calculating chi square statistics and confidence intervals.

The fact that in most cases, it had not been possible to identify a single most salient consumer value for respondents due to insignificant differences between the importance of social and emotional value, already suggested that there might not be a relationship between consumer values and chosen bundle components. This was confirmed by chi square values, which were calculated for cross-tabulations between each consumer value and the top three bundle components and ranged from 0.259 to 0.899. Nevertheless, frequencies and confidence intervals were calculated additionally (see Table 6.8). Based on these confidence intervals, it could be stated that among those respondents for whom social value or epistemic value had been most important, there was no significant difference between the frequencies at which the three bundle components had been chosen. Hence there is no relationship between those consumer values and any bundle component. Among those for whom emotional value was the most important consumer value, 'Meet & greet with the players' was chosen significantly more often than 'Concert' or 'Autograph/photo session'. Although this suggests a relationship, it is not a true one, since analyses conducted in this study have shown that there is no significant difference between the importance of social and emotional value among respondents. This leads to the conclusion that there is generally no relationship between the most salient consumer value(s) and the choice of sport tourism bundle components of the sample group.

Table 6.8: Cross-tabulation: Top consumer value by most popular bundle components, column percentage (with 95% confidence intervals)

	Social Top	Emotional Top	Epistemic Top
Meet & Greet	31.6% (21.3 , 41.9)	34.5% (24.5 , 44.5)	17.6% (-0.5 , 35.7)
Concert	21.5% (12.4 , 30.6)	16.1% (8.4 , 23.8)	11.8% (-3.5 , 27.1)
Autograph/Photo session	8.9% (2.6 , 15.2)	9.2% (3.1 , 15.3)	11.8% (-3.5 , 27.1)
Other	38.0% (27.3 , 48.7)	40.2% (29.9 , 50.5)	58.8% (35.4 , 82.2)
n	79	87	17

6.6) Chapter conclusion

In this chapter, the findings from the statistical data analysis were presented and analysed in order to meet the three research objectives of this study. Both descriptive statistics, such as frequency calculations and cross-tabulations, and inferential statistics, such as chi square calculations and confidence intervals, were conducted. In the first section of this chapter, a profile of the sample group was created based on frequency analyses and cross-tabulations of data collected in part 1 and 3 of the questionnaire. These were used in subsequent analyses to be able to draw conclusions not only for the entire sample group but also for various consumer groups. The next section determined the most popular events and activities that could be bundled with sports events (objective 1), both for the entire sample and for individual consumer groups. The three most popular bundle components among the sample group were 'Meet and greet with the players', 'Concert' and 'Autograph/Photo session with the players'. In order to determine the most salient consumer values among the sample population (objective 2), proportions of items selected in Q8 were analysed with frequency calculations and confidence intervals. Based on the results, social and emotional values could both be determined as the most salient consumer values, with no significant difference between the two. Epistemic value was perceived as significantly less important by the sample group than the other two consumer values. Last but not least, objective 3, the most ambitious research objective of this study aimed at determining whether there is a relationship between the most salient consumer values and the activity or event selected as the first choice of bundle components among survey respondents. Statistical analysis showed that there is no relationship between those variables.

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1) Introduction

This chapter will bring together the key literature and theoretical background, as discussed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, and the findings from empirical research, as presented in Chapter 6. The first section will explore bundling as a leverage strategy in Dunedin, linking the research setting and current sport tourism situation with results from the survey. The subsequent sections will discuss the key literature and research findings for each of the three research objectives of this study. This will then lead to an answer to the research question to what extent, and in what ways, bundles of an international Rugby League match and an event or activity would be valued by event sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Limitations of this study and recommendations for future research will be considered where applicable.

7.2) Bundling as a leverage strategy in Dunedin

Tourism is an important industry in Dunedin (DunedinNZ.com, 2015b) and with the Forsyth Barr Stadium as a relatively new and unique sports facility that can host large sports events (Dunedin Venues Limited, 2013), there is a significant and timely opportunity for sport tourism initiatives to be strategically developed. Sport tourism is considered as one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Gibson, 1998b; Tourism-review.com, 2011) and has been recognised as a significant economic driver and contributor to the growth of the tourism industries of many countries (e.g. Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2012; VisitBritain, 2012; Wood, 2014). Although the exact scope of sport tourism in Dunedin is unknown due to the lack of data or statistics, it has been recognised that sport tourism is developing rapidly and that there is great potential for future development (Manins, 2014; Dunedin Venues Management Limited, 2015).

Although with the Forsyth Barr Stadium as a sports facility, the basic requirement for sport tourism development is given, researchers argue that simply hosting sports events is not enough to guarantee a positive development and positive economic and social impacts on the host destination and community (e.g. Chalip, 2004; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Instead,

strategies and activities are required that help maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts of the event (Chalip, 2004). The development and application of these strategies is called leveraging. Since a significant amount of the construction and development costs of the Forsyth Barr Stadium were and still are covered by DCC and taxpayer funds (Hall & Wilson, 2010; Dunedin City Council, 2012), it is even more crucial that the Dunedin community and a broad range of businesses benefit from this new facility and the sports events it can host. This too may be achieved through leveraging, which can also be interpreted as a strategy to maximise the benefits of investments (Slywotzky & Shapiro, 1993).

In the context of sports events, the bundling approach has been identified as a promising leveraging strategy and this study focused particularly on bundling a Rugby League sports event at the Forsyth Barr Stadium, namely the Kiwis vs. England Four Nations game on 8 November 2014, with activities and events that could be offered before or after the match.

It has been shown in the literature that bundling a sports event with tourism products or services can have several benefits for the host destination. Pennington-Gray and Holdnak (2002) found that sports events are often insular and many sport tourists attending an event leave soon after it has finished. This can especially be the case when the sports event is the primary purpose for their visit (Gibson et al., 2003). Both studies suggest bundling as a strategy to encourage visitors to engage in activities at the host destination and therefore increase the length of their stay. Gibson et al. (2003) added that bundling can also address the problem that visitors may not be aware of what to do at the destination. The sport tourist behaviour described in these two studies could also be noticed among sport tourists visiting the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League match in Dunedin. About 26% (n=43) of the research sample did not stay in Dunedin overnight. Consequently, they travelled to and from Dunedin on the day of the event, which resulted in limited time available for additional activities in Dunedin before or after the event. Of these day visitors, about 88% (n=38) indicated that the Rugby League game was the main reason for their visit. The findings are therefore consistent with those of Pennington-Gray and Holdnak (2002) and Gibson et al. (2003). This suggests that bundling may also be a suitable strategy to increase the length of stay of sport tourists visiting Dunedin.

Ritchie et al. (2002) found that a significant proportion of first or second time visitors at the host destination of a Super 12 Rugby Union Match in Australia did not visit any attractions or participate in an activities before or after the game. This was identified as a lost opportunity that could be addressed with bundling the Rugby Union match with accommodation or tourism activities at the destination. In Dunedin, the number of first and second time visitors was relatively low (12.7%, n=21 and 9.1%, n=15). Only two of the first time visitors and none of the second time visitors indicated that they would do nothing before or after the Rugby League game. Nevertheless, over 40% (n=11) of second time visitors said that they would eat out or go out for a drink before or after the game. By offering bundling opportunities, these could be encouraged to engage in a wider variety of activities in Dunedin.

These findings support the suggestion that bundling would be a suitable leveraging strategy for Rugby League sports events in Dunedin. It could increase the number of sport tourists and their length of stay in Dunedin and therefore increase the positive impact of a sports event such as at the Kiwis vs. England match on Dunedin as a host destination. This also highlights the need for greater collaboration and cooperation between stakeholders of the sports event, most importantly between event organisers and host destination managers. In Dunedin, stakeholders of an event like the Rugby League test match include organisations like DVML and Enterprise Dunedin, the regional tourism organisation. Ideally, further organisations such as the Dunedin City Council and businesses in the sport tourism industry should be included as well. By cooperating with regard to events and activities offered before and after the event and the creation of suitable sport tourism bundles, all stakeholders can benefit from the event and its leveraging strategies.

7.3) The most suitable components for event sport tourism bundles in Dunedin

The first research objective addressed the question which events or activities would appeal most to Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Since research in this field has been very scarce to date, this study could not draw upon previous findings or even bundle components that have previously been found to be successful. It is therefore of an exploratory nature and suggestions for potential bundle components with a particular focus

on activities and events were gathered from a broad range of literature. These were presented in Table 3.1 (see p. 27). Events and activities that were considered most suitable to be included in event sport tourism bundles in Dunedin were then tested in the survey.

The research findings suggest a high interest in participating in an event or activity before or after the Rugby League match among survey respondents. Indeed, 95.8% (n=158) of the research sample selected at least one bundle component that appealed to them from the list of components included in the questionnaire. The most popular bundle component was a meet & greet session with the Rugby League players at the event (33.5%, n=53). The second most popular component was a concert (16.5%, n=26) and the third was an autograph or photo session with the players (10.1%, n=16).

Although these bundle components could be identified as the most popular ones, the preferences of the sample group were generally diverse since 14 out of 16 potential events or activities were selected. The two activities that were not selected as a first choice at all were a screening of rugby/sport movies and a practical Rugby League clinic. The low popularity of the clinic as well as of the art exhibition, which was chosen by one person, is consistent with findings from Chalip and McGuirly (2004), who assessed bundling opportunities of a participatory sports event (the Gold Coast Marathon) with tourist attractions at the host destination. At the same time, findings do not support Green's (2001) suggestion of arts events as a suitable enhancement to a sports event. With regard to the low popularity of event parties, research findings significantly differed from those of Chalip and McGuirly's (2004) study. While their study participants rated event parties as the most attractive bundle component, participants of the present research showed almost no interest (0.6%, n=1). Although the study by Chalip and McGuirly is the only study that tested the perception of sport tourism bundles and is therefore the only one to compare results with, comparisons need to be made with care because their target group were active sport tourists as opposed to the passive sport tourists targeted in this research. Interestingly, two of the more popular bundle components, the autograph/photo session and the stadium tour, have not been mentioned in academic literature at all but were drawn from practical examples of sport tourism bundles (see Table 5.2, p. 62).

An analysis based on consumer profiles revealed that although overall, the meet & greet session with the players was the most popular bundle component, some consumer groups showed differing preferences. Among 18-24 year olds for example, the concert was the

most frequently selected component and 65+ year olds were most interested in a stadium tour. First time visitors to Dunedin, visitors from the UK and those respondents who primarily visited for holiday all selected a sightseeing tour around Dunedin, a speech by a rugby-relevant personality and a cultural performance as the most attractive bundle components. These findings were presented in Table 6.3 (see p. 88) and show the potential to customise event sport tourism bundles to particular market segments based on age, origin, purpose of travel, and other consumer characteristics.

The lack of reference to key literature in this section highlights the scarcity of research on the topic and the contribution that this research has made to the field of sport tourism bundling.

7.4) The most salient consumer values among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin

In order to successfully sell a product or service, for example an event sport tourism bundle, it needs to be of value to the consumer. Therefore it is important to understand what event sport tourists visiting Dunedin perceive as valuable so that the right product bundles can be created. Although testing the popularity of a variety of bundle components provided an insight into the preferences of sport tourists, the findings are limited to the exact products that were tested. The fact that a meet & greet session with the players is so popular does not tell us whether a meet & greet session with the coach or former players would be of similar attractiveness, or to what extent personal interaction with the players affects the popularity of this bundle component. This can make the creation of additional bundle components difficult. Therefore, the consumer value framework by Sheth et al. (1991) was applied to measure what Rugby League sport tourists value in general and which consumer values can be identified as the most salient ones. The research design hereby especially focused on social, emotional and epistemic values.

Research findings revealed that social and emotional value were of equal importance to the sample group. Although emotional value was rated marginally more important (52.7%, n= 87, compared to 47.9% for social and 10.3% for epistemic value), there was no significant difference between the importance of emotional and social value. So, both social and

emotional value were the most salient consumer values among the research sample. These results are consistent with previous research emphasizing the importance of social and emotional value for sport consumption (e.g. Pons et al., 2006; Stewart et al., 2012; McCarville & Stinson, 2014). According to Sheth et al. (1991), social value is offered by experiences that are shared with others. This is usually the case with sports event attendance and indeed, 93% (n=154) of the sample group attended the Rugby League match with a companion. McCarville and Stinson (2014) furthermore explain that social aspects of the sport consumption experience like a sense of identity, community or shared achievement are values that are often sought by sport spectators. These may be experienced by being a fan supporting a particular team or by joining a fan group. In the latter case the perceived social value of attending a live sports event can be particularly high and an individual's behaviour or consumption habits may be affected by that of the fan group (Holt, 1995; Stewart et al., 2012). Tourism and leisure are also generally considered highly social activities, especially when travelling in a group (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Gallarza & Saura, 2006).

Several researchers also explain that sport consumption can offer high emotional value due to the high level of sensual and emotional involvement (e.g. Widing et al., 2003; Pons et al., 2006; Mullin et al., 2007). Emotional value may be offered by products or experiences that arouse feelings and emotions, such as excitement or passion (Sheth et al., 1991). Those are the typical emotions associated with sport consumption (Redden & Steiner, 2000; Stewart et al., 2012). Through the atmosphere in a stadium, the chants and excitement of the spectator masses, these feelings can be enhanced by attending a live sports event (Pons et al., 2006). It has been noted in the literature that for some products, especially for experiences, social and emotional value are closely intertwined and that social and emotional value may be linked through consumption (Hall, Robertson, & Shaw, 2001; Gallarza & Saura, 2006). Future work should examine this link more closely. This may require an adaptation of prevalent models of consumer value.

Epistemic value was perceived as the least important consumer value among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. It was the most salient consumer value for only about 10.3% (n=17) of the sample, a significantly lower proportion than for social and emotional value. Since about 32.1% (n=53) had never attended a live Rugby League match and about 12.7%

(n=21) had never been to Dunedin before, the importance of epistemic value, which may be offered by a new experience or an experience that is different from what the consumer knows (Sheth et al., 1991) was expected to be higher. Although epistemic value was generally perceived as the least important consumer value and was significantly less salient among the sample group than social and emotional value, the analysis of the importance of individual aspects of consumer value suggested that one aspect of epistemic value was perceived as important. This was seeing and experiencing the new Forsyth Barr Stadium. It was the second most frequently selected item (54.9%, n=89) of all items representing individual aspects of the three consumer values. The most frequently selected aspect among the sample was to spend time with the person or people they attended the match with (71%, n=115). Socialising with other people who have seen the game was in third place (53.7%). This is consistent with the general importance of social value for sport tourists, which can be explained with the nature of sports event attendance as an experience that is shared with others. Soaking up the atmosphere in town, the most frequently selected aspect of emotional value was in fourth place (51.9%).

Although epistemic value is currently rated relatively low compared with other consumer values, there is potential for future development. By offering bundles with components that offer epistemic value, for example stadium tours highlighting the design, unique qualities or engineering achievements of the Forsyth Barr Stadium, or tours and events showcasing unique attractions and cultural aspects of Dunedin, the importance of this consumer value may be increased.

7.5) The relationship between salient consumer values and the choice of sport tourism bundle components

The third research objective was based on the explanation by Sheth et al. (1991) that a product or service is purchased when the consumer perceives it to offer at least one of the five consumer values. Therefore, the assumption was made that there is a relationship between the most salient consumer value and the most popular bundle component selected in the questionnaire. In other words, if the results from Q8 suggest that for example social value was the most salient consumer value for a respondent, it was expected

that the same respondent would also select a bundle component as their first choice that would predominantly offer social value. This objective was undertaken as the most ambitious of the three research objectives and its achievement proved to be challenging. First of all, the high number of bundle components that had been noted as a first choice did not allow for an analysis reflecting the choice of individual respondents, since this would have spread the data too much. Instead, it was assessed whether a relationship between consumer values and the three most frequently selected bundle components existed. Then, since both social and emotional value were perceived to be of similar importance by survey respondents, a clear result was unlikely. As expected, a significant difference between the frequencies at which the bundle components had been chosen in relation to each consumer value could not be determined and therefore a relationship between the chosen bundle components and the most salient consumer values could not be confirmed. Consequently, the subsequent step of determining the predominant consumer value that the bundle component may offer was unwarranted due to limitations of data and data interpretation. To some extent, this result is consistent with the explanation by Sheth et al. (1991) that while the consumer needs to perceive the product or experience to have at least one consumer value, the contribution of those values to the purchase decision can be unequal. Hence, the product choice may be influenced predominantly by one value, but may also be based on the perception of a combination of consumer values. For example, the selection of the stadium tour may be based on epistemic value since it offers the opportunity to learn about the design or unique aspects of the stadium, but it may also be based on emotional value if the tour is seen as an opportunity to step onto the field where the supported team has won or lost a number of games or to feel what it is like to walk through the players tunnel. Alternatively, it may be based on a combination of these two values. Similarly, the meet & greet session with players could offer emotional value to some fans who want to meet a player who may be an idol, it could offer social value if this experience is one that is appreciated by friends, or epistemic value as part of an opportunity to learn more about the players. Again, it is most likely a combination of values that makes the consumer select this product.

7.6) Chapter conclusion

This chapter combined the key literature with findings from empirical research and showed that bundling is a suitable and promising leveraging strategy to develop sport tourism in Dunedin and to increase the length of stay of visitors attending a Rugby League sports event. It then identified the most suitable components that can be bundled with a Rugby League match and the most salient consumer values sought by sport tourists attending this event. These findings contributed to answering the research question as follows.

A number of those visiting Dunedin to attend the Kiwis vs England Rugby League game indicated that they would highly value some form of sport tourism bundles for a similar event. They showed a significant interest in events or activities they could engage in before or after the test match, particularly in opportunities to interact with the players, for example in the form of a meet & greet or an autograph & photo session. They would also be interested in a concert or stadium tour before or after the match. Furthermore, these event sport tourists would value sport tourism bundles that offer aspects of social and emotional consumer value, especially opportunities to spend time with the people or person they attended the game with or with other people who have seen the game. They would also value the opportunity to see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium and to experience the atmosphere in town during the time of the event. Sport tourism bundles offering these opportunities are therefore likely to be valued highly by Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Although a relationship between salient consumer values and selected bundle components could not be established, these findings provided a valuable insight into what kind of sport tourism bundles would be valued and can hence be offered to Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. The results should directly inform the creation of sport tourism bundles associated with future sports events hosted at the Forsyth Barr Stadium. They should also be incorporated in the marketing of the event to encourage tourists to maximise their experience of Dunedin as a host city, as a place to engage in ancillary social events, and as a tourist destination to visit and experience with friends in association with attending an event.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1) Chapter introduction

This research set out to determine to what extent, and in what ways, event sport tourists visiting Dunedin value sport tourism bundles that may be developed in association with an international Rugby League test match. It thereby aimed to determine the most popular sport tourism bundle components and the most salient consumer values for sport tourists and to assess the relationship between those. In order to achieve this, quantitative research was conducted. The findings from data analysis were presented in Chapter 6 and discussed together with key literature in Chapter 7. This chapter now concludes this study by summarising key findings from the literature and data analysis and drawing conclusions. It thereby highlights the contribution of this study to research and the body of literature as well as to the practice of event sport tourism bundling. Limitations of this research are shown and suggestions for future research and the application of research findings are made.

8.2) Conclusions from the literature review and research methodology

The literature review showed that bundling is already applied to some extent as a leveraging strategy in the sport tourism industry and common examples are the combination of a sports experience and accommodation or transport (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005), or of the participation in an active sports event with components like an event party (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004). At the same time, it was acknowledged that there is still considerable potential for the development of sport tourism bundles and several authors called for the strategic creation of sport tourism bundles and an increased cooperation between destination marketers and sports event organisers (e.g. Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002; Ritchie et al., 2002; Yu, 2010). Research on event sport tourism bundles and potential components that could be included in these bundles has been very scarce to date so the first contribution of this research was to explore possibilities of bundling sports events with activities and events at the host destination. A list of possible bundle components was

compiled based on suggestions made in academic and practical literature and presented in Table 3.1 (see p. 27).

Literature further suggested that the consumption of these components would offer a number of benefits to sport tourists, ranging from opportunities to socialise, meet new people or reinforce values of individual subcultures to increased emotions and the opportunity to celebrate and enjoy the atmosphere at the event or its host destination. The application of the concept of consumer value by Sheth et al. (1991) found that these benefits can be translated into social, emotional and epistemic consumer values. Although this finding is predominantly based on the interpretation of the researcher and a relationship between consumer values and the preference for these bundle components could not be shown, it is worth exploring this relationship in future research.

Consumer research emphasises the importance to understand and measure what exactly the consumer values and therefore expects from a product (Woodruff, 1997; McCarville & Stinson, 2014). Nevertheless, it was found that little research has been conducted to date on the consumer value of product bundles, and especially on the value perception of sport tourism bundles. This study addressed this gap by applying the consumer value framework by Sheth et al. (1991) to sport tourism bundles, with a particular focus on social, emotional and epistemic value.

With regard to the empirical research conducted as part of this study, a number of conclusions can be drawn. One of the biggest challenges lay in the short amount of time that was available for data collection. This was addressed with the recruitment of research assistants who assisted with the survey administration. Despite the potential risks involved with including temporary assistants in a one-off data collection, this measure was found to be highly successful and allowed for the collection of 165 valid questionnaires. A thorough preparation of the survey administration including detailed briefings of all assistants, as well as a high degree of flexibility throughout the survey, were critical for its success. A lesson learnt for future research was that data collection after the end of a sports event of this nature would be very challenging and should be avoided by all means.

The quantitative approach applied in this research allowed for the collection of data from a relatively big sample considering the time restrictions. Nevertheless, the application of qualitative methods would have provided further insights into preferences and value

perceptions of sport tourists. Future research should consider a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, for example by conducting focus groups or individual interviews to follow up on a survey in order to gain a better understanding of individual perceptions and opinions. Expert interviews with sport or event managers as well as with tourism service providers or destination managers could also enhance the understanding of bundling opportunities around sports events at the host destination.

8.3) Findings and contribution to research

The research findings from this study confirmed that bundling is a suitable leveraging strategy for sport tourism development in Dunedin. About a quarter (26%) of the research sample did not stay in Dunedin over night before or after the Rugby League game. They therefore only had limited time for additional activities in Dunedin and many of them did not spend any time in the city at all. A large proportion of these day visitors (88%) came to the city primarily to attend the sports event. These, as well as returning and regular visitors to Dunedin could be identified as consumer groups who did not engage in any or only a low number of activities before or after the game. It is possible that they were not aware of activities and attractions at the destination (Gibson et al., 2003) or that they simply did not consider engaging in any of these. By bundling the Rugby League sports event with an activity or event, a lot of sport tourists can be held in the city for longer, potentially even overnight, which would result in increased revenue for a number of businesses in the city. Bundles could show visitors what the city has to offer and what kind of activities and events are available while keeping their research, assembly and purchase costs at a minimum, which is one of the utilities product bundles can offer. This can attract a higher number of sport tourists to the destination since it creates awareness (Gibson et al., 2003) and can be especially successful with regular visitors to Dunedin if they are of the impression that there is nothing new or interesting in the city that makes it worth staying. At the same time, tourists who already consider or plan visiting Dunedin primarily for holiday may not be aware of the Rugby League test match. A product bundle including the sports event can generate awareness and encourage those sport tourists to attend the event. This is a great opportunity, especially in the case of international tourists. The survey showed that a small

number of international tourists attending the game came to Dunedin primarily for holidays (5.5%). This number could be increased by bundling. If the sport tourists' experiences at the destination and at the Rugby League match are enjoyable, they are more likely to return to the destination (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005), which can result in an increase of future tourist and event attendance numbers.

With regard to research objective 1, the three most popular bundle components were identified to be a meet & greet session with the Rugby League players, a concert, and an autograph or photo session with the players. These are the events and activities that would be most suitable to be included in a product bundle with a Rugby League test in Dunedin. General interest in the bundle components included in the survey was high and versatile because about 96% of the research sample selected at least one bundle component and only two of the 16 components were not selected as a first choice at all. Consequently, a number of different sport tourism bundles with various activities and events should be created. Those events and activities with a low popularity however, for example a Rugby League inspired art exhibition or an event party, may not be worth being included in a sport tourism bundle with a Rugby League game. Even if they are included together with a more popular component, there is a high risk that they decrease the perceived value of the entire bundle due to the perception of an increased risk of waste (Mak, 2004).

In addition to the determination of the most popular bundle components, this study identified differing preferences of some consumer groups based on their consumer profiles. These findings were presented in Table 6.3 (see p. 88) and can be used to customise sport tourism bundles and market them to the respective market segments. The findings of two of these consumer groups, namely first time visitors to Dunedin and visitors who travelled to Dunedin primarily for holiday (in many cases, respondents fulfilled both criteria) differed significantly from the rest of the sample. In both cases, a sightseeing tour around Dunedin, a speech by a rugby-relevant personality and a cultural performance were of the highest and equal popularity. By bundling one or several of these activities or events with a Rugby League match, the sport tourism experience of these visitors could be greatly enhanced, which may result in longer stays and a return to the destination or the sports venue in the future. By targeting first time visitors who are planning their first holiday in Dunedin with

sport tourism bundles based on the above findings, tourist and event attendance numbers could be increased.

Since this study tested the general interest in bundle components, the description of activities and events included in the questionnaire was kept relatively broad. Future work should define the exact bundle components more precisely and test their popularity, preferably including a comparison between different aspects of the experience, for example, what kind of a concert is preferred among which consumer groups. Moreover, it would be insightful to test whether similar results can be achieved among attendants of a different sports event so that more general recommendations for event sport tourism bundles in Dunedin can be made. Considering the scarcity of research on the value perception of (event) sport tourism bundles to date, this study and the findings described above constitute a significant contribution to research in the field.

With regard to research objective 2, it was found that social and emotional consumer value were of equally high importance to sport tourists at the Rugby League test match. Hence, social and emotional value could be identified as the most salient consumer values among Rugby League sport tourists visiting Dunedin. Although the importance of both values as part of sport or tourism experiences had been recognised in earlier research (e.g. Widing et al., 2003; Mullin et al., 2007; Stewart et al., 2012; McCarville & Stinson, 2014), these findings confirm their significance for sport tourism experiences. Epistemic consumer value was generally of a significantly lower importance than social and emotional value, but one aspect of epistemic value was important for Rugby League spectators in Dunedin. This was to see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium. All other aspects of consumer value that had been selected most frequently were consistent with the overall salience of social and emotional value. Analysis showed that respondents wanted to spend time with the person or people they attended the game with as well as with other people who had seen this game or supported the same Rugby League team. They also frequently wanted to soak up the atmosphere in town and celebrate. These findings should be considered when creating sport tourism bundles and opportunities for these aspects of consumer values, for example to socialise with companions or to see and experience the stadium, should be provided. Examples will be described below.

The relationship between consumer values sought by Rugby League sport tourist and their first choice of bundle components could not be established based on the data collected as part of this research. This may be based on the fact that the data analysis concerning objective 3 had its limitations since it was based on fundamental underpinning assumptions. The translation of the conceptualisation of consumer values by Sheth et al. (1991) into the 16 statements that were included in the questionnaire was based on interpretations by the author, which may differ from the interpretation of others. Future research should address this limitation by directly linking bundle components with the consumer value in the research design. For example, when a research participant is asked to select the bundle component that he or she perceives as most attractive, this should also be followed by a question that helps to determine why it is perceived as attractive and based on which consumer value. That way a direct relationship, if existent, can be established. Moreover, aspects of consumer value that have not been considered so far may be discovered, for example when the respondent states a reason for why the component is perceived as attractive that does not fit into the previously established categories.

8.4) Final conclusions

When combining the findings and interpretations from analyses based on research objectives 1 and 2, a number of conclusions can be drawn with regard to the value of sport tourism bundles for an international Rugby League match as perceived by Rugby League sport tourists in Dunedin. It can be concluded that overall, the most successful sport tourism bundles would be those including the Rugby League match and either a meet & greet session or an autograph & photo session with the players or a concert. The popularity of this bundle component suggests the need for tourism destination managers to work more closely with sports managers to facilitate public access to players after the sports event. A possible bundle could for example consist of a ticket to the match that also provides access to a function after the end of the game, where selected players give autographs, are available for photographs or interviews, or generally interact with spectators. Furthermore, a bundle including the event and a stadium tour the day before or after the game should be created and marketed specifically to visitors in the 65+ age group. This bundle would also be

popular among other consumers because the stadium tour was the fourth most popular bundle component of all and it was important for a high number of survey respondents to see and experience the Forsyth Barr Stadium.

It can also be concluded that sport tourism bundles providing opportunities to Rugby League sport tourists to spend time with like-minded people and with the people they attend the game with would be successful. The same applies for opportunities to soak up the atmosphere in town or to celebrate. Based on these findings, a number of different bundles can be created that are not limited to the activities or events tested in the questionnaire and discussed above but are nevertheless likely to be successful if they offer the aspects of values sought by the consumers. Possible bundles could include a ticket to the Rugby League event as well as a social function facilitating social interaction, or a small event in the town centre before or after the game that provides opportunities to celebrate and enjoy the atmosphere in the city.

Overall, this research has contributed to the assessment of the success of bundling as a leveraging strategy for an international Rugby League event in Dunedin and has determined the value that sport tourism bundles for this event may have for sport tourists visiting the city. Suggestions for specific bundles were made and findings identified a number of consumer groups that could be targeted with customised sport tourism bundles. This research showed that there is great potential for the creation of sport tourism bundles in Dunedin, which can offer considerable potential to increase total sport tourism and event attendance numbers and enhance Dunedin as a sport tourism destination. Bundling can therefore leverage events taking place at the Forsyth Barr Stadium for Dunedin as a host destination, but it can also leverage tourism to the city for sports event attendance at the stadium. Findings and suggestions for suitable sport tourism bundles may therefore inform the strategies of DVML and sports managers involved with respective sports events taking place at Forsyth Barr Stadium as well as of Enterprise Dunedin, the regional marketing organisation for Dunedin as a tourist destination. Furthermore, they may be of benefit for the DCC and sport and tourism related businesses in Dunedin or similar sport tourism destinations or tour operators offering sport tourism bundles.

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Appendix A - Questionnaire

November 2014

Dear visitor,

Thank you very much for taking the time to participate in this survey, the completion of this questionnaire should **only take about 5 minutes**. The survey is conducted as part of a Master's research project at the University of Otago and investigates opportunities to combine a Rugby League event with tourism activities or with another event in Dunedin. All information provided will be used for **academic purposes only** and treated as **strictly confidential**. Upon completion, please check again that you have answered every question and return the questionnaire to the person that handed it out to you.

Part 1 – Your visit to Dunedin

1) Where are you from? (please tick one)

- From the South Island (but not living in Dunedin) Please specify the **region**: _____
- From the North Island Please specify the **region**: _____
- From overseas (country other than New Zealand) Please specify the **country**: _____

2) How many times have you been to Dunedin before? (please tick one)

- Never Once 2-5 times More than 5 times

3) What is your main reason for coming to Dunedin this time?

4) How many nights are you staying in Dunedin? _____ (If you are only here for the day, please write 0 or zero)

5) Have you attended a Rugby League match before? (please tick one)

- No, this is the first time Yes, once Yes, but less than 5 times Yes, regularly

6) Who are you attending this game with? _____

7) What did you do (what are you going to do) in Dunedin apart from attending this game? _____

Part 2 – During your stay

8) While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to ... (please tick all that apply)

- ... socialise with other people who have seen this game
- ... socialise with Rugby League fans who support the same team I do
- ... meet and spend time with like-minded people
- ... spend time with the person/people I attend this game with
- ... meet new people

Please turn over

8) Continued: While I'm in Dunedin, I'm hoping to ... *(please tick all that apply)*

- ... get in touch with locals in Dunedin
- ... attend some pre-match entertainment (e.g. in town or at the stadium)
- ... celebrate after the game
- ... soak up the atmosphere in town
- ... see and experience the new Forsyth Barr Stadium
- ... visit/do something that is specific to Dunedin
- ... discover something in Dunedin that I haven't seen/done during previous visits
- ... do something I never do at home
- ... learn something about New Zealand's or Dunedin's culture
- ... develop or improve my practical Rugby League skills
- ... learn something about Rugby League (e.g. players, coach, history, strategy)

Other: _____

9) If you had the option to participate in one or several of the following activities or events before or after this Rugby League match, which one/s would you choose? *(please tick all that appeal to you)*

- | | |
|--|--|
| ① <input type="checkbox"/> stadium | ⑨ <input type="checkbox"/> speech by a Rugby League relevant personality |
| ② <input type="checkbox"/> concert | ⑩ <input type="checkbox"/> autograph/photo session with players |
| ③ <input type="checkbox"/> dinner with entertainment | ⑪ <input type="checkbox"/> organised sightseeing tour around Dunedin |
| ④ <input type="checkbox"/> official event party | ⑫ <input type="checkbox"/> visit of a local museum |
| ⑤ <input type="checkbox"/> meet & greet with the players | ⑬ <input type="checkbox"/> outdoor activity |
| ⑥ <input type="checkbox"/> practical Rugby League clinic | ⑭ <input type="checkbox"/> screening of rugby/sports movies |
| ⑦ <input type="checkbox"/> cultural performance | ⑮ <input type="checkbox"/> social Rugby League game/tournament |
| ⑧ <input type="checkbox"/> organised pub tour in Dunedin | ⑯ <input type="checkbox"/> art exhibition (e.g. sport/rugby inspired) |

None of the these Own suggestions: _____

Of the options you ticked above, which ones appeal most to you *(please write down the number in the circle)*

1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____

Part 3 – About yourself

10) What is your gender? *(please tick one)* Male Female

11) How old are you? *(please tick one)*

- < 18 18-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65+

Thank you very much for participating in this survey – enjoy the rest of your stay in Dunedin.
If you have any questions or remarks or if you are interested in information relating to the outcome of the project, please contact the researcher under reisa199@student.otago.ac.nz

Appendix B – Participant information sheet



THE PERCEIVED VALUE OF SPORTS TOURISM BUNDLES INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the aim of the project?

This project is being undertaken as part of the requirements for a Research Master's degree in Commerce. The purpose of the research is to understand preferences of Rugby League spectators and to investigate opportunities to combine a Rugby League event with tourism activities or another event in Dunedin.

What types of participants are being sought?

Participants for this survey are selected based on a random selection process among all spectators of the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game at Forsyth Barr Stadium. Any spectator who is aged 18 or over and is not currently living permanently in Dunedin is welcome to participate. A total of 200 participants is required.

What will participants be asked to do?

Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire with 11 questions. All questions can be answered by selecting from a range of answers provided or by writing a short written response. It is estimated that the completion of this questionnaire will take about 5 minutes.

Can participants change their mind and withdraw from the project?

You may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself. If you wish to do so simply do not complete or return the questionnaire.

What data or information will be collected and what use will be made of it?

The data collected consists of the answers given in the questionnaire. Please note that none of the questions requires answers that allow for any personal identification. Nevertheless, all data will be treated strictly confidential. The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned below will be able to gain access to it. Data obtained as a result of the research will be retained for **at least 5 years** in secure storage.

The primary use of this data is for writing a Master's Thesis in Commerce. This includes recommendations for sports tourism bundles for businesses in the sports tourism industry. The thesis will be available in the University of Otago Library (Dunedin, New Zealand) and may be reviewed by public. A second output of this research may be in the form of a publication in academic journals.

What if participants have any questions?

If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

<i>Sabine Reim</i>	or	<i>Prof. James Higham (supervisor)</i>
Department of International Business		Department of Tourism
Email address: reisa199@student.otago.ac.nz		Email
address:james.higham@otago.ac.nz		

This study has been approved by the Tourism Department. However, if you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research you may contact the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph 03 479-8256). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix C – Application for ethics approval



**UNIVERSITY OF OTAGO HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE
APPLICATION FORM: CATEGORY B**

(Departmental Approval)

1. University of Otago staff member responsible for project:

Prof. James Higham

2. Department/School:

Department of Tourism (primary), Department of International Business (secondary)

3. Contact details of staff member responsible:

Professor James Higham, Office Commerce 4.53, Tel: 6434798500;
james.higham@otago.ac.nz

4. Title of project:

The value of event sport tourism bundles

5. Indicate type of project and names of other investigators and students:

Staff Research **Names**

Student Research **Names**

Level of Study (e.g. PhD, Masters, Hons)

External Research/ **Names**

Collaboration

Institute/Company

6. When will recruitment and data collection commence?

08/11/14, 4.00pm

When will data collection be completed?

08/11/14, 11pm

7. Brief description in lay terms of the aim of the project, and outline of the research questions that will be answered (approx. 200 words):

The primary objective of this research is to investigate opportunities to bundle a Rugby League event with tourism activities in Dunedin or with an additional related or unrelated event. Bundling is understood in the tourism context as the sale of two separate products to visitors for a special price. The study seeks to determine what kind of activities or events could be bundled with a Rugby League event in Dunedin and which consumption values are most salient for a spectator provided with the option of purchasing an additional product with the ticket to the Rugby League event.

Therefore, the questionnaire consists of three main parts. The first part ('Part 1 – Your visit to Dunedin') helps to understand the travel and spectating behaviour of participants as all those determine the purchase situation. The second part ('Part 2 – During your stay') determines the most important consumption values. Part 3 contains some key demographic questions.

8. Brief description of the method.

Data will be collected by distributing questionnaires (see appendix 1: 'Draft questionnaire') among the spectators of the Rugby League game Kiwis vs. England on 8th November 2014 at the Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin.

Potential participants are adult spectators (aged 18 and over) attending the Kiwis vs. England test match, who are not Dunedin residents. Both male and female spectators of any nationality may be included in the sample. Excluded are spectators who are seated in the corporate area of the stadium.

In order to facilitate the gathering of sufficient data in the short period of time, assistants will be recruited prior to the event day to help to distribute and collect questionnaires in different areas of the stadium. All assistants will be briefed before the data collection commences to ensure a consistent approach (see appendix 3: 'Briefing information sheet for research assistants').

Data collection will commence 3 hours before kick-off. Before the gates open, the researcher and research assistants will distribute questionnaires outside the main gates and near the ticket booths. Once the gates open, 1 research assistant will continue data collection near the two main gates respectively. All others will move inside the stadium and be positioned in the main stands (North stand, South stand and West stand) where they will approach spectators who have arrived at their seats according to a random sampling process (every 10th seated spectator in a row, starting from the inside of a block while it is less busy, asking those close to the aisles towards the end when it is filling up). Spectators will be informed very briefly about the purpose of the survey (i.e. This is a survey conducted as part of a masters project at the University of Otago) and asked whether they are from Dunedin. If they are not from Dunedin and are willing to participate in the survey, they are handed a questionnaire on a clipboard. The researcher/assistant will stay close by to assist with the completion and collect the questionnaire once completed. The expected amount of time required to complete the questionnaire is about 5 minutes. An information sheet providing information about the research and method (see appendix 2: 'Information sheet for participants') is handed out if participants ask for more information or are unsure about participation.

It is intended for all data collection to be completed before kick-off (about 200 completed questionnaires). It will only be resumed for about 1 hour after the end of the game if absolutely necessary.

For further details, please refer to the briefing information sheet for assistants (appendix 3).

Discussions with stadium authorities have been initiated and access to the stadium has been initially approved by Paul Thompson, Membership and Guest Services Manager at DVML. The final nature and details of this study may be influenced by the outcome of these discussions.

Disclose and discuss any potential problems:

Potential study participants may be intoxicated, not cooperative and/or aggressive. The following measures are taken to minimise the risk:

- Briefing of all assistants with clear instructions on how to approach potential participants and how to assess the intoxication level of a person (see appendix 3). If any signs of intoxication are noticed, the spectator is not approached. If the spectator has been approached and appears to be uncooperative and/or aggressive, the researcher/assistant terminates contact with this person as soon as possible and in a friendly manner. The same applies to the researcher herself.
- The researcher will arrange authorizations (e.g. stadium ID) for stadium access for the data collection and on-site security will be informed on the day. All assistants will be introduced to security staff in their respective positions and work in close proximity to security staff at all times.
- Data collection will be discontinued 10mins before kick-off

In the event of an emergency during the event, the researcher and all assistants will follow the normal procedures at the stadium and instructions of those responsible (i.e. security personnel, police, fire wardens, St John, etc.)

All research assistants are informed about their right to withdraw from the research at any time, without question, when they consider their physical, emotional and/or cultural safety may be compromised.

Study participation and all data collected will be treated with strict confidentiality. While some demographic information will be collected, it will only be presented in aggregate form and it will at no point be possible to identify the individual participant

In order to minimise the disruption of the experience of the paying spectators, a number of measures are taken. The study will start 2 hours before kick-off with sufficient time to collect most data during the early stages of the collection process. The survey will also be paused/stopped 10 minutes before kick-off. While early on, spectators will also be approached outside the gates (if conditions allow for this), research assistants will be moved to the inside of the turnstiles about 30mins before kick-off to ensure that no one is delayed outside the gates. Assistants will also be instructed not to approach spectators while they are queuing.

All spectators will be approached in a friendly and polite manner



***Applicant's Signature:**

Name (please print): James Higham **Date:** 31 October 2014

**The signatory should be the staff member detailed at Question 1.*

ACTION TAKEN

Approved by HOD

Approved by Departmental Ethics Committee

Referred to UO Human Ethics Committee

Signature of **Head of Department:

Name of HOD (please print):

Date:

**Where the Head of Department is also the Applicant, then an appropriate senior staff member must sign on behalf of the Department or School.

Departmental approval: *I have read this application and believe it to be valid research and ethically sound. I approve the research design. The research proposed in this application is compatible with the University of Otago policies and I give my approval and consent for the application to be forwarded to the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee (to be reported to the next meeting).*

Appendix D – Recruitment letter for research assistants

Hi,

I am looking for some assistants to help me conduct the survey for my master's thesis on Saturday, 8th November. I have developed a questionnaire that needs to be distributed among spectators of the Kiwis vs. England Rugby League game at the Forsyth Barr Stadium in Dunedin and recollected once completed. As I won't be able to distribute enough questionnaires in the short amount of time available, I need your help.

When?

Saturday, 8th November

Total time: 4.45pm – about 10.45pm

Briefing: 4.45pm – 5pm (+ short debrief at 10.30pm)

Data collection will be from about 5pm to 7.50pm (10mins before kick-off) and maybe again from about 9.30pm to 10.30pm (this will be confirmed).

What do you need to do?

- You will each get a stack of printed questionnaires and will be positioned either outside the stadium near the gates or inside the stadium in one of the stands.
- You will be asked to approach people arriving for the game / leaving after the game, ask them whether they would like to participate in a survey, hand out a questionnaire and a pen, and collect both again once they are finished. It is therefore important that you are comfortable approaching people who you don't know.
- You may need to assist with the completion of the questionnaire (e.g. if people are unsure how to answer a question) and answer general questions. You will be briefed on this before you start.
- Data collection is paused for the duration of the game. It would be great if you could stay on site during that time. If you cannot stay for the whole duration of the data collection (see above), please let me know.
- You will be asked to report back to the researcher after the data collection. A short debrief will take place to facilitate this.

What do you get out of it?

- I will do my very best to ensure that we can stay and watch the game while data collection is paused. I can't promise anything yet, but I'll let know ASAP. The only condition: you might not be able to see the last 5mins of the game as you need to be back in your position before the end of game.
- Fun, work with nice people, soak up the atmosphere in the stadium before and after the game, contribute to some postgrad research and be sure that I am hugely grateful for your help!

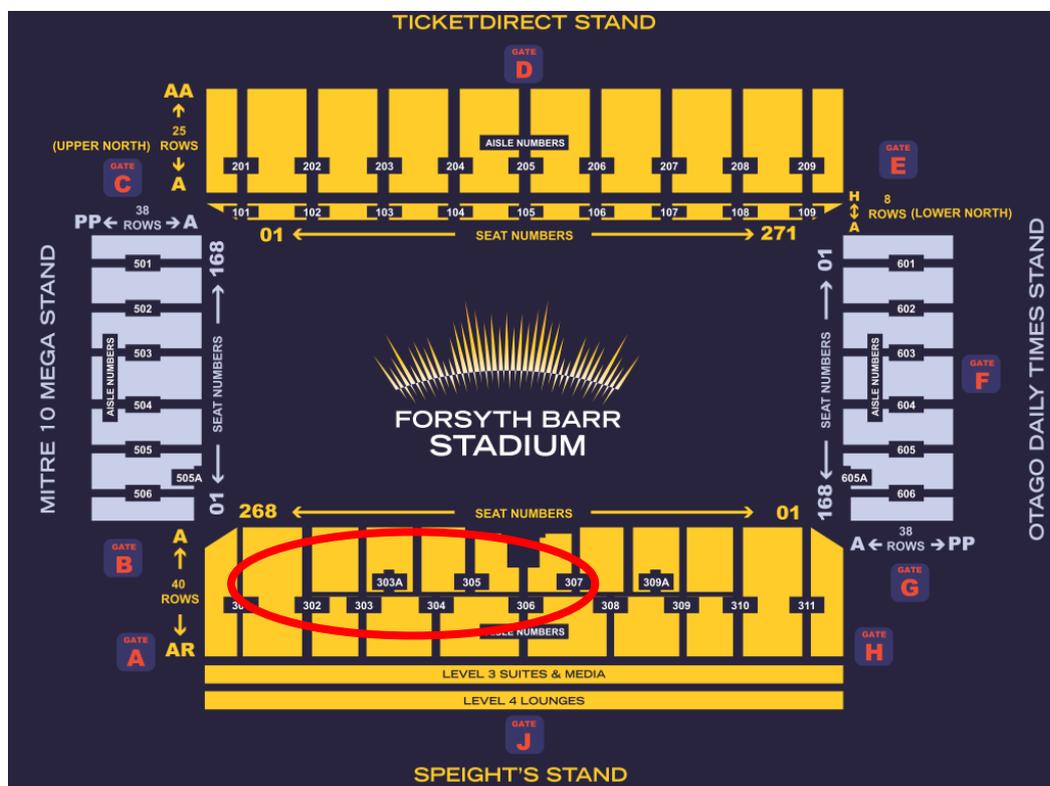
If you are interested, please reply to this message, email me (sabine.reim@gmx.de) or text me (027 8790621).

Sabine

Appendix E – Example of a briefing sheet for research assistants

Positions:

- 5.00pm – 6.00pm: Ticket box South Stand + Gate A/B
- 6.00pm – 7.50pm: Speights Stand (South Stand) → Aisle 301 - 304



Procedure

1) Approaching people

- At the gate: approach **every 10th person passing you** while it is busy, **every 5th person** when it is quieter
- In the stand: approach **every 10th seated spectator** in the rows to your left and right (**starting from the inside of the row** while it is not so busy, asking those towards the aisles when it is filling up and more difficult to access the middle of the rows)
- Target group: **NOT** living in Dunedin (see map of target area), both male and female, all nationalities, aged 18+ (excluded: spectators seated in the corporate area)

2) Introduction

- “Hi there, have you got 5 minutes to participate in a survey; it is a survey for a master’s project at the University of Otago; it is about visitors to Dunedin and their experiences before and after this Rugby League game...”
- If they are willing to participate: • from Dunedin?? • aged 18+ ?? (• corporate??)
- For groups (if several are willing to participate): ask who the person is to have his/her birthday next. He/she is asked to complete the survey. BUT if it is going slow, choose two or three people from the group (next 2/3 birthdays)

3) Distribute questionnaire

- Hand out **questionnaire on clipboard + pen**
- Give short instructions: 11 questions on **2 pages**, please ensure you have completed every question, then give it back to me or wait until I come to collect it again
- At the **gates**: please **ask to complete ‘on the spot’**
- In the **stands**: inform them that they can return the completed questionnaire to you themselves or that you will come back in 5-10mins to collect it
- If participant **requests more information** about the survey at any time or if they seem unsure about the purpose of the study and whether to participate, **hand out the information sheet**

4) Re-collect completed questionnaire

- Thank you
- **Check that both pages + all questions have been completed**

Progress monitoring:

- Please send me a **text** when you’ve got: 1) **15** completed questionnaires 2) **25** completed questionnaires
- **Sabine mobile: 027 879 0621**

Safety & Security

- Do not approach spectators who appear to be intoxicated
- How to assess a person’s intoxication level:
 - Signs of becoming intoxicated: becoming loud, smell of liquor on breath, movements less controlled, moodiness, becoming over friendly, becoming overconfident, loss of inhibitions
 - Signs of being intoxicated: slurring speech, loss of coordination, spilling drinks, loss of coordination, flushed face, using bad language, decreased alertness