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Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences

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At the commencement of the twenty-first century, a wide range of niche tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences provide tourists, sportspersons, people at leisure, and recreationalists with substantial choices for how to spend their non-work time. Such niches include adventure tourism, sport tourism, recreational tourism, event tourism, marine tourism, national park tourism, and “sun, sea, and sand” tourism. Additionally, choices in sports range from easy to extreme, low to high impact, individual to team pursuits, casual to committed participation, modest to sophisticated equipment usage, and from relatively inexpensive to expensive setup and participation costs. Likewise, leisure and recreation experiences provide a range of choices. To add to this diversity, tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation can be undertaken in various environments, such as subterranean, terrestrial, water-based, aerial, “outer space,” and virtual environments as well as combinations of these. Diversity is also a constant in regard to the various roles for engaging in these experiences. People can be participants, spectators, umpires, referees, coaches, support and service providers, organization/association officials, or volunteers. Moreover, participation can be described as active, passive, or vicarious.

In contemporary times, the nature of participation in niche tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation is influenced by a number of factors, such as time, finances, family life cycle, and participants’ perceptions of skill, risk, novelty, adventure, and challenge. Previously, in the first half of the twentieth century, gender, ability, ethnicity, socio-economic, and cultural background were substantive limiting factors along with social, religious, and political influences. Prior to that period in industrialized nations, socio-economic class, gender and religion were strong differentiating factors. Contemporaneously, the influence of these last two sets of factors has been reduced or removed, albeit some continue to exist as will be evidenced in the following chapters.

Why a Focus on Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences?

Various books have been written about sport, leisure, adventure and tourism (see for example, Turco, Riley, and Swart 2002; Hudson 2003; Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie, and Pomfret 2003; Weed and Bull 2004; Higham 2005) as well as tourism, recreation, and leisure (see for example, Veal 2002; McCool and Moisey 2001; Gartner and Lime 2000). In addition, a number of books have focussed on marine tourism (such as Orams 1999; Garrod and Wilson 2003), and several have highlighted cruise tourism (Cartwright and Baird 1999; Dowling 2006). Few, however, have focused specifically on water-oriented experiences across the broad fields of study of tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation. Furthermore, few, if any, have substantively addressed a variety of water-based experiences associated with a “stable,” albeit moving and movable, platform. As a consequence, this book turns the spotlight onto water-based experiences associated with some form of platform. Specifically, the book considers the water-based experiences of sailing, motor boating, motorized sports, surfing and windsurfing, sport and big game fishing, white-water rafting, kayaking, one-day boating adventures, sail training adventures, as well as scuba diving, free diving, and snorkelling, albeit that these latter three do not necessarily always associate with a platform. However, since boats are usually used to access a large number of dive and snorkelling sites and scuba divers may use underwater scooters and submersibles to access dive sites, scuba diving along with free diving and snorkelling are included in this volume. Additionally, given the extensive literature that has amassed in regard to cruise tourism, it is not included in this book.

Finally, some readers may wonder why the term marine was not used. Several authors have addressed marine tourism. Elsewhere, references have been made to water tourism (Kedrow 1987; Ministère de l'Industrie, des Postes et Telecommunications, et du Tourisme 1987), river/canal tourism (Panne 1990; Holloway and Plant 1993), nautical tourism (Laca 1996), marina-based tourism (Smith and Jenner 1995), and, more recently, lake tourism (Hall and Harkonen 2006). Apart from water tourism, the remaining terms tend to categorize by location rather than by overall resource base and related experiences. As a consequence, drawing on the term water tourism, for the intent of this book, the phrase “water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences” has been coined. In doing this, recognition is given to the overlap among tourism, sport, recreation, and leisure as well as to the diversity in water resources that may be used for the former. Such water resources include salt, estuarine, fresh, and frozen water in their various formations.

Background

Within Western nations, water has long been associated with restorative qualities and medicinal benefits to balance the ardor of work, life in the city, or the pollution inherent in industrial/urban areas. This association is evidenced in past practices of picnicking beside creeks, rivers, and lakes; short excursions to lake areas, thermal springs, and the seaside; the taking of seaside holidays and vacations; second-home ownership by lakes, or at the seaside; and bathing and spa therapy as well as taking in the waters and fresh or sea air.

Historically, early European engagement with water-based activities and experiences can be linked to earlier Roman habits. For example, the attraction of the seaside and seaside second-home ownership can be proffered to have its roots in early Roman practices. Ryan (2003) suggests that during the summers, upper-class Romans would relocate to their homes by the sea to escape the heat and the city. Similarly, the practice of “taking the waters”—aesthetically, physically, and spiritually—is also linked to Roman practices, particularly the Roman baths (Knappett 2003). With the onset of the industrial revolution and subsequent developments in working conditions, such as shorter working days and public holidays, discretionary income, along with the concurrent development of transportation technology, the lower-middle and working classes were able to experience to differing degrees the recreational and leisure pursuits that had previously been the purview of the upper-middle and upper-class ranks. For example, toward the end of the eighteenth century in England, spa towns, previously the realm of the upper class, were inundated with lower-middle class populaces. Subsequently, the popularity of spa towns for the upper class waned by the turn of the nineteenth century and was replaced by an attraction for seaside resorts—the preferred location used by royalty—particularly Brighton (Jeans 1990). The attraction of the seaside was also sponsored by the medical profession, which promoted the benefits of seawater. Again, the upper-class exclusivity of seaside locations changed with the development of railways, which served to make the seaside accessible to the working classes. However, until around 1920 in England, trips to the seaside were primarily just that—trips *to* the seaside—being beside the sea rather than in it (Jeans 1990). For some, this earlier trend was still the case in England in 1984 when only 25% of visitors entered the waters (Ashworth 1984).

While not a popular activity in England, “sea-bathing” was a favorite activity in early New South Wales, as Australia was then called. However, due to religious censure, sea-bathing was banned in 1833 and again in 1838 to protect social and moral values (Jeans 1990; Craik 1991). Subsequently, people were limited to using the seaside for “promenading, picnicking and paddling” (Art Gallery of New South Wales 1982, p. 4). Australian seaside resort practices exhibited a strong similarity to English seaside practices. Later in Australia, in the states of Victoria and South Australia, “bathing machines” were established to enable morally acceptable sea-bathing practices (Jeans 1990). Bathing machines enabled people, for a cost, to change from their everyday clothes into bathing clothes and also to discreetly enter the sea. Such machines were also used in England.

Traditionally, in England, seaside resorts and activities were used as a break from normal routine, whereas in Australia, due to settlement trends, particularly along the eastern seaboard, seaside resorts were integrated into urban centers. Consequently for Australians, beaches have been a way of life (Wells 1982). “For most Australians, the beach has been close, cheap, and easy to get to” (Craik 1991, p. 45), and able to be experienced by all social strata.

That being said, in Australia, proximity to the seaside was not always enough to satisfy water-based sporting, recreational, leisure, and tourism needs. People began to quest for different and less populated settings as well as different experiences. As a result, seaside resort experiences close to urban precincts began to be complemented by more expansive “sun, sea, and sand” experiences undertaken in remote locations. In addition, fishing was added to the traditional seaside recreation experience mix of going to the beach and swimming/bathing (Fabbri 1990, p. 263).

An illustration of this can be drawn from the Great Barrier Reef. As early as 1889, Green Island, located in the northern section of the Great Barrier Reef, Australia, had accommodation facilities established on it for the use of nonindigenous “fishing and hunting parties” (Tourism Review Steering Committee [TRSC] 1997, Part 2, p. 23). In addition to fishing and hunting, other seaside experience mixes, or sun, sea, and sand experiences, emerged. Organized pleasure cruises began in 1890. Then, in 1932, the first “resort” was established in the southern section of the Great Barrier Reef on Heron Island. Some five years later, the world’s first glass-bottomed boat, developed for coral viewing, was introduced at Green Island. Shortly after that, in 1938, the second resort in the Great Barrier Reef was built at Green Island (TRSC 1997, Part 2, p. 23). A decade later, the central section of the Great Barrier Reef, the Whitsundays—a key hub of water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences offering island resorts, camping, and a multitude of water-based activities—was beginning to develop its profile. At that time, the area received 5,000 visitors. In the space of just over 30 years, visitation rates grew substantially to 182,000 p.a. (Claringbould, Deakin, and Foster 1985). From that basis, the Whitsundays has developed into a key tourism and Australian bareboat and charter boat location. In 2004, visitation numbers were 639,153, composed of 65% domestic tourists and 35% international tourists (Tourism Queensland 2004). In total, the Whitsundays region draws approximately one-third of annual tourism visitation to the Great Barrier Reef with numbers in excess of 1.8 million (Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority [GBRMPA] 2005).

To this point, the focus has been on England and Australia. In the United States, water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences have also grown due to broad societal changes resulting from industrialization, especially changes in working conditions, as already mentioned. It is also a consequence of a related demand for open space such as parks, recreational piers, and spaces within a 100-mile radius of urban precincts (West 1990) in which people could recreate in non-work times. Additionally, for the United States and other industrialized nations, socio-demographic and economic changes have also facilitated growth in water-based experiences. In particular, the growth is associated with higher income levels coupled with higher discretionary income levels, an aging population due to the baby boomer generation’s influence on Western demographics, opportunities for early retirement, and a desire for active retirement, plus growth in second-home ownership, timeshare arrangements, caravan parks, and coastal hotels and motels (West 1990).

Similar parallels exist between the development of water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation in Europe and what took place historically in England. However, the uptake has been somewhat slower in Asia. As a result of various changes to working conditions; perspectives and values regarding work and leisure; income; standards of living; increases in leisure time; and for some nations, moves into the capitalist market economy, participation rates in water-based experiences are starting to burgeon. For example, boating became popular in Japan in the latter part of the twentieth century (Kotani 1991), and scuba diving in Asia has grown since the 1970s (Hamdi 1995). For other nations in Asia and elsewhere in the world, social, economic, political, cultural, and religious influences have variously served to limit participation in water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation. In some cases, the more affluent or privileged members of a society have been able to participate while the vast majority have not.

A Brief History of Some Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences

As a result of European colonization of various countries of the world, European sporting, leisure, and recreation practices were transferred and adapted by the colonizers into the colonial settlements they established, and over time were taken up in varying degrees by the indigenous peoples of and other migrants to those countries. However, it must be noted that water-based activities of indigenous peoples were also taken up by colonizers and contemporary populations—for example, the sports of surfing, kayaking, and rafting. These three activities continue to be popular at the start of the 2000s. The purpose of this section is to provide a brief history behind the water-based experiences presented in this book. A more detailed exploration of specific origins and developments of each may be found in the related chapters.

Of the water-based experiences represented in *Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences*, sailing, fishing, and surfing are probably the oldest. The activity of sailing dates back to Egyptian times (4000 BCE). History also indicates numerous types of sailing vessels used by various peoples for exploration, trade, transportation, or warfare, such as Chinese junks, Polynesian canoe-based multi-hulls, Arab trading dhows in the Indian Ocean, and Mediterranean sea feluccas (Cox 1999). As a recreational activity, sailing has its origins in the 1800s, when it was primarily a racing sport (Cox 1999). It was initially the preserve of wealthy men (Brasch 1995; Cox 1999). The 1900s saw intense growth of sailing as a recreational and leisure experience as a result of social, economic, and technological change in Western and industrialized nations. Technology, in particular, generated improvements in construction materials and equipment. The introduction of class boats, especially dinghies, made sailing affordable because the dinghy class was cheaper (Cox 1999); see Chapter 2 of this volume for details. However, despite such technological developments, strong interest in maritime history, reenactments, restoration, and replica building has seen the development of sail training vessels based on earlier counterparts such as the tall ships, including square-riggers and schooners (see Chapter 11). Interest in sail training experiences escalated in the last decades of the twentieth century as a result of a series of reenactments of exploratory voyages and related processes of colonization, with interest in tall ship races stemming from the 1950s. In addition to class boats, racing, and sail training adventures, another option for sailing is ocean voyaging. The pioneer of this activity is reported to be Joshua Slocum who completed a circumnavigation of the world between 1895 and 1898 (Cox 1999; see Chapter 2 of this volume).

Motor boating was a product of the nineteenth century. As would be expected, its roots merge with that of sailing due to the history of boat usage and design. However, the development of motors; their adaptation to numerous transportation technologies; and mass adoption, production, and in particular their use in recreational and leisure time pursuits make motor boating primarily a product of the second half of the 1900s (see Chapter 3). The development of technology in boat design, materials, and equipment, especially marine motors, facilitated the growth in commercial vessels able to provide one-day tours (refer to Chapter 10 for

examples). Relatedly, motorized water sports became popular in the late twentieth and early twenty-first century. The most popular modes have been speedboats, jet boats, and jet skis—also known as aqua bikes, wet bikes, water scooters, water motorcycles, and water bobs (Schemel 2001; see Chapter 4 of this volume). Sport fishing and big game fishing had their beginnings in fishing for survival (see Chapter 6). As a tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experience, they followed the development of motorized boats and became a fashionable activity in the 1950s and 1960s through the exploits of the wealthy and celebrities, and through their use and portrayal in shows and films.

The nascence of surfing occurred in the Pacific cultures (Orams 1999). In particular, the history of surfing has records of Polynesians using “bellyboards” circa 300 ACE (San Diego State University 2004), and surfing is purported to have originated in the tenth century (Brasch 1995). The sport entered a golden age in the 1950s (see Chapter 5), and as a recreational or leisure pursuit, surfing took off in Western nations in the late 1960s (Orams 1999). Another board-related water-based pursuit is windsurfing. Windsurfing is reported to have been “invented” in the 1970s (Orams 1999). Surfing, windsurfing, and long-term ocean voyaging share one commonality: they can be a sport, leisure, tourism, or recreation experience, as well as a lifestyle (see discussions by Pearson 1979; Macbeth 1985; Orams 1999; Jennings 1999). See Chapter 5 for details on surfing and windsurfing.

Kayaking has a longer history than windsurfing, with its beginnings as a traditional Inuit mode of travel in Arctic and Greenland waters (Effeney 1999). Appropriation of indigenous design was initiated by John Macgregor in the 1800s (see Chapter 9). Whitewater rafting, similarly, has a history founded in indigenous peoples’ means of transportation, for example, Inca rafts (Paine 1997). In the United States, whitewater rafting was used by nonindigenous people for hunting and trading as well as exploration in the late nineteenth century. Its founding as a sport or recreation experience is associated with running various sections of the Green and Colorado rivers (see Chapter 8).

Finally, the start of scuba diving is associated with Jacques Cousteau and Emily Gagnan (see Chapter 7), who are primarily responsible for the development of the Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus, SCUBA. This apparatus was originally developed for scientific and government use. However, the media of television and films helped to popularize it as a recreation activity, and as an established recreation experience, it is almost 50 years old (West 1990). See Chapter 7 for a discussion of scuba, free diving, and snorkeling.

Participation Overview

In the last half of the twentieth century and the early years of the twenty-first century, particularly in Western and industrial nations, there has been a significant growth in the pursuit of water-based experiences as forms of sport, leisure, recreation, and tourism (Miller 1993; Orams 1999; Jennings 2003). This section provides a brief overview of participation across the water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences presented in this book. Additional details may be found in the respective chapters.

Boating

In the late twentieth century, private boat ownership was estimated to be in excess of 20 million (“Pleasure Boating to Grow with Increase” 1987). The majority of owners were situated in the United States, where boating registrations have continued to increase from 10.9 million in 1990, to more than 12.5 million in 1999 (Fedler 2000). Elsewhere, participation numbers have also demonstrated growth (Brodersen 1994; Leyrat 1994; Smith and Jenner 1995; Driml 1996).

As an experience, and as a market, boating can be differentiated by the key energy source for propulsion, that is, whether it is sail driven or motor driven (Jennings 2003). Both forms continue to be popular in the twenty-first century. Boating, however, is not a singularly focused experience. It usually occurs in association with other water-related activities. This is particularly the case for motorized boating. Generally, self-contained underwater breathing apparatuses, scuba diving, and fishing are the biggest market segments linked to boat-associated activities (West 1990).

Scuba Diving

Scuba diving and the related activity of snorkeling continue to be popular water-based experiences (Dignam 1990; Tabata 1992; Hamdi 1995; Davis, Banks, and Davey 1996). Free diving is less extensive. In the early 1980s, the sport of scuba diving was projected to grow at a rate of 240,000 per annum (Matheusic and Mills 1983, cited in West 1990). Within the United States, in the 1990s, it was estimated that there were 4 to 5 million participants in scuba as recreation (West 1990). At the start of the twenty-first century, PADI (2005) estimates that there are between 5 and 7 million active divers in the world. Concurrently, the number of certified divers worldwide is in excess of 5 million (PADI 2005).

Sport Fishing and Big Game Fishing

Sport fishing and big game fishing, popular sports of the 1950s and 1960s for those who could afford it, continue to attract a core number of participants, though still only for those who can afford it. Like most forms of scuba diving (apart from, for example, beach entry dives), sport and big game fishing are reliant on motorized vessels to access key activity sites. Another popular motor-dependent activity is motorized watersports.

Motorized Watersports

Motorized watersports, such as jet skiing, wakeboarding, personal hydrofoils, and parasailing, have seen participation numbers rise sharply and then plateau in the twenty-first century as a result of fuel price increases, water resource management controls, and restrictions due to user conflicts associated with perceived losses of amenity and safety issues related to multiple use of sites.

One-Day Tours

Day tripper numbers in water-related areas—lakes, rivers, canals, coastal zones, and seas—are also growing; for example, on the Great Barrier Reef, approximately 1.5 million visitors take day cruises to access the special features of the reef and the recreation and tourism opportunities available there (Driml and Common 1996). Motorized watercraft are key elements of commercial water-based experiences and enable large numbers of people to experience a wide range of water-based environments in a variety of ways. In the Great Barrier Reef, commercial vessels carry from 20 to 400 passengers. Permitted operators have a variety of sites and numbers of days for their operations. Among the approximately 820 commercial recreational operators, there are over 1500 vessels and aircraft, with the majority of these being boat-related (GBRMPA 2005). There are, of course, other activities that are less or not at all dependent on motorized vessels.

Sail Training Experiences

Sail training experiences enable short-term, medium-length, or long-term participation. Participation may be as a passenger, active participant, or crew member. Passage offerings range from port-to-port or complete voyage (potentially incorporating multiple ports of call). Sail training is popular with maritime enthusiasts, personal youth development program organizers and participants, business personnel engaged in personal development and team-building exercises, and individuals who have a love of sailing or the sea, or seek challenge and adventure.

Surfing, Windsurfing, Kayaking, and Whitewater Rafting

Surfing and windsurfing continue to attract large numbers of participants; the same is true, to a lesser degree, for the associated sports of parasurfing and kite surfing. Additionally, kayaking has grown in popularity as an independent as well as a tourism industry component of water-based experiences. Similarly, whitewater rafting demonstrated phenomenal growth in the last four decades of the twentieth century. At the same time, however, both whitewater rafting and kayaking participation patterns are constrained by a number of limitations on water resource access (see Chapters 8 and 9).

Determination of Participation Rates in Water-Based Experiences

Determination of participation rates in water-based experiences is problematic. This is essentially the case because

- Some activities are not required to report participation.
- Some activities are independent in nature and there is no need for reporting.
- Equipment purchases are not a sound basis for prediction, as some equipment may be lent, cooperatively shared, rented, or resold.

- Equipment purchase numbers fail to identify persons who may own multiple sets of equipment, thus possibly resulting in multiple counting.
- Equipment purchase does not always indicate actual participation.
- Legislation does not require all activities to be registered.
- Not all participants comply with legislative requirements such as registration.
- Club membership only reflects those who are affiliated.
- Certification of activities does not allow capture of non-certified participants.
- Participation in one activity may mask participation in other activities, depending on which is used for reporting purposes.
- Data sets and empirical materials are dependent on researcher interests and sustained interest in building longitudinal information sets.
- Data sets may be incomplete due to changes in focus of management agencies and niche market focusing.
- Changes occur in standards for measurement and methodologies.
- Measurement may be based on adult population only.
- Ambiguity exists in definitions of tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation as well as what is a pursuit, activity, or experience.
- Inconsistency exists in definitions for use in counting and comparison.

(See Miller 1993; Wilks and Atherton 1994; Fedler 2000; Jennings 2003)

Overview of Definitions and Terms

Just as participation rates are difficult to determine, standardized definitions of tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation are similarly problematic. Over time, social, cultural, political, and religious expectations, values, and mores change, and these influence the construction and interpretation of these terms from a local to an international level. Impacts of globalization and internationalization are similarly influential. In addition, given the individualization of markets (see Weaver and Lawton 2005), definitions related to these terms may be better constructed/interpreted from the participants' point of view "in order to gain an insider's (emic) perspective" (Jennings 1999; Weber 2001; Jennings and Weiler 2005). In this section, definitions of tourism, water-based tourism, marine tourism, travel experience, touristic activity, and travel behavior are provided. Also, several definitions of recreation, leisure, serious leisure, and sport are presented to demonstrate the multiple meanings associated with these terms. Several reflexive comments are made, and a number of declarations of human rights statements in regard to leisure and sport are included.

Tourism

The World Tourism Organization (WTO 2005) defines tourism as "the activities of a person traveling outside his or her usual environment for a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited."

In another definition, Fabbri (1990) writes, "Tourism was—and essentially still is—recreational traveling" (p. xiii).

Water-Based Tourism

Water-based tourism relates to any touristic activity (see definition below) undertaken in or in relation to water resources, such as lakes, dams, canals, creeks, streams, rivers, canals, waterways, marine coastal zones, seas, oceans, and ice-associated areas.

Marine Tourism

“Marine tourism includes those recreational activities that involve travel away from one’s place of residence and which have as their host or focus the marine environment (where the marine environment is defined as those waters which are saline and tide-affected)” (Orams 1999, p. 9).

Travel Experience

The travel experience involves planning, travel to, onsite, return travel, and recollection phases, which follow a circular pathway (Killion 1992, after Clawson 1963).

A travel experience is “the inner state of the individual, brought about by something which is personally encountered, undergone or lived through” (Cohen 2000, p. 216).

Touristic Activity

This refers to any activity, that is, any pursuit, sport, hobby, endeavor, pastime, game, exercise, or experience undertaken when a person is “outside his or her usual environment for a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited” (WTO 2005).

Travel Patterns

These are the “trip and visit purpose, distance traveled, duration, number of destinations, and use of particular facilities” (Leiper 2004, p.78).

Recreation

“Any action that refreshes the mental attitude of an individual is recreation. Recreation is a wholesome activity that is engaged in for pleasure; therefore, it is play” (Douglass, 1982, p. 6).

“Recreation may take various routes, but the results are the same. Recreation revitalizes the spirit. It restores a person’s vitality, initiative, and perspective of life, thereby preparing the individual to return to his [sic] toil” (Douglass 1982, p. 6).

“[Recreation] embraces a wide variety of activities which are undertaken during leisure” (Mathieson and Wall 1982, p. 7).

“[A]ny activity of leisure time undertaken by choice and for pleasure would constitute recreation” (Phelps 1988, p. 34).

As a concluding comment to the definitions for recreation, the following is noted: People expect recreation to be “part of their life” (Douglass 1982, pp. 6–7). This is also reflected in the leisure subsection and is articulated as a human right in the declaration of human rights and leisure.

Recreation Experience

Clawson’s (1963) concept of recreation experience was presented as a linear episode involving planning, travel to, onsite, return travel, and recollection stages.

Leisure

Article 24 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Leisure states:

“Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay” (www.un.org/rights).

Within academic literature, leisure tends to be defined based on a duality of work and non-work time, particularly non-work time that is free from obligations (Neulinger 1974; Goodale and Godbey 1988; Seabrook 1988; Godbey 1994; Bennett, Emmison, and Frow 1999; Iso-Ahola 1999). A temporal overview of leisure definitions yields a variety of interpretations.

In 1960, Kaplan described leisure as constituting:

(a) an antithesis to “work” as an economic function; (b) a pleasant expectation and recollection; (c) a minimum of involuntary social-role obligations; (d) a psychological perception of freedom; (e) a close relation to values of the culture; (f) an inclusion of an entire range from inconsequence and insignificance to weightiness and importance; and (g) often, but not necessarily, an activity characterized by the element of play. (pp. 22–25)

Several decades later, Godbey (1994) noted that four concepts applied to defining leisure: “time, activities, state of existence, or state of mind” (p. 3). The following definition was later proffered by Leiper (2004): “Leisure is a category of human experiences found in recreational and creative behavior pursued with a relative sense of freedom from obligations, and regarded as personally pleasurable” (p. 92).

The conceptual divide discourse between leisure and work has provided additional commentary. For example, Rojek (1989) has commented that work is “rewarded” by leisure (p. 9). Further, in some related literature, work and leisure begin to switch roles in regard to authenticity of self, self-identity, and the living of life. For instance, Frith (1983) comments that “[l]eisure has become the only setting for the experience of self, for the exploration of one’s own skills and capabilities, for the development of creative relations with other people” (p. 262). Perhaps this is more poignantly phrased by Rojek (1995): “[f]or many, real life only occurs *outside* the workplace” (p. 127).

Vacation Experience

The vacation experience involves anticipatory, experiential, and reflective phases (Craig-Smith and French 1994).

Visitor Experience

Measurement of visitor experiences involves a number of approaches: satisfaction, benefits-based, experience-based, and meanings-based (Borrie and Birzell 2001). This results in inconsistency in empirical materials and their comparative analysis. Currently, measurement of visitor experiences is reported to be evolving (Andereck, Bricker, Kerstetter, and Nickerson 2005).

Sport

Article 1 of the 1978 UNESCO International Charter of Physical Education and Sport states, “The practice of physical education and sport is a fundamental right for all” (UNESCO 1982).

Article 1 of the Olympic Charter states, “The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practicing sport in accordance with his or her needs” (International Olympic Committee 1995; see www.olympic.org).

The core elements of sport have been defined as the following:

- They must involve a symbolic test of physical or psycho-motor skills
- There must be a competitive framework, which requires:
 - Specified, codified rules which constitute the activity
- There must be continuity over time—a tradition of past practices

(Haywood et al. 1995, p. 43).

Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation: Blurred Boundaries

To reiterate an earlier comment, definitions associated with tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation are problematic. They vary depending on their temporal nature, as well as the perspective and background of the author penning the terms. This makes it difficult to provide definitive descriptions of the terms and their meanings. (For further discussions, see also Godbey 1994; Kaplan 1975, 1991; Butler 1989; Arnold 1991; and Haywood et al. 1995.) The purpose of this section was to emphasize the difficulties associated with achieving standardized definitions as well as to make “clear” the “blurring” or “fuzziness” of boundaries between tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation. However, that being said, two working definitions will be variously applied in this book. “Water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation” will be taken to mean touristic, sport, leisure, and recreation experiences in and on salt, estuarine, and fresh water or on and under frozen water. The more generic term, “water-based experience,” will be used in order to acknowledge the potential for overlap among the concepts of tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation. Such overlap is further exemplified in the following vignette. “A *vignette* is a focused description of a series of events taken to be representative, typical, or emblematic” (Miles and Huberman 1994, p. 81).

Water-Based Experiences Vignette

For summer holidays, a family in the western United States decides to visit friends located in another state. During the visit, the friends take the family on a weekend

sailing excursion. For the hosts, the activity may be classified as a leisure-time pursuit since it uses non-work time. On the other hand, it might be considered as recreation—the time to “re-create” themselves after a week’s work, or of course it may be considered as both. The visiting family includes a daughter who races small boats each week at the local club. She sees the sailing excursion as sport, as she will be able to apply her skills and knowledge to improve the sailing performance of the boat. The rest of the family sees the excursion as just that—an activity that is part of their overall holiday/vacation. From a tourism industry perspective, the family would be counted as part of the “visiting friends and relatives” sector and the activity would be viewed as one of the onsite activities.

What does this vignette tell us? A lot and in a sense not much. A lot because the vignette indicates that there are multiple interpretations that can be made of the one experience by outside observers and insider participants. It also tells us that the one experience can be simultaneously labeled as sport, leisure, recreation, and tourism. It depends on the characteristics of the participants and their personal perspective. Therefore, as noted before, to understand what water-based tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation are requires us to ask the participants themselves—that is, the insiders—for their constructions and interpretations of the meanings associated with those terms.

Overview of Theoretical Concepts

As the introduction to each section in this book will indicate, there are a variety of theoretical concepts applied in *Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences*. There are also a number of key themes that will resound throughout Chapters 2 to 11. These are self-actualization and flow experiences; serious leisure; tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation impacts, especially issues associated with carrying capacity, conflict between user groups, management strategies, and sustainability issues. Of these, only self-actualization and flow, and serious leisure will be given an overview in this chapter, as the other themes will be discussed in the concluding chapter, Chapter 12.

Self-Actualization and Flow

Several contributors to this volume refer to intrinsic motivation and, in particular, the use or application of Csikszentmihalyi’s “flow” or “optimal arousal” concept to understand participant motivations. A number of these discuss the quest for flow experiences as well as issues associated with the need to match skills appropriately with challenges and adventure. In summary, the need for challenge and adventure can be deconstructed as a need for self-actualization (Goldstein 1939; Maslow 1970; Csikszentmihalyi 1974, 1975; Iso-Ahola 1980). The challenge is a result of personal goal setting, or engaging in a water-based experience with or without varying degrees of technological support. Adventure is associated with pushing beyond a personal comfort zone, with testing personal ability and not finding oneself wanting. Adventure is also associated with experiencing new people in new places. “As Goffman notes, adventures are not to be found within but beyond common routines” (Csikszentmihalyi 1988, p. 45). The outcomes of challenges and

adventures expressed by water-based experience seekers are feelings of accomplishment and self-satisfaction. In reality, they tend to pursue their water-based experiences for their “intrinsic reward,” that is, an “[experience] engaged in for its own sake” (Iso-Ahola 1980, p. 231).

Flow

Csikszentmihalyi’s (1974, 1975, 1988, 1990, 1997) optimal experience or “flow” theory developed from the work of Maslow, specifically the notion of “process and product” outcomes of behavior. Csikszentmihalyi was particularly interested in understanding the nature of “intrinsic motivation,” especially activities that elicit “peak experiences” (Maslow 1965, 1968). Csikszentmihalyi (1988) makes the following comment regarding Maslow’s work:

Maslow ascribed the motivation to a desire for “self actualization,” a need to discover one’s potentialities and limitations through intense activity and experience. . . . Maslow’s explanation was compelling, but it left many questions unanswered. . . . Maslow’s pioneering work, primarily idiographic and reflective in nature, did not explore very far the empirical implications of these ideas. (p. 5)

In extending the work of Maslow and the nature of peak or self-actualizing experiences, Csikszentmihalyi (1974) developed his theory of optimal experience, which he calls a flow experience. What is a flow experience? In his own words,

Flow refers to the holistic sensation present when we act with total involvement. It is a kind of feeling after which one nostalgically says: “that was fun,” or “that was enjoyable.” It is the state in which action follows upon action according to an internal logic, which seems to need no conscious intervention on our part. We experience it as a unified flowing from one moment to the next in which we are in control of our actions, and in which there is little distinction between self and environment; between stimulus and response; or between past, present, and future. (Csikszentmihalyi 1974, p. 58)

In his research, Csikszentmihalyi (1988, p. 365) identified several dimensions of flow: intense involvement, deep concentration, clarity of goals and feedback, loss of a sense of time, lack of self consciousness and transcendence of a sense of self, leading to an autotelic, that is, intrinsically rewarding experience.” According to Massimini, Csikszentmihalyi, and Delle Fave (1988), flow occurs

when a good fit results from the interaction between two lists of instructions: those contained in the rules of a cultural “game” . . . and the list of intrasomatic instructions—based on biological predispositions—which constitute the actor’s skills. . . . A person in flow wishes to do what he or she is doing for the sake of the activity itself, independently of external consequences. (pp. 65–66)

Serious Leisure

Serious leisure, a term coined by Robert Stebbins, appears in several chapters in this book. He identifies “three types of serious leisure—amateurism, hobbyist pursuits, and volunteering” (Stebbins 1992, p. 5). Six qualities distinguish serious leisure from casual leisure (Stebbins 1992, pp. 6–7):

- “A need to *persevere*”
- “*Careers* in endeavors”
- “Significant personal *effort*” to acquire “*knowledge, training, skill,*” or all of these
- Lasting “*benefits,*” including “self-actualization, self-enrichment, self-expression, recreation or renewal of self, feelings of accomplishment, enhancement of self-image, social interaction and belongingness, and lasting physical products of the activity,” as well as “[s]elf-gratification or pure fun,” which also has overlap with casual leisure
- A “unique ethos”
- Identification with the pursuit.

Echoing Frith’s viewpoint expressed earlier in this chapter, Stebbins (1992) also comments that “Serious leisure, with its interweaving of skills, knowledge, and talent, is most rewarding when the participant has been able to develop these three to an admirable degree” (p. 129).

Overview of *Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences*

Having identified some of the resonating themes, the book’s organization and structure will now be considered. To provide some comparability of structural content, each chapter discusses details about the market profile, the advantages and disadvantages, the impacts, and future directions in regard to each of the water-based experiences presented. Each chapter also includes a case study to highlight one particular element of the overall discussion provided in that chapter.

Water-Based Tourism, Sport, Leisure, and Recreation Experiences is organized into four sections:

- Sailing and Boating
- Sport or Extreme Sport
- Adventure
- Sustainability.

Boating is the organizing theme of the first section. In Chapters 2 and 3, respectively, Gayle Jennings examines sailing and motor boating. The second section investigates water-based experiences that have traditionally been derived from sport and present a challenge to participants as well as offer fun. In Chapter 4, Harold Richens considers motorized sports such as jet boating and jet skiing. In Chapter 5, Chris Ryan studies surfing and windsurfing, while in Chapter 6, Les Killion reports on sport fishing and big game fishing. In the final chapter in this section, Chapter 7, Kay Dimmock reflects on scuba diving, free diving, and snorkeling. In the third section, a key theme in the water-based experiences discussed is adventure. Lilian Jonas comments on whitewater rafting in Chapter 8; Simon Hudson and Paul Beedie focus on kayaking in Chapter 9; and in Chapter 10, Gianna Moscardo examines one-day boating adventures. The last chapter in this section is Chapter 11, in which Gary Easthope addresses sail training adventures. The final section draws on the writings of all the contributors as well as related literature to frame a consideration of the sustainability of tourism, sport, leisure, and recreation in water-based environments as well as a conclusion regarding the future directions for water-based experiences.

To reiterate, the purpose of this book is to present in one volume an overview of a number of water-based experiences that may be pursued as tourism, sport, leisure, or recreation within a variety of water-based environments.

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