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The effects of marketing on rowing activity in
a South Yorkshire Community

Rosemary Mayglothling

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University
for the degree of Master of Philosophy

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Collaborating Organisation: Henley Royal Regatta

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ABSTRACT

Over the last thirty years more water areas have become available for use by the public: rowing has not taken advantage of these opportunities, often being marginalised in Local Authority sport schemes and rarely seeking to establish new clubs. The purpose of this study is to investigate the potential increase in participation levels in rowing following a marketing campaign to promote the sport. The population studied is an area around Rother Valley Country Park which currently has no participation in the sport. The main focus is on the awareness of sport in the local communities and their motivations for taking part in sport in general: this is established using surveys which are administered to young people and women.

The research requires an in depth exploration of three interrelated areas; history of rowing, sports development and marketing. The history of rowing is sub-divided into development in England and then South Yorkshire, considering the origins of existing clubs and of Rother Valley Country Park. The emergence and diversity of delivery methods available for sports development are explored. Marketing theories of 'for profit' and 'non profit' organisations are used to help define a marketing model for rowing. This, combined with the surveys, enables the researcher to conclude that rowing can be successfully marketed.

The main contributions of this research are firstly the development of a marketing model for rowing and secondly recommendations to the agencies involved for the successful inclusion of rowing at Rother Valley Country Park. The research also highlights the need for further investigation into the application of the proposed model both to rowing and to other sports and the need for a more flexible sports development model.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study is an investigation into the effect of a marketing campaign on the potential participation levels in rowing of a South Yorkshire community. The specific South Yorkshire community studied is an area around Rother Valley Country Park where the opportunity to try rowing is available but there is zero participation. The opportunity for the investigation came from the Amateur Rowing Association's desire to see rowing established in the Park and from Sheffield City Polytechnic's desire to promote research into the sports development process.

The main focus of the study was on two groups under-represented in competitive rowing: young people and women. The aim was to establish the two groups' interests and motivations for taking part in sport. with the intention of establishing a marketing model that could be used to promote rowing. Also, their awareness of the available activities in the Park was assessed to establish the impact of current promotional material.

Chapter Two explores the development of rowing, particularly dealing with the period from the mid nineteenth century with the rise in sport as a popular recreation. During this period a move away from recreational boating took place and the technological innovation of the sport ensured a difference between the recreational boat and the competitive racing craft. The codification of the rules brought a code of conduct to the sport and the adoption of a very strict definition of amateur status moved the now very elitist competitor even further from the recreational boater. Rowing was not established in Sheffield

until suitable water was made available with the construction of large dams from the end of the nineteenth century. Even then, lack of access to the water prevented rowing from being established in Sheffield until the 1960s. Rother Valley Country Park provided further water for rowing to take place and this led to the appointment of a rowing development officer to promote the sport at the Park.

The third chapter examines the growth of sports development, plots its origins and evolution and predicts future development. In the 1970s provision of facilities was the key area of expansion: since then emphasis has shifted to the provision of personnel to assist people into and up through the various levels of sport and recreation. Most Local Authorities now have sports development units and many governing bodies of sport employ sports development officers. The study includes an attempt to clarify the many roles and functions that come under the heading of sports development. Models for sports development are defined and their operating methods assessed.

Chapter Four deals with the marketing aspect of sport: there are many examples of marketing through sport but none aimed at marketing sport participation as a product. The basic concepts and definitions of marketing are explored and the nature of the product for sale also established. Two important areas related to marketing sports participation are sports sponsorship and non-profit sector marketing theory. Marketing theory is equally applicable for with- and non-profit organisations, the major difference being the multiple publics of the non-profit organisation. The with-profit organisation has a clear motivation to increase profits while the non-profit organisation is attempting to fulfil the needs of a variety of groups that might include members, recipients, government (both local and national),

employees and the general public. Consideration of the differences leads to a review of the current funding practices for sport and how this process often arises in response to the main funders' interests rather than from an assessment of the needs of the potential client group. This chapter ends with an attempt at producing a marketing model for sport.

The next two chapters detail the research process, including the selection and justification of methods. The expectations of the study are derived from existing knowledge about both rowing and the Park, together with the knowledge gained from literature reviews in the different subject areas. The results of the two surveys are systematically presented and these are then analysed and discussed in relation to the original expectations of the study.

Recommendations are presented in Chapter Seven under three sections: the Park, Marketing Sport and Marketing Rowing to Young People and Women. Chapter Eight considers the limitations of the study and offers suggestions for further research.

Chapter Nine summarises the thesis and concludes with a warning to the providers of sport in general, and rowing in particular, about the consequences of ignoring marketing and of failing to focus on the Foundation and Participation stages of sports development.

**2.0 THE HISTORY OF ROWING IN ENGLAND: THE DEVELOPMENT OF WATER AND
ROWING IN SHEFFIELD**

2.1 Introduction

This chapter traces the evolution of rowing in the UK and the influence that this had on rowing development in Sheffield. The chapter is divided into three main sections: the first explores the major historical influences on rowing in England. The next charts the development of water suitable for rowing in the Sheffield area and the formation of rowing clubs in the area. Finally, the evolution of Rother Valley Country Park and its potential for rowing are discussed.

Rowing is an activity which has been used for thousands of years to move goods and people and which, inevitably, led to races between watermen with wagers often placed on the predicted outcome of the race (Wigglesworth 1986). In the nineteenth century the sport developed with regattas catering for all types of boats and competitors and events attracting thousands of spectators (Wigglesworth 1992). The influence of rational recreation (discussed below), together with the technical advances in racing craft, led the sport to bifurcate into 'recreation' and 'competition', the latter being divided into classes for the professional, gentlemen, and mechanics and artisans (Clever 1957). In the second half of the twentieth century the two sides of the amateur sport, gentleman and amateur, united: professional racing ceased to exist and recreational boating went into decline (Halliday 1990). During the high growth period of rowing clubs in the UK, Sheffield did not have suitable water for the sport (Mayglothing

1991). Only the large reservoir constructions started at the end of the nineteenth century and, in recent years, the creation of an artificial lake at Rother Valley Country Park, have provided suitable water for rowing in the Sheffield area (Halcrow 1974). This chapter traces the creation of these areas of water and the consequent availability and access to water on which to row.

2.2 The Development of Rowing in England

2.2.1 The Early History of Rowing

Morrison and Coates (1987) have recorded an example of a Greek oared ship with pulling rather than pushing oars from 900-320 BC and a mosaic from Thennetra shows a Roman oared ship from the period 225-250 AD. These two examples illustrate that rowing was employed centuries ago for the movement of people and goods and as ships of war.

Dodds (1983, p.vii) recognises that any true history of rowing would

have to start among the Egyptians and take in the Assyrians, Phoenicians, Greeks and Romans with their cargo fleets and their military Galleys, before examining the river lore and transport of Europe and the complementary role of the oar to sail and wind power.

Wigglesworth (1992) suggests that the large British ports used by the Romans would have been frequented by oared vessels and there is also a suggestion that the Romans used rowing boats that came into London up the Thames during their invasion of Britain.

These original examples of rowing will have had some influence on the use of boats and oars, but the origins of current rowing practices can be directly traced back to the professional watermen and lightermen who abounded in all the inland ports

during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, together with the fisherman and watermen from the coastal ports. Cleaver (1957) gives details of the cost of crossing the Thames during Pepys' time when the charge was 6d from London Bridge to Westminster stairs or 4/6d from London to Gravesend. At this time there were 10,000 watermen working on the Thames and in 1555 an Act of Parliament enabled the Waterman's Company to be formed. Dodds (1992) recounts the world history of rowing and shows how the workboat became the racing boat. There is no doubt that the professional side of the sport had a great influence on the development of both recreational and competitive rowing.

2.2.2 The Professional Oarsman.

The Industrial Revolution required a transport system to move goods about the country and the canal system was the original answer, with resulting employment for watermen and lightermen (Wigglesworth 1983). The roads were often impassible and were also dangerous for women and children. Pilots were rowed out to the incoming ships in gigs with the first pilot boat to arrive being given the commission (Dodds 1992). Gigs were also used as lifeboats and smaller boats, called skiffs and wherries, were used in London to transport people and goods across the River Thames. These waterman on the Thames were often employed by companies or wealthy merchants and they dressed up in the livery of their employer (Cleaver 1957). Wagers were made between employers with spectators placing their bets on the outcome of the race. The oldest sporting event still in existence was started by an actor, Thomas Doggett. In 1715 the first race was organised for six waterman in the first year after completing their apprenticeship. As well as a cash prize the winner was given a Doggets Coat and badge (Halliday 1990).

The two major bases for professional rowing in the nineteenth century were on the Thames and the Tyne but other regattas up to the middle part of this century regularly included races for professionals. Many of these early races were promoted by publicans but the local corporations also saw the commercial sense in hosting rowing events (Wigglesworth 1990). Improved transport, particularly the availability of the railways, meant that regattas and rowing races were often attended by thousands of people. The professionals were held in high esteem by the crowds who came to watch them race and on Tyneside they were celebrated in a series of songs. The Rowing Almanack of 1866 carries articles on two of the most prominent men, Henry Kelley and Robert Chambers, and the 1872 Almanack carries a tribute to James Renforth, who died at the age of 29 the previous year. In these early almanacks the professional and amateur rules of racing are listed and so, too, are the clubs.

The formation of the Amateur Rowing Association in 1882 marked a watershed in the history of rowing with the demise of the professional and the rise of the amateur oarsman. There was now a body to enforce the amateur code of racing adopted in 1879, which meant that an amateur could no longer compete at regattas that had events for professionals, mechanics or artisans (Almanack 1879). This amateur ethic was partly brought about by the decline in the standards of professional rowing, and the first object of the newly formed Amateur Rowing Association was "to maintain the standard of Amateur Oarsmanship" (Almanack 1880). The nature of the regattas changed and gentlemen amateurs now raced at one with mechanics and professionals at another. There was also a decline in professional rowing; this was partly due to the development of road and rail transport, together with the introduction of motorised boats which, jointly, caused a

decrease in the number of watermen required (Wigglesworth 1990). It was also due to the fact that professionals had brought the sport into disrepute. The review of the 1888 season in the 1889 Almanack gives a synopsis of the professional season:

Few professional races have been rowed in England this season and several of these have been of such unsatisfactory character that this branch of the sport appears to be almost dead.

(Review of the Season 1888)

The professionals started to 'rig' races and at the 1844 Manchester and Salford Regatta the betting was fixed, leading the gentlemen who provided the prizes to withdraw their patronage (Wigglesworth 1992). The great festivals of the early 1800s had therefore changed from diverse events with professional, amateurs and artisans, into Gentlemen Amateur Regattas. The rules of racing also changed and, for example, no longer allowed missile throwing and fouling which had characterised early regattas such as Durham (Heavisides 1980s, exact date unknown).

Despite this demise in the professional side of the sport, many of the boatmen and boat builders and the professional scullers were held in high regard by the rowing fraternity. Cleaver (1957) wonders if the decline in British amateur rowing is directly linked to the decline in professional sculling or whether it is just a coincidence.

2.2.3 Rational Recreation

The historical development of rowing in England must be seen in the context of the increase in the popularity of amateur sport in the nineteenth century. The rise in amateur codified sport is

described as 'rational recreation' and this had a major effect on rowing and set the pattern for the development of the sport into the twentieth century. The term 'rational recreation' has been described by Vamplew as a "counter attraction to rougher less respectable activities" that prevailed in the pre-industrial and the early industrial period (1988, p.46). The mass exodus out of the rural areas into the cities had created a new type of worker. Harrison (1971) suggests that much leisure time was spent in the ale houses and apart from food and drink, light and heat, cooking facilities; furniture; newspapers and society could be obtained in them. Society centered around the alehouse, which included leisure activities such as dominoes, quoits, and flower and vegetable shows, as well as providing a venue for trade union and friendly society meetings (Bailey 1987). The gradual reduction in working hours, due to legislation during the nineteenth century, gave more time to the worker for leisure and after the 1847 Ten Hour Act the earliest rowing clubs began to be formed (Wigglesworth 1992).

Halliday (1990) writes extensively about the amateur code adopted by rowing and suggests that the working classes began to find themselves excluded from the activities of the middle classes by this process of codification. While some governing bodies, such as the Amateur Athletic Club, changed their rules due to outside pressure, the ARA resisted and, as a consequence, the National Amateur Rowing Association was established in 1890, which catered for all categories of rower except for the professionals (Halliday 1987).

The original committee of the ARA consisted of

the president of Oxford and Cambridge University boat clubs, the captains of Dublin university rowing and boat clubs, the captains of Leander, London Kingston and Thames rowing clubs - all ex-officio...(Almanack 1883, p.46)

The amateur ethic was strong within the universities and the public schools by this time and the non university clubs were largely made up of ex-pupils from these establishments. Perhaps the adoption of and adherence to this strong amateur ethos is therefore not surprising. Complimentary to the rise in rational recreation was the Muscular Christianity movement, the close association of spiritual and physical well-being epitomised by 'mens sana in corpore sano'. This strong emphasis on the morality of the amateur was closely linked to the cult of athleticism adopted by the universities and public schools at the time (Mangan 1986). Muscular Christianity had been embraced by rowing and the 1867 Almanack highlights the general strengthening of rowing, explaining

That this is owing to the increased faith in the tenets of Muscular Christianity, which, now-a-days obtains in every school, cannot be doubted... (Preface)

It is also interesting to note that, in addition to these well-documented class divisions, there was de facto gender segregation in the sport. 'Gentlewomen' did not participate competitively until the 1920s even though 'fisherwomen' had taken part in regattas in the mid 1880s (Halliday 1990). Dr.Furnival, founder of the National Amateur Rowing Association, which, unlike the socially exclusive ARA, allowed membership to workers, had encouraged women workers from the Lyons Tea House to join his rowing club in London in the 1890s. The influence that rational recreation had upon the rowing world cannot be underestimated since it was not until 1956 that the ARA and NARA

finally amalgamated into one organisation. Throughout this period the ARA had maintained a very strict definition of amateur. Even in the 1990s the legacy of the early ARA Committee is still evident since Oxford and Cambridge Universities, together with Leander, London and Thames rowing clubs, all appoint a member to sit on the ARA Council. All the other divisional representatives cover larger areas and are elected by the membership (Almanack 1992). Cambridge and Oxford Universities appoint both men and women presidents but the men have overall jurisdiction over the rowing activities of both sexes. Leander and London Clubs are two of the few remaining rowing clubs in the country which are exclusively male.

2.2.4 Rowing History from 1800

In 1840 the Chester Regatta began on 29th June and the poster listed twelve events to be rowed on the Monday and Tuesday. The first events were for fishermen and then fisherwomen, and other races included one for mechanics and boatman with a prize of £20 and one for skiffs rowed by gentlemen amateurs. The boat types included coracles, fishermen's boats, four-oared gigs and single skiffs. The organisers must have expected spectators to appear in boats as policemen were to be deployed to keep the course clear (Almanack 1990). The first Durham Regatta in 1834 was held on the anniversary of the Battle of Waterloo and sounds no less diverse with a procession of boats, headed by a band, fireworks and a ball. At the original regattas competitors lined up nine abreast and raced round a marker and back to the starting position. They were allowed to foul one another and spectators threw missiles at all but their own champion (Heavisides 1980s, exact date unknown).

The popularity of boating in the 1830s and 1840s meant that crowds of 40,000 could be attracted to Hollingworth Lake near Rochdale on a Bank Holiday and they hired a variety of craft from the Lake Company (Wigglesworth 1986). The River Float in Liverpool was another popular venue for boat hiring with people rowing to the upper reaches of the still fairly rural river. Professional waterman hired out boats, often operating from a public house or an hotel. In Manchester no less than eight venues were available for hiring out pleasure boats (Halliday 1990). Some wanted to take their recreational rowing to a more intense level. During the 1860s to 1880s the majority of open clubs in the UK were established (Almanack 1992). Out of this diversity of boating started to emerge the original rowing clubs such as Hollingworth Lake, Liverpool Victoria and Runcorn. At this point many of the clubs were for boating, a very popular pastime. Vine, in his book about pleasure boating, lists no fewer than 55 expeditions and journeys undertaken in a variety of human-powered craft: all were recorded for posterity (Vine 1983).

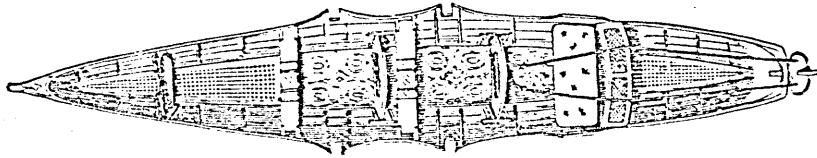
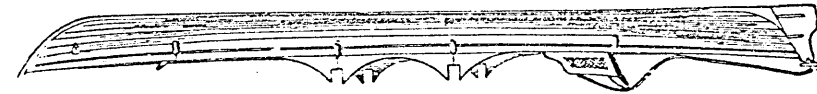
2.2.5 Technical Advances

As with many other sports in the nineteenth century, rowing was influenced by advances in industrial technology (technological innovation) and commercial enterprise (commodification) (Gruneau 1983). The Almanacks from the 1870s are full of advertisements from boat builders for their boat building and boat hiring services (Figs. 1, 2 and 3). The boats available for hire were the same as those used by the rowing clubs for racing. One of the first rowing clubs established in Manchester was named The Clarence Club after the boat they regularly hired in which to race and train (Wigglesworth 1986).

Figure 1 (Advertisements from the 1891 Almanack, Argonaut (ed).)

Watermen by Appointment to Her Majesty the Queen, H.S.M. the Duke of Teck, G.C.B., His Grace the Duke of Buccleuch, Etc., &c.

H. MESSUM & SONS'
"SPECIALITE" GENTLEMEN'S PLEASURE SKIFFS.



E. MESSUM & SONS, Boat Builders and Watermen,
 LANSDOWNE BOATHOUSE,
 LOWER ROAD, RICHMOND, SURREY, AND ALMA BOATHOUSE, RICHMOND BRIDGE.

By Appointment to

 H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh.

W. H. BIFFEN & SONS,
AND
BOAT BUILDERS

OR AND SCULL MAKERS,
METROPOLITAN AND ANCHOR BOATHOUSES,

HAMMERSMITH,
 Within five minutes of Metropolitan, District, and South-Western Hallways.

The best View of the University Boat Race from well-appointed Seats and Stands.

HEADQUARTERS OF OVER TWENTY ROWING CLUBS.

W. H. BIFFEN and SONS beg to offer their grateful acknowledgments for the liberal patronage which they continue to be favoured, both as Boat Builders and Oar and Scull Makers, and hope by prompt attention to merit a continuance of the same.

A LARGE NUMBER OF BOATS OF ALL KINDS FOR SALE OR HIRE.

GENTLEMEN'S BOATS TAKEN CARE OF FOR LONG OR SHORT PERIODS.

FOREIGN ORDERS DESPATCHED PROMPTLY.

J. BIFFEN, Waterman by Appointment to Her Majesty the Queen.

Figure 2 (Advertisements from the 1894 Almanack, Argonaut (ed))

SEARLE & SONS,
BOAT BUILDERS

By Appointment to

HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN,
H.R.H. THE PRINCE OF WALES,
H.M. THE LATE KING OF SPAIN, and
THE SULTAN OF TURKEY.

Prize Medals, London, 1851 and 1862. Paris, 1855, 1875, 1878
London Fisheries Exhibition, 1883.

Builders of every description of Pleasure and
Racing Boats and Water Vessels.

Boats for Hire.

HENLEY - ON - THAMES
(Late of Stangate, Lambeth, London, S.E.)

A. H. BREWER,
BOAT BUILDER,

WATERSIDE, WANDSWORTH,
AND AT THE DUKE'S HEAD, PUTNEY.

Builder of the winning eight-oared boats for the
champion races at the Metropolitan,
Molesey, Kingston, & Walton
Regattas, 1883.

OAR AND SCULL MAKER.
*A large stock of well-
seasoned spruce always in hand.*

A. H. B. while thanking his patrons for past favours, trusts
that, by strict attention to business, and economical prices, he
will further merit a large share of patronage.

Prison, &c., on application.
Foreign orders speedily executed.

13

SWADDLE & CO.,
BOAT BUILDERS,
SCOTSWOOD-ON-TYNE.

Builders to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, Eng-
and, and the Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A.
S. and Co., in returning thanks for past favours, beg to call
the attention of Amateur Rowing Clubs and other Oarsmen
to the continued remarkable success of their Racing Boats.
Amongst the numerous events won recently will be found
the *Spencer* Championship of England, Challenge Cup,
the Grand Challenge Cup at Henley, the Head of the River at
Cambridge, and the University Bouts.

Price Lists and particulars on application.

WAGER BOATS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION
BUILT ON THE SHORTEST NOTICE.

CASTLE HOTEL,
EAST MOULSEY, SURREY
(Opposite the HAMPTON COURT STATION).

J. MAYO, *Proprietor.*

This Hotel is one of the oldest hostleries on the
river, is close to the Railway Station, the Bridge,
and Hampton Court Palace; has first-rate accom-
modation for large and small parties.

Private Apartments overlooking the Palace
and River. Large Dining Saloon.

A first-class *Chief* kept.

Noted for good old Whisk and Spirits of the best quality.

BILLIARDS. GOOD STABLING.

14

Figure 3 (Advertisements from the 1896 Almanack, Argonaut (ed).)

"SPECIALITE"
Oars and Sculls for Racing Purposes.

AYLING AND SONS,
VAUXHALL, LONDON, S.E.

(Near Vauxhall Station of L. and S.W. Railway.)

MANUFACTURERS OF OARS, SCULLS, AND PADDLES
OF ALL PATTERNS AND FOR ALL PURPOSES.

To the Universities and the majority of the Rowing
Clubs of the United Kingdom, the chief Continental
Clubs, and principal Rowing Centres throughout
the World.

Export Orders always receive special and
the fully required attention.

**THE TRADE SUPPLIED WITH ALL
REQUISITES.**

Inventions of the Indianrubber Handles, in plain or
ribbed pattern, with *closed* and for both Oars and
Sculls, as supplied to and used by all the leading
amateurs and professionals at home and abroad.

Gold Medal and Diploma of Honour, London, 1883
Highest Award, Melbourne, 1888;
Honourable Mention, Paris, 1889.

"Certainly the best thing for an Oar or
Scull ever invented."—Sportsman.

BY  ROYAL
LETTERS PATENT.

"AYLING" BUTTON.

SIMPLE, EFFECTIVE, AND DURABLE.

The New Button has been adopted by the
Presidents of the Oxford and Cambridge
Universities Boat Clubs, and used by both
crews since 1887. It is daily coming into
general use, with most satisfactory results.

Among the many advantages may be mentioned
the following:

1. The old (and best known) formation of button
is maintained in its entirety.
2. In System No. 1 the liability of breakage at
the point of leverage is entirely abolished.
3. In System No. 2 the liability of breakage is
reduced to a minimum.
4. The Button lasts for years, can always be
re-leathered, and fitted to new oars and sculls.

PRICES UPON APPLICATION TO THE
INVENTORS AND PATENTEES,

EDWARD AYLING & SONS,
Auckland Street, Vauxhall, London, S.E.

The boats used for the 1829 Oxford and Cambridge Boat Race were stout clinker-built eight-oared wherries (Cleaver 1957). A similarly constructed boat was used as a working boat by the professional waterman. Over a twenty-five year period from 1845 to 1871 several innovations began to make the hire boat different from the racing boat. The first of these inventions was the outrigger designed by Harry Clasper in 1845. These were made of metal and enabled the width of the boat to be reduced significantly, thus streamlining the boat and reducing the amount of form drag on the boat (Osborne 1975). The second change was the advent of the keelless boat, the first of which was built by Matt Taylor from Tyneside. This boat was considerably lighter and faster and had to be rowed in a new fashion. The keelless boat requires a sharp catch up at the beginning to get the best pace out of it, and it requires more sitting to keep it on an even keel (Woodgate 1888). This innovation reduced the skin friction on the hull of the boat.

The third significant development was the sliding seat which was first introduced on the Tyne in 1871 (Osborne 1975). According to Woodgate, these seats reduced the times of the Cambridge Boat significantly so that even the third Cambridge Boat was able to row the Boat Race Course in just over 20 minutes.

Although novice oarsmen still trained in the fixed seat keelled boats, more experienced oarsmen now raced in these modern craft (Woodgate 1888). The boats for hire to the general public were beginning to move away from the boats raced in open competition and the skill required to row in these modern craft was greatly increased.

2.2.6 Contemporary Rowing

In 1987 the ARA brought registration into being which required every rower who wished to race, umpire or coach to register with the Governing body. The contemporary profile of the sport includes an active rowing membership (defined as people registered with the ARA) of approximately 0.02% of the total population, or 1 in 5000 people. Fewer women than men are registered, about 25% of the total since registration began in 1989. The majority of juniors registered with the ARA are registered through their schools.

Rowing is a highly complex sport that requires balance, co-ordination and the ability to feel the movement of the boat. Many people never get to this skill level. Most rowing in the UK is competitive, with the structure of the ARA geared towards the competitor. Even competing in the novice category requires dedication, with a minimum of three or four training sessions per week for a six month period.

Rowing is not an expensive sport with membership for waged people ranging from £50 to £150 per annum. Additional costs arise for racing, registration with the ARA and, possibly, bookings for indoor training facilities. These might total £200, per annum giving a grand total of between £250 and £350 per annum. This figure is for an individual fully integrated into the competitive structure and training a minimum of four times a week and a maximum of ten.

2.2.7 Summary

By 1880 boating and racing had separated with the two activities taking place at different venues, often among different social classes

and with quite different equipment. Both activities remained popular until the First World War when many of the boat hirers went bankrupt (Wigglesworth 1992). Between the wars there was a small revival in boating and in York, for example, it was possible first to hire a skiff with a sliding seat and then to progress on to the rowing club (Mellor 1991). While boating was decreasing, the number of rowing clubs being established in school and universities after the Second World War was greatly increasing (Almanack 1992).

Gruneau (1983) explains how initially sport revolved around contests of strength (often centred on a work role) between fellow professionals. The emergence of rational recreation recorded by Bailey (1987) describes the complex series of events which led to the rise in the popularity of sport; industrialisation and increased leisure time, together with increased disposable income, the codification of the rules and the rise of Muscular Christianity, all contributed. The professional base for rowing, together with the promotion of the sport in public schools and universities, meant that rowing became accepted as a pastime and sport and explains why many clubs were formed in the second half of the nineteenth century (see Fig. 4).

Boating and professional wagers gave rise to the early rowing regattas. The decline in the numbers of professional waterman and the establishment of the amateur rules left a small elitist amateur group to develop competitive rowing. A National Rowing Association was established to cater for other than gentlemen rowers but it never exerted as much influence on the sport as the Amateur Rowing Association. The progressions in equipment made the recreational boater and the competitive rower even more remote from one another.

Figure 4 The Date of Formation of Clubs in Northern England

Source: Osborne 1992

EAST MIDLANDS REGION

Clubs

Ancholme	1868	
Bass	1976	(second club)
Boston	1856	
Burton Leander	1847	
Crane Foundry	1989	(second club)
Derby RC	1879	
Derwent	1857	
Gainsborough	1863	
Heffelump	1973	(School)
Leicester	1882	
Loughborough	1881	
Newark	1873	
Newt Scullers	1983	(second club)
Nottingham BC	1894	
Nottingham Britannia	1869	
NCRA	1981	(amalgamation)
Nottingham & Unin	1862	
Trent RC	1863	

NORTHERN REGION

Clubs

Balder Scullers	1988	(second club)
Berwick ARC	1969	
Cambois	1911	
Chads Old Boys	1989	(second club)
Chester le Street	1989	(re-opened)
Durham ARC	1860	
Hexham BC	1878	
N & E RA	1989	(amalgamation)
South Hylton	1898	
Talkin Tam	1859	
Tees RC	1864	
Tyne RC	1852	
Tynemouth RC	1867	

NORTH WEST REGION

Lancashire

Clubs

Agecroft	1861	
Hollingworth Lake	1872	
Lancaster John O'Gaunt	1842	
Mersey RC	1986	
Sefton RC	1958	
Trafford RC (N/W)	1957	

Cheshire & North Staffs

Clubs

Athena Ladies	1977	(School)
Grosvenor	1869	
Liverpool Vic	1887	
North Staffs	1970	(N/W)
Northwich	1875	
Rex	1981	(School)
Royal Chester	1838	
Runcorn	1894	
Warrington	1986	(re-opened)

YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE REGION

Clubs

Bradford ARC	1867	
Doncaster RC	1990	
Kingston (Hull) RC	1882	
Sheffield, City of	1968	
Wasdonia	1989	(amalgamation)
Whitby Friendship ARC	1879	
White Rose	1979	(second club)
York City	1863	

The competitive rowing scene has continued to expand whereas the opportunities for boating have continued to recede. Rowing, in keeping with the development of other sports, has moved through the stages of codification, technological innovation and commodification but, whereas most sports bifurcated into amateur and professional sports, professional rowing did not. Gruneau highlights how the original amateur sport was the preserve of the aristocratic classes while the other social classes championed the professional side of the sport. In this argument must lie the explanation for elitist image of rowing as a sport (Gruneau 1983).

2.3 Rowing Development in Sheffield

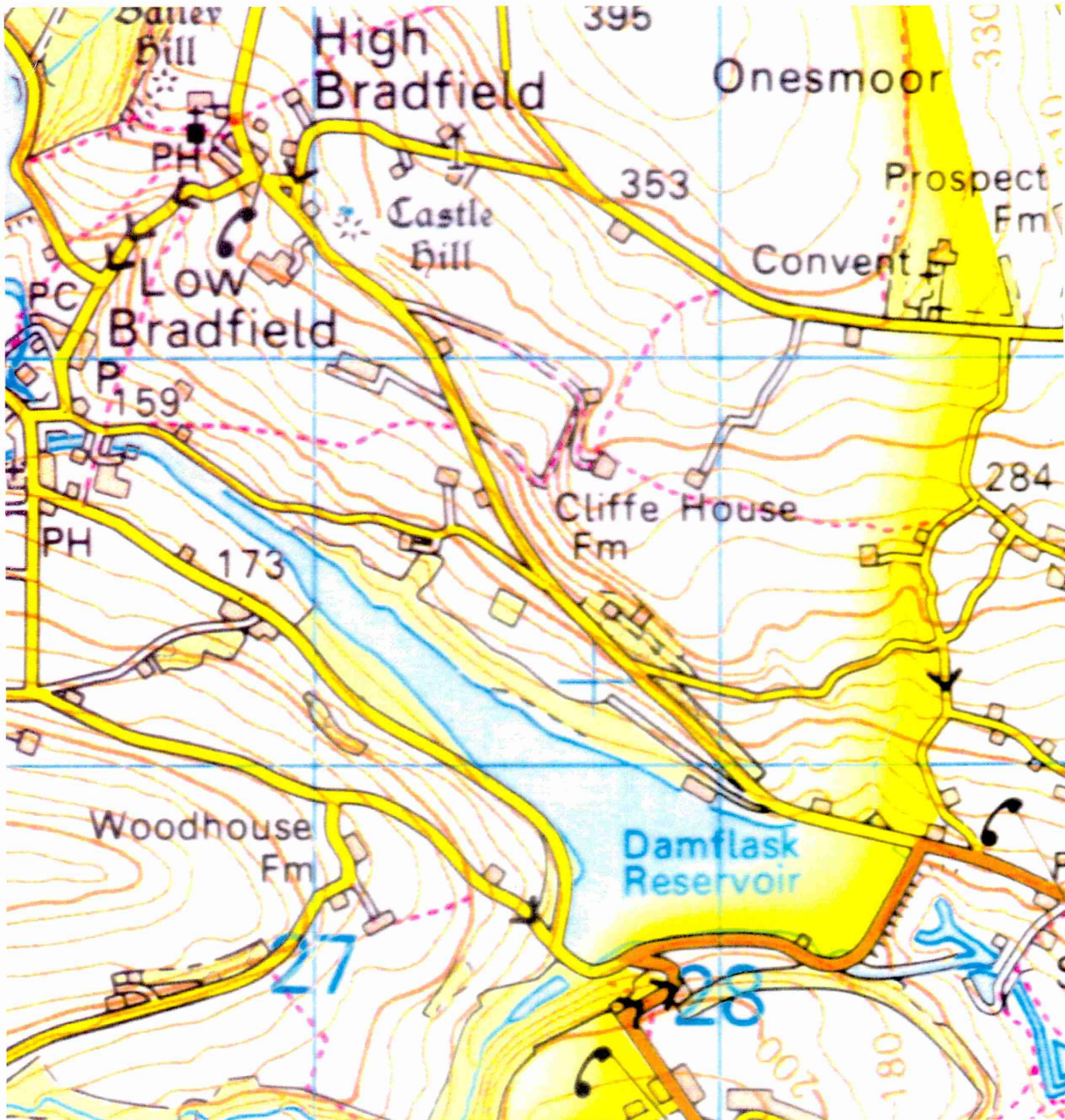
2.3.1 Sheffield Water Courses

This section explores some of the reasons for the comparatively late development of rowing in Sheffield. Despite the fact that most towns in the North and Midlands with suitable water developed rowing clubs and regattas in the second half of the nineteenth century, Sheffield did not follow this trend. As recorded by the Sheffield Waterworks archives, the major reservoir building project which began in the 1860s provided Sheffield with suitable stretches of water but rowing failed to develop on them at that time, and it was not until the 1960s that rowing developed at Dam Flask reservoir (see Fig. 5).

Sheffield lies just to the east of the Pennines and the rivers that flow through the city rise in the Pennines. These rivers are fast flowing with abundant water supplies but are not very wide or deep as they flow through Sheffield. The Don is the major river to pass through the city, flowing from the north west of the city into the

Figure 5 A Map of Dam Flask Reservoir

Source: Ordnance Survey, Landranger 110, Sheffield and Huddersfield area (1993)



centre and then out through the north east of the city. The source of the Don is just to the north west of Dunford Bridge (see Fig. 6) and it is soon enlarged by a series of becks and brooks with the Little Don River, the Rivers Loxley and Rivelin, the Rivers Porter and Sheaf and finally the Rother flowing into the Don. Despite this, the river is very shallow and this is noted in a series of anonymous articles from the Sheffield Mercury collected together in the book "The Tour of the River Don" published in 1836. Although navigable from Doncaster to Rotherham the river was, and is still today, too shallow above this point to allow the transport of goods. An Act of Parliament in 1815 granted approval for building a navigation canal from Tinsley to the centre of Sheffield. This canal was completed in 1819 and enabled the Don Valley Line to ferry goods from the terminus in Tinsley into and out of the centre of Sheffield. Although completed in 1819 the navigation canal did not provide additional suitable water on which to row. The bridges were too narrow and it would have been impossible to turn an eight. (Fig. 7 gives the approximate depths, widths and turning areas required for various boat types.) The canal width is sufficient to allow rowing but the bridges, which tend to be frequent (with a maximum of 1,250m between them), vary in width with an average of only 4m wide. Despite these difficulties there was pleasure rowing on the Don in Sheffield around 1836, a fact highlighted in the series of articles published in the Sheffield Mercury, which also alluded to the unsuitability of the Don for serious rowing:

A number of small boats are moored hereabouts, for the accommodation of pleasure taking parties or the convenience of crossing from one side to the other. This is indeed the only spot in the immediate vicinity of the town where the pleasant and athletic exercise of rowing can be even in a slight degree indulged. (Anon. Tour of The Don 1836)

The Edgar Allen Magazine (1952-1954) confirms that rowing existed in the mid-nineteenth century as a local recreation, in a series of

Figure 6 A Map of the River Don and its Tributaries

Source: River Pollution Survey of England and Wales. (1970)

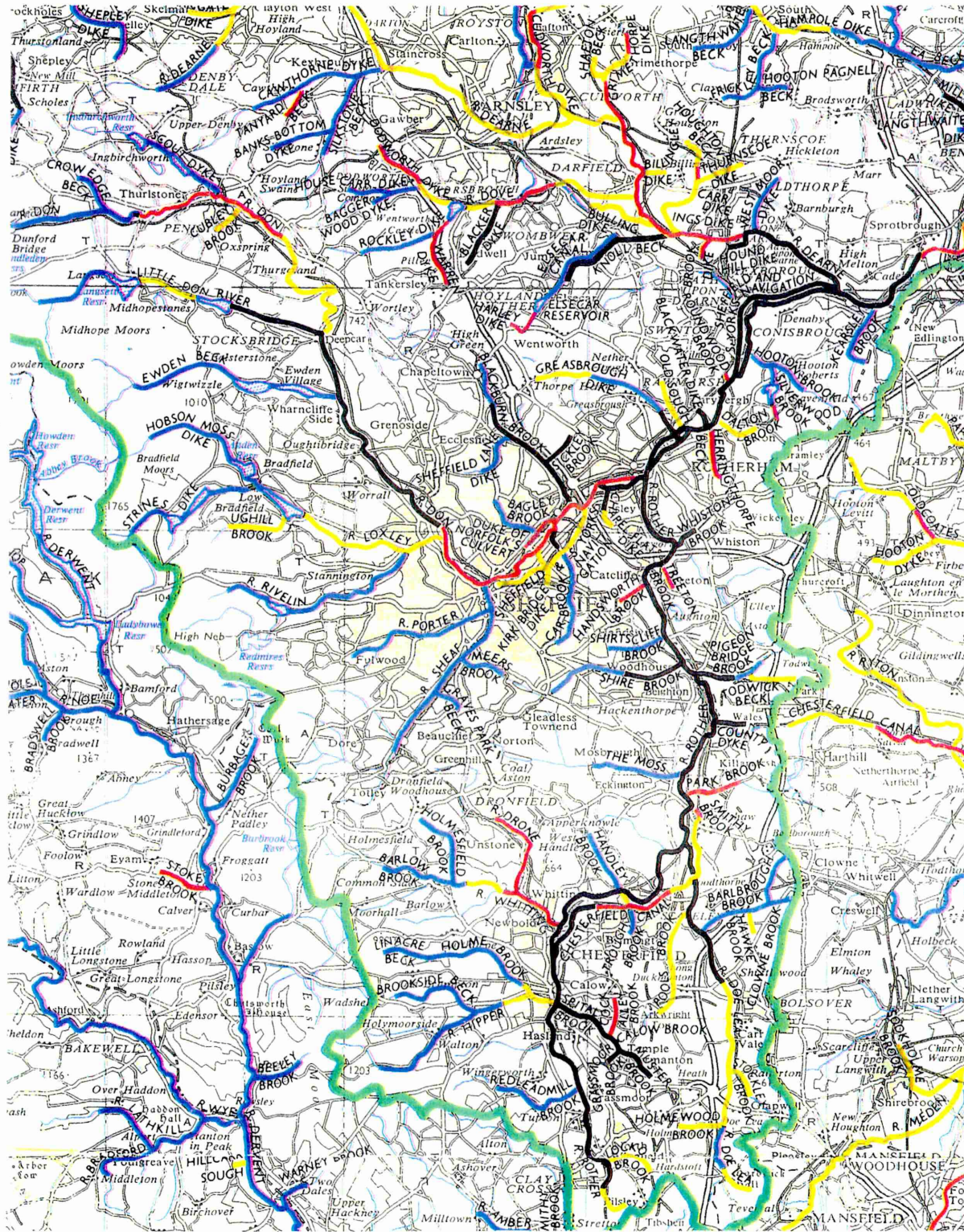


Figure 7**ROWING AND SCULLING BOAT DIMENSIONS**

Source : Mayglothling 1990

Boat type	Water required		Length required	
	Depth	Width	Turning	Overall
Eight	1m	7.5m	20m	17m
Coxless four	1m	7.5m	15.5m	12.5m
Coxed four	1m	7.5m	16.25m	13.25m
Coxless pair	1m	7.5m	12.9m	9.9m
Coxed pair	1m	7.5m	14.5m	11.15m
Quad scull	1m	6.5m	16.25m	13.25m
Double scull	1m	6.5m	12.9m	9.9m
Single scull	1m	6.5m	11m	8m

articles about Tinsley in the 1850s. These mentioned a house in Tinsley, later known as the Boathouse, and where boats were available for hire. Wigglesworth (1986) tells how in Manchester and Preston the hire of boats led to clubs being formed: the first in Manchester in 1928 was named the Clarence Club after the boat which was frequently hired to be rowed in local regattas. The Preston Club was formed as a direct result of the members refusing to pay the boat owner's high boat hire charges any longer.

In Sheffield boating was obviously a popular sport. Osbourne (1933) details the parks where pleasure rowing resources were developed, including Endcliffe Woods, purchased in 1867, which had three dams, two of them used for pleasure boating. In 1889 the Council purchased Hillsborough Hall and enlarged one of the lakes to enable boating to take place. There are, however, no records of rowing clubs being spawned by boat hire businesses on such restricted waters.

2.3.2 The Development of the Dams

The development of a series of dams appears to have increased opportunities for rowing in the Sheffield area. Bland (1927) wrote a history of Sheffield water which appeared in the Edgar Allen Magazine as a series of articles. These outline the various stages in the building and ownership process of water in and around Sheffield. As early as 1434 the first reservoir was built by Mr Barker and this area is still referred to today as Barkers Pool, even though the original pool was removed in 1793. A new company, formed by an Act of Parliament in 1830, took over ownership of the few private dams in Sheffield and proceeded to build a series of dams in the Crookes area of the city. It then built dams at Redmires which supplied drinking

water to Sheffield. None of these dams has sufficient length to provide adequate water on which to row (see Fig.8). In 1853 the water company was required to extend further the reservoir system and to explore the possibilities of damming the Agden and Dale Brooks in the Loxley Valley near Bradfield. It encountered the problem of a large number of mills using the water along the river valley. The company had to provide a regular supply of water to the works in return for impounding all the water from the two tributaries. Four dams were built in this series, the Agden (1869), Dale Dike (reconstructed after the Sheffield flood in 1867), Strines (1871) and Dam Flask (1867), the latter being the sole venue for rowing clubs in Sheffield. Terry (1903) explains the steps that had to be taken by the Corporation to bring Dam Flask reservoir fully into service. When the Dam was originally filled a natural fissure in the rock allowed the water to seep away once it filled to a height above 30 feet.

At great cost to the Corporation and after five years of work, a wing trench was built to remedy the problem. Dam Flask was not finally brought into service until 1896 (Swale 1938). Further large reservoirs followed in the area surrounding Sheffield: Langsett and Underbank were started in 1896 and completed in 1904 and 1907 respectively, followed by Broomhead and Morehall reservoirs in 1913. A picture of the Ladybower Reservoir is shown in the Daily Independent in 1934 just prior to its completion.

The reservoirs around Sheffield vary in length and width, the longest being the Dam Flask Reservoir. In addition, this is also the closest of the dams to the city centre. However, there has long been a Water Company policy of not using drinking water dams for water sports. (This is discussed in the next section.) Dam Flask is a

Figure 8 Particulars of Impounding Reservoirs

Source: Compiled from information provided by Swales 1938.

Groups	Reservoirs	Water	Depth
		Surface Area (acres)	Of Water (feet)
	} Upper	56	43
Redmires	} Middle	48	36
	} Lower	28.75	29
Rivelin	} Upper	10.75	31.5
Valley	} Lower	29.5	50.5
	} Depositing Pond	4	15
Loxley	} Strines	54.75	67
Valley	} Dale Dike	62	67
	} Agden	62.75	90
	} Dam Flask	115.5	85
Little	} Langsett	125	97
Don	} Underbank	103.5	53
Valley	}		
Ewden	} Broomhead	123	91
Valley	} More Hall	65	71

compensation reservoir, which means it must today discharge 5 million gallons of water a day to keep the River Loxley flowing. (This was originally 9 million gallons, a figure negotiated with the local mill owners.) The Water Company was taken over by the Corporation in 1887 and this in turn became Yorkshire Water in 1974 and has reverted to a private company once more (Yorkshire Water plc) in November 1989.

Once these stretches of water had been developed, one may have expected that the dams would have been exploited for rowing.

Wigglesworth (1985) records how Hollingworth Lake, which was created in 1794 as a reserve supply of water to the Rochdale Canal, was used for pleasure boating from its construction. The local guide for 1860 talked of the variety of craft on the water, and the bank holidays would see as many as 40,000 people arrive at the lake.

The Lake Company, with true entrepreneurial skills, arranged an annual "Aquatic and Athletic Festival" and provided trophies in the form of cups and medals. Many of these commercial ventures led to the setting up of serious clubs such as Hollingworth Lake established in 1872.

Talkin Tarn is a natural lake in Brampton, Cumbria and this too, according to Wigglesworth (1983), exploited the desire for "aquatic amusements". The growth of the railways in the 1840s rendered places such as Brampton accessible and the town quickly organised water events, even attracting special excursion trains to the lake. As with Hollingworth Lake, the regatta started first in 1850 and this led to the Club being established in 1859. With this lead in the North and North West it is perhaps surprising that the artificial lakes of Sheffield, with a large population in close proximity, were not exploited in a similar manner, by a local population which took pride in other forms of athletic pursuit.

2.3.3 Recreation on the Reservoirs

Reservoirs were used for some recreation purposes in the Sheffield area. Bland (1927) records how the dams at Crookesmoor attracted fishing and poaching for trout and perch. During the winter the dams appear to have been used for skating, except for the Godfrey Dam and a small dam on the Northumberland Road which never froze over. Fishing appears to have been the chief recreational water activity in Sheffield. Lowerson (1985) tells how match fishing developed and that Sheffield was used as the yardstick for other anglers around the country. The Sheffield Association boasted 7,000 members in 1869 and had 20,000 by 1914. Sheffield anglers developed lightweight tackle suitable for a variety of fish in slow-moving rivers in Lincolnshire. Pollution made fishing in the Sheffield area very difficult. Bland (1927, p.10) records how

under the 1853 and 1867 Local Act the Corporation was obliged to discharge into the Rivers Rivelin and Loxley an average of 10 million gallons of compensation water per working day

but 400 yards after leaving the dam this pure water was polluted with acidic ochre and other trade effluents. This pollution continued into recent times with water run-off from heavily polluted industrial land and sewage effluent flowing into the Don (HMSO 1970). Anglers from Sheffield looked for water sites in the area in the early part of this century and discovered that the newly constructed dams afforded the opportunity for local match fishing.

Sheffield Waterworks archives reveal that fishing at Dam Flask Reservoir started soon after the Dam was opened fully in 1896. Fishing and skating were the only recreational activities permitted on any of the Sheffield dams until the 1950s when the Sea Cadet Corps and

the Sheffield Boy Scouts Association began to use Rivelin Reservoir. Permission for the use of the water by the Sea Cadet Corps and Sea Rangers was granted in 1950. The archives record how, in 1955, the Sheffield Boy Scouts Association also started boating on Rivelin Reservoir. The anglers had exclusive use of Dam Flask once this recreation was resumed after the Second World War in January 1946. On April 28th 1958 a letter from Sheffield Waterworks informed the Boy Scouts and Sea Cadet Corps that a change in the use of Rivelin Dam water to drinking water would require them to cease activity at the end of that season. Both the groups requested that they be allowed to move the activities to Dam Flask. Access was granted and in August 1959 planning permission was sought to erect two huts by the side of Dam Flask Reservoir (Sheffield Waterworks archives).

The Sheffield Viking Sailing Club became established at the Dam with permission from the Corporation in April 1961. A.B. Baldwin, the General Manager and Engineer of the Sheffield Waterworks, made an agreement with the sailing club, giving it exclusive use of Dam Flask for dinghy sailing on a yearly tenancy.

Fig. 9 shows that although the town clubs were mainly established in the late nineteenth century, the University and school clubs tended to follow on much later (Rowing Almanacks). Sheffield Waterworks archives record that the Sheffield University Rowing Club (SURC) started negotiations with the Corporation in 1961, which fits into the national pattern of the establishment of rowing in non-collegiate universities. In December 1961 the Water Committee gave permission to the General Manager to act upon their behalf in negotiations with the rowing and sailing clubs. In May 1962 an agreement was reached and a group of University rowers was allowed access to Dam Flask Reservoir.

Figure 9 The Date of Formation of the Universities and Schools Rowing

Clubs in Northern England.

Source: Osborne 1992

YORKSHIRE & HUMBERSIDE REGION

Universities

Bradford	1959
Hull	1947
Leeds	1919
Ripon & St John	-
Sheffield Poly	1983
Sheffield	1965
York	1965

Schools

Bradford Grammar	1954
Leeds	1990
St Peters	-

EAST MIDLANDS REGION

Universities

Leicester	1948
Loughborough Students	1958
Nottingham Poly	1980
Nottingham	-

Schools

Becket	1949
Ratcliffe College	1938

NORTHERN REGION

Universities

Collingwood College	
Durham	1877
Durham WBC	1982
Graduate Society	1974
Grey College	1960
Hatfield	1885
Newcastle	1963
St Aidans College	1954
St Chads	1904
St Cuthberts Society	-
St Hilda & St Bede	1976
St John's College	-
St Mary's College	1983
Trevelyan College	1976
University College Durham	1836
Van Mildert College	-

Schools

Durham High	1988
Durham Johnson Comp	1878
Durham School	1847
Newcastle Royal Grammar	1938
Queen Elizabeth High	1980
St Leonards	1971

NORTH WEST REGION

Lancashire

Universities

Lancaster	1964
Liverpool Poly	1977
Liverpool	1926
Manchester	1932
Salford	1965

Schools

Lancaster Royal Grammar	1948
Merchant Taylors	1958

Cheshire & North Staffs.

Universities

Keele	1978
Staffs Poly	1989

Schools

Kings School	1883
Queens Park High	-
St John Dean's	1907
The Grange	1986
Wallasey	1922

Initially access was restricted and at a meeting on the 11th April 1962 between the University and the Commodore of the Sailing Club it was agreed that the Club would not operate on:-

Monday	6.00 p.m. to dark
Thursday	6.00 p.m. to dark
Saturday	
Sunday	after 11.00 a.m.

The problems arising from this restricted access were compounded by having no boathouse and no changing facilities. Changing facilities were arranged by using the Sheffield Sea Cadets' hut and temporary racking for storing boats was put in the garden of the Dam Keeper's house. The first plans for a boathouse were presented to the Corporation in October 1962 and in 1963 agreement was reached with the Sea Cadets to use their rescue launch and to keep SURC boats in their hut. In October 1966 the Corporation wrote to the students urging them not to go ahead with their plans to erect a boathouse since there might be a change in policy over the erection of permanent structures on Water Board property (Sheffield Waterworks archives).

The Rowing Club was finally in a position to row regularly at Dam Flask from February 1964. Eventually, on the 1st April 1969, planning permission was given to the Water Board to erect a temporary boat store which is still the only boathouse at Dam Flask Reservoir.

The first big hurdle for groups wishing to use the reservoirs around Sheffield was to gain permission to have access to the water. The Sea Cadet, Sea Rangers and Sheffield Scout Groups' move to Dam Flask seemed to trigger other groups to seek permission to use the Dam. This reservoir is one of the largest around Sheffield and is also one of the most accessible. First the Sailing Club in 1961, then the

University Rowing Club in 1964, and finally in 1969, the City of Sheffield Club, moved onto this site.

2.3.4 Transport to Dam Flask Reservoir

Dam Flask Reservoir is five miles from the City centre, which immediately presented these potential users with the problem of transport out to the reservoir. The horse, bus and stagecoach routes in Sheffield before 1873 did not even go out to Bradfield, let alone Dam Flask (Hall 1977). Green's Buses, a private bus company, one of the six that shared out the town traffic in Sheffield, operated a bus twice weekly out to Bradfield on a Tuesday and Saturday. In 1896 the Corporation took over the running of the tramways but it was still a private company that went out to Bradfield.

After 1907 there was a trolley bus route to Malin Bridge and in 1926 Skinner operated a regular service from Bradfield to Malin Bridge which he alternated with Thrale. In 1932 the Corporation took over this route and acquired Skinner's service in 1933. In 1932, as part of a rationalisation and a takeover of local services, the Corporation made this route over to the East Midlands company who still operate the service today. The bus route, although regular, was never frequent and with no rail route out to this part of Sheffield the bus was the only form of public transport out to Dam Flask. Whereas the anglers were prepared to spend a whole day fishing and therefore could be accommodated by the morning and evening bus service, the rowers, who only wished to spend a few hours at the Dam, found the transport service unsatisfactory. The bus service was not considered by the Corporation as very important since, after the interruption associated with the Second World War, this route was only reinstated in 1948.

Dyos and Aldcroft (1971) report that there was an increase in the number of 'public vehicle miles' from the early twentieth century up to the mid-1950s which meant a higher frequency of bus service between the Dam and the city. They also show how, after the mid-1950s, there was a steady decline in the number of miles and this gap was filled by private car use (see Fig. 10).

Within the original SURC rules there is a note about the crew captain organising travel and using the "Bus No 16 from Campo Lane, Sheffield to Bradfield at 50 minutes past the hour" (Sheffield Waterworks archives). By 1963/4 a regular bus service enabled the students to get to and from the Dam to practise their rowing. Today the students still rely on the bus service together with bicycles and the ever increasing number of student cars.

2.3.5 Summary

The reservoirs around Sheffield fell into two categories for rowing purposes: those that were close to the city and too small for rowing and those large enough to row on but fairly inaccessible from the city. None of the large reservoirs around Sheffield supported sizeable communities and so any recreational activity was likely to involve people from the City of Sheffield. An infrequent transportation system made the reservoirs even less accessible. The strong angling lobby dominated water recreation activity in the Sheffield area and fairly protracted negotiations were held to enable the Scouts and Sea Rangers, the sailors and, finally, the rowers, onto Dam Flask Reservoir.

Perhaps the large dams around Sheffield were completed too late for

Figure 10

CARS IN BRITAIN

Source : Inland Transport Statistics : Great Britain 1900 - 1970. Britain 1972. Britain 1990.

Year	Number
1904	8,465
1936	1,944,394
1958	13,200,000
1988	20,400,000*

*65% of households have one car and 19% of these have two or more.

the setting up of "aquatic amusements", as happened elsewhere (Wigglesworth 1985). These regattas would have included professional watermans' races but the lack of navigable water in Sheffield made it impossible for any professional watermen to earn a living in or around the city. The lack of suitable water in Sheffield also prevented anything more than pleasure rowing from taking place there.

Most school boat clubs were set up only this century, many since the Second World War. Some university students had rowed at school and so took their sport into the universities and established boat clubs in the 1960s and 1970s. In the case of the collegiate universities (Oxford, Cambridge, London and Durham) boat clubs had been established at a much earlier date because of their longer histories and their close association with the nineteenth century public schools. The Sheffield University Boat Club was set up by a group of students who had rowed at school and wished to continue their involvement with the sport. This desire to continue rowing coincided with the time when the public transport system between the city and the dams was operating near its maximum level and, in addition, the water became accessible. Most unusually, the City Club was established after the University Club but this was a direct response to the founder's son wishing to continue his rowing in the Sheffield area after graduation.

Sheffield did not have the necessary water, transport or professional watermen to establish rowing at the same time as most other towns in Britain and, having missed out on a great era of rowing expansion, it took another 100 years before anything comparable was established in the City.

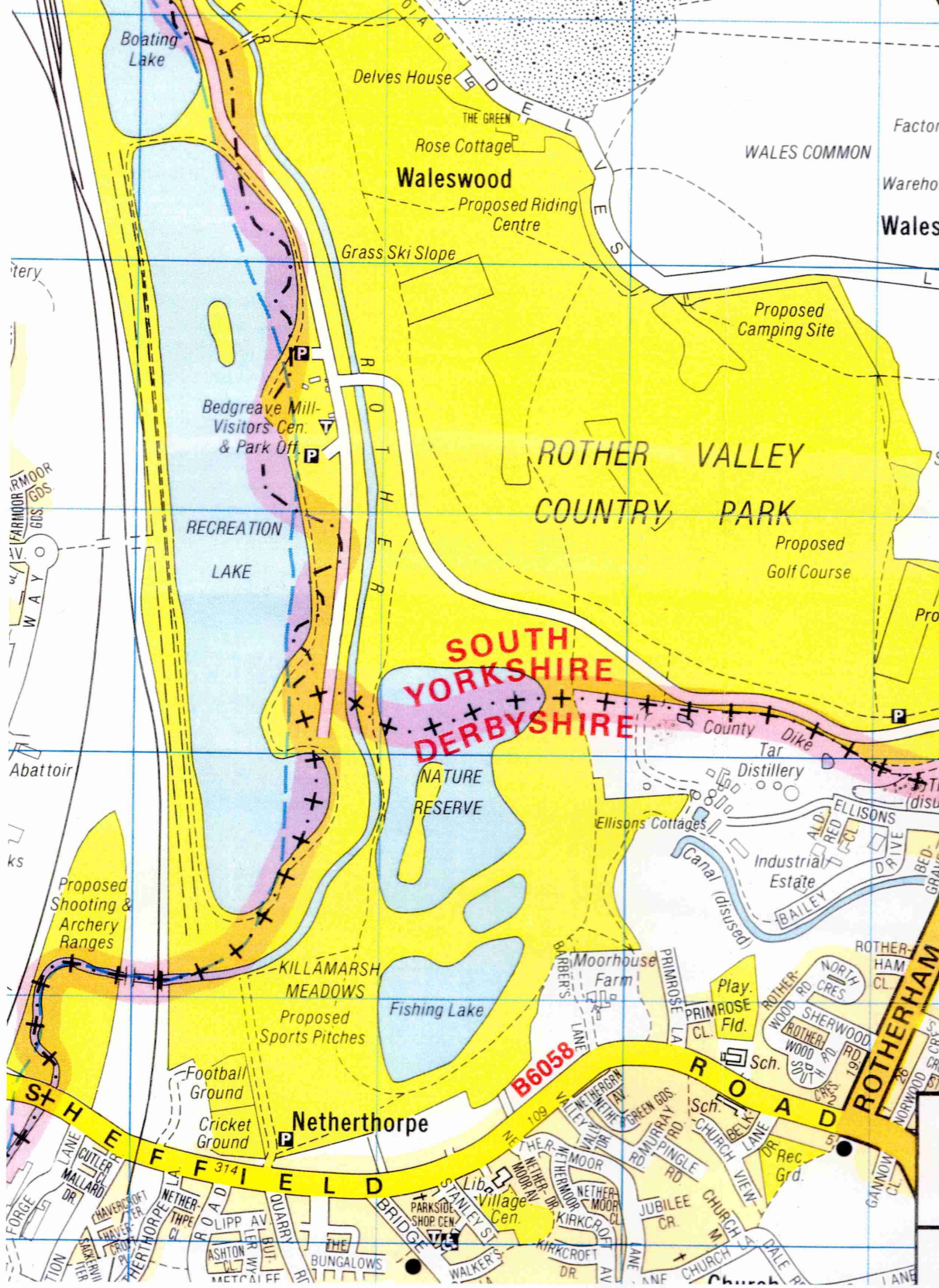
2.4 The Development of Rother Valley Country Park

2.4.1 Historical Development of Rother Valley Country Park

Rother Valley Country Park became established for a variety of interlinked reasons and from its inception to completion took eighteen years. The difficulty of bringing the park to reality was compounded by four local authorities' boundaries intersecting within the area of the Park (see Fig.11).

The initial idea for a recreational park in this area was linked to the need to accommodate Sheffield's overspill population. At a local public inquiry held by Sheffield City Council in 1961 the overspill was forecast to reach 90,000 by 1981 and so in 1962 the Government designated Mosborough and the surrounding districts as the overspill area for this population growth (Halcrow 1973, 1). On 1st April 1967 Mosborough became part of the City of Sheffield.

The Mosborough Comprehensive Development area project (Joint Committee Meetings 1974), which was approved by the Department of the Environment in June 1972, had Rother Valley earmarked for recreational purposes. The project gave prominence to recreation in the Mosborough area and recognised the probable changing leisure needs of society in the future. The notes accompanying the agenda for the inaugural meeting of the Joint Committee (1974) elaborated on these changing leisure patterns, with shorter working weeks, and rising standards of living and education, as contributory factors in the demand for more sophisticated recreational schemes. The notes also drew upon other land reclamation projects in Europe where recreational parks had been established, and then concentrated on recreational parks in Britain



that had been successfully established. The Lee Valley Regional Park, the Colne Valley Park, the "Merrie" England development in Staffordshire and the Strathclyde Regional Park all provide for family recreation with serious sporting facilities included in the schemes. (None of these schemes were fully fledged in 1974.) The same combination of recreation and serious sporting facilities was expected to be developed at Rother Valley Country Park.

At about the same time (1970) the Town Planning Committee approved a programme for the Department of Landscape Architecture at Sheffield University to carry out a survey and analysis of the Rother Valley area, making suggestions for its use particularly for recreational purposes (Halcrow 1973, section 2). Following on from this survey Sir William Halcrow and partners were invited to carry out a feasibility study for establishing a recreational area in the Rother Valley.

The feasibility study uncovered a series of interlinked reasons which led to the establishment of Rother Valley Country Park in its present form. The Master Plan (1981) summarised these reasons as follows:

- (i) A need for a recreational outlet was identified for Sheffield and Rotherham but particularly for the expanding area of Mosborough. Plans had been drawn up for a water park and the hydrological implications had been studied by Sir William Halcrow and Partners.
- ii) A need was identified to provide additional recreational facilities especially in the vicinity of Killamarsh.

- iii) Yorkshire Water and Sheffield Corporation had an agreement to improve the flood control mechanism in the Rother Valley and in particular to cope with the large development in the Mosborough area, which would generate increased run off water.
- iv) The desire to improve the environment of the Rother Valley.
- v) The existence of extensive coal reserves in the area which could be mined economically by open cast methods. The feasibility of extracting this coal was assessed by Sir William Halcrow and Partners who were also retained by the National Coal Board Opencast Executive (NCBOE).

Both the Sheffield and Killamarsh projects were seeking to provide water sites for recreational use and the notes for the inaugural meeting suggested that the two projects be incorporated in one and should aim to provide one large lake (Joint Committee 1974).

2.4.2 The Inclusion of Rowing in the Project

The Halcrow study gave great prominence to rowing as an activity and included the area required by the sport in the original plan (Halcrow 1973, section 3 and Appendix 10 A1Q/1). The lake was to be 2000m long with an additional 150m start and finish area. The depth under the rowing course was to be 3.5 m. and the width would allow for six 12.5 m wide lanes.

Although the site was only 35 miles from the newly opened Holme Pierrepont National Water Sports Centre in Nottingham, the study suggested that Rother Valley could provide a complementary facility.

It was envisaged that the users would be at regional standard and below, with a heavy emphasis on educational use, both for participation and competition. The potential for educational use was highlighted in Halcrow's Appendix 10 (1973), reproduced below, which listed the groups currently rowing at Dam Flask Reservoir and the boats they owned.

Fig.12 Groups Rowing At Dam Flask Reservoir
Source: HALCROW APPENDIX 10 A1Q/1

USERS	CITY OF SHEFFIELD RC	UNIVERSITY RC
City of Sheffield RC (40-50 members)	3 clinker built singles 2 shell 4s	1 shell 4 2 clinker built 4s
Uni. of Sheffield RC (20-25 members)	3 clinker built 4s 1 tub 4	1 tub pair 2 restricted singles
Sheffield Sea Cadets	1 clinker built pair	1 shell pair
Abbeydale Grange School		1 clinker built 8 1 shell 8
Robinson School		
Chaucer school		
De La Salle College		

A rowing club house was included within the plans for building provision at the Park. This club house was to comprise boat store, workshop, launching ramp, male and female changing facilities and toilets, club room, youth room, bar and snack bar, kitchen utility, toilets and resident stewards accommodation (Halcrow 1973, section 7). One of the assistant keepers was to live in the accommodation and act as resident steward for the rowing club. In 1973 the estimated cost of the whole project was £250k of which £137k was to be spent on the rowing course and club house (Halcrow 1973, section 8/4).

Amendments were made to the Halcrow Report but it was accepted fundamentally as the basis for the Park development. One of the major significant changes was the construction of the causeway across the northern part of the lake (see Fig. 11 Map of Rother Valley Country

Park). In 1973 a report by the Recreation Officers Group of the collaborating local authorities (Sheffield, Rotherham, North Derbyshire and Derbyshire County) suggested that the lake should only be used for local rowing and therefore the main lake needed to be only 1000-1200m in length, thus allowing the northern part of the lake to be made suitable for more informal use, with provision for model power boat activities.

Another change to the recommendations made in the Halcrow Report, which significantly affected the later development of rowing in Sheffield, was the decision to promote centrally funded and managed community activities instead of private clubs operating various independent facilities (Halcrow 1973, L2.1; Rother Valley Joint Committee 1981).

Initially, rowing at Rother Valley Country Park was given full sporting status with the intended provision of facilities capable of catering for international competition. Due to the pressure of demand for recreational use at the Park, this position was eroded to the point where the Park became seen as a purely a local, rather than a national or international, rowing facility. When the lake was finally constructed, it was shortened to 1500m: however, in the Yorkshire and Humberside Rowing Council Regional Plan (1984), Rother Valley was designated as a facility that should be developed as the regional rowing centre, a decision which may have been influenced by the Yorkshire and Humberside Sports Council who had put money into the development of the Park (Yorkshire and Humberside Regional Rowing Council Council, 1984). The only time that the Park has been used for rowing other than at a local level was in 1985 when the Anglo French Rowing Match was staged there successfully. This match was for under

16s and was raced over 1500m.

2.4.3 Provision of Rowing Development Funding

The designation of Rother Valley as a Regional Rowing facility helped to secure a grant from Henley Royal Regatta Stewards Charitable Trust to employ a Rowing Development Officer (RDO). In December 1987 Henley Royal Regatta Committee offered assistance to the Amateur Rowing Association of £50K contingent on the ARA presenting suitable projects for funding. The money would become available in 1988 (ARA Executive Committee minutes 1987). In 1988 the RDO project was presented to the stewards who subsequently made available £5k for three successive years (ARA Executive Committee minutes 1988). Similar sponsorship was then sought from local sources to complement the Henley money and provide the finances for a full time post.

In May 1989, after a series of meetings with local Recreation Officer, The President of the Rowing Association met with the Principal of the then Sheffield City Polytechnic (later renamed Sheffield Hallam University) to promote the inclusion of rowing in the World Student Games, which were to be staged in Sheffield in 1991. As part of these discussions the provision of local sponsorship for a Rowing Development Officer post was explored. Following this meeting a proposal for jointly sponsored development officer post was put forward, to combine both academic research and practical sports development tasks. Subsequently, the Polytechnic and the Henley Royal Regatta Stewards Charitable Trust funded the post for three years from October 1989.

2.4.4 Summary

A unique set of circumstances brought about the development of Rother Country Park, including the need to make provision for the leisure requirements of the inhabitants of the existing and planned additional housing in the area. The need for new flood defences, possible coal extraction and the desire to landscape the area were also contributory factors in the decision to build the Park. Having opened the Park then the opportunity presented itself for water sport activities to be established. The lack of local expertise in teaching rowing led to the provision of a Rowing Development Officer. The funding for the post was made possible by the collaboration of the ARA, Stewards of Henley Royal Regatta Charitable Trust and Sheffield Hallam University.

3.0 SPORTS DEVELOPMENT AND PRIORITY GROUPS

3.1 Introduction

Sports development has become a common term in the world of sports provision in recent years with many local authorities establishing sports development units and governing bodies employing sports development officers. The ARA chose to appoint a sports development officer to increase participation levels in South Yorkshire. This Chapter seeks to trace the rise in sports development as a concept. It begins by outlining and problematising the current sports development models which have been adopted nationally by all major agencies with responsibility for delivering sport. In seeking to answer questions about these models, the discussion moves on to investigate the evolution of sports development from its roots in community recreation. Finally, the particular needs of two priority groups - young people and women - are explored: these groups are the main focus of the empirical work presented later. The conclusion drawn is that the contemporary sports development model may not be the most appropriate method of encouraging young people and women into sport and, more particularly, into rowing.

3.2 Sports Development Models

In 1988 Stevens proposed a model for sports development which stratified sport participation into four levels; Foundation, Participation, Performance and Excellence. Stevens identified the providers of sport at each level of involvement and suggested that

this structure already existed although it had not been clearly defined or formalised. At the time he saw the main providers as being parents and schools at Foundation level; local authorities, schools and youth organisations at the Participation level; local authorities, local clubs, schools, National Governing Bodies of sport (NGBs) and the commercial sector at the Performance level; and NGBs and the commercial sector at the Excellence level.

This model (Fig.13) was adopted by the Sports Council and subsequently refined in June 1992 (Fig.14). From that point they no longer saw it as a hierarchical structure but rather promoted the idea of people being able to move between levels. The definitions used for the levels have been expanded as shown below and the 'main providers' are now divided into 'main contributors, facilitators and facilities'.

This assumes that all people are given some foundation within their school life and from this they move into the participation or performance zone. The Sports Council has included an introduction or re-introduction category as an interface between the two. It could be argued that, since many of the skills and methods of introduction will be the same as for primary school children, this divide is unnecessary. The model assumes that all children will receive a basic education in the various skill components that make up sport.

Important questions might be asked about this approach. First, does the sports development model ensure Sport For All? Secondly, how far does the model constrain individual choice and experience of sport?

3.3 What is Sports Development?

Sports development arose from the Sport For All campaign. As early as

Figure 13 A MODEL FOR SPORTS DEVELOPMENT

Source : Stevens (1988)

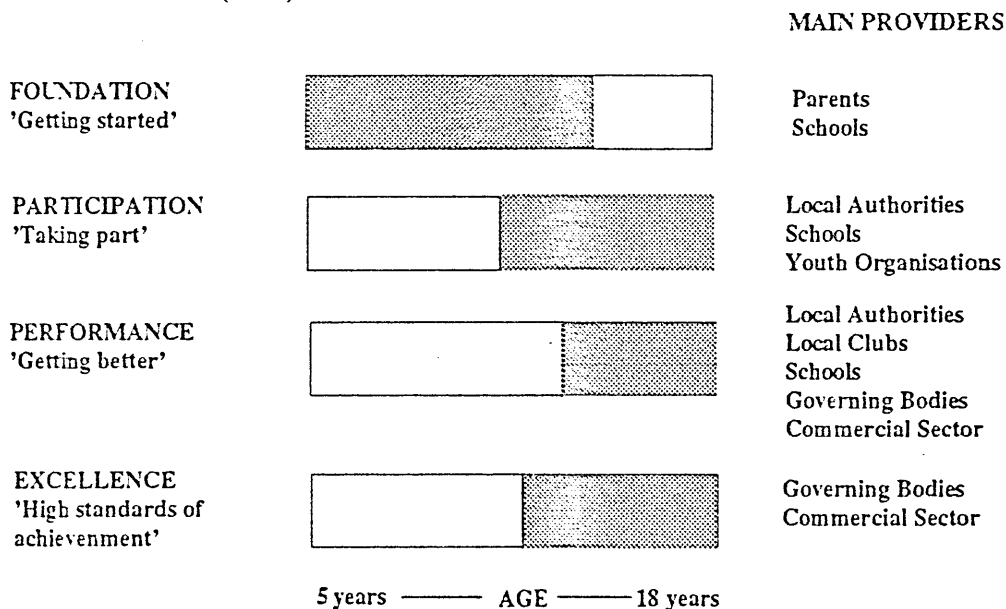
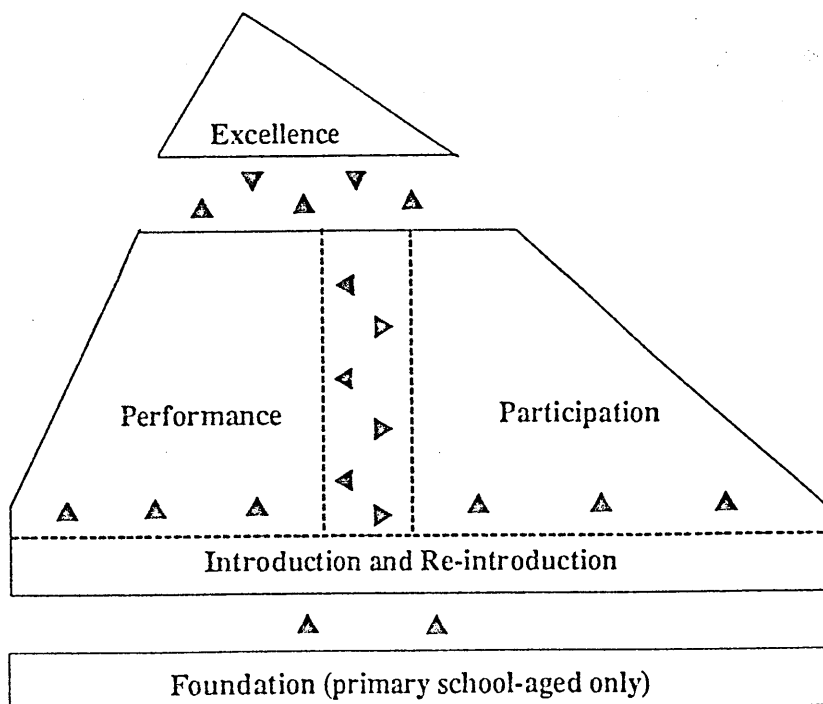


Figure 14 A REVISED FIGURE OF SPORTS DEVELOPMENT

Source : Sports Council (1993)



1966 the Council of Europe coined the phrase 'Sport For All' but in 1968, at an historic meeting of the planning group of the Sport Section of the Council of Europe Committee for Out-of-School Education, the campaign took shape (Marchand 1990). This group set out the principles and arguments for the policy which would be common to all member states of the Council and in 1975 this policy was developed into the European Sport For All Charter (1977). This planning group argued for sport for all on three grounds: biological and medical; social; and human.

- 1) Biological And Medical. The committee suggested that much ill-health in the industrial nations could be attributed to a lack of exercise and, therefore, a large saving in health and social security budgets could be made if people were persuaded to take up sport.
- 2) Social: It was argued by the committee that, prior to the Charter, only the privileged had had access to sport and to the benefits which it offered in terms of personal development. This campaign would represent the opportunity to create ideal conditions for everyone to take part in sport and to find the contribution sport could make to their personal development. As early as this 1968 meeting the socially deprived groups singled out for special mention were: women, children, old people, migrants, the disabled, and prisoners and other offenders.
- 3) Human: This would allow people to express their individuality and creativity through play in the form of sport, an important factor in the development of the individual.

The rationale for the Sport For All campaign was encapsulated by these three factors put forward by the planning group which 'was quite simply asserting the humanistic nature of sport which is open to all' (Marchand 1990, p.5). Article I in the Sport For All Charter states 'Every individual shall have the right to participate in sport'. This philosophy, handed down by the Sports Council to the National Governing Bodies (NGBs) in this country, has been adopted by the ARA to increase participation, particularly amongst those groups under-represented in the sport, namely young people and women.

3.3.1 Sport For All

The Central Council for Recreative Physical Training was founded by Phyllis Colson in 1935 to act as an umbrella organisation for voluntary sports bodies and to be 'the voice of sport' (Evans 1974, p.188). This agency, later renamed the Central Council for Physical Recreation (CCPR), had a major influence on the development of voluntary sport for the thirty years prior to the establishment of the Sports Council and still sees itself as a significant force today. It established seven national sports centres and was involved in the planning of the eighth, the National Watersports Centre at Holme Pierrepont in Nottingham, which opened in 1973. The CCPR also negotiated and lobbied Parliament to provide better access to facilities and to the countryside. The Government issued a circular in 1964 voicing concerns about the provision of sports facilities and the need for improved administration and organisation. The burden of capital expenditure was to fall to the local authorities but provision was made to give grants to voluntary sports organisations and to Governing Bodies of sport for administration purposes. In 1965 the Sports Council was established as an Advisory Body to the Government

and the first Government Minister for sport was appointed. This Advisory Body was given independent status in 1972 when the Sports Council was established by Royal Charter. The adoption of the Sport for All Charter by the European Ministers for Sport in 1976 endorsed and underlined the direction of work of the Sports Council.

Lentell (1992, p.1) argues that sports development arose from a 'conjunction of two social policy concerns'. The Sport For All campaign itself (the first concern) and methods of delivering it adopted by local authorities (the second concern) could both be viewed as being paternalistic and bureaucratic. Recognition of the latter problem led to an exploration of other methods of delivery such as community development. The policy of delivering Sport For All through the provision of better facilities had little effect on the numbers from disadvantaged groups taking up sport: the typical client was still white, male, middle class and arriving at the centre in a car (Torkildsen 1992). In 1982 the Sports Council launched the strategy for the next decade 'Sport in the Community: The Next Ten Years'. At the heart of this strategy was the need to reduce social inequities in opportunities to play sport and to continue supporting improvements in performances (Sports Council 1982). Lentell suggests that the 1980s saw the beginning of community politics or community action groups with the empowerment of the local communities to exert influence over their destiny. Leisure was viewed as a legitimate part of community action and was therefore considered by various agencies for funding. Community action used different agencies and media, such as recreation, to develop the community and bring about change: community recreation is defined below. Several projects were funded by the Government such as the 'Football in the Community project' as an antidote to soccer violence (Sports Council 1978). The Urban

Deprivation Scheme (1978) included sport among the areas for resourcing from central Government. As well as money for facilities, new approaches to leadership were seen as vital to the success of these projects.

According to Lentell, the dissatisfactions with the Sport For All campaign outlined above led to the Action Sport campaign. This was an urban sports participation scheme aimed at low participation groups such as the unemployed, ethnic minorities, young people and women. Others have argued that Action Sport arose directly as an official response to the inner city riots in Brixton (Rigg 1986). A third interpretation is that it grew from two good practice examples, in London and the West Midlands, which were headed by socially aware sports leaders who were sympathetic to the communities' needs. The second wave of Action Sport was funded by the then Manpower Services Commission (MSC) and the local authorities, with the Sports Council funding supervisors to act as Sports Development Officers. In 1988 the MSC Community Programme was replaced with Employment Training and the Action Sport campaign came to an end. The local authorities were invited to increase their funding to ensure the continuance of the scheme, which many did enthusiastically, and the Sports Council matched the increase in funding. Changing Sports Council priorities stopped this third phase of development and Lentell suggests that, even by this time, some agencies preferred approaches other than the community recreation model of sports development. This required intensive input in time in its early stages to form the necessary contacts in the community: but, once running, the organisers relied on community activism to keep the scheme alive. Many bureaucratic organisations were, and still are, frightened of losing control of

these schemes as is the intention with the community development approach.

Lentell (1992) offers three definitions to explain the concepts of community development, community recreation and sports development; community development as defined by the United Nations: community recreation as defined by Haywood (in Lentell 1992, p 6) and the Sports Council definition of sports development.

Community development is:-

A process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole of the community with its active participation and the fullest possible reliance on the community's own initiative. (Lentell 1992, p 5)

The Action Sport programme aimed to increase the opportunities for low- and non-participant groups to take part in sport and recreation.

The process used to achieve this was by means of outreach workers based in local neighbourhoods who developed links with the local community.

Lentell also uses Haywood's definition of community recreation:-

a commitment to working collectively, with clients as partners participating in the process of identifying and meeting social needs; identification and acknowledgement of the value of community resources in the development of leisure and recreation services; an emphasis on meeting the recreational needs of those least likely to benefit from or engage with market orientated and/or paternalistic provision. Hence a focus on minority, special interest, and disadvantaged social groupings is forefronted; recognition of the diversity of the idea of 'community'- as 'locality', as 'interest group', as cultural or religious 'attachment', etc.; awareness of the possibility that leisure and recreation participation may contribute to community development or be a new means of community action, leading to change. (Haywood in Lentell 1992, p 6)

The Action Sport model appears to match this definition but to contrast sharply with the Government aims of sport in the 1990s and the paternalistic attitudes of the Sports Council: the latter seem to be more about prescriptive health benefits and social control than community development, empowerment or partnership. The move of the Minister for Sport from the Department of the Environment to the Ministry for Education and Science in 1991 was accompanied by a paper re-affirming the Government's commitment to sport, recognising the major benefits to be gained by members of British society from widespread participation in sport. The first two aims in this paper were:-

- (a) To further government policies for the alleviation of social deprivation;
- (b) To improve the health and well-being of the nation

(Sport and Recreation Division/DES April 1991)

The Government's proclaimed commitment to sport does not include any reference to the individual choice to be made or benefits to be gained from participation in sport. The benefits listed are those gained by the society and the nation, not the individual. The Sports Council's definition of sports development is given below: although referring to the individual, it uses sport in a prescriptive way as desirable for one's good.

The Sports Council definition of sports development is:-

A process by which interest and desire to take part may be created in those who are currently indifferent to the message of sport; by which those not now taking part, but well disposed, may be provided with appropriate opportunities to do so; and by which those currently taking part may be enabled to do so more frequently and with greater satisfaction. (1989, p.12)

This shows a clear move away from the 1980s Action Sport schemes which concentrated on the low- and non-participant, as opposed to sports development, which encompasses all participants from the inactive up to elite performers. Community recreation as defined above merely saw recreation as a vehicle for community development and the choice of recreation was secondary to the needs of the community. Community recreation is now only a small part of the sports development continuum if, indeed, it fits into the model at all. Lentell argues that the move towards the sports-specific development officer has ensured the erosion of the community recreation principle since, although the definition of sports development given above uses sport in a general way, the sports development officer is only concerned with the expansion of their sport and not with the needs of the community.

The appointment of a Rowing Development Officer for Sheffield/South Yorkshire clearly falls within the definition of sports development rather than a community recreation project. The detailed five-year plan written for the project at Rother Valley Country Park and Sheffield followed the sports development rather than the community recreation model with all aspects of the sport, from foundation to excellence, included. An important element at the participation level was the involvement of the local community in the project with local schools and women's groups taking part. There was also a clear desire from the project's management group to identify, through the research, ways of involving non- and infrequent participants from the community around the Park in the activity even if this required the activity to be tailored to the community.

3.4 What purpose does sports development serve?

There are several agencies like NGBs and local authorities that promote sport participation directly and others, such as central government, which see sport as means of influencing the socialisation process and achieving broader social goals. The Conservative government has launched several relevant initiatives: the first followed the White Paper, 'A Policy for Inner Cities' (1978). Areas identified for special consideration in the document were Housing, Transport, Education and Social Services and recommendations were also included about provision to improve facilities for recreation and sport. There is no doubt that the government saw sport as a form of socialisation, and thereby a means of maintaining social order, within the volatile inner city areas.

Simple facilities for recreation and sport for young people might help improve life for many who would otherwise be attracted to delinquency and vandalism.
(Sports Council 1978, p.6)

In the same year, as a direct response to the increased wave of violence at football matches, the government gave a one million pound grant to a 'Football in the Community Project'. The aim was to base this community project at the football league club grounds with both club and community groups sharing the enhanced facilities (Sports Council 1978). In 1981 the government launched sports schemes for the unemployed and one at Derwentside found that it was possible "to create a demand (for sports activities) amongst the unemployed" (Sports Council 1981). The Toxteth riots in Liverpool also elicited the response from central government of investing one million pounds, matched by private and voluntary subscription, into providing improved sports facilities and positive sports leadership.

The 'Sport and Active Recreation Provision in the Inner Cities' document (DoE 1989) continued the theme of the importance of sport to the well-being of inner city areas. As discussed above, the government's commitment to sport was re-affirmed in the move of the Sport and Recreation Division from the Department of the Environment to the Department of Education and Science, later to be renamed the Department For Education. A fact sheet was issued explaining the role of government in sport (DES 1991) which focussed on the use of sport within the socialisation process for the improvement of the health and well-being of society.

Critcher (in Coalter 1989) argues that leisure, which includes sport, is used for two purposes by the state or state agencies: to develop people and to exercise control over people. Sport is used as a means of control for groups of people with too much 'leisure time' thus ensuring that they develop modes of social interaction that would not normally be open to them. Critcher, however, suggests that this socialising experience usually takes place with people sharing exactly the same situation, thus reinforcing rather than extending their experience. The well-publicised inner city riots mentioned above triggered the response from the government of increasing funding for leisure activities and facilities: not surprisingly, this increase in funding was also targetted at the unemployed, usually males, who were seen as having high potential for trouble-making.

Contrary to the belief that leisure choices are freely made, Critcher holds the view that the so-called extension of consumer choice is in fact a disguise for oligopolies to exercise economic control over the leisure industry. Leisure products and experiences are therefore socially constructed: they are defined by the particular

socio-historical context in which the leisure industry emerged and new activities, whether rowing or New Games, therefore have their roots in history, and are played to a strict set of social and written guidelines.

...sport emerges when a way of playing becomes the way of playing
Gruneau (1983, p.21)

3.5 How is Sports Development Delivered?

Sports development is a relatively new method of service delivery in sport. As a result, it is only now warranting identifiable status and developing a clearly defined structure. In the late 1960s the Council of Europe placed responsibility for sports policy in the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CCC) as part of the Committee of Out-of School Education, and this committee made recommendations on sport to the Council of Europe via the CCC. In 1975 the European Sport For All Charter was agreed, together with a move to form a new committee for sport. Initially this was seen as a committee of the CCC, but in 1977 it became a self-sufficient Committee for the Development of Sport.

Within the British government responsibility for sport has moved between several departments, starting in Education and Science (1935), moving to Environment (1972) and then moving back to Education (1991). During 1992 sport, the arts and tourism were acknowledged as sufficiently important activities to have their own ministry, the Ministry of Heritage. In local authorities there has been confusion as to where responsibility for sport should be situated, often leading to a situation where several departments duplicate provision. In Sheffield, for example, sports development work is carried out by the Recreation Department but in addition the Youth and Community and the

Education budgets also provide development officers working with school groups and youth groups. Sheffield Health Authority also employ a sports development officer to promote the idea of sport for health. In other authorities this is even more confusing, with leisure coming under miscellaneous departments. For example, in the Royal Borough of Kensington and Chelsea the sports development team was originally located within the Engineering and Works Department before being relocated to the Continuing Education and Community Education section of the Department of Education.

The European Charter for Sport For All (1977) mentions relationships with other areas:

education, health, social services, town and country planning, conservation, the arts and leisure service.
(Article 3, p.22 in Marchand)

This use of sport for multiple purposes - health, preparation for leisure, social control, the relief of deprivation - helps to account for the great diversity of delivery agencies and methods. This has implications for the NGBs who wish to promote sport at a local level, such as the ARA, as there may be no single agency responsible for sports participation.

3.6 The Role of the Sports Development Officer

Lentell (1992) uses Iceton's classification of sports development officers for the London area (1990):-

- 1) The 'Generalist'- primarily concerned with running sessions, competitions, events and courses from a central base.
- 2) The 'Community Sports Development Officer'- primarily concerned to increase participation, particularly by target groups, in a designated target area or neighbourhood.

- 3) The 'Target Group Development Officer'- primarily concerned to increase participation and improve performance by a specific target group.
- 4) The 'Sports Specific Development Officer'- primarily concerned to develop a particular sport covering participation, performance and excellence.
- 5) The 'Facility Development Officer'- primarily concerned with increasing the usage of existing facilities, though they may be involved in identifying the need for new facilities if they have a borough-wide brief. (The dual-use officer would also come under this heading.)
- 6) The 'Performance Officer'- primarily concerned with improving the performance of those already taking part in sport and extending the opportunities for promoting excellence.

Lentell suggests that the first three categories are community development workers while the second group are concerned with sports development. In addition Iceton records that of the £3m spent on sports development in London between 1985 and 1991, nearly two thirds was spent on sport-specific work. This would suggest that the majority of sport development officers in the London area are in the last three categories. This confirms the view that agencies have moved away from community recreation towards sports development.

3.7 Sports Development Clients/Priority Groups

As already stated, the Council of Europe Charter for Sport listed priority groups or disadvantaged groups who would not normally take part in sport. The Sports Council has followed the trend of selecting a target group within the Sport For All campaign and directing funds and activities towards that group. Some of the campaigns have already been explored such as the Football in the Community programme and Action Sport. National campaigns in the 1970s and 1980s have included '50+ and All To Play For', 'Ever Thought of Sport' (aimed at 13-24 year olds and sponsored by Weetabix and the Sports Council 1983), 'What's Your Sport?' (1987) and 'What's on For Women' (1989).

McIntosh and Charlton (1985) assessed the impact of the Sport For All campaign from the start of the Sports Council Advisory Body in 1965 to the formation of the Executive Body in 1983. They discovered that the impact of having identified target groups had been minimal, and an assessment by White and Coakley (1987) discovered the same about the Ever Thought of Sport campaign. The Sports Council's own assessment of these projects revealed ineffective marketing and deficiencies in the structure of sport at a local level (Sports Council 1992). The next chapter clearly demonstrates the need for different marketing strategies for different client groups and different activities. The Sports Council has since switched the emphasis towards what it called 'demonstration projects,' rather than general programmes, which enables sports to be more effectively marketed to the designated priority group(s) (see Chapter 4). Two such priority groups, young people and women, are used as the focus for this study of rowing marketing (see below).

In the last two years three important documents have been produced by the Sports Council of relevance to this study. The first of these is 'Young People and Sport: Consultation Document' (1992), the second is 'Women in Sport: Consultation Document' (1992) and the third is 'National Demonstration Projects; Major Lessons and Implications for Sports Development' (1991). The importance of the first two documents is that the priority groups' needs are fully explored at the four different levels of the sports development model (see 3.1). These documents outline a national framework of sports development policy but leave the mechanics of meeting the needs of the designated groups to local providers. The assessment of the demonstration projects gives clear guidelines for good and bad practice in local sports development.

3.7.1 Young People

The Sports Council acknowledged the paucity of information available on young people's patterns of sports participation and, in December 1992 commissioned a large scale research investigation into the subject. This is intended to be a national research project which will provide comprehensive information on the lifestyles of young people. The project findings should provide the raw data to market sport more effectively to the different segments of the market within the young people category.

Existing information about young people's sports participation is mainly regionally based. In particular, two projects have attempted to find ways of engaging young people in an active life style: they are the Active Life Styles Project based in Coventry and the Young People's Leisure and Lifestyles Project based at the University of Aberdeen.

The Active Life Styles project was one of the major initiatives of the Sports Council to attract 13 to 24 year olds into participation in sport, with the broad aim

to provide young people from the age of 13 with programmed induction opportunities, thereby giving them a basis on which to develop active lifestyles in the community.

McDonald and Tungatt (1989, p.1)

The demonstration project in Coventry used the strategy identified by the Sports Council for a co-ordinated approach to sport and recreation provision within the school curriculum, by the local authority recreation services, adult education programmes and adult sports clubs. It was found that this co-ordinated approach had a positive

effect but that the project team often had to take the lead to change 'attitudes, practices and 'product presentation''. The first major objective of the project was to encourage young people to adopt an active life style by providing a wide-ranging programme of activities, of necessity built on the initiatives already present in the local schools. This required sensitivity in balancing leading and responding approaches. One of the major findings was that no blueprint existed for encouraging young people to adopt an active life style. The project found that NGBs of sport recognised the competitive market for participation and many attempted to market their activity by appointing sports development officers.

These findings from Coventry suggest that schemes developed by the NGBs to increase young people's participation in sport will only provide piecemeal services until local authority recreation departments appoint their own sports development officers, who work with the governing bodies to provide services on a more comprehensive basis.

Champion Coaching is a scheme initiated by the National Coaching Foundation and run in cooperation with some local authorities across the country to promote after-school sport amongst those who would not normally be coached. In a limited way this scheme may be providing just that co-ordinated approach to youth sport called for as a result of the Coventry scheme. However, since Champion Coaching relies heavily on financial contributions input from local authorities and governing bodies, then minority sports, such as rowing, are unlikely to be offered as part of this scheme. Any future rowing participation scheme must consider the implications of this South Yorkshire project

before deciding on a strategy for recruiting young people into the sport.

A more detailed analysis of young people's participation in sport has been undertaken within Young People's Leisure and Lifestyle Project (Hendry 1993). Echoing parts of Critcher's analysis, Hendry suggests that the 'true citizen' is now seen as one who participates actively in recreation, which helps to foster in them a sense belonging to community. The rationale for youth sport programmes is, therefore, that they may engender this sense of community and thus help young people to make the transition into adult society.

Within the study Hendry abstracted six important points from previous work in the area of young people's participation in sport.

- i) Organised sport and physical activities are not attractive to certain groups of young people.
- ii) Interest or lack of interest in exercise may be related to general attitudes to school and schooling.
- iii) Although there is a decrease in involvement in organised sport after leaving school, young people, particularly young women, continue their interest in casual, fun-orientated activities when these activities focus on sociability, enjoyment and competence rather than on competition.
- iv) Research is needed to establish young people's motivations, context and values in relation to sports participation.
- v) There is a need to identify the elements of physical activity which would ensure young people's continued participation.
- vi) Greater awareness is required about the activities which compete for young people's time and the effects of the stereotypical

images purveyed by the mass media of the behaviour and expectations of young people.

Hendry's major contribution is in identifying the attitude and lifestyle changes that take place in young people across the 15 to 16 and 17 to 18 age range. He clustered together similar socio-economic groups at the first age group and monitored the lifestyle changes in their profile as they moved from one age category to the next. This research was further stratified by gender.

Membership of socio-economic group was found to be consistent despite changes in lifestyle with increasing age. Hendry suggests the dubious logic that the current economic situation, high unemployment, longer and healthier lifestyles all combine to provide the opportunity for sport to play a major regulating role in young people's lives. This contrasts with Lentell's view that people should have the right to self-determination in their leisure time. Hendry's view is that sport can provide some continuity during the difficult changes between age phases. His research also states the need to provide sporting opportunities to young people in a different way from traditional methods of sports delivery.

3.7.2 Women

In recent years there has been an increase in the amount of research in this country on women and their leisure opportunities. Two major studies, which are discussed below, by Wimbush (1985) and by Green, Hebron and Woodward (1988, 1990) identified the constraints on women's leisure: the latter study also challenged the traditional methods of delivery of women's leisure activities. Whilst the Edinburgh study

looked in general at leisure and well-being, the Sheffield study did incorporate some specific work on physical recreation. There is no study of equivalent size or importance of women and sport alone.

Wimbush's study *Women, Leisure and Well-Being*, which was carried out on young mothers in Edinburgh, confirmed the importance of leisure for women's well-being but also identified that women categorised leisure into two distinct types. The first was leisure separated from women's stereotypical roles as home makers and child rearers, and the second was leisure associated with the work role, for example knitting while watching television. Surprisingly, single parents, who had control over the allocation of household resources and freedom from male constraints, had greater autonomy over their leisure activity, but this was contingent upon the provision of support mechanisms to reduce the burden of their having sole responsibility for the children. The research recognised the change in status and loss of confidence and identity that women experience after having children. Women were expected to subordinate their own needs to the needs of the family. Women's support mechanisms became, increasingly, based on other women, either family or friends. Some evidence was found in the study of marital conflicts associated with inequality of opportunity for leisure activities. When traditional definitions of leisure and recreation were applied to women's leisure, then minimal amounts of personal recreation were available to most mothers.

Home based activities, or those that were dependent on childcare provision in other women's homes or local amenities, were the most common leisure activities for women in the study. Women often felt guilty about having personal leisure and this was frequently legitimised by undertaking an activity with their children.

The Sheffield Gender and Leisure Study produced the world's largest database on women and leisure and confirmed Wimbush's findings about the constraints on women's leisure and showed their relevance for women of most ages and circumstances. Perhaps more importantly, this project identified policy implications for providing women's leisure. While the authors recognised the importance of the Sports Council's proposals to provide more suitable activity programmes with creche facilities and sociable areas, they questioned whether these were women's main concerns or merely a reflection of the male view of sport. They suggested that women-only sessions and the provision of safe transport might be of far more significance than, for example, creche provision, if women were to be encouraged to take part in recreation activities. The traditional media portrayal of sport was as a masculine activity. The authors suggested that the importance of providing support mechanisms, by giving women opportunities to be sociable, could not be underestimated. This study warned policy makers not to treat women as a homogeneous group with the same constraints and needs but to recognise their diverse circumstances. However, it emphasised the importance of women's friendships and the benefits of the provision of opportunities for social contact. Constraints imposed by lack of time and finance, together with childcare duties, must also be taken into consideration in any sports provision.

3.8 Conclusions

The ARA is committed to increasing rowing opportunities for low participation groups including young people and women (Veats 1985). An effective recruitment programme for these two groups is possible through sports development as sports development has evolved ways of delivering opportunities to take part in sport activities to all

potential participants in sport. However, the results of this investigation will be compared with studies of young people and leisure by Hendry (1993) and of women and leisure by Wimbush (1986) and Green et al. (1990), all of which indicate that traditional methods of sports development are inappropriate for effective delivery of sport to these groups. The ARA is in a position to create an effective sports development programme but this will need to be adapted to fit research findings rather than following traditional delivery methods.

The appointment in 1989 of a Rowing Development Officer to Rother Valley Country Park (3.3.1) was specifically intended to enhance participation levels in the local area. This research therefore explores the possible methods of sports delivery to local communities and investigates the leisure needs of young people with a view to developing an effective marketing campaign. The research addresses issues of physical access to the Park, programme content and location, and provision of creche facilities.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has identified the different methods available for the delivery of opportunities for participation in sport. Studies of young people and women have begun to identify the need for segmenting the market rather than hoping that a blanket marketing campaign will have any effect on sports participation. The combination of both these factors will necessitate that providers of sports activities look radically at the method of delivery, the combination of activities offered and the support mechanisms provided. This has implications for the provision of rowing and raises the possibility of providing the

4.0 MARKETING AND SPORT

4.1 Introduction

Marketing is not just about selling a product but, in its purest form, is an ethos and philosophy which will dominate all the activities of an organisation (Kotler and Armstrong 1991). Marketing theory is well established with information available on marketing the product, the service, and, more recently, on marketing for the non-profit organisation. The main aim of this chapter is to propose a marketing model or implementation model that can be used to market sport as an activity. This will be approached by analysing marketing theory; looking at sport sponsorship; examining the potential marketeers and their motivation for marketing the activity; exploring the current planning structure used and, ultimately, combining theory with practice to produce an implementation model.

4.2 Marketing Theory

4.2.1 The Status of Marketing

In the 1990s commercial organisations rely heavily on marketing and the most successful organisations adopt a marketing policy which affects all the activities of the company, from the introduction of new products to the image the company projects to the public (Kotler and Armstrong 1991). Marketing is not confined to manufacturing industries: service industries, and more recently non-profit organisations, are also developing marketing strategies. Hospitals, higher and further education establishments and voluntary

organisations are all adopting marketing strategies. Hospitals wish to attract patients, educational establishments students and voluntary organisations members and donations. All marketing theory is very similar, with the major differences in the non-profit as opposed to the for-profit sector arising from: the multiple publics and the multiple objectives of the organisations; the service rather than product orientation; and the likely scrutiny of the public as stake holders (Kotler 1982). (An explanation of Kotler's concept of multiple publics and multiple organisations is given in section 4.4 below.)

4.2.2 Definitions used within Marketing

There are various definitions of marketing (Barabba et al 1990; Kotler 1982; Kotler et al 1991). For the purposes of this thesis the definition below has been adopted. This definition includes the main features of marketing and reflects the trend towards the social element of marketing assuming an increasingly significant role.

We define marketing as a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and value with others.
(Kotler and Armstrong 1991, p.5)

This definition requires explanations of both 'needs' and 'wants', and of the notion of exchanging products and value.

The most widely used interpretation of needs within the marketing world is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1954). In this model the lowest level of the hierarchy is 'physiological' and includes life needs such as food and water. When these needs are met, individuals seek to satisfy the next level of need, which he calls 'safety,' such as security and protection. The third level is 'social' with needs for a

sense of belonging and love. The last two levels are 'esteem', with self esteem, recognition and status being important and finally 'self actualisation' with self development and self realisation the central features. Torkildsen (1992) argues that Maslow's strict hierarchical structure is not correct, with needs often arising simultaneously at different levels. However, Maslow's structure does show humans as constantly striving to achieve, which fits well with the marketing ethos.

The social sciences have extended the concepts and categorisation of needs, particularly at the social level. Torkildsen (1992) explores Bradshaw's identification of four levels of 'social' need; 'normative'; 'felt'; 'expressed'; and 'comparative', which can be used as an overlapping model by the leisure provider to identify real needs. Torkildsen explains how this concept has been expanded by Godbey (1976) who has added further categories of 'created needs', 'changing needs' and 'false needs'. The last three categories are the most interesting. The expectation of the marketer is that the leisure provider can market an activity to create a need. Changing needs are related to the life cycle. An example might be the need for security in a young adult which is satisfied via receiving a regular income: for a mid-life adult, a regular income alone may not be enough to achieve security and it may be necessary to secure the future via pension funds. The final category of false needs is the difference between the individual's feelings of need and the perception of others of need. False need may be created because something is seen as being desirable to society. The Government's use of sport for social control falls within this category. If false and created needs can be stimulated then these two categories of need could be exploited to market sport.

Marketeers adhere strictly to the psychological definition of needs rather than the sociological model adopted by Torkildsen (Williams 1989). Using Maslow's Hierarchy, the needs described by Torkildsen could be reclassified as wants.

If need is a state of felt deprivation "then wants are" the form taken by human needs as they are shaped by culture and individual personality. (Kotler et al 1991, p.21)

By this definition, the three categories of false, created and changing needs outlined above could be argued to be wants rather than needs. This whole area of need, want, drive and motivation has been explored by Mahatoo who has developed a model to show the relationships between all these concepts (1989). While these differentiations will not affect the sports marketing model, they will have very serious ramifications for the eventual strategy adopted by the sports marketer. The Mahatoo model will be explored in more detail below as a segment of the sports marketing model (see 4.2.3).

Exchange is the process by which people satisfy needs and wants and this involves a transaction between at least two parties, both of whom have something of value to exchange. Another important aspect of exchange is that both parties are free to accept or reject the offer and they must be able to communicate and, finally, deliver the goods (Kotler et al 1991).

4.2.3 What are we Marketing?

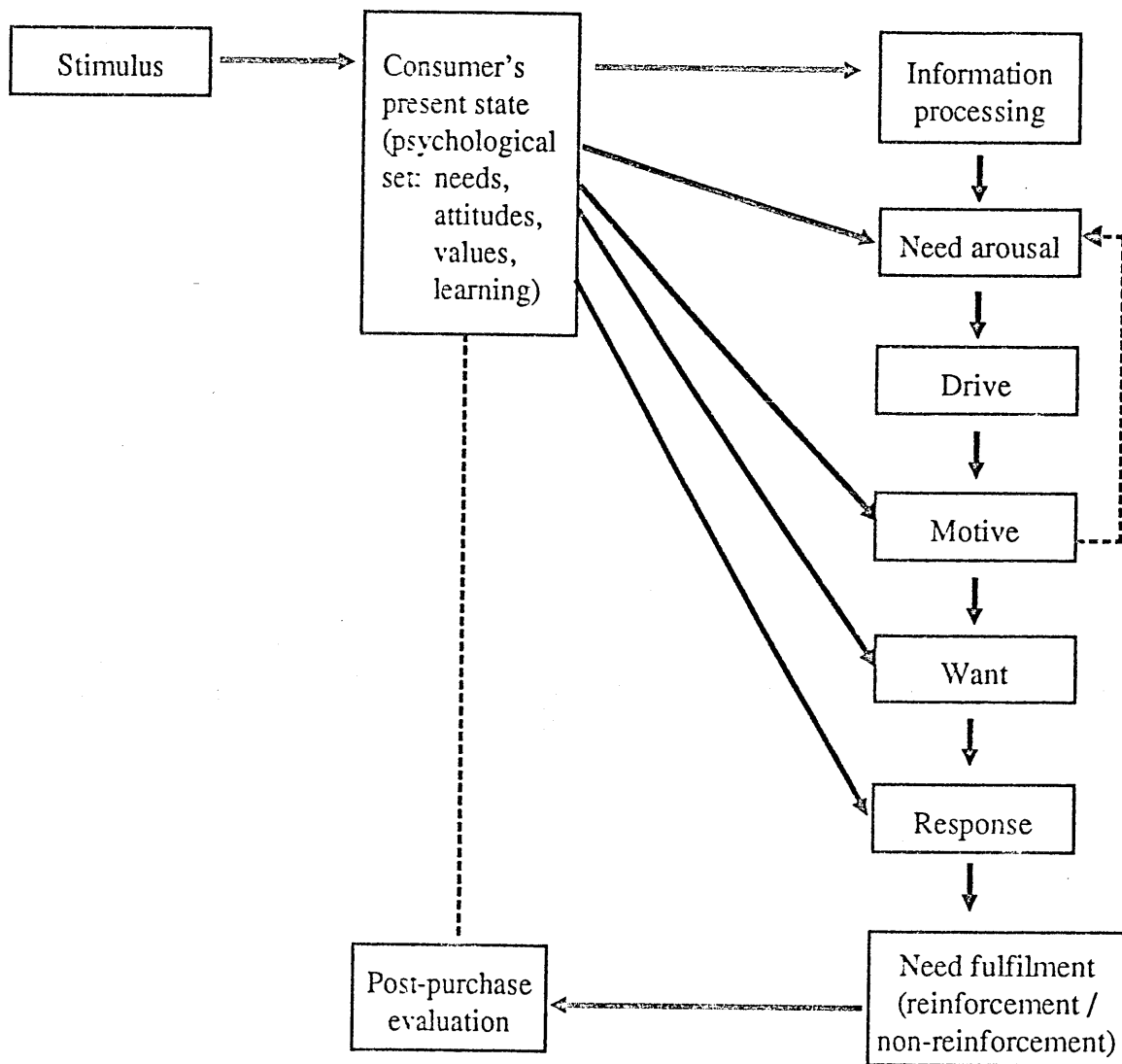
The previous section established needs and wants as very separate entities, which makes it possible to look at sport within this framework. In order to market sport successfully this must be

understood to be the want or the object that will satisfy a need. Returning to Maslow's Hierarchy, it is possible that sport could fulfil needs at five levels. Most needs will arise at the top three levels of social, esteem and self actualization: however, in certain circumstances, safety needs could be fulfilled by sport. Some women attending self defence classes may feel that they need to be better able to protect themselves. As standards of living and life expectation increase then perhaps sport could fulfil needs at the physiological level. Within the Western world the basic human needs for food and water are usually easily fulfilled and the need for activity could be fulfilled by sport. One could argue that quality of life and increased life expectancy might fall within the physiological needs.

Mahatoo's work will need to be examined further to understand the point of contact between the marketer and the consumer (See Fig.15). Mahatoo suggests that motives, together with drive, provide us with the want to fulfil a need. For example, someone needing social approval may be motivated by achievement and this, in turn, might manifest itself by them wanting to row for their country. For another individual the desire to be a member of a university rowing team may still be driven by the need for social approval but the motivation may be generated by affiliation rather than achievement. Mahatoo stresses that marketers must not only be aware of the need but also the motive that drives the individual in order that particular market segments may be targetted. The motive may be satisfied by a variety of wants; for example, someone wishing to fulfill the need for prestige may be motivated by achievement and the want could be attaining selection for the county team while for another individual this want may be satisfied by owning a limited edition motor car. In order to maximise

Figure 15
A MODEL TO DIFFERENTIATE NEEDS, DRIVES AND WANTS

Source : Mahatto, (1989 p32)



the chances of successfully attracting new consumers to sport any strategy must take this into account.

4.2.4. Marketing Philosophies

Marketing philosophy is a term often used in the marketing world and usually refers to a company marketing philosophy which permeates all aspects of marketing within an organisation. Often this philosophy stems from the marketing plan which should not just sell the product at the end, but be involved in all aspects of the company business (Beauchemin 1989; Brookbank 1991). Kotler approaches this from the other end, suggesting that an agreed marketing philosophy should guide all the planning processes within the company (Kotler et al 1991). Sport is dependent on the consumer returning so any sound marketing philosophy must take into account their needs and wants. The two philosophies which feature consumer needs as a high priority are the 'marketing concept' and the 'societal marketing concept'. In terms of the marketing concept, the starting point is the market with the main focus being the customers' needs; the product is sold by an integrated marketing method and the profits are derived through customer satisfaction. The societal marketing concept, in contrast, requires that the organisation first determines the needs and wants and interests of the target markets. It then delivers the items more effectively and efficiently than its competitors but all the time attempting to maintain or improve the consumers' or society's well-being.

A comparison of the two concepts may be seen, for example, in the want of an environmentally concerned customer for a new rowing blade. Both types of organisation, that which advocates the marketing concept and

that which advocates the societal marketing concept, will have determined this need for a blade from their market research. However, while the former relies on customer satisfaction, and hence the return of the customer for repeat purchases, the latter will seek out the interests of the market segment, design the blade with this in mind and to enhance the environmental well-being of society through providing blades made from renewable wood sources. Sports organisations could well benefit from adopting the societal marketing concept to guide their activities.

4.2.5 Strategic Planning

Nearly all British sports organisations now produce a forward plan but few develop a strategic marketing plan, despite the fact that they claim to want to extend their membership base and income (Sports Council 1990).

Greenley's model (see Fig. 16) sets out four stages of strategic planning. The mission statement (1) states the organisation's purpose and identifies what it would like to accomplish in the wider environment. If a mission statement is to be effective then it must define the company's goals and values with reference to its markets, consumers, employees and other interested parties. The statement may give the standards of societal and ethical responsibilities but to be meaningful these must be backed up by specific objectives (2) (Kotler et al 1991).

There is much written about the requisite steps for a successful strategic plan (see for example Pavia 1991; Miller and Wise 1991). While many of these authors include research into the market place,

Figure 16

THE STAGES OF STRATEGIC PLANNING

Source : Greenley G (1986) The strategic and operational planning of marketing

Strategic
Planning



- (1) organisational mission
- (2) organisational objectives
- (3) strategic audit
- (4) organisational strategy

some put emphasis on the consumer (Church 1991) and others make particular reference to the competitor (Brooksbank 1990). All the writers agree that information gathering is essential to any strategic plan. The strategic audit (3) is an information gathering process and the data required concerns the market place, including consumer needs and potential competitors. No marketing strategy is complete without careful consideration of the product, price, promotion and place which together comprise the 'marketing mix'. These four categories are interrelated and cannot be considered in isolation. The company may make several products, with a different level of luxury which will be reflected in the price, place in the market and the promotion used to sell the product. An example could be provided by boatbuilders who produce a variety of boat designs. Eton Racing Boats, for example, emphasise the value for money aspect of one of their products (the fibreglass shell), the durability of another (their heat-cured boat) and the craftsmanship of yet another (the wooden cold-moulded shell). Each boat is designed with its own market segment in mind with a corresponding price, a place in the market and a very distinctive promotion. In most cases, however, boatbuilders build for a particular niche in the market rather than trying to provide for the whole range of consumer interests.

4.3 Sports Sponsorship

4.3.1 The Status of Sport Sponsorship

Sports sponsorship is big business with half a billion pounds being spent in this area in 1988 (Parker 1991). Actual sponsorship amounts to half of this but it is matched by the value of the associated marketing, advertising and public relations. An example of sport being

used to promote products is the sponsorship of the Football League by Barclays Bank and its consequent renaming as the Barclays League. Most professional league football teams are sponsored by commercial companies and wear company logos on their shirts. Sheffield United, for example, have been sponsored by Arnold Laver, a local timber merchant; other companies which have bought advertising space on players shirts are Commodore at Chelsea, Candy at Liverpool and Sharp at Manchester United.

The reasons for sponsoring a sport, a tournament or a team will vary but often a company can "differentiate itself from the competition among defined target audiences." (Stiel 1988, p.20). Other motivations include increasing sales potential by appealing to the audience watching the sport (Dowling 1987). Sheffield Wednesday concluded a deal with a computer company, Sanderson Electronics, for £250k. "Sandersons were attracted by big crowds at Hillsborough, and by the TV coverage of European, League and Cup Matches." (The Star 1992). Sponsoring a tournament ensures that the company is always identified as a winner since it does not rely on the playing record of one team (Kitner et al 1988). The other advantage of sponsoring a tournament is maximising television coverage. In 1988 Cornhill Insurance sponsored the cricket test series securing 185 hours of scheduled television (Parker 1991). It is important to ensure that the company product is clearly defined since it was found that, when Gillette sponsored cricket, a majority of viewers began to associate Gillette with cricket rather than razors (Parker 1991). The ability to attract media coverage is the single most important factor in assessing the value of sponsorship (Crowley 1991). According to Meenaghan (1991), sports sponsorship is now a legitimate method of marketing.

There is evidence of sport itself being marketed to fans but this is in order to increase the number of spectators rather than the number of players. Promotion of card collecting as a hobby, for example, ensures that fans know the players and in the United States this has reached a new level of sophistication with opportunities being provided to meet players, attend clinics and collect memorabilia (Schlossberg 1991). Sports videos covering history, highlights or special anthologies also provide a selling opportunity for the marketer (Walley 1988). The sports marketing world has now become so big that there are magazines dedicated to the subject (LeRoux 1987) and sports marketing education is likely to become a new discipline of the 1990s (Schlossberg 1990). Despite all this activity geared to increasing sales and increasing the number of fans there is still no strategically planned, monitored and evaluated marketing of sport (as opposed to marketing through sport); this is as true for rowing as any other sport.

4.3.2 Agencies Marketing Sport Participation

Several agencies, like the NGBs and local authorities, promote sport participation directly: others, such as central government, see sport as a means of influencing the socialisation process (see Chapter 3). Central government could benefit from marketing sports participation thus generating an increase in revenue to the treasury. In 1991 sport accounted for approximately 1.6% of the gross national product in the UK. In terms of consumer spending in the member states of the Council of Europe this equates to \$35-40 billion at 1985 exchange rates and the member nations employ about 1.5 million workers (Jones 1989). In Britain clothing, footwear and equipment sales are an expanding

business with, for example, £250m being spent in 1991 by golfers alone (Sports Council 1991).

Local authorities are the major providers of sports facilities and major employers in the leisure industry. Facility provision of sports halls has increased from approximately 20 in 1970 to about 1200 in 1989 (Audit Commission 1989). Local authorities decide their own philosophy of provision and use of sports facilities. Some adopt the government's paternalistic approach that "Sport is GOOD for you" and others attempt to respond to expressed needs or suppressed demands of their local populations (Audit Commission 1989). Within Sheffield, Rother Valley Country Park could fulfil both these approaches; the expressed demand was for a leisure facility in the location and the suppressed demand was met by providing the water sports facility. The evidence of the feasibility study for the Park suggests that the expressed demand came from the local authorities (Halcrow 1973). The move towards Compulsory Competitive Tendering has since caused leisure managers within the public sector to become more commercially minded with many preparing specifications and then tendering for contracts. Profit has become more important within parts of the specifications, as has customer satisfaction. This process has ensured that local authorities are now involved in marketing (The Audit Commission 1990). Torkildsen includes market research and market strategies as standard practice for leisure managers (Torkildsen 1992). The body of literature available on marketing leisure activities and facilities has grown in parallel with the increase in private companies engaged in marketing leisure for profit (Greer 1991 and Stone 1990).

The NGBs would also benefit from a critical evaluation of their marketing strategies. Many governing bodies are very effective at

attracting sponsorship for tournaments, leagues and individual teams. Examples of these NGBs are the Football Association, the Cricket Association and the All England Tennis Association. This, however, applies only to sports with a high profile. Companies assess the impact of advertising in terms of reaching new markets and increasing sales (Parker 1991 and McDonald 1991). Many NGBs would like to increase their active membership not only for the extra revenue this would bring but also to enhance the attractiveness of the organisation to potential sponsors. The circulation of NGB magazines and potential mailing lists offer a very important marketing method available to any potential sponsor. NGBs relying on Sports Council grants are keen to increase participation levels in response to one of the criteria for assessing the grant application for their four year plan (Sports Council 1990: see section 4.5 below). Few NGBs have a coherent marketing strategy which drives their activities although some, such as the Amateur Swimming Association and the All England Badminton Association, have business plans and marketing executives. The ARA neither has a business plan nor employs marketing personnel.

4.4 Marketing within the Non-Profit Organisation

In the introduction to this Chapter, Kotler's four major characteristics of non-profit organisations were listed but not explained in detail. The first of these was the 'multiple publics' of the organisation. In the case of a rowing organisation, Kotler would include in these publics previous rowers, current rowers, parents and partners of rowers, patrons, association staff, coaches and administrators, local businesses and local and national government agencies. Each of these could be classified as either clients or funders; the first are associated with the problem of resource

allocation and the second the problem of resource attraction.

The second characteristic that Kotler identified of non-profit organisations was the multiple objectives of the organisation. While this is also true for business organisations these are driven wholly by the profit motive. The third characteristic was the provision of service rather than physical goods and, while some businesses may have a service orientation, all the non-profit sector is involved in service. This could be disputed by co-operative organisations that produce goods but not at a profit. The fourth characteristic was the likely public scrutiny of the organisation. Subsidies and tax exemptions, together with grants, qualify non-profit organisations as part of the public domain which also leaves them open to political pressure. In the case of a sports organisation, such as rowing, pressure might be brought to bear for involvement in or withdrawal from particular events. Government pressure to boycott the 1980 Olympics in Moscow was a classic example.

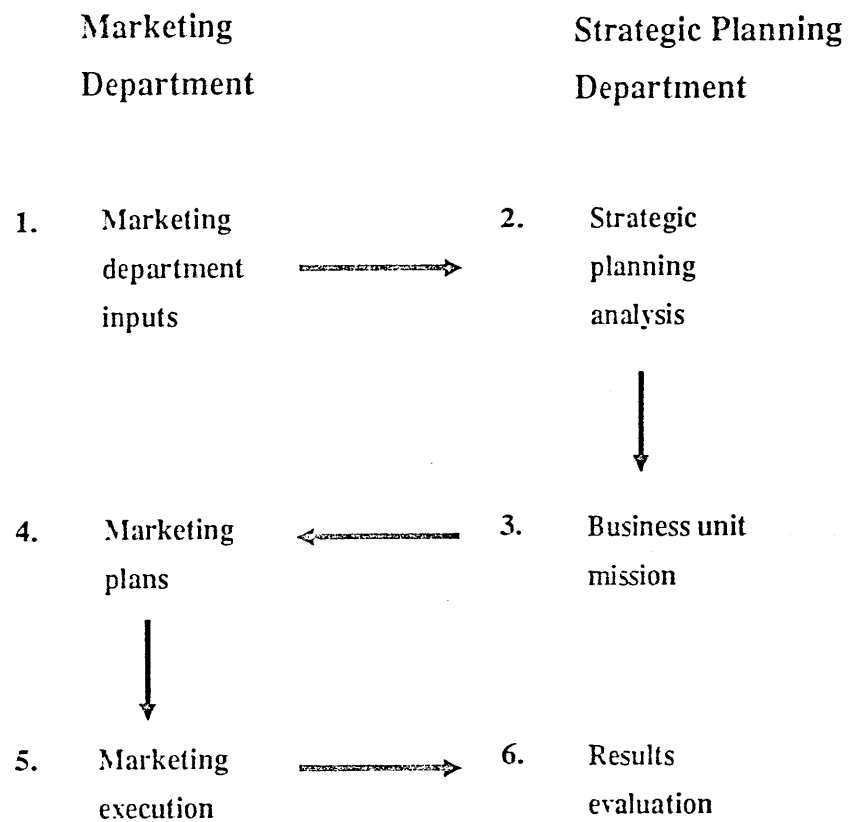
Shapiro (1990) identified clients and funders as two distinct groups within the non-profit sector and suggested that the major implication of this for the organisation was the need to adopt two marketing strategies aimed at the multiple publics. Gwin (1990) described the constituent groups or multiple publics of the for-profit organisation as being seven distinct and well-defined groups. These are shareholders, management, union/employees, customers, suppliers, community and public and, finally, government. In the non-profit sector these categories are less well defined and vary depending on the nature and activity of the organisation. A government department will not depend on volunteers but a charity is likely to rely heavily on a volunteer workforce. Just as Kotler and Shapiro have identified

fundere and clients, Gwin has separated multiple publics into resource generators and service users. Under resource generators he includes, taxpayers, donors and third party providers: in rowing, third party providers might be parents, who provide the revenue for their dependent children to participate. Gwin divides service users into non-revenue and revenue-generation service users. The first type take from an organisation but do not pay, for example beginners who attend a free taster session in rowing. The second group pay for services but the cost is minimal, such as unwaged rowers who qualify for subsidised membership rates. Gwin adds three other groups with a stake in the organisation: regulators, which include governmental and advisory boards; managers, and staff members. He suggests that most organisational energy goes into resource generation and distribution and that groups not involved directly with these efforts are ignored which leads to an inefficient organisation. The major funder of rowing is the Sports Council, therefore the policies of the funder are included in any forward plan. These may not always be the most effective policies for the sport.

Cousins (1990) using Kotler (1980) conducted a study into the nature of planning in public and non-profit sectors (see Fig.17). He found that the non-profit sector was just as likely as the for-profit sector to write marketing plans. The major differences arose from the content of the plan where the non-profit sector was more likely to divorce income from product. In no organisation was the link between product and income made directly. Plans were designed to gain clients or funders and, in a few cases, both. Nearly all the examples found by Cousins could be described as "marketing mix plans or tactical marketing plans, primarily governing marketing expenditure." (1990, p.26). Although some had no marketing plan 80% had a strategic plan

Figure 17
MARKETING AND STRATEGIC PLANNING

Source : Kotler in Cousins (Ed) (1990 p16)



and most knew the purpose of it. The proportion of organisations in the non-profit sector having strategic plans was higher than that for commercial firms within the survey. No equivalent figures are thought to be available for sports organisations.

Whilst this chapter has set out to show that marketing should be a central core to all planning in the non-profit organisation, there is far more information available about strategic planning than marketing in such organisations (Alexander 1990, Butler et al 1990, Bryson 1988 and Drucker 1990). Cousins uses a model from Kotler showing the close relationship that should exist between marketing and strategic planning departments.

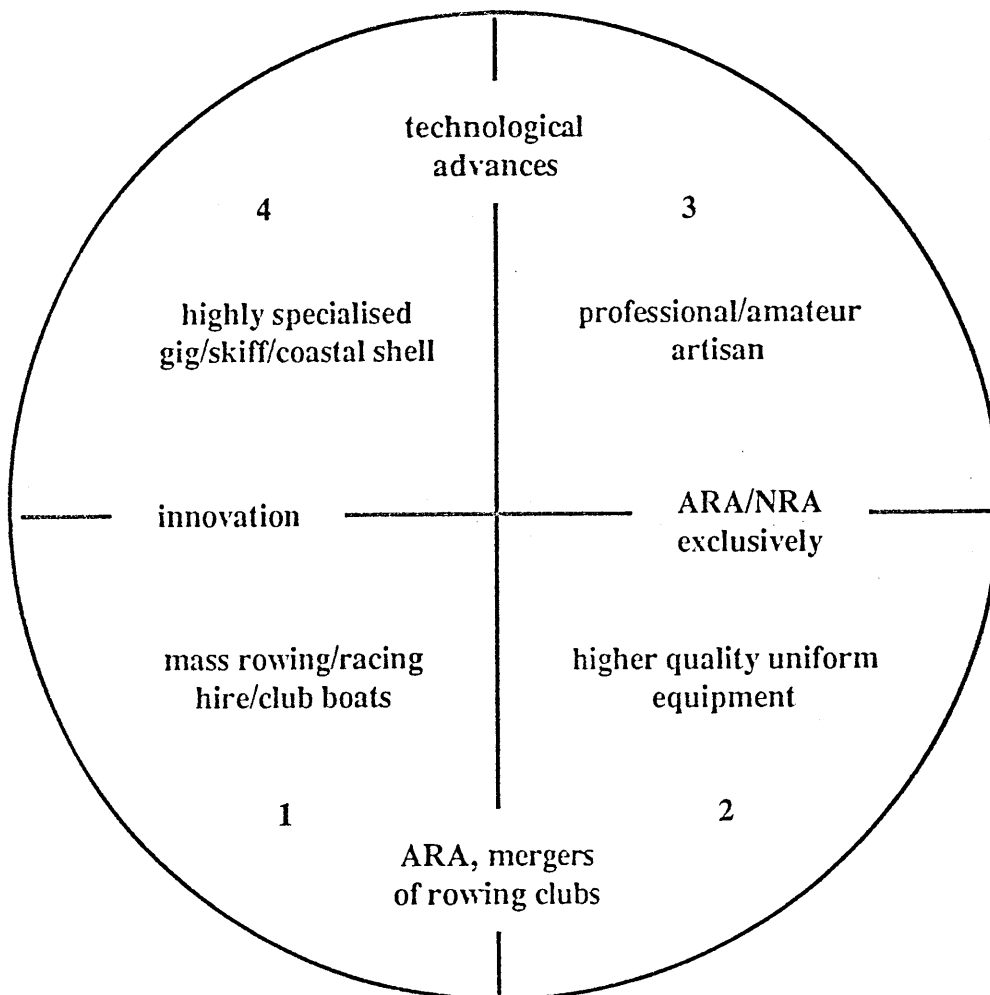
All the authors who have written about the non-profit sector agree that strategic and marketing theory applies equally to non- and for-profit organisations. Powell and Friedrich (1987) even dispel the myth that commercial organisations are better able to adapt to the changing environment than the non-profit sector. They state that most big companies suffer from inertia and most product development comes from new companies, not established ones.

Stone (1990) looked at the marketing of leisure and attempted to define the leisure experience and the leisure product. An important aspect of marketing in the leisure industry has been the product orientation of the selling rather than a concentration on the needs of potential clients. Stone has produced a model for the life cycle of leisure services that moves through four stages (Fig.18). This will be explained with reference to rowing. The first stage is where there is a mass market with low product quality and an undifferentiated product/experience available. In rowing this could be seen in the

Figure 18

THE LIFE CYCLE FOR ROWING

Source : adapted from Stone (1990)



1800s when recreational rowing was enjoyed by large numbers via a sizeable network of clubs (see Chapter 2). This is followed by a period of mergers and takeovers during which competing organisations jostle for market position, leading to fewer, better quality providers but still offering an undifferentiated product. In rowing, this process led to fewer clubs, providing better quality service, but still with uniform equipment. The third stage, after further rationalisation of organisations (which Stone terms oligopoly), provides a more differentiated product/service. In rowing the ARA and NRA had exclusive control over the clubs in England by the end of the nineteenth century and the sport had become differentiated into professional, amateur, and artisan and mechanic classes. The final stage, after refinement of service delivery to the point of uniformity (which Stone calls automation), leads to customised products/experiences and a clear range of consumer options. In rowing, the process of technical innovation led to highly specialised categories of boats and race events. Stone explains how innovations should lead to the life cycle starting again. In the case of rowing it might be argued that the innovation is the return to recreational boating which will once more bring a diverse public into the sport.

4.5 Current Planning Practice in Sport

As early as 1937 the Central Council for Recreative Physical Training (later renamed the Central Council for Physical Recreation or CCPR) had awarded grants to some NGBs, including rowing, for the appointment of full time organisers or coaches (Evans 1974). This scheme came to an end in 1939 on the outbreak of war but afterwards, as men and women returned to civilian life, a new scheme was established through the Ministry of Education that paid 80% of the salaries of properly

qualified coaches employed by NGBs. This scheme was coupled with the introduction of coaching courses for voluntary coaches. In 1960 Lord Wolfenden's report recommended the setting up of a National Development Council which, with public finance, would assist the development of NGBs. The Sports Council was established in 1965 and became an independent body in 1972: from the start it took over the role of funding National Coaches and the other activities of the NGBs. From the early 1980s the Sports Council required NGBs to be more accountable for the money they received in grant aid. This resulted in the Amateur Rowing Association writing its first five year plan in 1985 (Veats et al 1985).

The forward plan had come into being in the 1980s with a shift towards greater accountability since, previously, grant had been given on a report back rather than a forward plan basis. The ARA, together with other NGBs, had from 1965 made grant applications to the Sports Council and the small amount of money it received was to be spent on the Sport For All campaign (as explained in Chapter 3). The Sports Council committed more funds to the ARA as a result of the investment in the new water sports centre at Holme Pierrepont (Lunn-Rockcliffe 1992). The first NGB development plans were written without guidance and there must have been as many styles as there are NGBs. The ARA's first five year plan gave details of staffing levels and funding required but no targets were set for the various programmes. This meant that monitoring the success of the programmes was impossible. The ARA had worked to forward plans since 1976 but these plans were only for internal ARA consumption and were based on the ideal situation that the ARA wished to achieve rather than realistic goals determined by actual funding levels. The reasons for this idealistic

approach were perhaps to do with the high aspirations of the organisation and its lack of experience in handling grant funding.

In 1990 the Sports Council issued planning guidelines for the NGBs together with a mock plan for guidance. The rationale for the forward plan was to ensure that the agreed objectives for the organisations were achieved. The structure of the document is split into three areas, with the introduction covering general points about the process of writing and submitting the plan. The second section gave headings for the plan and, together with areas of staffing, administration and facilities, detailed programmes to be covered. The third section dealt with questions the organisation might have for the Sports Council.

One of the problems with this method of planning is that any NGB heavily dependent on the Sports Council for grant aid will give priority to areas of activity high on the Sports Council's agenda. In particular NGBs could not afford to ignore the publications that were produced as a result of the Minister's Reviews while Colin Moynihan was Minister for Sport. Two of these were 'Sport and Active Recreation Provision in the Inner Cities' (1989) and 'Coaching Matters' (1990). NGBs must include all the relevant recommendations from these publications as part of their forward plans. Evidence of this political pressure, referred to earlier section 4.4, is apparent from an in-depth study of 75 charities in the UK where 'strategy is constrained when money is received from state agencies' (Butler and Watson 1990). The Sports Council negotiates with NGBs and will only fund policies that meet their criteria; for example, the ARA budget remained at the same level in 1992/3 because it appointed a coach based at Holme Pierrepont. If this requirement had not been complied with the relevant funding would have been withdrawn (ARA Womens

Commission Meeting 1992). While these may be very important aspects that should be considered by NGBs, they imply an assumption that sport is a 'given' in its present state and should continue in that form. If the Sports Council adopted a marketing approach it would encourage NGBs to respond to the needs, wants and motivations of the potential market and, in the case of the ARA, this might mean developing a new type of rowing with more appeal to women. This could lead to a radical change to sport as we know it and a move to make sport less competitive. Perhaps herein lies the reason for the many unsuccessful attempts over the years by the Sports Council and others to make sport part of everyone's lives.

Some NGBs have found that their activities have been marketed by local authorities who are forced through Compulsory Competitive Tendering to make a profit from City Council facilities. An example of how this has affected one sport is swimming in Sheffield. Swimming is an activity where the NGB caters primarily for the competitive side of the sport and the local authorities cater for the leisure end of the market. Sheffield City Council is the main provider of water facilities in the Sheffield area (Khan 1992). It has a commitment to provide water for five distinct areas of activity and they are: aquaerobics, lane swimming, swimming lessons, splash sessions and competitive swimming sessions. The city provides subsidised pool time for the swimming clubs in the area and has a city swim squad. The link between the local authority and the NGB is that ASA-qualified coaches and teachers are used within the swimming schemes in the City. The full time coach is a member of the ASA National Coaching list; however, this position resides with the individual rather than the post. The City has devised its own proficiency scheme but does run occasional courses using the ASA awards (Duff 1992). Since Compulsory Competitive Tendering came

into being the planning team of the Recreation Department has responded to needs, finance and, to a lesser extent, customer requirements. The main change that has resulted is that the swim squad and swimming clubs have to pay more for the facilities and no longer get all the prime time slots. Two of the leisure activities, aquaerobics and lane swimming, operate at a profit or with minimal subsidy. At peak time (7-9pm) aquarobics can bring in £200 per hour and lane swimming £70-£80 per hour. At the present time the most heavily subsidised activity is the splash sessions as these are kept at affordable prices to provide recreation for school children during the school holidays. Since CCT the City Recreation Department feel that they have a more balanced programme than previously.

4.6 The Categorisation of Sport

So far sport has been used as a generic term to cover all physical and recreational activities as recognised by the Sports Council. If sport is to be marketed effectively then it must be categorised in some way. Selling sport is the equivalent of selling cars and no account has been taken by sports organisations of the potential market or the particular brand to be sold. Even within one NGB there are possibilities of selling sport as different brands of the same product or even as totally separate products.

One taxonomy of sport, that adopted by the CCPR, uses broad categories including 'water sports' and 'games' (CCPR 1990). These categories are far too general to be of use in marketing sport. A better method of categorisation may be that presented by Thibault et al at the Olympic Scientific Congress (1992). They presented a model within which sports could be placed on two orthogonal axes, one being 'competitive

Figure 19

CHARACTERISTICS OF NGB's BY STRATEGIC TYPE

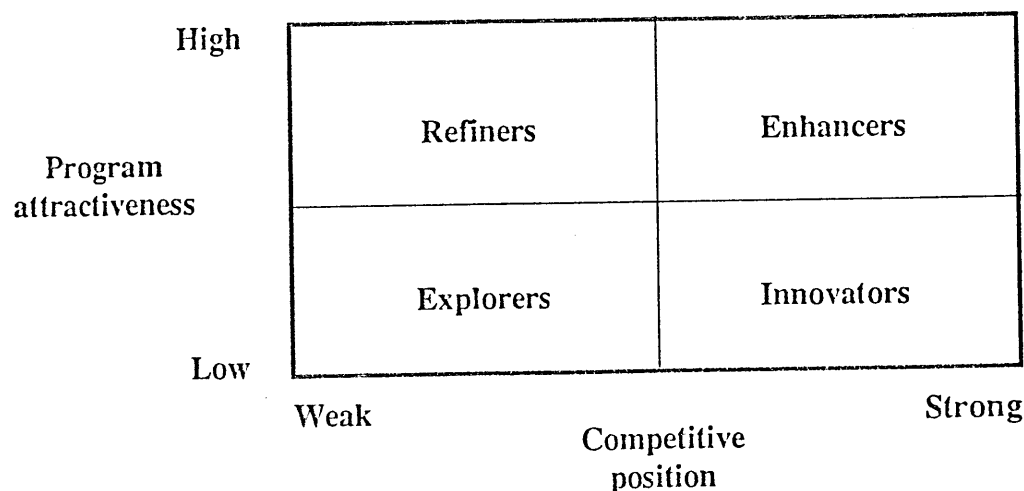
Source : Thibault et al (1992 table 1)

Characteristics	Strategy			
	Enhancers	Innovators	Refiners	Explorers
Program Attractiveness	high	low	high	low
Competitive Position	strong	strong	weak	weak
Focus of Strategy	optimizing	creativity	fine-tuning	trial & error
Structure	complex	simple	complex	simple
Accessibility	high	medium-low	high	low
Dependence on government funds	low	medium	low	high
Age of NGB	mature	young	mature	young
Linkage with stakeholders	established	weak	established	weak
Experience with domestic sport	extensive	minimal	extensive	minimal

Figure 20

NGB's DOMESTIC SPORT STRATEGIC TYPES

Source : Thibault et al (1992)



advantage' and the other 'programme attractiveness'. Competitive advantage was assessed with reference to the cost of equipment and cost of participating which in some sports constitute a barrier to participation. Programme attractiveness was assessed using ability to gain funds and their reliability, size of membership, the number of volunteers particularly the number of certified coaches and the visibility of the sport and appeal to potential supporters. The resulting matrix enables sport to be characterised into one of four strategic types (see Fig.19). Thibault et al also present characteristics for each of these strategic types (see Fig.20).

In order for a sport to be placed into one of these categories then research needs to be undertaken to assess the characteristics of the organisation and Thibault et al suggest this can be quantitative or qualitative (Thibault 1992). This model, derived in Canada, needs some modifications to be totally applicable to the British sports system. One example of this is the characteristic of maturity of the NGB. Many of the NGBs in Britain are quite old and therefore would be considered to be mature. Using Stone's Life cycle model the maturity of an NGB can be judged by placing it within the life cycle rather than in assessing it purely on age (Stone 1990 see Fig 18).

Using an in depth knowledge of rowing it is possible to categorize the sport using the Thibault model. The first characteristic is program attractiveness determined by funding and client base. Rowing attracts a large Sports Council grant but little other reliable income and it has a relatively small client base. Programme attractiveness is low. The second characteristic is competitive position based on equipment costs and affiliation fees and for the ARA this is strong (see section 2.2.6). The structure is relatively simple, accessibility is medium to

low, dependence on Government funds is medium, age of NGB is mature but in the life cycle young, the linkage with stakeholders is weak, and experience with domestic sport minimal. The focus of the strategy is one of creativity if the sport is to maximise its opportunity to gain a more competitive place in the market. This makes rowing an 'innovator' among the strategic types.

4.7 A Marketing Model For Sport NGBs

The marketing theory presented in this chapter for both non-profit and for-profit organisations provides a framework for a revised sports marketing model to emerge. The model presented in Fig. 21 represents a preliminary synthesis of the other models reviewed in this study. If combined with the effective sport classification model developed by Thibault et al, the Mayglothling Model should offer a means for marketing different sports, including rowing, more effectively.

The first stage of the model is to identify the strategic characteristics and type. From here the strategic plan can be developed which will incorporate the mission statement, marketing mix and brands to be developed. Throughout this whole process the multiple publics and clients needs and wants will have to be taken into account. The evaluation will enable the NGB to assess the effectiveness of the program and, via Stones life cycle model and the Thibault model of strategic types, to re-align the next strategic plan. The marketing philosophy of the organisation will guide all the steps of the model. At each stage of the model research will be required and much of this research from the client groups is incorporated in the survey questionnaire.

Figure 21 :
A MARKETING MODEL FOR NGBs OF SPORT

Source : Mayglothling (1994)



4.8 The Role of the marketing Model

The marketing model presented in this chapter has been developed in parallel with the empirical work. A novel model had to be devised because there was little evidence of NGB or sports agencies using a model which successfully incorporated all the current marketing knowledge pertinent to sport. This new model is a conceptual step towards helping NGB's, particularly the ARA, to develop a relevant marketing strategy for their organisations. An in-depth profile of an NGB, in this case the ARA, is required before the model can be applied appropriately. Such a profile is beyond the remit of this thesis and is the responsibility of the NGB. This profile, when matched with the findings on young people and women sought by this investigation, should then enable the ARA to establish a more effective marketing method for rowing than is currently offered via conventional marketing or sports development alone.

4.9 The Relevance of Marketing Analysis for Rowing and Rother Valley Country Park

The ARA is a small Governing Body with just over 14000 active members: it has an extensive volunteer force, many of whom are passionate about their sport and would like to see it not only remain viable but also grow. The needs of the organisation are two fold: first, to increase the finances coming into the sport and secondly, to increase the active base. Young people and women are clearly underrepresented in rowing (see chapter 3) and so the marketing of rowing to these groups could assist with meeting the objective of increasing the active base. This, in turn, would bring more income into the sport and might also enhance sponsorship potential by broadening its commercial appeal.

Rother Valley County Park also needs to ensure that its active base is maintained or better still expanded in order to remain viable. If people living around the Park are ignorant of the activities available there then clearly the Park would benefit from increased marketing activity, especially if untapped motivation to participate in sport exists. Off-peak times at the Park are particularly quiet and they are times when young people and women might be more available to participate than some other client groups. If this investigation confirms that there is interest in taking part in sport amongst these groups within the surrounding communities then there will be a strong case for the Park to embark on a marketing campaign.

4.10 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the various elements involved in marketing sport. The use of sport as a vehicle for marketing was explored together with an examination of the organisations which might wish to market sport itself. If the government is to fulfil its aims for sport, set out in 3.3.1 above, then an effective marketing campaign is essential. In the current economic climate NGBs also have an interest in marketing sport. The importance of the mission statement and the marketing philosophy adopted by an organisation cannot be underestimated since these will impinge on all its activities.

Thibault's model for categorising sport will need to be adapted to fit the British situation but has provided a framework for assessing the marketing potential of all sports. The Mayglothling Marketing Model for Sport attempts to bring all the key elements together in an inter-related manner. The latter model has not been tested in this

study: however, the investigation reported in the next two chapters sets out to establish the behavioural basis for marketing sport, in this case rowing, to young people and women. It also explores whether there is any empirical evidence to support the theoretical arguments posited in this chapter for more systematic, sophisticated and effective marketing of sport.

5.0 RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to describe the range of available research methods which might have been appropriate for this study, and to justify the methods chosen to investigate whether any potential marketing opportunity existed. Historical sources were analysed and questionnaire surveys undertaken. A pilot questionnaire was tested and modifications made which are also reported here. Finally, there is a discussion of the various data collection techniques ultimately used and an assessment of their limitations.

The approach adopted for the empirical work in this project and the choice of research subjects were inevitably influenced by both the priorities of its sponsoring agencies, and the interests of the researcher. In this case, Henley Royal Regatta Charitable Trust and the Amateur Rowing Association collaborated with the Leisure and Food Management School of Sheffield City Polytechnic. The ARA and Henley were interested in developing rowing at Rother Valley Country Park, whilst the Polytechnic was interested in the application of academic theories to an analysis of the sports development process. The researcher's interest in promoting sport for women and young people further shaped the research project.

5.2 Aims

The main aim of this study was to investigate whether a marketing

campaign could affect the levels of participation in rowing at Rother Valley Country Park. In order for this to be answered the existing knowledge about rowing and Rother Valley Country Park outlined in Chapter 2 was examined and then linked to the researcher's expectations (hypotheses). A questionnaire was administered to two groups of people, young people and women living around the Park. The expectations for the two studies were arrived at from a combination of findings from other research projects, the literature review and hunches based on a knowledge of the sport and people's reaction to it.

5.3 Research Methods

A number of possible methods of investigation could have been adopted in this study. Research in the social sciences often centres around the collection of empirical data from the group being studied, in this case women and young people. A wide variety of research methods are available, ranging from physical science influenced hypothetico-deductive techniques to observational and interpretive methods of research (McNiell 1990, Veal 1992). Whatever method is selected data are collected in one of a number of manners: by observation either as a participant within the group or purely as an observer; by interviews, either structured or semi-structured; by self-completion survey; or by documentary information collected from sources such as minutes of meetings, letters and books.

This study, in keeping with most other social science research, used more than one method. The methods selected were a self-completion survey, an interview survey and the use of documentation. The reasons for the selection of these methods and the way in which they were used will be explained below.

5.3.1 Social Survey

The choice of a social survey was made to provide quantitative data about the two groups who the researcher wished to encourage to take up rowing at Rother Valley Country Park. The project was essentially designed to produce a marketing plan for the sport and this required profiles of the different client groups in order to tailor the participation campaign to the consumer. Who was to answer the questions and what was to be achieved through the study remained a priority when designing the questionnaire (Hague 1987). This marketing plan could only be produced with detailed profiles of the potential consumer as outlined in section 4.2.5. Many methods for the information gathering could have been employed but in this case a social survey was used. Observation or interviews would have been too time consuming to produce the amount of data required for this project (Veal 1992). The social survey, in the form of a questionnaire, was administered to give empirical evidence against which to test the expectations listed later in this chapter. The questionnaire went through two design phases and a pilot phase before the main survey was conducted. Careful consideration was given to the ordering and layout of the questionnaire and to the presentation and accompanying letter for the self completion survey (Robertson and Sundstrom 1992). These stages are discussed below in section 5.4, 5.6 and 5.7.

5.3.2 Documentary Analysis

In order to understand the development of rowing in the UK, Sheffield and at Rother Valley Country Park it was necessary to explore the history surrounding the establishment of the sport at all these

venues. The best and most accurate method of studying this was from original documents or contemporary sources, hence the decision to choose documentary analysis.

Four major documentary sources were used to provide information for the historical sections of the thesis. They were, in chronological order:-

- i) The Almanacks or Oarsmens Companions published in the late nineteenth century. These provided secondary sources for the thesis with valuable background information on the development of the sport and the attitudes to the sport as demonstrated by the group who eventually shaped rowing over the next 100 years. These documents were studied in several different ways. The Preface and Review of the Season provided an insight to the major activities that had occurred in the rowing world over the previous twelve months. The content such as club listings and betting odds given for professional sculling races traced the rise and fall of the various aspects of the sport. Finally, the articles included in the Almanacks gave prominence to the people and activities which shaped the sport.

- ii) A file belonging to Sheffield Water Works of correspondence between them and the Dam Flask users. The file contained letters and other documents from the various groups who used Dam Flask reservoir giving the history of the first access onto the water by the Sea Scouts and the emergence of the Sheffield University Club and the City of Sheffield Rowing Club. The file included material about negotiations for access to the water by the rowing clubs together with agreement from the sailing club for this to

happen. The initial rules of the University Club, together with very ambitious plans for a clubhouse, were also included in the file. The history of the use of Dam Flask reservoir, together with the relative positions of the different users, emerged from studying this file. The founder of the University Rowing Club was a prolific writer who kept the Water Works fully informed of the development of the club including information on the rules of the club and the racing successes of the club. In the absence of a University Rowing club minute book this recorded the history of the rowing club very effectively.

- iii) The Halcrow Report, a feasibility study into the formation of Rother Valley Country Park and the minutes of the meetings of the joint planning group that established the Park. These documents provided information on the initial concept of the Park and the minutes of the meetings traced the change to these initial plans with the move away from club-based sport to community recreation.
- iv) Minutes of the Amateur Rowing Association Executive Committee Meetings from the point at which Henley Royal Regatta Charitable Trust offered money for development projects in rowing up to the point when a development officer was appointed at the Park.

Other documentation, including reports from the surrounding local authorities about finance, staffing and other administrative areas relating to the Park, might have also been consulted. However, these were rejected as the history of rowing was considered to provide a better understanding of the diversity of opportunities offered by rowing as a sport and, when combined with an analysis of the emergence of rowing in Sheffield, gave a better understanding of the product to

be marketed. The social science survey provided insights into the client groups to whom the product was to be marketed. This, then, provided sufficient material for the production of a marketing plan for rowing at Rother Valley Country Park.

The User Survey produced annually by Sheffield Hallam University was used to provide background data on visitors to the Park (see 5.4).

5.4 Selecting the Survey Sample

Since the focal point of the rowing development project was to be Rother Valley Country Park then potential consumers were most likely to live in the proximity of the Park. The annual visitor survey at Rother Valley Country Park shows that 50% travel less than 5 miles to the Park (Hebden 1992). This is especially relevant for women and young people who are recreationally disadvantaged, less likely to be car drivers or owners and who require easy access to any recreational activity (Torkildsen 1992). The decision to choose women and young people for the survey sample has already been explained and was undoubtedly influenced by the groups with an interest in the project. In addition, women and young people are two of the major groups identified by the Council of Europe as priority groups in the Sport for All campaign (See Chapter 4).

For the purpose of selecting the sample the immediate vicinity of the Park, or likely catchment area, was divided into four distinct zones. The Park itself is loosely rectangular in shape, with four separate communities, each centred around a village or township on each side of the rectangle. Each of these 'villages' also has its own access points

or entries into the Park. The zones are: the North, which concentrated on the Aston and Swallownest community; the East on Wales and Kiveton Communities; the South, Killamarsh and to the West, the Beighton community. Since the access to the Park varies, then the catchment area around the Park was unlikely to be circular (Torkildsen 1992).

However, without accurate information on the exact catchment area of the Park, the decision to divide the area around the Park into four distinct zones was a compromise (Fig.11). The Aston community has direct access to the Park via Swallownest. However, this appears to be a little known about and used entrance. In phase two of the Park development the Park will be extended northwards and will give further vehicular and pedestrian access from the north. The Kiveton area has access by vehicle and foot through the main entrance and by foot through Delve Lane. The communities to the South and West have the best pedestrian access to the park with Beighton having two entrances, (one of which, the Meadow Gate entrance, also has a car park) and Killamarsh which has four footpath entrances.

5.4.1 Young People

Registration with the ARA on an annual basis is compulsory for all those wishing to take part in rowing races, coaching or umpiring. The number of juniors registering has remained in the region of 32-33 % of total registrations since 1987 (ARA Council Minutes 1987-1993). An analysis of the 1992 registrations reveals that approximately 75% of these are rowing at public schools such as Radley, Eton and Shrewsbury. The latent potential for participation in rowing amongst young people around the Rother Valley Country Park must be, therefore,

high with no local schools currently involved in rowing and few juniors belonging to the City of Sheffield Rowing Club. Schoolchildren are therefore potential consumers who the Park management might attempt to attract into rowing. However, because a high percentage of junior rowers come from public schools there is a tendency for the public to perceive rowing as an elitist sport. It is posited here that this perception may be countered by offering products other than the traditional rowing and racing opportunities: this suggestion, which builds upon the critique of both conventional sports development and the literature on young people and women's leisure, is later discussed in relation to the social survey results (see 7.2 d,f and g) and the final recommendations.

The survey of young people was designed to cover the age range 14-23. Age was further divided into four categories: 14-15, 16-17, 18-21 and over 21. These age groups were chosen for a variety of reasons. The nature of the equipment used, together with the physical co-ordination required, makes fourteen the most likely age for juniors to take up the sport of rowing. The majority of young people who start rowing competitively therefore do so at the age of fourteen making this racing age group the youngest most widely available in competitive events. The 16 age limit for this category was chosen for two reasons; firstly this 14-16 age band will all be at school, and secondly 16 is the next most likely racing category to be found at competitive events. The next category for 16-17s was selected as the group in transition: some would still be at school and moving to further education and a few would already have left school. People in this age range are undergoing significant lifestyle transitions from childhood to adulthood as identified by Hendry (1993) in his studies of young people and leisure. The 18-21 category shows the most variety of

occupation with some at school, others in further or higher education and still more at work or unemployed. This group was combined with the over 21 age group to form the next significant racing category for young people, under 23.

In addition to being stratified by age, the sample of young people was also divided by gender and by home location within the four areas surrounding the Park (see above). Post codes were also requested in order to facilitate analysis of the data by 'territorial social indicator' or 'area profile' (Thunhurst 1985). Several hundred socio-economic details were collected in the 1991 Census. These variables can be analysed in various combinations to produce indices for the different enumeration district. An enumeration district is an area of about 200 houses which are recorded on maps and available for purchase. Thunhurst (1985) has already produced indices for the enumeration districts in Sheffield. This method of analysing the data was considered too unreliable in this survey as the sample sizes in each enumeration district were too small.

5.4.2 Women

Since 1987 when ARA registration began, the number of women registered annually has remained at the level of 25-26% of the total registered. There would therefore appear to be greater latent demand, and hence potential for recruitment into the sport, amongst women than amongst men. (See section 3.7.2 on Women's Leisure and Lifestyles).

Notwithstanding the widely recognised increases in women's employment (EOC 1991), this potential is further enhanced by the number of women in the home rather than at work. Amongst the employed adult population 43% are women and, of these, 43% are part time workers (EOC 1992). The

greater availability of water during the mid-week period at the Park makes women a potential consumer group who the Park management could be attracting to activities (Rother Valley User Statistics).

The Women's Survey was intended to ascertain the interests and motivations for taking part in sports activities of women of all ages, employment and social status living in the catchment area of the Park. This survey was administered using quota sampling, with each quota determined by the housing characteristics demonstrated in the 1981 census. Due to a large amount of house building in the Beighton area (see section 2.4.1) the quota sample was changed after consultation with Sheffield City Council's Central Policy Unit who held updated figures from the 1981 Census data giving the actual housing characteristics found within this area. Using the information given in the questionnaires the women's sample could also be stratified by age, home location, home ownership, employment status.

5.4.3 Questionnaire survey and Sampling Problems

The problems of sampling could largely have been overcome by interviewing people who actually used the Park since they were already likely to have an interest in outdoor recreation. However, this option was discarded because just under 50% of people who travel into the Park come from more than five miles away and research indicates that women and young people are often disadvantaged in gaining access to activities due to a lack of transport (Torkilsden 1992). Therefore, this survey set out to find who in the local community would be interested in rowing and how it might be offered to them.

The age range chosen for the Young Peoples' Survey presented two particular difficulties; the first was the method of sampling the group and the second the social categorisation of the group. The electoral role and school registers were both incomplete records of the total population in this age range. This difficulty was solved by employing random selection street interviews. Face to face interviews were conducted within a shopping area and these were later supplemented by face to face interviews in local schools, a youth club and a further education college. The sample selected was separated into three age categories; under 16, 16-17 and over 18. The sample within each of these categories was 33/34% (see Table Y1) and the sample was balanced for gender classification (see Table Y2). The percentages of respondents by area were not matched but this information was not considered of prime importance in analysing the data (see Table Y3). The problem of analysis by social classification was overcome by using the post code to place the respondent in an enumeration district which was then to have been used as one of the parameters for analysis. In fact, this intention could not be realised in the end because of unexpected delays in the publication of the 1991 Census data (see section 8.1, Limitations of the Study).

In the Women's Survey a number of options were available for sampling this population. The electoral role would have provided a comprehensive list of women living around the Park; random selection street interviews, as used in the Young People's Survey could also have been used. The reasons for the young peoples survey being based on random selection street interviews are given above. Street interviews are very time consuming and costly to undertake in terms of the interviewer's time and expenses. Owing to constraints on the researchers time and money, the method chosen for the women's survey was a self

completion questionnaire, delivered by hand, with a return envelope and letter of explanation. The selection of houses was made after a detailed reconnoitre of the four locations and was chosen to match the profile of housing tenure found in each local ward, ie. by public rented, owner occupied and privately rented accommodation (see table W5).

5.5 Expectations

The information available on young people's and women's leisure would indicate a series of stereotypical responses to the questionnaires. These expectations, derived from the literature search prior to the collection of the survey data, are listed below. The results are presented and discussed in Chapter Six.

5.5.1 Young People's survey

Section A: Rother Valley Country Park

- 1) The majority of young people have visited the Park.
- 2) Young people enter the Park by a gate near them.
- 3) The majority enter the Park by foot/bike.
- 4) Young people have a good awareness of the activities on offer at the Park.
- 5) With the exception of the motorised activities, most young people have taken part in the range of activities offered by the Park.

Section B: Interest in Sport

- 6) The 14-16 age group are more interested in sport than the older age groups.
- 7) The boys in all age groups are more interested in sport than the girls.
- 8) Young people consider the cost of sport high.
- 9) The 14-16 age group are more interested in water sports than the older age groups.
- 10) The boys are more interested in water sports than the girls.
- 11) Young people show more interest in 'sport generally' than in 'water sports'.
- 12) Young people consider the cost of water sports to be higher than sports in general.
- 13) Taking part in sport to win is a more significant motivation for boys than girls.
- 14) Taking part in sport for social reasons is a more significant motivation for girls than boys.
- 15) Taking part in sport with friends is important to both girls and boys.

- 16) Most young people have seen the Oxford and Cambridge boat race.
- 17) Few young people are aware of rowing events other than the Boat Race.
- 18) Boys are more interested in trying rowing than girls.

Section C: Social Profile

- 19) The higher the social class the more interest in and awareness of sport is shown by young people.
- 20) The higher the social class the more likelihood there is that young people have tried a wide range of sports.

5.5.2 Women's survey

Section A: Rother Valley Country Park

- 1) The majority of women have lived in their present home for over three years.
- 2) The majority of women have visited the Park at some time.
- 3) The majority of women enter the Park on foot.
- 4) The majority enter the Park by a gate near to their home.
- 5) Women have a reasonable knowledge of the activities on offer at the Park.
- 6) A minority of women have tried the range of activities available at the Park.

Section B: Interest in Sport

- 7) Women are not very interested in sport.
- 8) Women consider the cost of sport to be high.
- 9) Women are even less interested in water sports than sports generally.
- 10) Women consider water sports more expensive than sport generally.
- 11) Those women who do take part in sport do so for social reasons.
- 12) Taking part in sport with friends is important.
- 13) The majority of women would not use a creche if it were offered at the Park.
- 14) The cost of sport prevents women from taking part.
- 15) Women are aware of the Oxford and Cambridge boat race.
- 16) Women are not be aware of any other rowing event.
- 17) Women are not at all interested in taking part in rowing.

Section C: Social Profile

- 18) The higher the social class the more interest in and awareness of sport is shown by women.

5.6 Questionnaire Survey Design

The questionnaire surveys were designed to gain the information required to market rowing participation to women and young people in the catchment area adjacent to Rother Valley Country Park. The original intention had been to use attitude surveys with Likert scales to determine the attitudes of the two potential consumer groups to

rowing. Attitudes are reinforced by beliefs and often arouse strong feelings. Oppenheim (1976) suggests that the attitudinal response is a 'u' shape with the feelings at either end of the spectrum arousing very strong emotional responses. This is the basis upon which the Likert scale works with the majority of responses falling at either end of the spectrum. The responses to the survey would have been contrasted with responses from rowers to see if a varying pattern of response existed. In order for an attitude survey to be meaningful the respondents must exhibit strong emotions to the object. Most people, whilst having an attitude to rowing, could be easily swayed from their beliefs rendering the attitude survey useless. This lack of strength of feeling about rowing was demonstrated in practice by a group of recreation students who, when asked for their opinion on rowing gave responses such as 'expensive', 'exclusive', 'hard work', 'very physical', and 'you have to be big'. These views were readily altered after they had been given some basic factual information about rowing showing that they had an ambivalent attitude to the sport. It was therefore decided not to continue with Likert-type attitude surveys as these incorporated too many beliefs and prejudices of the researcher rather than testing the knowledge of the interviewee. Instead, it was decided to design questionnaires which would yield information about the behaviour and opinions of the two sample groups. Both questionnaires followed the same format and each was divided into three sections (see Appendices 3 and 4). There were a few differences in the questions contained within each section: these are outlined below.

- 1) Section A. This is about Rother Valley Country Park. For the Young People's Survey the first two questions confirm residence in the area and then ask for the street and postcode. In the

Women's Survey the first two questions establish length of time at the present address. Both questionnaires then ask if the interviewee has visited the Park. This section goes on to explore usual routes of access and modes of travel into the Park and finally asks about the activities available at the Park and the respondents' participation in these.

- 2) Section B of both surveys asks about interest in sport, water sports and the relative costs of these. This section also attempts to establish the reason for taking part in sport and finally asks about awareness of rowing and possible interest in trying this sport. In addition, the Women's Survey establishes opinions about creche facilities at the Park and whether the cost of participation is a barrier to taking part in activities.
- 3) Section C is about social characteristics, establishing gender, age and employment status. The last question in this section asks about home ownership. In the case of the Young People's Survey, it was anticipated that respondents might lack the knowledge to answer this question reliably, having little idea of whether the home they lived in was owned or rented. Therefore, this question was not expected to play a part in the analysis of the information.

5.7 Pilot Survey

The main reason for the pilot was to establish that the questions were clear, valid and did not cause offence. The pilot survey was carried out in the foyer of the main Pond Street library of the Sheffield Hallam University. Although it might be reasoned that the respondents

represented a biased group of literate people compared with the eventual respondents, the questionnaire had already been scrutinised by the Survey Unit of the University for appropriateness of language and information required for suitability of analysis by computer programme. Therefore the pilot survey was a secondary check on the ability of the questions to provide unambiguous information. The question about living near the Park was omitted but apart from that the questionnaire was administered fully (see Appendix 2). Each interview took 5-6 minutes and very few people who were approached refused to assist. A sample of thirty questionnaires was completed and analysed. The only problem arose with question B5 which established the reasons for taking part in sport. A large majority agreed with nearly all the statements and in the final survey an additional column was added to include the three main choices (see Appendices 3 and 4).

5.8 Main Survey

5.8.1 Young People

Six students agreed to be trained by the researcher as interviewers and half a day was spent on training during October 1991. The project was outlined together with the place of the survey in the project. The questionnaire was studied indicating the role in the survey of each question. The final area covered in the training was the importance of not biasing the responses by ensuring the wording on the questionnaire was adhered to and the approach was the same to all potential interviewees. The session finished with the students interviewing each other.

The first interviews were carried out in November 1991 at Crystal

Peaks shopping centre, a major retail and leisure complex on the west of the Park and to the south east of Sheffield City centre. The agreement of the shopping centre management was gained several weeks prior to the Saturday chosen for the interviews. Each interviewer carried an authorisation letter from Sheffield Hallam University (Appendix 5). On this day 120 interviews were conducted but on analysis the majority were found to be from the west side of the Park. Alternative venues needed to be found to achieve a more even spread from around the Park. This was managed by using schools, colleges and youth clubs in the area. The schools were Aston and Wales comprehensives, together with Killamarsh Youth Club and Rother Valley College of Further Education. At the two schools the sample was in the 14-16 category. The Youth Club covered the full range of ages and Rother Valley College covered the higher age groups but for the North, East and South of the Park. All these interviews were completed between the 23rd November 1991 and the 10th February 1992.

5.8.2 Women

The sampling method used for this survey has already been discussed under Section 5.4.2. The questionnaires, together with letters of explanation (Appendix 6) and freepost envelopes, were distributed to the selected houses. Seventy five questionnaires were distributed to each of the four areas around the Park. These questionnaires were delivered to all the areas between the 7th May and the 12th July 1992. The respondents were requested to return the questionnaires within a month of their arrival. A reminder letter was sent out to all the non-respondents on the 26th August 1992 (Appendix 7).

5.9 Analysing the Data

All completed questionnaires were checked and the open-ended questions 'coded' in order to allow computer analysis. Data from both the surveys was collected and entered onto a computer file ready for analysis. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) package was used to analyse the data: this is a powerful database system with specific survey analysis routines. Initially, analysis of both surveys took the form of simple frequency tables or counts of the responses to the questions. Further exploratory analysis was then undertaken by producing cross-tabulations of particular variables from the questionnaire.

5.10 Summary

Decisions about the methods used for gathering the data for the project were important and considered over a long period of time. The need to know about the development of rowing, both in the UK and in Sheffield, made the use of specific archival documents essential. The analysis of records about the planning and growth of the Park was also essential in order to understand the place of sport and recreation, and in particular of rowing, in the Park. The requirements of the marketing plan made the social surveys a necessity in order to gain information about the potential participants in rowing at the Park.

Chapter 6

6.0 PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The results from the surveys of young people and women are reported and discussed in this chapter. In Chapter Five the stratification of the sample for the above surveys was described and section 6.2.1 and 6.2.2 give details of the actual sample gathered by several variables. The results are then presented using the variables described in sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2 of the previous chapter. There is a brief discussion on the results not used, or not seen as relevant, for this particular thesis. Detailed analyses of the results in relation to the expectations outlined in section 5.5 are discussed in this chapter.

6.2 Profile of Survey Respondents

The tables in section 6.2.1 provide details of the sample in the young people's survey by the variables of :- 1) age, 2) gender 3) area. The tables in section 6.2.2 give details of the sample collected in the womens survey by:-1) age and 2) area, together with tables giving details of house tenure by area and how this was represented in the allocation of the postal survey.

6.2.1 Young People

The tables below show the sample used in the survey by age, gender and area which was stratified to give equal quotas for these three variables.

Table YP1: Age Profile of Respondents

AGE	%
< 16	34
16-17	33
18-23	33
TOTAL	100

n=228

The table for gender shows an equal distribution between male and female.

Table YP2: Percentage of Respondents by Gender

GENDER	%
Male	50
Female	50
TOTAL	100

n=226

The table showing which areas around the Park the respondents come from was intended as a rough guide to ensure a reasonable distribution around the Park, and therefore the cells are not exactly the same size. The Small Area Census Data had it been available should have provided the socio-economic breakdown of the whole sample and this would have rendered the zoning of the area around the Park unnecessary. The area profile ensured that the sample did not all come from the same enumeration district. However, the areas around the Park are very mixed areas (see table W5) and therefore each zone is unlikely to reveal significant differences in responses to the questionnaire. Only the social area indices would have produced any significant differences across the sample of respondents.

Table YP3: Percentage of Respondents by Area

AREA		
East	27	
North	34	
South	18	
West	21	
TOTAL	100	n=229

The table below shows that the distribution of males and females across the age groups was even.

Table YP4: Distribution of Gender by Age

AGE	MALE n=113 %	FEMALE n=113 %	
<16	33	35	
16-17	35	33	
18-23	33	33	
TOTAL	100	100	n=226

6.2.2 Women

The women's survey used a postal questionnaire and the stratification of the sample directly reflected the housing tenure of the four areas around the Park. In the absence of the 1991 Census data the information on the tenure of the housing stock around the Park was taken from the 1981 Census. In section 5.4.2 of the previous chapter an explanation of the adjustments made to the ward profile for the west side of the Park was given.

Table W5: Housing Tenure Within the Wards

TENURE	Aston Orgreave & Ulley %	Kiverton Park %	Killamarsh %	Mosborough* %
	North	East	South	West
Owner Occupied	64	54	66	60
Local Authority	29	33	27	37
Private rented	5	13	7	4
Housing Assn.	0	0	0	0
Other	1	0	1	1

Source: 1981 Census Data * These figures revised (see below)

The Derbyshire Boundary to the south of Sheffield was changed to enable Mosborough to become the official overspill area of Sheffield as described in section 2.4.1. Over the last ten years this has promoted a huge building boom in the area with changes to the housing stock almost exclusively in the owner occupied group. After consultation with Sheffield Planning Department revised figures for the Mosborough area are included in Table W5.

The information from the Census provided the proportional distribution of questionnaires within the four areas identified around the Park. In order to ensure some privately rented accommodation was included in the survey, flats over the tops of shops were used. The Questionnaire distribution by tenure and area matched as closely as possible the tenure classifications in table W5.

Table W6: Questionnaire Distribution by Tenure and Area

Tenure	North n=75 %	East n=75 %	South n=75 %	West n=75 %	Total n=300
Owner Occupied	65	56	67	52	180
Local Authority	28	31	27	40	94
Private Rented	7	13	7	8	26

Table W7: Questionnaire Return by Tenure and Area

Tenure	North n=32 %	East n=19 %	South n=22 %	West n=28 %	Total n=101
Owner Occupied	62	74	67	81	
Local Authority	13	21	14	11	
Private Rented	9	0	5	4	
Unknown	16	5	14	4	

6.3 Results

In the following section the results for both the surveys are reported and, where appropriate, some comparison between the two sets of results is made. The first section in both surveys details location and mode of access into the Park together with the known availability of activities in the Park. The second section looks into the reasons for taking part in sport and recreation and gauges the response to the cost of sport and water sport. The last section is about the respondent.

6.3.1 Young People's Survey Results in Relation to Expectations (see 5.5.1)

Questionnaire - Section A: Rother Valley Country Park

The sample selected for this questionnaire all came from the areas surrounding the Park. When asked if they lived in the area 93% of the total sample agreed they did with slight variations across the age groupings:- 96% of under 16s, 91% of 16 to 17s and 92% of the 18+ group.

1) The majority of young people have visited the Park.

This first expectation is supported with 89% of the total sample having visited the Park. However, this showed slight variations across the age range with only 83% of under 16s but with 92% and 93% of the other two groups having visited the Park.

2) Young People enter the Park by a gate near them.

This expectation was only supported for those with easy access to a gate on their side of the Park. 51% used the main entrance to gain access into the Park although this varied considerably depending upon the area around the Park in which they lived. The majority of respondents living on the south side, 66%, used one of the four entrances available to them and in the west 55% of respondents entered by one of the two gates available to them.

3) The majority enter the Park by foot/bike.

The entrance most often used had a direct bearing on the mode of entry into the Park with 86% of those using the main entrance coming into the Park as passengers or drivers of cars. 46% of all those entering the Park, by any entrance, came in via private motorised transport. Walking was the next most popular mode of travel with 37% coming into the park on foot and a further 10% using bicycles. The majority of these respondents lived to the south and west of the park.

The main reason for including analysis of mode and location of entry to the Park by age and gender was to examine whether ease of access might influence the potential for rowing amongst these two groups. The

findings indicate that age affected mode of entry into the Park with 73% of those over 18 entering by riding a motorbike, driving a car or as a passenger in a car. The 16-17 age category favoured entry into the Park either by foot (41%) or as passengers in a car (32%), whilst the youngest age group of under 16 entered mainly on foot (45%), by bicycle (20%) or as a passenger in a car (20%). This more active lifestyle of the younger age group, which is partially imposed by dependent status, is reflected in their attitude to sport which is reported in section B below.

This expectation is only supported for the younger age group and depends on the side of the Park in which they live.

4) Young people have a good awareness of the activities on offer at the Park.

The respondents were shown a list of 14 activities, all of which are available at the Park, and asked to indicate which of these they knew were available to the public there.

Table YP8: A Rank Order of Activities Known to be Available in the Park

Order	Activity	Know Available %	Sample Size	n=229
1	Canoeing	79	181	
2	Walking	77	177	
3	Cycling	71	163	
4	Sailing	69	158	
5=	Jet Skiing	64	147	
5=	Family Boating	64	148	
7	Birdwatching	63	144	
8	Water Skiing	62	143	
9	Fishing	61	139	
10	Rowing	60	137	
11=	Board Sailing	58	133	
11=	Grass Skiing	58	132	
13	Grass Sledging	35	79	
14	Orienteering	23	52	

This question received a very mixed response. Some activities are clearly more 'visible' than others such as canoeing, whereas orienteering is not recognised as available in the Park by the majority of young people. As the under 16s are the smallest group to have visited the Park they are less likely to be aware of all the activities available. A campaign with information about the Park and activities available might be cost effective if carried out through the local schools and colleges in the immediate area. This idea is further explored within Chapter 7, Recommendations.

The 16-17 age category were most aware of the activities available in the Park, giving the highest percentage response rate to all but three of the activities.

5) With the exception of the motorised activities, most young people have taken part in the range of activities offered by the Park.

Despite the awareness of activities in the Park a fairly small percentage had tried the activities either there or elsewhere.

Table YP9: Percentage of Respondents Trying Activities at the Park or Elsewhere

Activity	Tried At Park %	Tried Elsewhere %	Both %	n=229
Board Sailing	12	7	5	
Jet Skiing	7	6	3	
Family Boating	25	9	6	
Canoeing	23	16	15	
Orienteering	2	14	2	
Walking	27	11	25	
Grass Skiing	7	4	1	
Grass sledging	4	1	1	
Rowing	24	11	6	
Sailing	11	13	7	
Bird watching	7	5	2	
Fishing	9	15	7	
Water Skiing	5	9	3	
Cycling	17	22	13	

The response to having tried an activity suggests that many of the respondents tend to expect there to be some formality to the activity. For example, many can only have answered positively to trying cycling if they have hired a bicycle in the Park or elsewhere. Very few youngsters will never have cycled. This also applies to walking where they perhaps see this activity requiring the correct footwear, maps etc. rather than just walking in the Park. There was a surprisingly high response by those having tried rowing. The returns for rowing in the Park for the last ten years would not support this number having taken part in the sport. Many respondents must therefore be referring to rowing when they actually mean 'family boating' (The Park Activity Statistics 1983-1993). This has important implications for the ARA and other providers who should either embrace all types of rowing boat in their definition or be much clearer in their marketing about which kind of 'rowing' they are referring to.

Section B: Sport

This section of the questionnaire concentrated on interest in sport, the cost of sport, reasons for taking part in sport and desire to try rowing. The interest in sport was high and when this response is measured by age and gender then the findings of Hendry (1993) are confirmed, with more boys than girls being interested in sport and this number declining with age.

6) The 14-16 age group are more interested in sport than the older age groups.

Table YP10: Degree of Interest in Sport By Age

Attitude	<16 %	16-17 %	>18 %	n=228
Very Interested	37	29	35	
Fairly Interested	55	61	43	
Not Really Interested	8	9	12	
Not at all Interested	0	1	9	
TOTAL	100	100	100	

This table must be interpreted with caution since, at first glance, the youngest and the oldest age groups are the most interested in sport. However, the levels of interest in sport are similar between the two youngest age groups but with a weighting towards the 'very interested' for the under 16s. Overall, these are optimistic results for those concerned with sports promotion for young people.

7) The boys in all age groups are more interested than the girls.

Table YP11: Degree of Interest in sport by Gender

Attitude	Male %	Female %	n=228
Very Interested	50	19	
Fairly Interested	43	63	
Not Really Interested	4	14	
Not at all Interested	3	4	
TOTAL	100	100	

Table 11 supports expectation 7 fairly conclusively that boys are more interested in sport than girls. An interesting comparison would be by age against gender. However, the small sample sizes would not make this a valid comparison.

8) Young people consider the cost of sport high.

Respondents were asked to assign the cost of taking part in sport and recreation to one of four categories and then asked their reason for

this answer. The reasons were divided into nine categories with a tenth category for the the minority of answers that did not fit into the other sections.

Table YP12: Cost of Taking Part in Sport and Physical Recreation

Cost	%	n=222
Very Costly	21	
Fairly Costly	59	
Not Really Costly	20	
Not At All Costly	1	
TOTAL	100	

Table YP13: Reasons for this Cost of Sport

Reason	%	n=229
Other	10	
Nothing - Because it is	24	
Do not Know	5	
Reasonable Hire costs	3	
Expensive to Buy	13	
Expensive to Hire	14	
Have no Money	17	
Good Value for Money	4	
Expensive- not value for money	8	
Get Concessions	4	
TOTAL	100	

Young people do, therefore, consider the cost of sport high but perhaps more significant are the reasons for this. A large minority just felt that it was expensive to play sport but they did not know why. Having no money and the perceived costs of hiring or buying sports equipment were given as the major cost factors. Sports marketers should, therefore, put the cost of purchase or hire into the context of young people's everyday expenses, such as the price of a CD or a trip to the cinema.

9) the 14-16 age group are more interested in water sports than the older age groups.

Table YP14: Degree of Interest in Water Sports by Age

Attitude	<16 %	16-17 %	>18 %	n=227
Very Interested	22	18	24	
Fairly interested	49	58	45	
Not Really Interested	24	21	23	
Not at All Interested	5	3	8	
TOTAL	100	100	100	

There is little difference in the 'very' and 'fairly' interested combined attitudes across the three age groups, with only a 2% variation so the expectation that the younger age group would be more interested in water sports is not supported.

10) The boys are more interested in water sports than the girls.

Table YP15: Degree of Interest in Water Sports by Gender

Interest	Male %	Female %	n=225
Very Interested	27	15	
Fairly Interested	53	48	
Not Really Interested	17	29	
Not at All Interested	3	8	
TOTAL	100	100	

This expectation is supported with the males showing more enthusiasm for water sports than the females. This is in keeping with an increasing participation rate in outdoor sports by men between 1983-1988 and a decrease in women's participation over the same period (Sports Council, 1988).

11) Young People show more interest in 'sport generally' than in 'water sports'.

There is a shift between the attitude to water and general sports activities with 87% being very or fairly interested in sport and only 72% showing the same degree of interest in 'water sports'. In recent years there has been an increase in those taking part in sport but particularly in indoor sports (Sports Council, 1988). In 1988 46% of the adult population had taken part in a sport during the four weeks prior to General Household survey. In 1988 Leisure consultants estimated that 6.8% of the adult population had taken part in water sports at least four times that year (Leisure Consultants, 1989). Even taking into account the lack of opportunity to participate in water sports this gap between all sports and water sports participation is likely to be due to lack of interest. This may in some cases be generated by fear of water or lack of swimming ability.

12) Young People consider the cost of water sports to be higher than sports in general

This shift in attitude is also recorded in the perceived cost of taking part in water sports. A 'Don't Know' line was added to the questionnaire since, during the pilot stage, some respondents found this question difficult to answer.

A larger percentage felt that water sports are 'very costly' when compared with sport in general.

Table YP16: Cost of Taking Part in Water Sports

Cost	%	n=228
Very Costly	29	
Fairly Costly	39	
Not Really Costly	11	
Not At All Costly	3	
Don't Know	18	
TOTAL	100	

Many of the reasons given for the cost of water sports were very similar to those for general sport costs. Many just felt sport was expensive but could not articulate a reason but lack of money and the perceived high cost of hire or buying equipment were once again given as major cost factors.

Table YP17: Reasons for this Cost of Water Sports

Reasons	%	n=229
Other	7	
Nothing-Because it is	39	
Varies sport to sport	5	
Reasonable hire costs	1	
Expensive to buy equipment	13	
Expensive to hire equipment	12	
Have no money	10	
Good value for money	3	
Expensive not value for money	4	
Don't or Won't Take part	7	
TOTAL	100	

In order to compare the costs of taking part in sport and water sports it was necessary to eliminate the 'Don't knows' from both tables YP12 and YP16.

Table YP18: Comparison of Cost of Taking Part in Water Sports and Sport

		Cost of Water Sport				%	n=187
		Very Costly	Fairly Costly	Not really Costly	Not at all Costly	Total	
Cost of Sport	Very Costly	18	4	0	0	22	
	Fairly Costly	15	32	7	2	56	
	Not really Costly	2	12	6	1	21	
	Not at all Costly	0	0	0	1	1	
Total		35	48	13	4	100	

This table shows that once the 'Don't Knows' are removed from the comparison between the costs of sport and water sports that water sports

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are considered more costly. A diagonal line drawn from the top left 18% to the bottom right 1% represents those who found the cost of sport and water sports the same. The figures to the left of this line are higher indicating that more people found the cost of taking part in water sports higher than for sport in general. 17% found water sports 'very costly' but sport less costly and only 4% found sport 'very costly' and water sports less costly.

Knowledge of the main reasons for taking part in sport and physical activity is crucial information in order to market sport successfully. The list of reasons for taking part in sport was completed twice, once with all reasons applicable to the individual marked and the second time giving the three main reasons for taking part in sport.

Table YP19: Rank Order of the three main Reasons for Taking Part in Sport

Reason	%	n=545
For Fun	20	
Keep fit	14	
Socialise with friends	12	
To Relax	8	
To get better	7	
Get in shape	6	
For Competition	5	
feelgood	5	
Sense of achievement	4	
Meet people	4	
Part of a team	4	
Break from work	4	
Friends all play	2	
Into countryside	2	
Stops trouble	2	
TOTAL	100	

Marketeers should take note that the three principal reasons for taking part in sport are ahead of the rest by a fair margin and are: to have fun, to keep fit and to socialise with friends. These findings are in keeping with those of Hendry where friendships greatly influence sports participation and a healthy lifestyle and participation in

recreational activity are linked by young people (Hendry et al, 1993).

These reasons should be included in a marketing plan by the agencies

marketing sport as outlined in section 4.3.2.

13) Taking part in sport to win is a more significant motivation for boys than girls.

Table YP20: Importance of competition by gender

	Male	Female	
	%	%	n=58
Important	40	12	
Not Important	60	88	
TOTAL	100	100	

This expectation, whilst showing a much higher significance for males than females, does not rank among either gender as a prime reason for taking part in sport. This agrees with Hendry who found that traditional methods of sport delivery were inappropriate for young people.

14) Taking part in sport for social reasons is a more significant reason for girls than boys.

Table YP21: Importance of socialising by gender

	Male	Female	
	%	%	n=137
Important	61	60	
Not Important	39	40	
TOTAL	100	100	

Findings were the same for males and females and the importance of meeting people through sport was actually given a slightly higher priority by the males than the females, contradicting the expectation. This may be explained in part by the type of activity taken part in by males and

females. Hendry et al found that sports participation after the age of 13\14 was greatly influenced by friends but significantly females were more likely to take part in individual recreational activities while males played competitive team games. Without their 'friends' males would not be able to take part in their preferred sports activities.

15) Taking part in sport with friends is important to both boys and girls.

The need to take part in sport with friends was further tested by directly asking the respondents what they felt about this.

Table YP22: Importance of Taking Part in Sport with Friends

Reason	%		n=223
Very Important	28		
Fairly Important	45	73%	

Not Really Important	22	34%	
Not at all important	12		
TOTAL	100		

However, when this table is presented for males and females the result is somewhat surprising and contradicts the findings of Green et al where social interaction was an important component of womens leisure.

Table YP23: Importance of taking part in sport with friends by gender.

Reason	Male %	Female %	n=221
Very Important	41	15	
Fairly Important	41	50	
Not Really Important	14	29	
Not at all Important	4	6	
TOTAL	100	100	

The males, therefore, felt that taking part in sport with friends was an important factor in their participation. This is not surprising except that the importance is higher among the males than females. A

possible explanation for this has been given above.

16) Most young people have seen the Oxford and Cambridge Boat Race (supported).

17) Few young people are aware of rowing events other than the Boat Race (supported).

18) Boys are more willing to try rowing than girls.

For the above three expectations awareness of and willingness to take part in rowing were ascertained. 62% had watched the Boat Race either live or on TV. However, only 12% were aware of any other rowing events in the UK. Since such a high percentage have watched the Boat Race but such a few are aware of any other rowing events then the NGB need to look at ways of popularising these other events. When asked about their willingness to take part in rowing 31% were either very or fairly interested. This represents one in three of young people interested in trying rowing which is a large potential consumer population. This figure was proportionally higher among the 16-17 age group suggesting this might be a good age group to target with any initial marketing campaign.

Table YP24: Interest in Trying Rowing by Age

Interest	<16 %	16-17 %	>18 %	n=227
Very Interested	8	4	5	
Fairly Interested	22	32	22	
Not Really Interested	46	47	42	
Not At All Interested	24	17	30	
TOTAL	100	100	100	

19) Boys are more interested in trying rowing than girls.

This expectation is not supported, as table YP25 shows, with no apparent gender differences in interest in trying rowing. These

findings are a little surprising since although Hendry et al found girls were as interested in watching sport as boys they found boys were more interested in participating in sport. Hendry suggests that lack of opportunity is responsible for the lower participation rates among girls. This may be reflected in this finding.

Table YP25: Interest in Trying Rowing by Gender

Interest	Male %	Female %	n=225
Very Interested	7	4	
Fairly Interested	24	27	
Not Really Interested	45	46	
Not at All Interested	24	23	
TOTAL	100	100	

When interest in trying rowing is examined by employment status it would appear that the unemployed are the most interested with 38% either very or fairly interested in rowing, the employed 36% interested and those in education only 30% interested. These figures must be interpreted with caution as the numbers are small.

Section C: About Yourself

The two expectations in this section were never tested since the information on social class was not available through this study (see Limitations in section 8.1). This section concentrated on personal details some of which, such as age and gender stratification, have already been discussed earlier in the chapter. The details about home ownership were not considered to be reliable among this age group. The only other information gathered in this section was on school and employment. All the under sixteens were at school with the other two age groups split between the move away from education and into employment.

Table YP26: Occupation

Occupation	<16 %	16-17 %	>18 %	n=228
At School	100	41	9	
FE or HE	0	45	43	
Registered Unemployed	0	1	8	
Unwaged not Unemployed	0	1	7	
Waged	0	8	26	
Self Employed	0	3	3	
Other	0	1	4	
TOTAL	100	100	100	

6.3.2 Women's Results in Relation to Expectations

The questionnaire distribution for the women's survey has already been outlined in section 6.2.2. This section analyses the results in relation to the expectations which were set out in section 5.5.2.

1) The majority of women have lived in their present home for over three years.

Table W27: Time at Present Address

Time at address	n=100
less than 1 year	9
1-3 years	17
Over 3 years	74
TOTAL	100

This stability of population reflects the urban housing situated around the Park with a high instance of owner occupation. These details have already been recorded in section 6.2.2, Table 5.

2) The majority of women have visited the Park at some time.

This expectation was supported since 96% of women respondents to the survey had visited the Park.

3) The majority of women enter the Park on foot.

Table W28: Method of Entering the Park

Method		n=98
Foot	55	
Bicycle	6	
Drive car	20	
Car passenger	18	
Bus	1	
TOTAL	100	

More than half of the women entering the Park come in on foot.

Woodward and Green (1988) found that, although half the women in their study held driving licences, they often lacked access to the family car. This would appear to be supported by the findings in this study.

4) The majority enter the Park by a gate near them

Table W29: Entry Route into the Park

Gate	%	n=94
Other	2	
Beighton	8	
Meadowgate	22	
Canal entrance	5	
Lane from Killamarsh	3	
Social Club	10	
Bridges	1	
Delve Lane	10	
Main entrance	39	
TOTAL	100	

Access from residential areas is key and the majority of women enter the Park by a gate near to them. Residential areas are close to the Park on the west and south sides with access more difficult from the north and east. Ease of access effects the mode of entry with the majority of women from the west and south coming on foot and from the north and east by car.

5) Women have a reasonable knowledge of the activities on offer at the Park

Table W30: Rank Order of Activities Known to be Available at the Park

Order	Activity	n=100
1	Walking	86
2	Cycling	70
3	Sailing	69
4	Jet skiing	66
5	Board sailing	64
6	Bird watching	62
7	Water skiing	60
8	Canoeing	57
9	Fishing	49
10	Rowing	46
11	Family boating	43
12	Grass skiing	39
13	Grass sledging	19
14	Orienteering	6

The women therefore had a reasonable knowledge of the activities in the Park. When compared with the results from the young people's survey, the same activities came out at the top and bottom of both, showing a surprisingly high degree of consistency between the two samples. Canoeing was top of the young people's survey but then the rank order was walking, cycling, sailing and jet skiing. These are the top four activities listed in the women's survey. Grass skiing, grass sledging and orienteering are the three bottom activities listed in both surveys. This has implications for the advertising policy of the Park. For example, jet skiing, which is very visual and noisy, is well known about whereas the orienteering trail, which is permanently available in the Park, is little known about. If the Park management wishes to have an even take-up of activities then they need to give more prominence to the advertising and presentation of the less visual sports.

The information was also analysed by collapsing four of the six

occupation/income categories into two, those with and those without earned income. The categories 'other' and 'full time education' were excluded from this analysis, the former for reasons of ambiguity and the latter because the cell size was too small to be of use. Those in the 'with earned income' group showed consistently greater knowledge of what was available in the Park than the other group, presumably because of their greater discretionary spending power and the autonomy this confers.

6) A minority of women have tried the activities on offer at the Park

Table W31: Activities Tried at the Park and Elsewhere

Activity	At Park	Elsewhere	Both	n=100
Board sailing	3	2	0	
Jet skiing	1	3	0	
Family boating	4	16	8	
Canoeing	5	14	0	
Orienteering	2	9	0	
Walking	45	5	39	
Grass skiing	0	1	0	
Grass sledging	2	1	1	
Rowing	2	10	1	
Sailing	3	8	0	
Bird watching	9	2	7	
Fishing	5	6	1	
Water skiing	1	5	0	
Cycling	20	12	17	

In keeping with the young people's survey the results from this question would indicate that the respondents only considered that they had taken part in the activity if it was seen by them to be 'formal'. This is seen in the response to having tried walking where, although 45% admit to trying walking in the Park, 55% enter the Park on foot. Therefore, entering the Park on foot is not always perceived as an 'activity'.

Overall, the number of women who have tried the activities is very low indeed, regardless of age, supporting the expectation. This could be looked at in two ways: first, it offers a large untapped market to the Park management. Secondly, it underlines how large numbers of people are entering the Park but not trying the programmed activities there. However, given the reasonably high interest levels in sport demonstrated by women (see below) then, with the correct marketing plan, there is hope!

Section B: Interest in Sport

7) Women are not very interested in sport.

Table W32: Degree of Interest in Sport

Degree of interest		n=100
Very	11	
Fairly	56	
Not really	26	
Not at all	7	
TOTAL	100	

Given the extensive literature on women's low interest and participaton rates in sport (for example, Sports Council 1992; Talbot, 1992; Hendry 1993), the response to this question is surprising with 67% of women being very or fairly interested in sport. When analysed by the income and no income headings the women with income were more interested in sport than the no income group echoing their greater disposable income and autonomy (see above).

8) Women consider the cost of sport to be high.

Table W33: Cost of Taking Part in Sport and Physical Recreation

Cost	%	n=95
Very costly	19	
Fairly costly	73	
Not really costly	8	
Not at all costly	0	
TOTAL	100	

This expectation was supported by the survey with only 8% finding the cost of taking part in sport not really costly. Respondents were asked to say why they felt taking part in sport was costly. 35% gave no reason for their reply but the next three main reasons given were that they had no or low income or that the cost of hiring or buying equipment was expensive. These were the same reasons given as in the young people's survey and have implications for the Park's marketing campaign, for example comparing expenditure to everyday household expenditure, such as the price of a pint of milk.

9) Women are even less interested in water sports than sports generally

Table W34: Interest in Water Sports

Interest	%	n=98
Very interested	5	
Fairly interested	29	
Not really interested	46	
Not at all interested	20	
TOTAL	100	

This expectation is supported with only 34% of women being interested in water sports as opposed to 67% being interested in sports in general.

The interest in water sports is slightly higher among the no income group than among the with income group.

10) Women consider water sports more expensive than sport generally.

Table W35: Cost of water sports

Cost	%	n=94
Very costly	21	
Fairly costly	45	
Not really costly	2	
Do not know	32	
TOTAL	100	

Once the 'Don't knows' were removed from the comparison between the cost of taking part in sport and water sports then more considered the cost of water sport high.

The major reasons for women finding water sports costly were that the equipment was expensive, that they had no or low income or that they were not interested. Again, there appears to be a large mismatch between the actual and perceived costs of taking part in water sports.

11) Those women who do take part in sport do so for social reasons.

The women were asked to tick as many of the reasons they took part in sport and then to complete the three main reasons they took part in sport.

Table W36: Rank Order of the Three Main Reasons for Taking Part in Sport

Reason	%	n=245
To keep fit	18	
To relax	16	
To get in shape	13	
For fun	11	
To go into countryside	7	
Break from work	7	
To get better	6	
To socialise with friends	6	
Sense of achievement	5	
Part of a team	4	
To feel good	3	
To meet people	2	
For competition	1	
Friends all play	1	
TOTAL	100	

This expectation was not supported and certainly contradicts the findings of previous work on physical recreation and women's leisure (Green, Hebron and Woodward, 1990). The question in this survey focussed specifically on sport as opposed to general leisure. Even so, it appears that the women in this study are much more motivated by physical and psychological reasons than social ones. Therefore, any campaign by the Park to promote sport for women should focus on sport for fitness and to get into shape or for relaxation.

12) Taking part in sport with friends is important.

Table W37: Importance of Taking Part in Sport with Friends

IMPORTANCE	%	n=96
Very important	11	
Fairly important	28	
Not really important	41	
Not at all important	20	
TOTAL	100	

The lack of importance of taking part in sport with friends demonstrated in Table W36 was further underlined by only 39% of the group feeling that it was important to take part in sport with friends when asked specifically (Table W37).

13) The majority of women would not use a creche if it were offered at the Park.

Table W38: Intention to use a creche

INTENTION	%	n=91
Always	13	
Often	19	
Occasionally	20	
Never	48	
TOTAL	100	

These figures show that a majority of women would use a creche facility at some time if it were offered at the Park. If the Park is to attract women it will need to consider offering a creche facility.

14) The cost of sport prevents women from taking part.

Table W39: Cost as a Barrier to Sports Participation

RESPONSE	%	n=94
Always	6	
Often	29	
Occasionally	44	
Never	21	
TOTAL	100	

Surprisingly, this expectation was not fully supported with 65% finding cost a barrier to sports participation only occasionally or never. Among the no income group 31% found the cost of participation never prevented them from taking part in sport. Overall, these figures are in keeping with the other findings relating to disposable income and spending autonomy.

15) Women are aware of the Oxford and Cambridge boat race.

YES = 75% NO = 25 n=100

Women are aware of the Oxford and Cambridge Boat Race and 75% have watched the race live or on television.

16) Women are not aware of any other rowing event.

YES = 16% NO = 84% n=99

As expected the majority of women are not aware of any other rowing event.

17) Women are not at all interested in taking part in rowing.

Table 40: Interest in Trying Rowing

INTEREST	%	n=99
Very interested	0	
Fairly interested	12	
Not really interested	38	
Not at all interested	50	
TOTAL	100	

33% of the no income group of women are fairly interested in trying rowing. This no income group are more likely to be available in the daytime (see section 5.5.2) and if a creche facility were also provided might be more attracted to the Park at these less busy times.

Section C: Social Profile

18) The higher up the social class system the more interest in and awareness of sport is shown by women.

The expectation in this section was never tested since the information was not available to check the social class. Other parameters included in this section were home tenure status, age and employment status. The sample size and the lack of validity of the cell sizes made all of these methods of analysis somewhat suspect. The employment status was used but the categories were collapsed down into income and no income groups. This lack of social grouping is a major limitation of the study, at the moment, the information on women treats them as one homogenous group and within Hendry's study social class had an influence on interest in sports activities (Hendry et al 1993).

6.4 Summary

This Chapter has attempted to outline the selection of respondents for the questionnaires and to give a profile of the sample tested. The results of the young people's and women's surveys have been presented together with some of the main implications. In the case of the young people's survey, the main parameters used to analyse the data have been the whole cohort, location, age and gender. The women's survey has been analysed as a whole with limited use of no income and income categories. The inability to analyse the data by social group is a major drawback of the survey. The results lead to a set of recommendations for the Park, the Amateur Rowing Association and Sports Agencies which are given in the next chapter.

7.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into sections with specific recommendations to the Park and ARA, and general recommendations for marketing sport which should be included in the marketing plans for any 'body' selling sport.

7.1 Recommendations to Park

- a) Information on activities in the Park should be publicised locally. Schools , Youth clubs, libraries and local newspapers could all be used.
- b) The Park should look at placing some activities nearer to the access points into the Park if they are to attract women and young people to participate.
- c) A creche facility should be established after further local consultation about availability and costs.

7.2 Recommendations to ARA

- d) The ARA needs to take more of a marketing approach, across all events, all boat classes and all levels of ability, if it is to increase participation.
- e) The marketing model Fig.21 should be applied to deliver the above.
- f) The ARA should move away from a competition-based approach to marketing rowing.
- g) The ARA should develop a stronger youth policy together with a marketing plan aimed at young people.

h) The ARA should develop a marketing plan aimed at increasing women's participation.

i) For both young people and women, rowing should be based at centres which are easily accessible.

7.3 Recommendations for marketing sport

j) In order to increase participation amongst young people the elements of fun, getting fit and sociability should be stressed in marketing campaigns and material.

k) Marketing campaigns and materials should include explicit information about value for money related to the costs of purchase and hire of sports equipment.

l) The revised marketing model in Fig.21 should be recommended to the other Governing Bodies.

m) The Sports Council, National Coaching Foundation and local authorities involved in sports development should, together, formulate a new, more flexible model of sports development

8.0 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

8.1 Limitations

The survey of young people involved a change of data collection method: originally, this was intended to take place through random sampling but this proved too restrictive in terms of the number of young people who fell within the sample age range. Instead, local schools and an FE College and Youth Club were used to obtain the necessary number of respondents. Even so, the sample size restricted the level of analysis which could be undertaken.

Few difficulties were encountered with the final questionnaires for the postal survey of women as these had been pilot tested and revised. Layout, length and complexity all appeared to be acceptable to respondents. Reminders and follow ups helped to ensure a reasonable return (33% overall). According to Veal (1992, p.110), this is on the low side but acceptable. However, the response rate varied considerably, with the Beighton/East area achieving the highest with 43%: there is no obvious explanation for this except perhaps the ease of access to the Park for its inhabitants. The cost of questionnaire production and time taken in administration clearly limited the amount of data which could be collected.

Specificity was, arguably, a limitation as the study focussed on rowing: in order to test the assertion that the marketing model has wide applicability it would have to be tested against other sports.

One of the major limitations of the study was the lack of availability of the 1991 Census data to provide a framework for analysing the information from the questionnaires. The information was available from the 1981 Census but Rother Valley Country Park did not exist at that time and housing development has since greatly changed the socio-demographic profile of the area. Many of the people living on the west of the Park are in new housing that was not in existence in 1981. The demographic details supplied by the questionnaire were not intended to be used to analyse the data and there is not enough detail to look effectively at variables such as employment status: for example, those listed as being in further education may well be on training courses for the unemployed. Within the women's survey those listing themselves as 'other' may well be on pensions, as might some of those who have placed themselves in the category of unwaged but not unemployed. For data analysis purposes the area around the Park was divided into four sectors radiating out from the centre (see Fig. 11). Only broad trends and not detailed demographic profiles may be inferred from the analysis. This was a major limitation of the study for two principal reasons. All the marketing literature indicates that, for a marketing campaign to be successful, the specific needs and wants of a particular social group must be considered. This is further emphasised by the research into youth and women's involvement in leisure where social class has a direct bearing on the level and type of involvement. However, analysis of this was not feasible within the context of this small-scale study.

The questionnaire could have been expanded with a question about the frequency of respondents' sports participation and indications of the number of times people had taken part in the listed sports. However, enough detailed information was collected to show which activities

people had tried and knew were available in the Park. In addition, the women's survey required a section on recreation and the family. Only those with young families were considered in relation to the question about creche facilities. Many women's recreation activities take place within the family (Wimbush 1985) and, in order for them to take part in recreation, provision for the rest of the family may be a necessity.

8.2 Suggestions for Further Study

This thesis has formulated a model for the successful marketing of rowing (see Fig.21) which should now be tested for a wider range of sports. In particular, it should have relevance to minority sports whose survival is threatened by the recent concentration on major or 'focus' sports by local authorities and the Sports Council. The Champion Coaching scheme, a partnership between local authorities or NGBs able to pay and the National Coaching Foundation, is also contributing to the demise of minor sports through its concentration on major sports.

The Sports Council model of sports development (see Fig. 14) assumes linear or lateral progression from one stage to the next. A reformulation of the model is therefore required to meet the criticism that it lacks flexibility in terms of entry and exit points, access and consumer experience.

The recommendations to the ARA suggest a marketing approach and a move away from the traditional competitive structure. Further research needs to be undertaken to establish the 'type of rowing' that will attract increased participation in rowing.

9.0 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was prompted both by the appointment of a rowing development officer to Sheffield and the realisation by the ARA that Sheffield lacked a substantive rowing base in comparison with demographically equivalent cities. The historical enquiry helped to explain why Sheffield lagged behind other major cities in this regard and also chronicled the bifurcation of the sport into competitive and recreational forms.

The study explored the feasibility of marketing rowing within an area which already had suitable rowing water, namely Rother Valley Country Park. Existing models of sports development were interrogated to see if they offered a possible framework for marketing sport but they were found to have limitations. In particular, it was discovered that sports development tended to be used by agencies of the State as a means of regulation and control rather than empowerment. It was therefore necessary to review the marketing literature in order to develop a suitable marketing model for rowing. This revealed a lack of information on marketing sport as opposed to marketing through sport. The extensive sources on not-for-profit organisations were particularly useful although not previously applied to sport. Much further work needs to be done in this connection. Thibault et al (1992) have shown that it is possible to develop a classification of sport for marketing purposes. What is needed now is progressive refinement of the model through repeated empirical testing.

The empirical phase of the study focussed on two particular under-represented groups amongst rowing participants, young people and women. Findings indicated clearly a need for revised approaches to sports development: if the Performance level of the Sports Council model continues to require competition it will exclude young people and women for whom performance enhancement matters but competition does not. Voluntary sector/not-for-profit sports organisations, such as NGBs, therefore need to move away from highly structured and highly competitive forms of sport, and public sector bodies, such as the Sports Council and local authorities, need to formulate a more flexible model of sports development.

At present, the ARA is concerned mainly with the Performance and Excellence stages of the Sports Council's sports development model. This study indicates that they ignore the Foundation and Participation stages at their peril and that they, and probably other minority sports, cannot afford to leave Foundation and Participation to the statutory agencies.

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I am conducting a survey amongst local people about water activities at Rother Valley Country Park. Would you be prepared to help in answering a few questions? The survey will take 5 minutes and any information you give will be treated in confidence.

Section A

Rother Valley Country Park

A1 · Could you tell me if you live in the area.

Yes/No
A2 (Cease interview)

A2 Which street and village do you live in?

.....
Street Village Post Code

A3 Have you ever visited Rother Valley Country Park? Yes/No

A4 By which gate do you usually enter the Park?

Flash Card No. 1

- 1 Beighton entrance
- 2 Meadow gate
- 3 The Canal Entrance Killamarsh
- 4 The Lane from Killamarsh
- 5 The Social Club Killamarsh
- 6 The Eridges Killamarsh
- 7 Dêlve Lane (ski slope)
- 8 Main Entrance
- 9 Swallownest Entrance
- 10 Other - please state

A5 Could you tell me by which of these methods you would most often travel into the Park?

Flash Card No.2

- Foot
- Bicycle
- Motor Bike/Scooter
- Driving a Car
- Passenger in a Car
- Bus
- Horse
- Other please state

A6 Would you please tell me which of these activities are regularly available to the public at Rother Valley Country Park?

Flash Card No.3

- Board sailing
- Jet Skiing
- Family Boating
- Canoeing
- Orienteering
- Walking
- Grass Skiing
- Grass Sledging
- Rowing
- Sailing
- Bird watching
- Fishing
- Water Skiing
- Cycling

A7 Have you ever taken part in any of these activities at the Park? 1

2 Anywhere else?

Flash Card No.3

	1	2 Anywhere Else
Board sailing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jet Skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family Boating	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Canoeing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Orienteering	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Walking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grass skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grass sledging	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rowing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sailing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bird watching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fishing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Water skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cycling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B1 Sports

How would you describe your attitude to sport and physical recreation?

Very interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fairly interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not really interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not at all interested	<input type="checkbox"/>

B2 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most sports and physical recreations?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Why do you say that?

.....

.....

.....

B3 How would you describe your attitude to water sports?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not really interested

Not at all interested

B4 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most water sports?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Why do you say that?

.....

.....

.....

B5 What are the main reasons you would take part in sport or physical recreation?

I like to compete to win

Its fun/exciting

I feel good when I'm doing something I'm good at

I get a sense of achievement when things go well

I like to try to get better

It feels good to be part of a team

It keeps me fit and healthy

To keep/get my body in shape

It gets me into wilderness/countryside surroundings

It helps me relax and forget about other pressures

It gives me a break from work

To socialise with friends

I get to meet people

Because my friends all play

Stops me getting into trouble

Some other reason not included above
(please give brief details)

.....
.....
.....

B6 How important is it for you to take part in sport with your friends?

Very important

Fairly important

Not really important

Not at all important

B7 Have you ever watched the Oxford and Cambridge Boat race either live or on TV?

Yes/No

B8 Are you aware of any other annual rowing events?

Yes/No

If yes what?

.....

B9 How interested are you in trying rowing?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not very interested

Not at all interested

About yourself

C1 Gender (interviewer to assess) Male/Female

C2 How old are you? Less than 16

16-17

18-21

Over 21

C3 Could you please tell me if you are:

At school

In F/E or H/E

Registered unemployed

Unwaged but not registered unemployed

Waged

Self employed

Other

C4 Is the house you live in:

Owned by parents or you

Rented

C5 Have you any other comments about the activities at Rother Valley Country Park?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for all your help.

\pilotque.doc

General Introduction

I am conducting a survey amongst local people about water activities at Rother Valley Country Park. Would you be prepared to help in answering a few questions? The survey will take 5 minutes and any information you give will be treated in confidence.

Section A

Rother Valley Country Park

A1 Could you tell me if you live in the area.

Yes/No

A2 (Cease interview)

A2 Which street and village do you live in?

.....

Street

Village

Post Code

A3 Have you ever visited Rother Valley Country Park?

Yes/No

A4 By which gate do you usually enter the Park?

Flash Card No.1

- 1 Beighton entrance
- 2 Meadow gate
- 3 The Canal Entrance Killamarsh
- 4 The Lane from Killamarsh
- 5 The Social Club Killamarsh
- 6 The Bridges Killamarsh
- 7 Delve Lane (ski slope)
- 8 Main Entrance
- 9 Swallownest Entrance
- 10 Other - please state

A5 Could you tell me by which of these methods you would most often travel into the Park?

Flash Card No.2

- Foot
- Bicycle
- Motor Bike/Scooter
- Driving a Car
- Passenger in a Car
- Bus
- Horse
- Other please state

A6 Would you please tell me which of these activities are regularly available to the public at Rother Valley Country Park?

Flash Card No.3

- Board sailing
- Jet Skiing
- Family Boating
- Canoeing
- Orienteering
- Walking
- Grass Skiing
- Grass Sledging
- Rowing
- Sailing
- Bird watching
- Fishing
- Water Skiing
- Cycling

A7 Have you ever taken part in any of these activities at the Park? 1

2 Anywhere else?

Flash Card No.3

	1	2 Anywhere Else
Board sailing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jet Skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family Boating	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Canoeing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Orienteering	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Walking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grass skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grass sledding	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rowing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sailing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bird watching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fishing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Water skiing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cycling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B1 Sports

How would you describe your attitude to sport and physical recreation?

Very interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fairly interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not really interested	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not at all interested	<input type="checkbox"/>

B2 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most sports and physical recreations?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Why do you say that?

.....

.....

.....

B3 How would you describe your attitude to water sports?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not really interested

Not at all interested

B4 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most water sports?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Don't know

Why do you say that?

.....

.....

.....

B5 What are the main reasons you would take part in sport or physical recreation?

3 main choices

Flash Card No.4

I like to compete to win

Its fun/exciting

I feel good when I'm doing something I'm good at

I get a sense of achievement when things go well

I like to try to get better

It feels good to be part of a team

It keeps me fit and healthy

To keep/get my body in shape

It gets me into wilderness/countryside surroundings

It helps me relax and forget about other pressures

It gives me a break from work

To socialise with friends

I get to meet people

Because my friends all play

Stops me getting into trouble

Some other reason not included above
(please give brief details)

.....
.....
.....

B6 How important is it for you to take part in sport with your friends?

Very important

Fairly important

Not really important

Not at all important

B7 Have you ever watched the Oxford and Cambridge Board race either live or on TV?

Yes/No

B8 Are you aware of any other annual rowing events?

Yes/No

If yes what?

.....

B9 How interested are you in trying rowing?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not very interested

Not at all interested

About yourself

C1 Gender (interviewer to assess)

Male/Female

C2 How old are you? Less than 16

16-17

18-21

Over 21

C3 Could you please tell me if you are:

At school

In F/E or H/E

Registered unemployed

Unwaged but not registered unemployed

Waged

Self employed

Other

C4 Is the house you live in:

Owned by parents or you

Rented

C5 Have you any other comments about the activities at Rother Valley Country Park?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for all your help.

Section A

Rother Valley Country Park

Flash Card No.1

- 1 Beighton entrance
- 2 Meadow gate
- 3 The Canal Entrance Killamarsh
- 4 The Lane from Killamarsh
- 5 The Social Club Killamarsh
- 6 The Bridges Killamarsh
- 7 Delve Lane (ski slope)
- 8 Main Entrance
- 9 Swallownest Entrance
- 10 Other - please state

Flash Card No. 2

Foot

Bicycle

Motor Bike/Scooter

Driving a Car

Passenger in a Car

Bus

Horse

Other please state

Flash card No. 3

Board sailing

Jet skiing

Family Boating

Canoeing

Orienteering

Walking

Grass skiing

Grass sledging

Rowing

Sailing

Bird watching

Fishing

Water skiing

Cycling

Flash Card No. 4

I like to compete to win

Its fun/exciting

I feel good when I'm doing something I'm good at

I get a sense of achievement when things go well

I like to try to get better

It feels good to be part of a team

It keeps me fit and healthy

To keep/get my body in shape

It gets me into wilderness/countryside surroundings

It helps me relax and forget about other pressures

It gives me a break from work

To socialise with friends

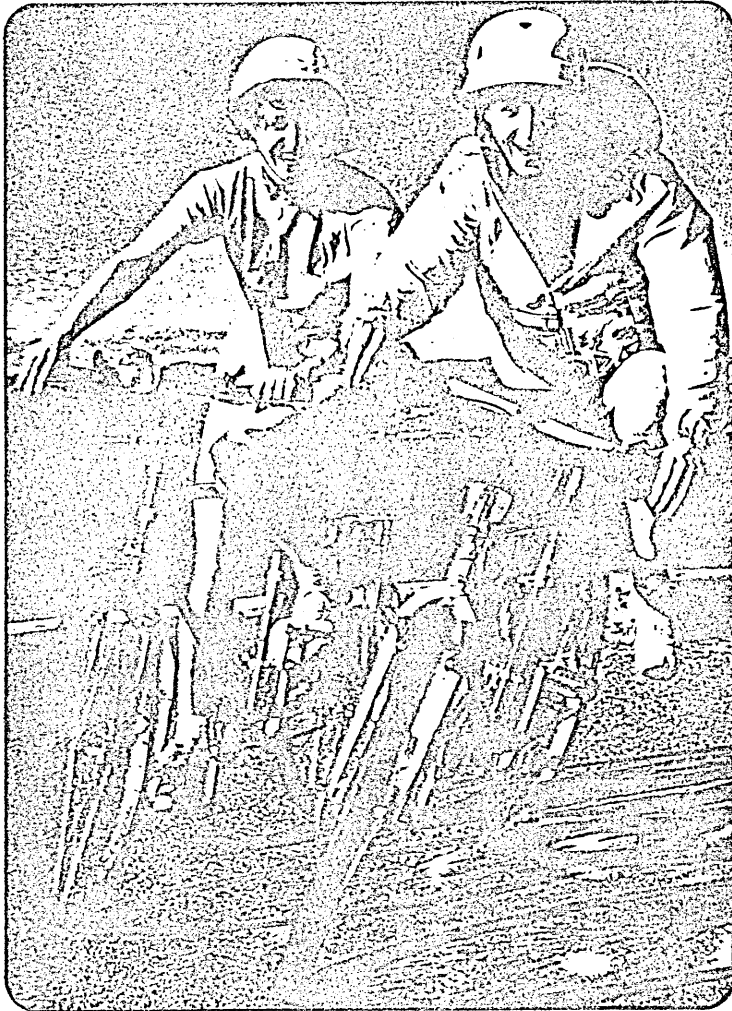
I get to meet people

Because my friends all play

Stops me getting into trouble

Some other reason not included above

Rother Valley Country Park:



Sports

Activities

and

YOU

Section A

Rother Valley Country Park

A1 How long have you lived at your present address?

Less than 1 year

1-3 years

more than 3 years

A2 Have you ever visited Rother Valley Country Park?

Yes/No

If 'no' go to A6

A3 By which gate do you usually enter the Park?
(Tick only one box)

1 Beighton entrance

2 Meadow gate

3 The Canal Entrance Killamarsh

4 The Lane from Killamarsh

5 The Social Club Killamarsh

6 The Bridges Killamarsh

7 Delve Lane (ski slope)

8 Main Entrance

9 Swallownest Entrance

10 Other - please state

A4 Please tick by which of these methods you would most often travel into the Park? (Tick only one box)

- Foot
- Bicycle
- Motor Bike/Scooter
- Driving a Car
- Passenger in a Car
- Bus
- Horse
- Other please state

A5 Would you please tick the activities which you think are regularly available to the public at Rother Valley Country Park?

- Board sailing
- Jet Skiing
- Family Boating
- Canoeing
- Orienteering
- Walking
- Grass Skiing
- Grass Sledging
- Rowing
- Sailing
- Bird watching
- Fishing
- Water Skiing
- Cycling

A6 Could you indicate which activities you have taken part in at:-
 1 Rother Valley Country Park or
 2 Anywhere else

	1 Rother Valley	2 Anywhere Else
Board sailing		
Jet Skiing		
Family Boating		
Canoeing		
Orienteering		
Walking		
Grass skiing		
Grass sledging		
Rowing		
Sailing		
Bird watching		
Fishing		
Water skiing		
Cycling		

Section B

Sport in General

B1 How would you describe your attitude to sport and physical recreation?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not really interested

Not at all interested

B2 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most sports and physical recreations?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Why do you think that?

.....
.....
.....

B3 How would you describe your attitude to water sports?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not really interested

Not at all interested

B4 How would you describe the cost of taking part in most water sports?

Very costly

Fairly costly

Not really costly

Not at all costly

Don't know

Why do you say that?

.....
.....
.....

B5 Does cost prevent you from taking part in as much sport as you would like?

Always

Often

Occasionally

Never

B6 Would creche facilities at Rother Valley Country Park make taking part in recreation easier?

Always

Often

Occasionally

Never

B7 In column one please tick as many statements as you agree with. In column two please tick your three main reasons for taking part in sport.

1

2

I like to compete to win

Its fun/exciting

I feel good when I'm doing something I'm good at

I get a sense of achievement when things go well

I like to try to get better

It feels good to be part of a team

It keeps me fit and healthy

To keep/get my body in shape

It gets me into wilderness/countryside surroundings

It helps me relax and forget about other pressures

It gives me a break from family/work

To socialise with friends

I get to meet people

Because my friends all play

Some other reason not included above (please give brief details)

.....

B8 How important is it for you to take part in sport with your friends?

Very important

Fairly important

Not really important

Not at all important

B9 Have you ever watched the Oxford and Cambridge Boat race either live or on TV?

Yes/No

B10 Are you aware of any other annual rowing events?

Yes/No

If yes what?

.....

B11 How interested are you in trying rowing?

Very interested

Fairly interested

Not very interested

Not at all interested

Section C

About yourself

C1 Which age category do you come into?

18-25

26-35

36-45

46-55

Over 56

C2 Are you currently:-

In full time education

Registered unemployed

Unwaged but not registered unemployed

Waged

Self-employed

Other - please specify

C3 Is the house that you live in:-

Owned by you or your partner

Rented

Other - please specify

C4 Have you any other comments about the activities at Rother Valley Country Park?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for all your help in answering this survey.



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Director
Elizabeth Rick BA MSc

23rd November 1991

This is to certify that is an interviewer from the sheffield City Polytechnic engaged in research. Any information given to this survey will be treated with strictest confidence and no information will be divulged to any other source.

Ralph Hebden
Executive Head

RM/CMS

5 May 1992

Dear Woman of the House

I am a research assistant at Sheffield City Polytechnic studying for a higher degree. My research is into marketing sport to women in East Sheffield and I would therefore like some help with the completion of the enclosed questionnaire. This is divided into three sections. The first is about Rother Valley Country Park, the access and activities. The second section is about sport in general together with the costs of taking part and the third section is about you.

Any information you give will be treated in the strictest confidence but the collected findings will be used to promote sport in your area. The details will be made available to Rother Valley Country Park in order for them to incorporate the information in their forward planning.

Please would you return the questionnaire in the enclosed Freepost envelope by the 5 June 1992.

Thank you for your help.

Yours sincerely

Rosie Mayglothing
Research Assistant

26th August 1992

Dear Woman of the House

ROTHER VALLEY COUNTRY PARK, SPORTS ACTIVITIES AND YOU.

Recently I delivered a questionnaire to your home and asked if you would help me in my research by completing the three sections. I would still welcome your views to include with my findings so that as comprehensive a report as possible may be forwarded to Rother Valley Country Park for use in forward planning.

I would like to stress that any information you give will be treated in the strictest confidence. Apart from a few moments of your time the questionnaire will cost you nothing as a free post envelope was included in the original delivery. If you are unable to locate this just write freepost on the envelope and return the completed questionnaire to me at the above address.

I look forward to receiving a reply and thank you for your help.

Yours sincerely



Rosie Mayglothling
Research Assistant