

# THE ODDS IN OUR FAVOUR:

**Understanding the motivation to visit New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetrack events during the low-season among 20-30 year-olds**

Michael Anthony Lee

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**Understanding the motivation to visit New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetrack events during the low-season among 20-30 year-olds**

Michael Anthony Lee

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School of Hospitality & Tourism

Primary Supervisor: Dr Hamish Bremner

Secondary Supervisor: Dr Alice Graeupl

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### **Attestation of Authorship**

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_  
Michael Anthony Lee



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## **Abstract**

The New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry faces a number of event attendance issues. On the one hand, thousands of visitors reportedly favour thoroughbred horse racing events that feature throughout the November to March summer high-season, so the industry has relied on the economic advantages of concentrating entire marketing campaigns, funds and social activities across this period to maximise yearly revenue. On the other hand, the typical behaviour of a large number of young visitors suggests they do not regard the gambling or sporting features of thoroughbred horse racing highly. Consequently, racetracks focus on the kind of social activity design structures preferred by the majority of young visitors during the high-season. Yet, young visitors continue to visit these racetracks throughout the May to October low-season months. This study therefore identifies and evaluates the specific behaviours among these young low-season visitors, since they are evolving without a pathway that would otherwise encourage them to visit. Young low-season visitors are defined in this study as any male or female between the ages of twenty (20) and thirty (30), since they are usually the largest target of high-season marketing.

A post-positivist, mixed-method approach was adopted to evaluate how closely young low-season visitor behaviour aligned with industry survey data and perceptions of typical high-season thoroughbred horse racing visitor interests. To create a background on the thoroughbred horse racing industry, a survey data set on the spending habits of over 12,000 racetrack visitors during the 2008/2009 high-season, a Visitor Survey data set on the various behaviours of over 3,000 visitors during the high-season and two (2) primary, qualitative in-depth interviews with industry members working at a national level were utilised. Once the image of high-season behaviour among young visitors had been portrayed, a nationwide closed-ended survey on young visitor motives, preferences, expectations and choices was conducted at six popular racetrack locations throughout the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing low-season (May-July) to a sample size of 90 racetrack visitors between the age of 20 and 30. The low-season survey results determined the existence of an alternative behaviour. Most importantly, as much as 50% of the total sample visited primarily to gamble, while 59% of the total sample gambled on almost every race of the day. Moreover, as much as 49% of the total sample prefers gambling as a racetrack activity.

## **1.0 Introduction**

### **1.1 The Thoroughbred Horse Racing Industry**

The New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry is competing within a far more demanding discretionary spending space than it did thirty years ago (NZTR & NZRB, 2009). More specifically, the industry has been in decline for over 25 years, albeit camouflaged by improvements introduced by the Totalisator Agency Board (T.A.B) in New Zealand responsible for managing thoroughbred horse gambling. It is the direct result of a social shift toward increased shopping, working on Saturdays, Internet use, travel, lottery gambling, ‘pokie’ machine gambling, and casinos. As a consequence, a lack of focus has meant international wagering markets may eventually outsize the domestic thoroughbred horse wagering market by 2013 (NZTR, 2011). However, the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry is optimistic about racetrack attendance. It forecasts an annual increase from the 508,000 total visitors at racetracks in 2011, at an average of 1,573 visitors per event, to 575,000 total visitors at racetracks by 2014 (NZTR, 2011). Yet, it is important to note that only 35 thoroughbred horse racing events, out of a total of 323, managed to attract a crowd of more than 2,500 visitors during the 2010/2011 racing calendar. Moreover, the thoroughbred horse racing industry only managed to attract 10,000 visitors to a major event on four occasions during that calendar schedule. Nevertheless, the thoroughbred horse gambling television market has grown steadily since the 1980s, and by 2010, the national thoroughbred horse gambling television channel, *Trackside*, achieved a regular audience of over 250,000 viewers, benefiting nearly 600 gambling agencies throughout New Zealand (NZTR, 2010), stimulating \$1.4 billion in economic activity and making up as much as 1.3% of New Zealand’s Grosse Domestic Product (GDP) (NZTR<sup>a</sup>, 2009).

The addition of the national lottery brand, *Lotto*, in the late 1980s, as well as gaming machine and casino growth since the mid 1990s, saw New Zealand’s total gambling expenditure peak at almost \$2 billion by 2003. In the same way, the thoroughbred horse racing industry relies on access to pokie Gaming Grant Funding, as without a steady platform from which to conduct business, as much as 18,000 full-time equivalent jobs would be at risk across the industry, threatening the sustainability of venue upkeep, which costs an estimated \$800 million (NZTR, 2009). Moreover, a Racing Act was introduced in 2003 which made “fundamental changes to the basis of the racing industry

and the roles of various bodies within that industry” (NZTR, 2005, p. 3). Consequently, a new organisational body, the *New Zealand Racing Board* (NZRB), was formed by the Act to ensure overall responsibility for promotion of thoroughbred horse, harness horse and greyhound dog racing nationwide. Ultimately, that promotion became a collaborative, national initiative aimed at serving the interests of stakeholders. However, annual NZRB expenses have steadily increased over the past decade, rising at a rate of over 8%, and to break even, the Board must search for income wherever it is available (NZTR, 2011). Today, racetracks are encouraged to focus on their critical role of maximising ‘on course’ entertainment and turnover. At the same time, the Board must look outside New Zealand for support, and to do this, New Zealand T.A.B.s are marketed as gateways for New Zealand gamblers to the rest of the gambling world, which is important for typical New Zealand thoroughbred horse gamblers, who search for the kind of races that feature at least 12 to 14 horses (Sargent, 2009). As a result, the leakage of offshore thoroughbred horse wagering is now prevalent and has grown to the point that New Zealand, as a wagering market, has become more attracted to betting on thoroughbred horses in other countries. Specifically, New Zealanders wager as much as \$300 million per annum overseas, and this could be attributed to the rapid growth in broadband uptake and advertising within the Australian horse racing industry (NZTR & NZRB, 2009). Because of this, the New Zealand horse racing industry recognised an opportunity to sign an agreement with the Australian horse racing industry to supply a minimum number of thoroughbred horse races for the Australian television gambling market (S. Cooper, personal communication, May 27, 2011).

The agreement was, in no uncertain terms, a response to the pressure that industries face to offer products that fit into the timeslots and lifestyles of international markets (NZTR, 2011). In fact, Saturday thoroughbred horse racing events alone are beginning to attract export wagering turnover figures that increase from around \$143,000 per race by 12:00pm to \$347,000 per race by 4:00pm, simply because the Australian time zone is so close to that of New Zealand’s. At the same time, turnover on New Zealand thoroughbred horse races by Australians has grown steadily, at a rate of 25.8% per annum, and for the 2010/2011 thoroughbred horse racing calendar, Australians wagered as much as \$339.9 million on New Zealand thoroughbred events, almost exceeding domestic market figures. Due to this annual revenue success, the Australian horse racing industry has stimulated greater interest within the Australian horse gambling

market and as a consequence, the NZRB project that there will be more gambling on thoroughbred horse races in New Zealand by Australians than by New Zealanders by the end of 2012. In fact, profit from international royalties on gross wagering turnover within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry increased from \$4.1 million in 2007 to \$22.1 million in 2011, while as much as \$9.2 million in royalties was paid to the NZRB by Australian T.A.B.s on New Zealand thoroughbred horse races in 2011 alone, up from \$3.7 million in 2007 (NZTR, 2011). Indeed, the Australian thoroughbred horse racing industry has had such success that one of its most popular racetracks, Moonee Valley, in Melbourne, had to allow thousands of visitors to gain free entry to one of its major thoroughbred race events, at a loss of at least \$250,000, because the size of the crowd waiting to gain entry to the racetrack was too large, slowing entry rates (Sherer, 2012). At the same time, the Australian thoroughbred horse racing industry manages to attract hundreds of thousands of 18 to 35 year-olds to high-season events each year. However, the Australian horse racing industry is by no means perfect. Like New Zealand racetracks, Australian racetracks conduct very little market research into what actually attracts this age group to the event. Moreover, the infrastructure models have not always produced returns on investments to stakeholders and today, “The representative race club control model has... paralysed the industry for 10 years, through conflict of interest and marginalised decisions” (Bentley, 2008, p. 1).

Yet, in New Zealand’s case:

*For the last 20 years the industry has been sliding downwards... It’s pretty much run like our fathers ran it. How we market the industry, how we get more people involved are indicative of where the industry is. We need to seriously look at how we make use of it (J. Carter, personal communication, June 22, 2010).*

Nevertheless, thoroughbred horse racing depends on the wagering dollar, wherever it is sourced, especially as it is severely under threat because of competition from other gambling products (Board Works International, 2009). Moreover, the ‘racing’ element of the historical ‘rugby, racing and beer’ culture in New Zealand has all but diminished, reflecting, in part, changing social attitudes toward gambling. At the same time, high-profile probity issues constantly surround a lack of professionalism in many areas, worsening the industry’s ‘clean and green’ image, which is used to sustain numerous walking and jogging activities at racetracks, charity fundraisers, fairs, and agricultural shows (NZTR, 2009). Because of this, the industry must also rely on profits from

gaming machine operations to survive, even as government intervention on issues surrounding excessive gaming threatens gambling profitability. Indeed, the total Gaming Grant Funding had been reduced from \$8.8 million in 2009 to \$2.3 million by 2010 within the thoroughbred horse racing industry (NZTR, 2011). According to a commissioned report on New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing, there are issues surrounding the human capital side of the industry, where poor human resource training systems impact on the quality of the event product and the attraction of the industry to potential event visitors and industry investors (Board Works International, 2009). In addition, on-course betting turnover decreased from \$50m in 2000 to \$46m by 2009 (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009). However, the growth potential for visitors and industry investors is substantial, certainly where the total returns to racing participants in New Zealand increased by 107% between 2000 and 2009 (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009). For the industry, however, sustainability may only be truly realised through institutionalised changes. As Price Waterhouse Coopers (2002) conclude in their commissioned report on New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing:

*This is an industry with an infrastructure designed to support the dynamics of an earlier era. The status quo is not an option if the industry wants to prosper and create a base from which development opportunities can be leveraged (p. 16).*

That is also to say, much of the facilities and infrastructure at racetracks are a deterring factor. Specifically, it might be argued that traditional New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetracks represent ‘second-generation destinations’ (Agarwal, 2002), as they are spaces “regulated, carefully constructed... and ultimately underpinned by a distinctive process of capital accumulation” (Shaw & Williams, 2004, p. 258) themed around “illusions of an idealised past” (Law, 2002, p. 169). To that end, the link between heritage and regeneration could be observed as part of a series of changes in patterns of urban management (Shaw & Williams, 2004). Still, as former New Zealand Racing Minister, John Carter, maintained, “it is time for change”, which is to say, “the industry needs to work together, as one business, with common goals, if it is to seriously compete for leisure time and the leisure dollar” (J. Carter, personal communication, June 22, 2010). More people need to be interested in racing, as they won’t even know about the races if the excitement of seeing and being part of the action on the track is not marketed to them. The racetrack offers the researcher the opportunity to capture gambling behaviours, attitudes toward brands and product expenditure. Thus, when considering the different motivations of racetrack visitors, a behavioural divergence

may exist between the thrill of experiencing horse racing and the thrill of winning a race as a gambler. Attempting to interpret the socio-economic and cognitive constraints may not only help to improve the marketing effectiveness of the industry, but may increase the quality and quantity of thoroughbred racing revenue streams, as well. The great challenge, therefore, is not in increasing market share. Rather, the thoroughbred racing code has consistently held an advantage over harness and greyhound wagering pools since 2000 (Sargent, 2009). Instead, “the key issue facing the thoroughbred code... has been a... steady decline in participation over the last 10 years” (Sargent, 2009, p. 7). However, the Racing Board has over-invested in trying to attract visitors on-course [during the high-season] while under-investing in the development of ownership and sponsorship (NZTR & NZRB, 2009). Specifically, between \$6m and \$12m had already been allocated by the Racing Board for the revitalisation of the industry through on-course entertainment, ownership and incremental contribution (NZTR, 2005). Therefore, if a racetrack-led rationalisation of venue quality improvement is required to provide the betting product, then a racetrack-focused investigation must evaluate whether visitors consume this product, which visitors consume this product, how visitors consume this product and why visitors consume this product.

## 1.2 Thoroughbred Horse Racing Event Issues

One of the principle initiatives of the NZTR<sup>2</sup> (2009) is the improvement of the racetrack experience for both race-day going public and racehorse owners. Thus, evaluating the motivational dynamics of the 20 to 30 year-old racetrack visitor market might increase the on-course visitor market size long-term. However, “the core of the problem is a lack of customer growth, which has accelerated over the past few years with changing social habits” (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009, p. 36). These changing social habits, which are exhibited primarily throughout the high-season, could be identified as follows:

*... the 18-25-year-olds think they are coming to Party Central and a fair proportion of these young ones get completely trashed... their behaviour jeopardises our survival as a racing club. So we'd better fix the problem (Ormond, 2011).*

*Tales of drunken and drug-fuelled debauchery at a leading race meeting revealed drunken, aggressive youths fighting and vomiting and scared families watching as drinks were spilt over young children. Other race-goers were seen snorting drugs through rolled-up bank notes while others were seen vomiting in the gutter, lying unconscious on a verge and abusing passersby and police (Australia & New Zealand Bloodstock Inc, 2011).*

Ultimately, while event attributes and preference sets could be matched to specific psychographic visitor profiles (Kozak, 2002), in New Zealand's case,

*“Not enough thought has been given to how young people, in particular, are brought into [thoroughbred horse] racing. There is a concern that there is no easy pathway into the industry for new participants, be they interested in making a career in the industry, making an investment... or simply enjoying racing and wagering as a ‘customer’” (NZTR<sup>3</sup>, 2009, p. 12).*

At the same time, new customers, former customers and existing customers demonstrate that the decision-sequence in choosing experiences is never the same once the locality for leisure has been considered (Mansfield, 1992). A micromarketing approach, in this case, would certainly serve as a tactic to reach multimarket segments, a principle of hospitality and tourism (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2006), but may not cut across the divisions of customer heterogeneity. However, while the industry continues to seek answers, administrators still lack a central information depository for tactical decision-making (Ernst & Young, 1997). Thus, a knowledge base to “enhance... understanding of both group-specific and group-general (universal) processes” could contribute to “the integration of [customer] culture in theory development and practice of psychology” (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993, p. 630). Indeed, the New Zealand thoroughbred racing



industry plans to hold a total of 369 nationwide race events per year by 2014, up from 323 in 2011 (NZTR, 2011). This development will mark a key improvement in not only thoroughbred accessibility, but leisure time use, as well. Nevertheless, “the dominant characteristic of a developed society is its attempt to fit too many consumption activities into too little time” (Gershuny, 1986, p. 431) and as it stood, the 2009 thoroughbred racing calendar held race meetings to occupy ninety-one percent (91%) of the entire year. Clearly, with greater productivity, leisure services, like these, appear to be overcrowding available leisure time (Fleming & Spellerberg, 1999). It is perhaps, then, a symptom of service. Thoroughbred racing is required to provide the minimum number of racing surfaces to competitively deliver the betting product and as a consequence, the thoroughbred racing code operates as much as fifty one (51) venues to accommodate over three hundred (300) race days per annum. Yet, even today, almost nothing has changed since the 1960s, when the racing industry was facing issues related to relevance:

*... The industry has consumed its energies, and its betting public, with too many courses, and in some areas, too many days racing (McCarthy, 1970).*

The industry must also pay annual subsidies and to do this, funds are established by the NZRB of around \$64m for the NZTR and distributed in a top-down approach from the NZTR Funding Model (NZTR, 2010). Here, around \$300,000 is allocated to fund the development of on-course and online race-day systems. Yet, marketing has become a major issue within the industry, and today, “a key priority is to drive a sea change in the fragmented marketing efforts” (Goodson, 2011, p. 2). Since the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry does not coordinate the marketing of thoroughbred racing sport, the funds that are allocated by the NZRB target the most popular regions, which include Auckland (\$320k), Hawke’s Bay (\$160k), Wellington (\$160k) and Canterbury (\$160k), and contributes to why so many visitors prefer these racetracks (NZTR, 2011). Moreover, between \$30,000 and \$40,000 is allocated for marketing per Premier event during the low-season, while between \$800,000 and \$1.6 million is allocated for marketing per Carnival event during the high-season. It was also expected that by 2008 the thoroughbred racing industry would have drastically improved on-course customer service, mobile facilities, big screens, marquees and food and beverage services for selected events (NZTR, 2005). However, another principle issue facing the industry is still a lack of infrastructure investment and by 2010 the infrastructure investment budget was reduced from \$2.2m to \$1.2m. For the 2012 calendar year,

infrastructure funding contributions to strategic racing venues has also been reduced by \$800,000.

Certainly, many scholars accept, at least conceptually, that activities must be considered a process taking place in a cycle of various phases (Parrinello, 1993). However, it is just as necessary “to ensure that measurement techniques are capable of capturing the nuances in activity” (Harvey, 1990, p. 310) as the understanding of leisure changes. Still, would only concentrated product visibility stimulate an interest in and attraction to; the \$66 million available to participants; the \$46 million in on-course turnover and; the fact that New Zealand is ranked 15<sup>th</sup> among the world’s top 25 thoroughbred jurisdictions for average prize money per race? (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009). If so, it would help demonstrate how those that attend race meetings during the low-season differ from those that attend during the peak, especially as the industry strives to concentrate as much as eighty percent (80%) of its racing at the top ten (10) to fifteen (15) venues throughout the year (Purcell, 2011). Ultimately, “without an understanding of the predispositions and motives... and how these in turn are moulded, manipulated and sometimes even created, knowledge... will always be lamentably deficient” (Dann, 1996, p. 61). As a result, the question of why consumers make decisions is of paramount importance to evaluating why consumers behave as they do.

The study has been divided into five (5) chapters: Literature Review: Methodology; Findings: Discussion; and Conclusions. The Literature Review explores the underlying principles of motivation, behaviour and gambling theory as it provides a foundation for young low-season visitor data. The Methodology explores the underlying relevance of ‘post-positivism’ as it accommodates mixed-method triangulation in social research and subsequent research adequacy. The Findings explores this mixed-method analysis conducted to provide a rounded portrayal of experience from the perspective of industry members and existing young low-season visitors. The Discussion explores the convergent attitudes and behaviours of young low-season visitors as they are evaluated in conjunction to existing high-season visitor behaviour profiles and industry perceptions of those behaviours. The Conclusions and Recommendations reiterate the low-season visitors’ primary interest, attitude, behaviour and identity as they decide to attend thoroughbred horse racetracks throughout the low-season.

### 1.3 The Thoroughbred Horse Racing Research Database

From an industry perspective, the focus is not on increasing the number of horses racing, but attempting to improve, from the outset, the marketing of racing and the service provided to customers throughout the race event (Sargent, 2009). Moreover, the lack of confidence within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry is stifling investment and participation at all levels (Purcell, 2011). From an event perspective, this suggests it is difficult to maintain the supply chain on the basis of a short (high) operating season (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001). Thus, there is a current inability to make the hard decisions pertaining to industry costs, income efficiency and asset management (Purcell, 2011). To that end, three (3) survey data sets shall be addressed to understand where decisions could be made about owner and visitor interests alike.

#### *1.3.1 NZTR National Owner's Survey*

To accommodate the interests of more than 11,500 individuals registered to race a thoroughbred horse in New Zealand, the NZTR began a research initiative aimed at understanding the demographic details and motivational behaviours of horse owners. It was a national-wide survey designed as part of a long-term strategy for the industry to improve and grow thoroughbred racehorse ownership in New Zealand. It is estimated that the survey would be repeated every thirty six (36) months to establish and maintain a knowledge base for racehorse owners. The following racehorse owner survey (J. Griffin, personal communication, October 7, 2009), at a sample size of 1900, was conducted in 2008, and the results could be expressed as follows:

- The largest individual age group is the 51-60 years of age bracket
- 45% of owners are self-employed vs. the [2008] national average of 9%
- 68% with 'full-time' jobs are managers or professionals
- 52% have a household income of over \$100,000
- 73% own two (2) or more horses
- 52% visit thoroughbred horse racetrack every time their horse races
- 'Fun' & 'Excitement' of thoroughbred racing rates very highly among motivation for ownership
- 'The Love of Horses' rates very highly among motivation for ownership
- Most owners get into ownership through friends or family already involved with racing
- Sharing the 'Fun & Excitement' with friends and family rates more positively than the allure of potential prize money – strong social activity
- Auckland and Wellington are preferred racing locations

Essentially, most New Zealand thoroughbred racehorse owners could be classified as wealthy or near-wealthy individuals over the age of 45 with managerial job titles that provide the financial freedom to own more than a single horse and engage in thoroughbred horse racing on a more regular basis with friends and family at major racing locations. To that end, it is reasonable to classify a twenty (20) to thirty (30) year-old thoroughbred horse racetrack visitor as *young*, since they are significantly younger than most racehorse owners, are less likely to own two or more racehorses, are less likely to earn a similar annual household income, and are less likely to be self-employed. Here, the terms ‘young’ or ‘youth’ are relative, since they not only account for the visitor’s age, but their financial, familial and professional status, as well.

### *1.3.2 NZTR Customer Spending Habits Survey*

Often, the industry strives to focus almost its entire annual marketing budget allowance on four strategic racing carnival events during the high-season within the Auckland, Hawke’s Bay, Wellington and Canterbury regions (NZTR, 2005). Thus, it was considered by the NZTR that a survey response from visitors at these racetrack locations was the most suitable research endeavour. More than 12,000 nationwide thoroughbred horse racing visitors were surveyed during the 2008/2009 racing calendar. The racing events that were targeted, indeed the racing events that are usually targeted, included:

- Hawke’s Bay Carnival events in November:
- Auckland Christmas Carnival in December:
- Christmas At The Races in December:
- Wellington Cup Week in January:
- Christchurch New Zealand Cup Week in February and:
- Auckland Cup Week in February / March

These events are not only the major festival race-days that feature throughout the high-season, but the kind of events that attract up to 150,000 visitors on-course nationwide (J. Griffin, personal communication, October 7, 2009). The most important results from this survey determined that as much as 50% of a visitor’s total expenditure is orientated toward food and beverage, while only 16% of total expenditure is orientated toward gambling (Holmes, 2009). To that end, it was concluded that there is more reward long-term for a racing event in the sale of \$45 worth of food and beverage than \$100 spent on the tote gambling.

### *1.3.3 Qualitative Analysis*

To reveal detailed information about youth motivation at the thoroughbred horse racetrack with greater depth, qualitative interview data was utilised to establish a more holistic understanding. This not only served as a basis for corroborating existing survey data about the kind of events young visitors enjoy, but as a standpoint from which to confirm further empirical data against. Section 1.3.4 establishes this standpoint, providing an insight into typical youth behaviour at thoroughbred horse racetracks.

### *1.3.4 In-Depth Interview Content Analysis*

Two thoroughbred horse racing industry members – one involved with national media, and one involved with streamlining national marketing information – were interviewed separately to provide a perspective on attitudes and behaviours among twenty to thirty year-olds that visit thoroughbred horse racetracks throughout the racing high-season. It became apparent during the background research process that the thoroughbred horse racing industry was fragmented. Therefore, the most reliable account of typical young visitor behaviour might not have been found in how much difference there is in experience with each young visitor market among racetrack managers, but in how much congruence there is among key industry members concerning young visitor behaviour at a national level. Ultimately, their insights could be used to represent a kind of decision-making culture within the industry. To that end, a national media member was contacted, via email, while the contact details of a national marketing manager was retrieved from an industry-based racing magazine, and that member was contacted via email. Both informants agreed to a voice-recorded interview at their place of business.

The two informants were asked similar questions, and even as the response to each question varied in detail, both data sets provide a rounded portrayal of specific target markets, producing symmetry. When asked about their overall impression of the youth market, both informants began to suggest that the phenomenon was socially constructed, since most young visitors are influenced by friends in decision-making. More so, the informants argued that as a consequence, there is a shift in experience value among these visitor demographics. Indeed,

*... The young people these days come for a function, an event. That is, an opportunity to come socially and drink a few [alcoholic] drinks and I think, meet up with people and have a fun time, but the horses' side of it is secondary*

*to the actual environment in which they are creating themselves or being presented with (Informant 1).*

*Today, with a great deal more choice, the main attraction would be the social aspect in my view, for young people... it's a good place to gather where you can have an [alcoholic] drink and meet and have fun and if you want to have a bet as well and see the horses... You would go to something that your mates are going to that's perhaps new and different (Informant 2).*

Here, the younger demographic markets combine thoroughbred horse racing with group socialising and social drinking. At the same time, thoroughbred horse gambling may be a secondary function, a parenthesis, perhaps an activity that may or may not be undertaken in due course. To explain this attitude, or more specifically, this lack of gambling interest, the informants discussed the culture of thoroughbred horse racing in New Zealand and how it has changed over the past fifty years. An emphasis was placed on its effect on both the younger generations and the racetrack marketers that attempt to stimulate interest within them. A consensus emerged:

*... Now with the diversity of different sports, things you can watch on TV, internet, everything else, we have lost our way in terms of marketing and selling it to the people, young people in particular. So we have lost a generation or two maybe even three, even from my age... so it's been an historical problem, or it's created historically. Wagering is considered something that people wouldn't necessarily want to do (Informant 1).*

*There's a Presbyterian underlying cultural long term issue that works against racing and we need to find a way of changing that cultural perception in some quarters, so there's a certain something in people that says that betting is not a good thing to do. One of the biggest issues we've got, because racing is attached to wagering very closely, is the perception of integrity, so we confront some real issues as far as marketing the racing product to the new generation is concerned. How do you make that exciting? Why would you go to some of the clubs where the food isn't great and you wouldn't necessarily see your friends there? (Informant 2).*

It would appear, then, that racetrack marketers have struggled to keep the traditional thoroughbred racing culture relevant for young racetrack visitors. Apparently, these visitors do recognise the significance of gambling at racetracks or its place among contemporary entertainment activities, and thus, choose not to participate. To change this perception or attitude surrounding involvement at racetracks among visiting youth, it might be argued that where racetracks could improve is in their ability to attract more young visitors in greater numbers. However, there are still a number of conceptual

implications racetracks have to consider when addressing the dynamics of social development.

*You can't get them to the races the second time until they've been the first, and no matter what brings them here, whether it's the 'Fashion in the Field' activities, or the 'Whips & Spurs' social clubs, you speak to everybody in marketing and they'll tell you, if 'you get the young girls here, you get the guys here, as well', and the two of them, you know, they come together (Informant 1).*

*We don't attract, generally speaking, young people to our racecourses and that's our future. It's got to be about the participants. It's got to be trendy. It's about allowing the market to develop and the people to get interested, and they are going to get interested, not necessarily through the horse racing. Where I think racing is not necessarily doing a good job is that 'middle area', where there's a lack of relevance for young people. The landscape has changed and racing has been slow to keep up (Informant 2).*

Making the racing event relevant for young women and consequently, young men, is no doubt an issue plaguing the industry. If one gender is influenced by the actions of another, a solution may very well be found in how thoroughbred racetracks increase the variety of entertainment activities on offer. However,

*A lot of [thoroughbred horse racing] clubs don't have the finances to employ staff necessarily to perhaps go out and identify how to get the young people on track. We used to... but it's like anything. It's like the game of rugby; you get them here for the big days, which attract the people. But if you go to club rugby now and provincial rugby, the numbers are deteriorating there too. They've reduced dramatically (Informant 1).*

*What we have here in NZ is the problem of fairly elderly facilities. Because of a lack of reinvestment into the industry, the facilities at some of these places do not appeal to the younger people, while the older demographic are probably quite used to it, so the expectation of younger people is much higher. And if you present something in a way that is perhaps comfortable in the minds of the older people, it wouldn't necessarily be comfortable in the minds of the younger people, so you've got to reach that balance (Informant 2).*

Sheerer (2011) had mentioned earlier that only major race events successfully attract these visitors, and here, the informants appear to suggest that young visitor expectations remain limited if racetracks do not attempt to mediate the perceived gap between major events designed for youth and the traditional business culture designed for older participants and investors. However, if it becomes a question of how racetracks successfully update traditional business services, these racetracks might unwittingly spoil some of the important experience dynamics that have kept the industry alive for so many decades. Rather, with too much innovation,

*We dumb it down. It would be nice if we could probably sell it as a person, that 'if you did the homework, did your work on the [horse] form, you had an increased chance of having [gambling] success'. By trying to go outside of the square and change the way people can bet, by focussing on the internet, using phones and trying to make it more technologically advanced in that regards, will also make it difficult trying to deal with the uninitiated, the people that don't already know (Informant 1).*

Still, it is important to make concessions for younger markets, as they will become the future of thoroughbred horse racing and their participation at events is a vital element in stimulating long-term interest.

*I think people find, new to racing, the whole 'which area you are allowed in', 'what can and can't I get into' and the number of different badges you can wear and colours quite confusing. It's got a bit more complicated than that in an attempt to sort of slice everyone up into different groups and I think that that probably could be simplified quite enormously (Informant 2).*

Understanding some of the important values of visitors within the younger demographic appears to be crucial to understanding what drives behaviour and subsequent decision-making processes. However, motivation is not a fixed phenomenon. If attitudes are the result of a response to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way (Allport, 1935), it is important to understand how these responses are shaped or moulded by external processes. Specifically, how attitudes differ according to what the visitor is expected to experience. In the case of young corporate racetrack guests,

*A lot of people do come along as a corporate because it's part of their function, it's their Christmas day out, and from a corporate aspect it's very good because you end up with six hours in which to work with your clients. From that, it's a great marketing tool (Informant 1).*

*If you are a corporate guest, you are going because you are invited, normally. You are going because somebody, either the company you work for, or a client, or whatever, would be going, and I think that's very useful. I think that's a great opportunity for a lot of companies to use racetracks, because you're there all day, sitting at a table. It's a fantastic opportunity to entertain. So I would have thought the motivation is a free lunch for the corporate guest in a great environment and with some horses and other things, too (Informant 2).*

It might be argued, then, that most young visitors only conceptualise the racetrack as a potential experience once they recognise it is an opportunity to network, socialise or enjoy a visitor package. However, such 'packaged' environments are subject to seasonal demand, certainly if summer months provide a more logical foundation for hospitality marquees and corporate dining tables. To that end, younger visitors, those most likely to



experience these packages, appear to search for the ‘big occasions’, which is to say, the most exciting race events with the largest atmosphere. Consequently, racetracks have to shift their focus from utilising a high-season marketing budget of between \$800,000 and \$1.6 million per major event to stimulate on-course revenue to an average low-season marketing budget of between \$30,000 and \$40,000 per event (NZTR, 2010). To survive this shortfall, the industry relies heavily on the kind of revenue that can be stimulated from the New Zealand television, T.A.B and Australian gambling markets, especially if annual off-course gambling revenue totals at over \$300 million, compared to just \$45 million on-course (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009). Therefore, a number of issues surround a potential young low-season visitor’s decision-making process:

*We are providing product to overseas markets where they too are trying to increase turnovers by offering a race somewhere every five minutes. I think quality is the key. I think it has been the key, we’ve lost that. But that’s why you’ve seen the increase in number of races. Quite simply, it is to supply a product for overseas markets in the hopes of getting some income back from that, to drive up stakes and keep racing going (Informant 1).*

On the other hand, New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetrack visitors know what racing events they want to attend and when to attend them. In fact, by 2011, the average number of visitors at thoroughbred racetracks on Saturdays and National Public holidays totalled at around 2,629 per event, compared to an average of just 994 on Sundays (NZTR, 2011). Clearly, most visitors to thoroughbred horse racetracks favour Saturday events. Still,

*There is a difficulty throughout the year; you’ve got days that are designed for crowds, and you’ve got days that are designed for wagering. You would find it very difficult to get a big crowd going to the races, unless it was a special day, on a Wednesday, or indeed on a Thursday. Friday, a little bit more. Saturday’s the big day and Sunday is a sort of picnic day. I think what we would call industry days are the days which are predominantly there for the betting markets. They go up on television, they get beamed across the world, and people bet on them. For racetracks, it’s just about getting the horses there and racing them. It’s not about the big crowds, so it’s not the primary attention of the day (Informant 2).*

If racetracks appropriate different resources to different visitors across the different seasons, the high-season racetrack environment appears to distinguish itself from events throughout the racing low-season, as well as other gambling venues that cater to similar interests, like casinos. More importantly, young racetrack visitors know what to expect from racing events designed specifically for them during the high-season. Indeed, a

typical Saturday high-season horse racing event has everything the young visitor might need:

*The beauty of racing, or the advantage that racing has, is that it starts at 11 o'clock and finishes at 5 o'clock. The aesthetic beauty of the [thoroughbred] racehorse is that it's effectively a man-made creature in the sense that it was designed specifically to run fast. It's got the jockeys. It's got every ingredient you could possibly want to make a successful day. And particularly the dressing up, the social aspect, is a huge advantage. You don't get dressed up to a rugby match. A [high-season] race-day has got an advantage of girls that are dressing up, bands playing after the racing finishes, BBQs, all sorts of things, and they're getting people there for a good long day (Informant 2).*

Still, it is important to recognise that even if a successful high-season race event manages to attract young visitors because of how accurately high-season activities match young visitor interests, the facilities and infrastructure are the ultimate ingredient, so racetracks must “keep their products... on the potential [visitors'] agenda throughout the year” (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998, p. 46). For the highly seasonal thoroughbred horse racing event industry, racetracks face significant aesthetic problems once high-season activities, clubs and products disappear throughout the low-season. Specifically, without the ‘festive atmosphere’ that makes racing events more exclusive, these racetracks remain too old-fashioned. For example,

*The sad thing is that we haven't got the facilities. Race clubs basically haven't got the money to put into repairs and maintenance and to develop areas so that the experience is a worthwhile one when they [visitors] come on track. It's all very well to give the food and beverage, but if you are sitting in surroundings that were created back in 1960, it's not going to give you warm 'fuzzies'. So it goes hand in hand. It simply comes back to a lack of money to develop the facilities to make it an on-going attraction to people (Informant 1).*

It would appear, then, that where a gap exists in the market between enjoying a modern, festive atmosphere and appreciating old-fashioned infrastructure, there is an opportunity for racetracks to exploit alternative visitor market values that fit within that gap. For the industry, this might suggest that visitor knowledge and experience is the key, which may or may not reflect the characteristics of festive-seeking high-season visitors. Thus, it is generally believed that:

*Those who are “experienced” young race goers... have got substantial knowledge and are the ambassadors, the people who will get the first timers on course and try and get to understand what the attraction is. And they are crucial. I think they are the people who understand the excitement. They are the ones who we should really, really harness, because they are the ones who are going to sell it for us. (Informant 2)*

At the same time, the industry recognises that it must maintain these visitors throughout the year, fostering, to some extent, their influence over younger audiences. Ultimately,

*Our biggest problem is that we have a relatively small public. Where things have succeeded better is where they've got the consistent customer base that allows them to do those things, to spend the money. (Informant 2)*

This consistent high-season customer base is likely the result of the major occasion prestige and glamour stimulating social demand. The long-term cultural issue surrounding New Zealand's attitude toward 'beer and racing' suggests that what may attract these young high-season visitors is the opportunity provided by the racetracks to consume food, beverage and on-course activities in an environment catered to the social, entertainment, and glamour dimensions that characterise festival atmosphere. Yet, to survive, the industry has also had to focus on the quantity and accessibility of gambling as an international product for a broad audience and as a consequence, there have been slow pick-up rates for infrastructure investment. These slow rates have inadvertently revealed the existence of a clash between tradition and modernity. Yet, a presence of young visitors at everyday low-season events suggests a minority segment of the visitor market for this age group fits somewhere in between this clash. Thus, for the sustainability of New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing, and motivational behaviour research, it is important to identify and evaluate why young visitor markets choose to attend low-season thoroughbred horse racing events, so that a basis for target marketing and decision-making may be established.

#### *1.3.5 NZRB Visitor Survey*

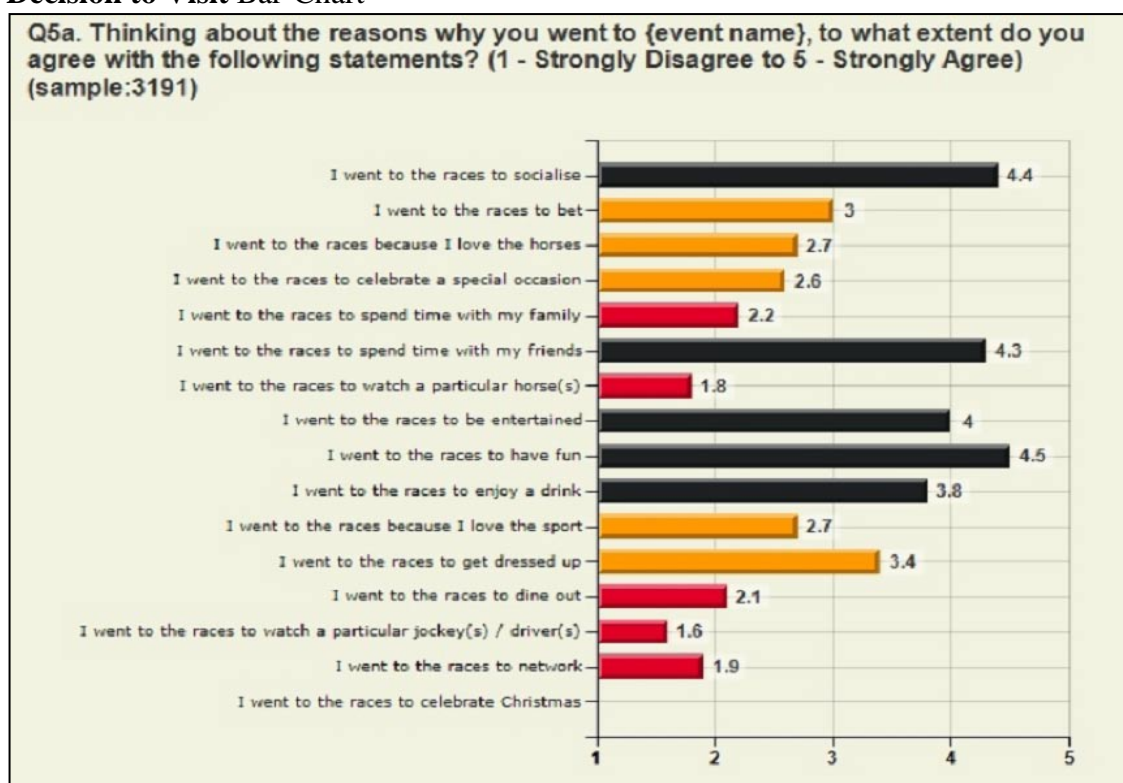
A thorough visitor survey was conducted by the NZRB, the New Zealand Racing Board Visitor Survey, on visitor behaviour during the 2010/2011 thoroughbred horse racing and harness horse racing high-season. More than 3,000 race-day visitors, primarily between the ages of 18 and 35, were recruited as volunteers to participate in this survey online. These survey questions served as a basis for understanding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) for visitors across the two racing codes as part of a national initiative to identify where, why and how marketing and customer service programmes are succeeding or failing in regard to:

- How they gained entry to the racetrack:
- What areas of the racetrack they spent most of their time in:
- Whether they are current TAB account holders:
- How far in advance the decision was made to visit:
- Why they visited:
- Whether they are first-time visitors:
- How often they have visited in the past 12 months:
- Who they attended with:
- Whether or not they can recall advertising messages for the event:
- Where they recalled advertising for the event:
- Whether the advertising message appealed to them and how much:
- Whether or not they searched for information about the event and where:
- Total race-day expenditures:
- The likelihood that they would recommend a thoroughbred horse event:
- What they expected to experience at the racetrack:
- Post-purchase evaluations of the event:
- What they did to prepare for the event and:
- What the future intentions are among most visitors

For the purposes of this particular low-season study, only ten (10) of the above research areas were utilised as a basis for contrasting behaviours between the two seasons. This not only made the comparison more concise, but the analysis more consistent with the research aim and objectives. These results are expressed as follows:

*Figure 1*

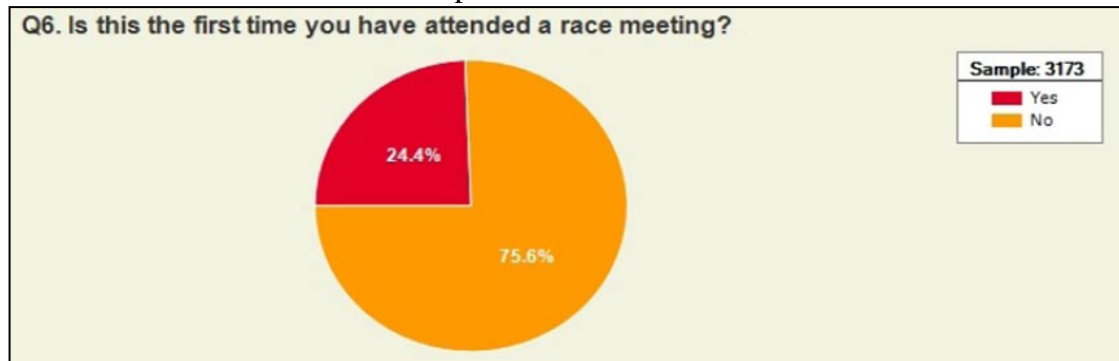
#### **Decision to Visit Bar-Chart**



(N=3191) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 2

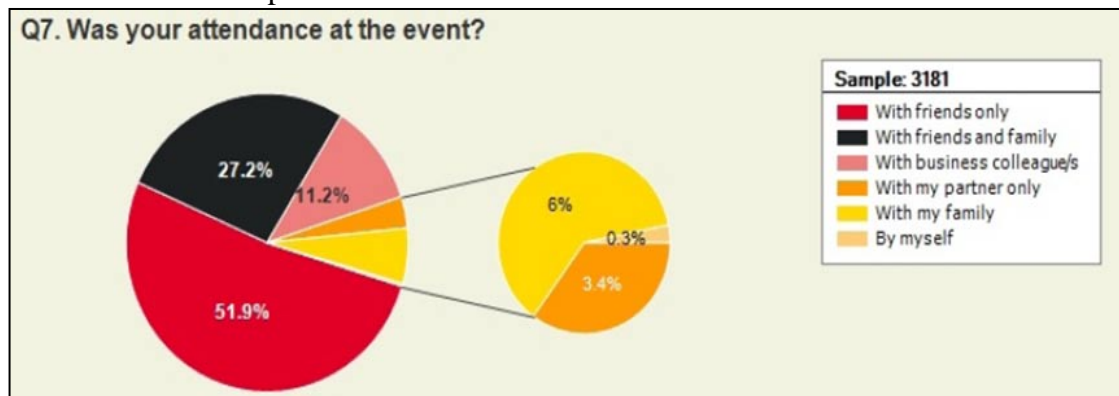
**First-Time Visitor Status Pie Graph**



(N=3173) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 3

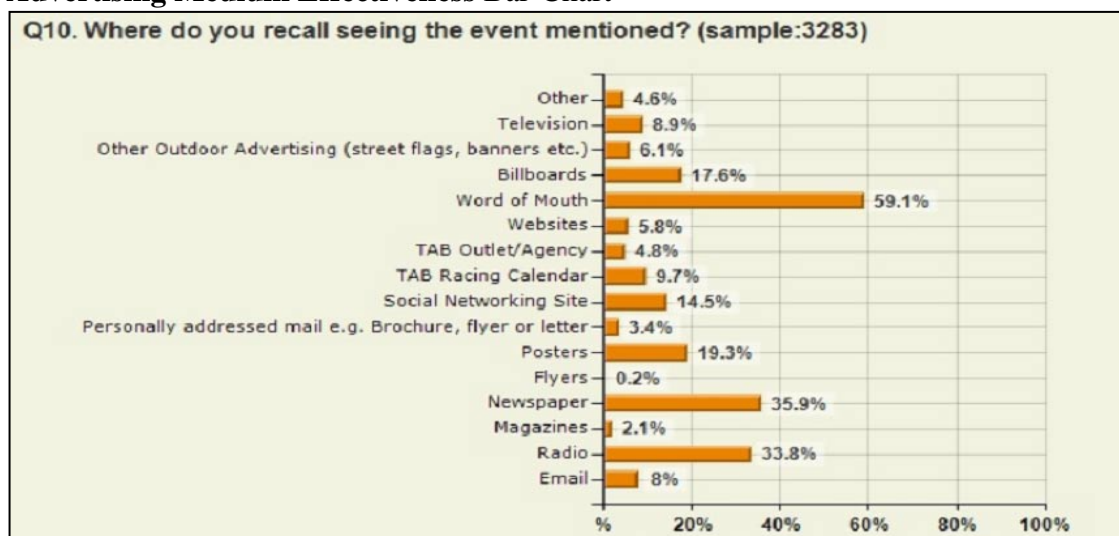
**Attendance Pie Graph**



(N=3181) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

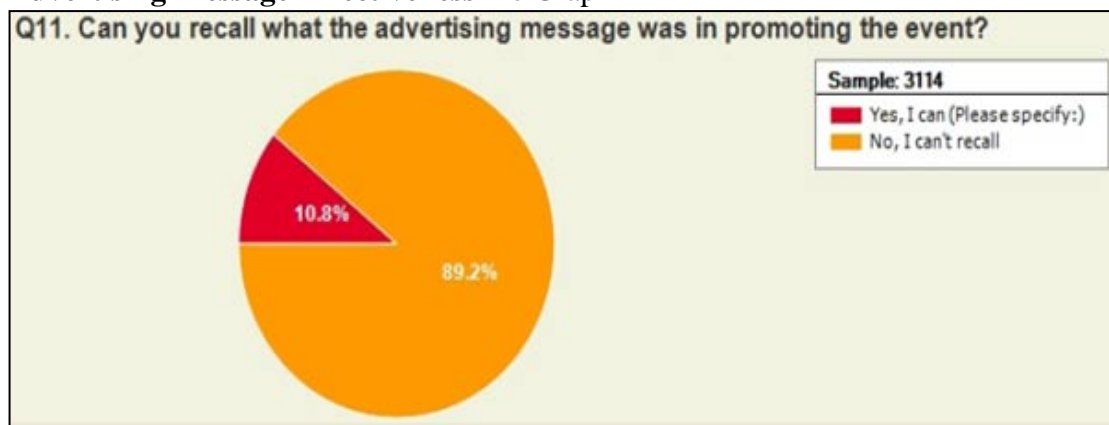
Figure 4

**Advertising Medium Effectiveness Bar-Chart**



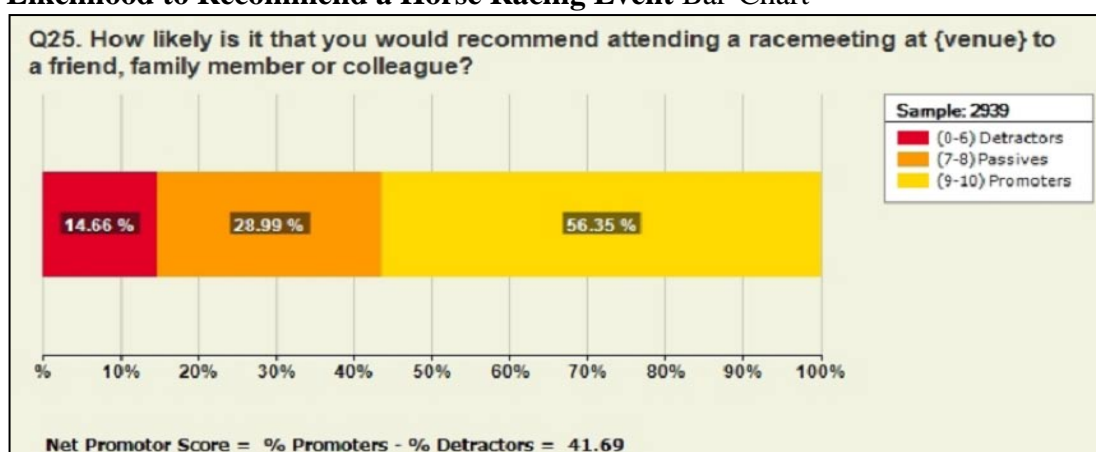
(N=3283) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 5  
Advertising Message Effectiveness Pie Graph



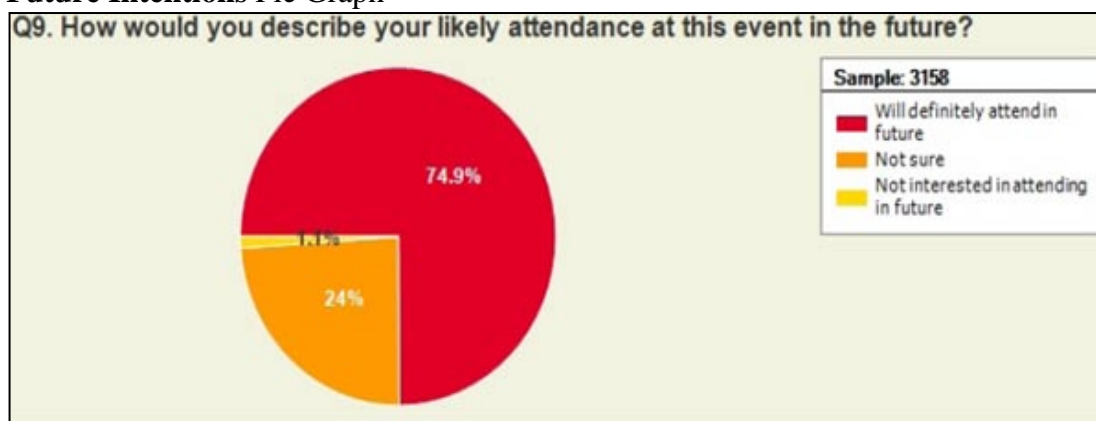
(N=3114) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 6  
Likelihood to Recommend a Horse Racing Event Bar-Chart



(N=2939) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 7  
Future Intentions Pie Graph



(N=3158) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 8

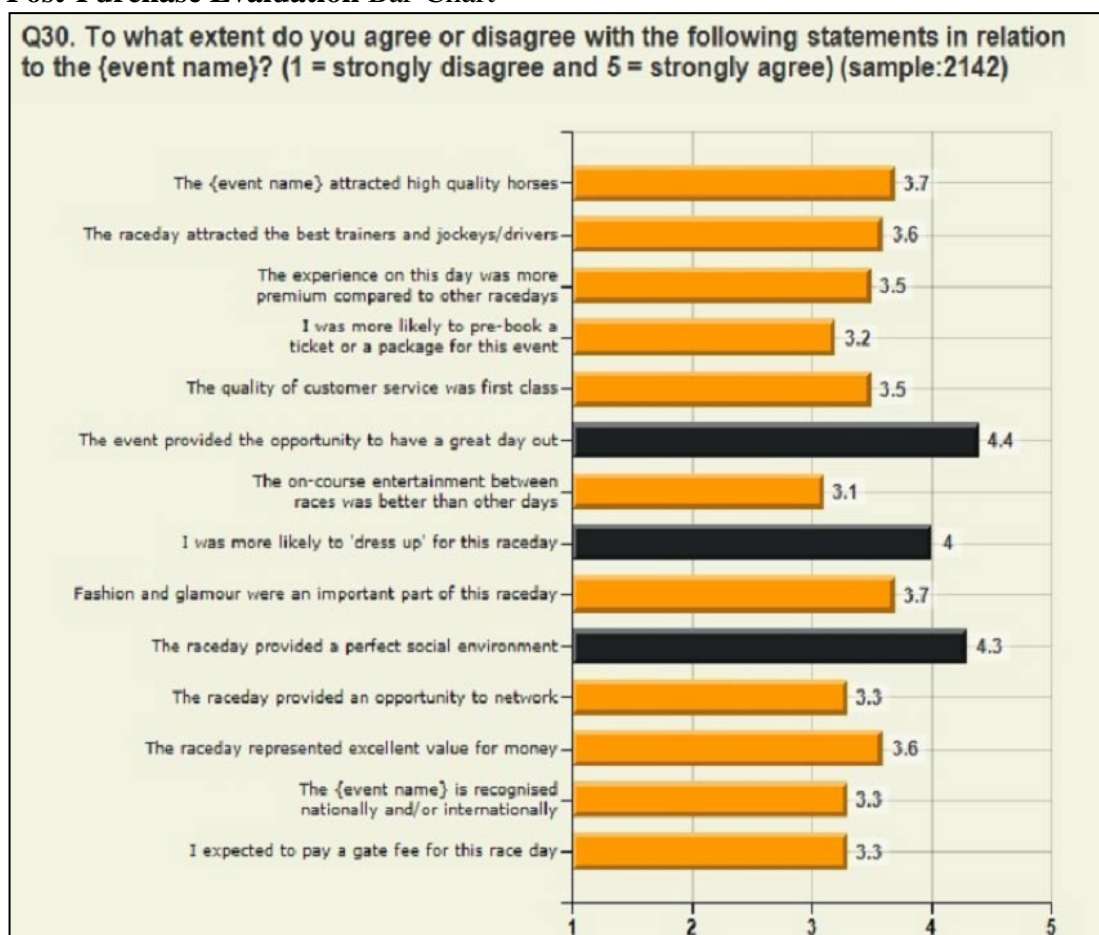
**Pre-Purchase Expectation Bar-Chart**



(N=2044) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

Figure 9

**Post-Purchase Evaluation Bar-Chart**



(N=2142) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)



Figure 10

**Visitor Expenditure Bar-Chart**

Survey Question & Answer	Response	Percent	Graph
<b>SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES: ('Percent' is out of Average Total Expenditure of \$202.16)</b>			
Admission	\$16.55	8.2%	
Raceday Package	\$71.66	35.4%	
Food	\$8.68	4.3%	
Beverages	\$29.65	14.7%	
Racebook	\$2.18	1.1%	
Punters Club	\$0.96	0.5%	
Betting	\$71.72	35.5%	
Entertainment/Rides	\$0.02	0.0%	
Merchandise	\$0.07	0.0%	
Other	\$0.67	0.3%	
<b>Average expenditure per person (excluding outliers)</b>	<b>\$202.16</b>	<b>100%</b>	

(N=2354) (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011)

As indicated, most respondents reported to have visited thoroughbred horse and harness horse racing events to socialise with friends while having fun drinking alcohol and being entertained by live bands before and after races. This social experience was enough to stimulate positive feedback, since most of the sample also reported they would promote the event to friends and family and definitely attend in the future. Moreover, their expectations at these events centre primarily on the kind of mainstream entertainment values that racetrack marketers and managers ascribe to fashion competitions, large outdoor television screens, celebrities, famous musicians and competitive races.

Part of that experience meant distributing the largest portion of race-day expenditure toward exclusive race-day packages. Yet, even as gambling was not reported as a significant motivation to visit, most of the survey sample did distribute an equally large portion of their race-day expenditure toward gambling. Nevertheless, the horses were not reported as a major attraction. Since most of the sample also reported they were returning visitors, most also reported they were influenced by word-of-mouth advertising, even though investment had been made by the industry to market the events on television, via newspapers, posters and radio. To that end, advertising messages and symbols were forgotten or ignored by most of the sample before they arrived at the racetrack. Still, if one of the primary goals of the NZTR is to raise awareness of racing



in New Zealand by ensuring that every home has its own traditional race-day to attend (Sargent, 2009), then marketing and exposure could also continue to stimulate an interest in racing throughout the thoroughbred horse racing low-season.

#### *1.3.6 NZRB Visitor Survey / Low-Season Survey Relationship*

To investigate this issue in greater detail, the researcher had been granted permission by the NZRB to utilise recent data on visitor profiles and satisfaction for this study. As a result, the researcher compared the 2011 NZRB Visitor Survey high-season data to the young low-season visitor data. Thus, this study parallels an existing study by the New Zealand Racing Board (NZRB) on identifying visitor behaviours throughout the thoroughbred horse racing high-season. While the NZRB Survey sought to ask questions about the motivations, preferences, expectations, and spending habits of thoroughbred horse racetrack visitor markets throughout selected high-season race meetings, the Low-Season Survey seeks to ask questions about the motivations, preferences, expectations and spending habits of the thoroughbred horse racetrack visitor market specifically between the ages of twenty (20) and thirty (30) throughout selected low-season thoroughbred horse race events.

#### 1.4 Research Problem

Currently, there is no research undertaken within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry to identify the behaviours, perceptions and preferences of racetrack visitors who exist outside the known and well-established high-season profile. Furthermore, it has been assumed by researchers and media within the industry that young visitor behaviour exists within a high-season vacuum, and that the kind of youth culture established during the high-season is not likely to exist or evolve, at any rate, during the low-season. This is the result of an overwhelming concentration of marketing, investment and tailored social activity design throughout the high-season for this group. Yet, the current social behaviour of young visitors at the racetrack is unsustainable long-term. Specifically, industry marketing appears to centre around the kind of young visitor social interests that have stifled customer growth, rather than the ambitious attempt to focus on how this market might become more involved with each race and subsequently the spirit of horse racing. Therefore, this thesis shall address the gap that exists between a current understanding of young visitor behaviour and the industry's desire to identify and appeal to alternative behaviours within that same demographic, so that it might begin to identify where it could adjust its marketing position on young visitors for the sustainability of an old-fashioned industry long-term.

### 1.5 Research Aim

If venue quality improvements are required to provide the betting product, then a racetrack-focused investigation must indeed evaluate whether visitors consume this product, how visitors consume this product and why visitors consume this product. To that end, this study aims to identify if young thoroughbred horse racing low-season visitors are gambling at the racetrack, how their activity and expenditure choices reflect conventional patterns of behaviour among young visitors at these racetracks, and what specific motivations to visit emerge among most young low-season visitors.

## 1.6 Research Objectives

The thesis addresses the topic in five key areas through:

1. Analysing the motivational characteristics of selected visitors to each of the six (6) major thoroughbred horse racetracks in New Zealand during the low-season by questioning a) *why such visitors choose to attend such events*, and b) *whether a specific pattern of motives emerge among young low-season visitors at thoroughbred horse racetracks*:
2. Critiquing the visitor segment's interest at the event by questioning a) *the ways in which activity preference-sets among young low-season visitors affect their motivation to visit thoroughbred horse racetracks* and by determining b) *what influence social networks have over gambling activities at the thoroughbred horse racetrack*:
3. Evaluating the issues, challenges and opportunities relevant to the visitors' higher and lower-order needs (Pearce, 1996) by questioning a) *how the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry perception of young high-season visitor image differs from what is currently presented throughout the low-season at thoroughbred horse racetracks* and b) *whether the distance travelled to the thoroughbred horse racing event affects access to information about events and subsequent motivation to attend*:
4. Assessing the concept of 'prior knowledge' in event decision-making by determining a) *what effect promotion has over the motivation to visit thoroughbred horse racetracks* and b) *how the popular high-season culture of thoroughbred horse racing may be changing* and:
5. Assessing the concept of 'gambling knowledge' and its effect on visitors by questioning a) *how closely visitors exhibit typical thoroughbred horse gambling behaviours at the thoroughbred horse racetrack*, b) *how closely their gambling skill aligns with existing theory* and c) *how important gambling is compared to other activities at the thoroughbred horse racetrack*.

## **2.0 Literature Review**

### **2.1 Rationale**

This is a study that seeks to identify current high-season visitor behaviour, current perceptions of that behaviour and how that behaviour reflects the image of the thoroughbred horse racing industry in New Zealand. Specifically, the study investigates the current motives, expectations, gambling preferences, and expenditure habits among young high-season visitors, and subsequently, the current motives, expectations, gambling preferences, and expenditure habits among young low-season visitors. Because of this, theory is addressed from eight different perspectives.

Firstly, the literature review evaluates theory related to event images and how they affect young visitor perceptions, since the industry has been sliding downwards for the past twenty years with an infrastructure designed to support the dynamics of an earlier era leading to issues with reduced infrastructure funding contributions and a lack of professionalism. Here, image theory shall provide a basis for identifying how successfully the high-season is transmitting ideas and messages to the general public, and subsequently, the effects of that success.

Secondly, the literature review identifies popular culture theory, since the popularity of gambling in New Zealand may be changing amid the growth of the lottery and the reduction of gaming grants. Here, popular culture theory provides a basis for identifying how media can be transformed and how young low-season visitors may in fact be transforming, or at least, transferring experience meaning.

Thirdly, the literature review evaluates visitor behaviour, certainly if what the industry describes as ‘Party Central’ attitudes during the high-season threatens the sustainability of thoroughbred horse racing events. Here, behaviour theory shall provide a specific set of universal and New Zealand-based archetypes that young low-season visitors could fit into.

At this point, the literature review shall explore visitor motivation, since young visitors are reported to prefer thoroughbred horse racing experiences designed with social activities that permeate within Christmas, Carnival and Cup events. Here, motivation

theory shall provide a set of universal models that young low-season visitors could fit into.

The literature review shall then explore relevant theory on seasonality, since the thoroughbred horse racing industry has already over-invested in trying to attract as many as 150,000 visitors on-course throughout the high-season by spending between \$800,000 and \$1.6 million on high-season event marketing at the most popular racetracks. Here, seasonality theory shall underline how common these implications are, and subsequently, how significant visitor behaviour can change.

Gambling behaviour theory is then identified, since most thoroughbred horse gamblers are expected to prefer 12 to 14 horses in a race, while wagering as much as \$300 million overseas through both television and T.A.B. sources. Here, gambling behaviour theory provides a universal thoroughbred horse racing and New Zealand-specific basis for identifying where and how young low-season visitors fit within common gambler archetypes.

Theory related to why potential visitors choose gambling events as use of leisure time is then utilised to explore why young visitors choose to visit thoroughbred events during the low-season, even as the industry struggles to attract racetrack crowd sizes of more than 2,500 visitors throughout the year. Here, gambling event choice theory provides a basis for identifying how the decision to visit was influenced and whether that decision was internally or externally constructed.

Finally, gambling skill-related theory is adopted to explore whether young low-season visitors possess specific gambling knowledge and how such knowledge affects their motivation to visit, since gambling activity takes place at over 600 gambling agencies nationwide, suggesting a pattern of habitual activity exists. Here, gambling skill theory provides a basis for which young low-season visitors fit within universal gambling models that seek to determine how casual or formal that skill may be.

## 2.2 The Event

### *2.2.1 Image*

Different event zones create marketing potential. Here, commodities can be designed and marketed as solutions to particular customer needs (Fodness, 1994). Moreover, these themed environments encompass a range of settings, from spaces in everyday life to purpose-built visitor attractions (Shaw & Williams, 2004). In fact, modern marketing is an ongoing mutual exchange of meaning (Fowles, 1996) with existing and potential customers, and it is this meaning which often characterises motivation among marketers when they pursue research. It suggests the long-term role of image promotion has become more and more significant, certainly where consumer demand has shifted (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Thus, marketed image projected by the event is incorporated as an important determinant in decision-making (Ryan, 1997). However, advertisements provide an edited and selective view of society (Williamson, 1978; Marchand, 1985). To that end, the visitor search for experience is part of a set of motives, strongly conditioned by the way events are marketed (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Understanding the degree of congruence between existing representations influenced by advertising and those created outside the mainstream (O'Barr, 1994) may be also question of how various experiences are themselves expressions of different motives reflecting different needs (Shaw & Williams, 2004). Visitors also assign different events specific functions. However, if event visitors are more likely to have limited motives, they are just as likely to change their motivation to visit an event from a point-of-entry stage to a consumption stage over time (Pearce, 1993). It also suggests that many events, including thoroughbred horse racing, may now have lost their way, or at least, their distinctiveness in what has become a crowded 'place market' (Sharpley & Roberts, 2005) during the major operating season. At the same time, urban areas are complex and multifunctional places (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

The role of the event, therefore, may not always be easy to determine if service factors are specifically produced to address consumption for one season and not another. This not only plays a significant role in determining hedonic consumption patterns, but highlights the importance of multi-sensory images and arousal in the use of consumer products at events (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Thus, visitors no longer consume

products alone, but projected images and signs, as well (Schofield, 1996). Altogether seduced by pseudo-events, visitors find pleasure in contrived attractions, disregarding the 'real' world outside (Boorstin, 1990). This self-sustaining system of illusion, generated by industry media (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), suggests that what visitors ascribe to 'discovery' may never be more than "a small monotonous world that everywhere shows us our own image" (Turner & Ash, 1975, p. 292). It suggests that not only is reality irrelevant, but that everything is a copy of something else (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). If "knowledge is produced by individuals... those individuals cannot be divorced or separated from their human or social circumstances" (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998, p. 15). At the same time, there are many creators and audiences for the image, each influencing the kind of images portrayed and the image process itself. Here, social identities are constructed through the exchange of sign values (Urry, 1990), varying in intensity across group.

As image creators are themselves products of particular societies, the images and representations they create not only construct, but reinforce ideas, values and meaning at the expense of alternative worldviews (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Thus, it may not be the regional or local organisers, but the powerful and enfranchised marketers at the top level who shape the ideological arena (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). By examining how visitor images of particular places and peoples contribute to how such places are perceived and portrayed (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), it must surely suggest that not all cultural processes are clearly understood unless observed within the context of human activity as a whole (Williams, 1985). However, human activity is subjective and as a social construct, may only suggest that an event is just an 'atmosphere', produced subjectively (Dubinsky, 1994). "The image process socialise[s] visitors and residents alike to a political impression of themselves *vis-à-vis* what they are seeing or remembering", which implies "gradations of power and influence, of value and dispensability" (Richter, 1995, p. 81) may never be completely understood. In other words, it is difficult to envisage the nature of modern events without observing how such activities are constructed in our imagination through the media and subsequent advertising (Urry, 1990). This study shall address this issue by determining whether young low-season visitors are exposed to forms of marketing, whether they believe this marketing influenced their decision to visit and how existing high-season events continue to influence their interest in racing culture. If the visitor environment in fact



reflects the eclectic borrowing and mixing of images, events are simply spaces whose meaning can be constantly redefined by its inhabitants (Wearing & Wearing, 1996) and whose image, via advertising, might otherwise be a closed, self-perpetuating system of illusion (Boorstin, 1964). On the other hand, the concept of event image can be much more complex. Image formation is, at least aesthetically, 'tri-dimensional', for it is generated from the attractive, unique and texture cues that convey underlying dimensional structures (McKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). At the same time, identities are universal, irreducible elements of collective life (Wernick, 1991). Those who have always created this image or manipulated it affect changes to status-quo. However, traditional industries often try to attract traditional target markets, and so, why, in a traditional environment, would a different market decide to attend an event if the marketing, resource and social dynamics did not apply to them? Could it be that event marketers endeavour to attract a different kind of visitor market, where motivation and event resources match? Certainly, attractions usually include "landscapes to observe, activities to participate in, and experiences to remember" (Lew, 1987, p. 554), but visitors also hold a variety of perspectives.

Here, three important visitor perspectives emerge; that is, ideographic, organisational and cognitive. Ideographic perspectives value attributes of place, which include natural beauty, culture, customs and characteristics. Organisational perspectives value geography of place, which centre largely upon the spatial, capacity and temporal nature of attractions to develop typologies, while cognitive perspectives value experience of place, which range from equilibrium to complete disequilibrium (Lew, 1987). Marketers often adopt connotations and metaphors to describe visitor motivational behaviours. Words like, 'attract', 'draw', 'magnetise', 'gravitational' and 'pull' often suggest an attracting force is exerted from within some object (Leiper, 1990). Nonetheless, "nowhere is a semiotic perspective considered more appropriate than in the analysis of advertising with its culture coded covert connotations, in the study of... imagery and in the treatment of... communication as discourse of myth" (Dann, 1996, p. 6). Therefore, knowledge not only assumes the authority of truth, but has the power to make itself at least truthful, which impacts on people's behaviour and subsequent action (Hall, 1997).

The final design of these attributes, however, must satisfy essential needs to become successful. Through combining senses such as smell, taste, sight, sound and touch, events satiate the needs of guests, creating, because of an olfactory system, instant

emotional and creative reaction within visitors (Goldblatt, 1997). More importantly, events that include at least five senses not only stimulate visitor satisfaction, but improve the strength of one component against another, as well. In addition, indicative signage, logos, brands and directories are used to enhance the visitor's accessibility to important products and services. However, events are often swayed by the interests of stakeholders who guide important operational decisions, who do not consider the aims of the event and who do not always allocate adequate budgets for resources. In such cases, events might inadvertently generate particular lifestyle illusions which may subsequently structure visitor choices or interests (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998).

This study shall therefore identify whether marketing or information about the event has any effect on young low-season visitors, since modern marketing is usually an on-going mutual exchange of meaning. The study shall then identify whether a shift in consumer demand is affecting the primary decision to visit, activity preference and activity prevalence, since visitors often assign different events specific functions, while the long-term role of promotion has become more and more significant. In addition, the study shall identify what a lack of projected imaging means for visitor motivation and subsequent future intentions, since multi-sensory images and arousal are important in the use of consumer products at events. Then, the study shall identify how the primary decision to visit, the activity preference and activity preference may be creating a new social image for the industry, since discovery in the use of consumer products is usually generated by industry media, which often replicates or adjusts existing images and activities. At this point, the study shall identify how, if image creators construct and reinforce ideas, values and meaning at the expense of alternative worldviews, are visitors creating their own idea, value or meaning toward established activities. Finally, the study shall identify where visitors fit within ideographic, organisational and cognitive personality archetypes.

### *2.2.2 Popularity of Events*

Technologies and the flow of information across multimedia channels are a direct link from contemporary societies to entertainment facilities. As a consequence, younger audiences are influenced by media perceptions of leisure. The glamorous prestige attached to place can be a function of prior media information. In addition, this prestige can exist in the visitor's ability to manage resources that enable them to travel (Ross, 1998). Yet, marketers of entertainment stimulate a kind of "migratory behavior of

media audiences who will go almost anywhere in search of the kinds of entertainment experiences they want” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 2). Moreover, society is undergoing an ‘image revolution’ on an unprecedented scale, as old cinematic, photographic and print images are replaced by new, technology-based formations. Contemporary visitors are also expected to demand technology-driven and product-orientated experiences. Yet, traditional industry defines quality as conformance to requirements of business specifications (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Specifically, the service nature of heterogeneity, the inseparability of production from consumption and the intangibility of experience (Frochet, 1996) may not always exist within traditional business practice in the service industry.

At this point, two important service gap concepts emerge; differences between management perceptions of consumer expectations and service quality specifications and differences between consumer expectations and perceptions of the quality of the service received (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Moreover, the standards, attitudes and prejudices visitors hold are subjective positions on issues important to them (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Is that to say individuals actually want to articulate what they are consuming as they travel to gamble? After all, popular culture dominates convergence culture because on the one hand, the stakes are usually so low, while on the other, playing with ‘pop’ culture is more entertaining than playing with something serious (Jenkins, 2006). At the same time, advertisers respond to consumer preferences by providing desired depictions drawn from pop culture (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998) and by “merging acts of consumption into notions of play” (Shaw & Williams, 2004, p. 126). Therefore, could it be argued that gambling for money is misinterpreted as harmless? Moreover, “an intervening factor here may be the link between accessibility and the relatively higher participation levels of economically disadvantaged populations” (Doran & Young, 2009, p. 142).

Perhaps the middle classes have become such broad, diverse and powerful economic groups (Shaw & Williams, 2004) that certain contrived events are now perceived genuine (Cohen, 1988). It suggests, however, that such perspectives are as valid as ‘expert’ assumption (Cohen, 1988). That is to say, middle class visitors are in touch with the real world and their real selves (Handler & Saxton, 1988). Still, “people make statements or judgements about identity and taste based on the popular culture references of those they... meet” (Williams, 2007, p. 26) and in this case, visiting an

entertainment venue might actually reflect a desire to observe the common culture of people they may never otherwise encounter. To that end, an event may be viewed as quality once a visitor gains status from purchasing a particular experience (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999) to achieve a particular social or cultural goal (Watson & Kopachevsky, 1994). Because of this, visitors are captives to a wide variety of media agents (Cheong & Miller, 2000). Ultimately, it is important to understand how information constraints affect consumption autonomy.

This study shall therefore identify if advertising is affecting the way young low-season visitors organise their activities according to how current high-season activity defines glamour and prestige, since younger audiences are influenced by media perceptions of leisure. The study shall also identify what a lack of advertising means for the difference that may exist between the racetrack's perception of consumer expectation and service quality specifications, since the service nature of heterogeneity may not always exist with traditional service industry business practice. In addition, the study shall identify whether there is a link between advertising and increased gambling at the racetrack, since advertisers often merge acts of consumption into notions of play. At this point, the study shall identify whether there is a link between living within close proximity to the event's location, lower-income threshold and increased gambling activity, since there may be a link between accessibility and the relatively higher participation levels of economically disadvantaged populations.

## 2.3 The Visitor

### *2.3.1 Behaviour*

Visitors are likely to exhibit different behaviour sets when they travel. Their activities are not always the same as those of typical host populations and they are likely to return home satisfied if they achieve their goals (Burkart & Medlik, 1981). In this case, conscious, immediate experiences and services are the important, indeed primary outcomes of visitor behaviour (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). However, leisure is most profitably understood subjectively, as participants differ in how they conceptualise experience. At the same time, shorter vacations or excursions demonstrate that understanding why populations ‘escape’ is more important to motivation than ‘seeking’ dimensions. In other words, the ‘moment of truth’ in visitor psychology is more likely to be triggered by the need to escape the kind of over-or-under-stimulating everyday environments marketers constantly refer to (Ross, 1998). It is important to consider the link between behaviour and attitudes toward specific needs. If a particular need is only satisfied once a particular product has been consumed, it suggests that a product serves as a key element in decision-making or choice.

At public events in New Zealand, alcohol products are a major consumption factor. For the younger 17 to 24 year-old students, for example, there is a strong pattern of drinking, which demonstrates a potentially hazardous drinking prevalence where alcohol is made available (Kypri, Paschall, Maclennan & Langley, 2007). At the same time, higher rates of alcohol use are present among pathological gamblers compared to the general public (Cunningham-Williams, Cottler, Compton & Sptznagel, 1998), while descriptions of the drinking culture in New Zealand emphasise its binge-orientated and masculinised character (Stewart, 1997). Therefore, alcohol consumption in New Zealand has become a popular research field. This fundamental attitude toward social issues within the physical environment may be mediated by the frequently changing attitudes that surround visitors (Ross, 1998). These everyday environments, however, not only guide visitor behaviour, but visitor experience, as well. More specifically, alcoholic products have already become an issue steeped in event culture “Intoxication from alcohol consumption is an ancient human phenomenon arising within complex dynamics of supply and demand, around which societies have developed multiple encouragements and restraints” (McCreanor, Barnes, Kaiwai, Borell & Gregory, 2008, p. 938). If youth-orientated economies foster individual self-expression, visitor

behaviours among younger target markets transform events into playgrounds of pleasure central to the creation of autonomous play (Lehtonen & Mäenpää, 1997) and hedonism (Campbell, 1987). This is no surprise, for surveys (Casswell & Bhatta, 2001) show alcohol consumption growth among youth groups. In this way, the visitor may hold covert and scrupulous intentions to participate.

Perhaps, in terms of the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing high-season, an emphasis has shifted from production to consumption. If planned events are spatial-temporal phenomena (Getz, 2007) each event can be unique because of the interactions that occur between the people and programme management systems that foster development. In addition, public events construct identities that are of increasing importance for brand and location competitiveness (Getz, 2007). However, these interrelationships do not always consider the enormous diversity of both the context and the forms of behaviour that emerge as a result (Swarbrooke, 2000), and with over three hundred and fifty (350) weekday and weekend thoroughbred horse racing events to choose from each year, the issue with low-season events may be centred around relevance or how much more exciting or appealing high-season events are for young visitors. To that end, truly accurate motivation may never be conceptualised unless evaluated as part of a wider context. Still, visitors learn to possess an expectation or ability to evaluate events through intermediaries, both commercial and informal (Ryan, 1997).

To embrace an attitude is to withdraw completely into the virtual self, where visitors knowingly or unknowingly make information available concerning event attributes (Goffman, 1961). It might also suggest that this virtual self only emerges from within social 'silos'. In addition "there are extremely limited opportunities for interactions and meetings of cultures are brief and highly structured, and, importantly, informed by stereotypical representations" (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998, p. 13). If this is true, the environment becomes a purpose-built factory where visitors rarely participate in the lives of host community members (MacCannell, 1976). It perhaps demonstrates that with event management, there is an end in sight, certainly if marketers illustrate certain aspects of society, reflecting and reinforcing "preferred interpretations from the collective cultural knowledge and information" (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998, p. 25). Perhaps, supplemental or positive 'trade-offs' stimulate desirable psychological states, like autonomy or self-fulfilment, otherwise absent or in short-supply (Kabanoff &

O'Brien, 1986), reflecting personality. However, that is not to say visitors typically conform to such inferences about personality. Rather, personality refers to enduring or evolving characteristics (Ross, 1998). Therefore, special properties or combinations of properties distinguish individuals from one another (Schultz, 1981), which often explains attitudes and subsequent patterns of demand. More importantly, personality energy-levels often divide visitors both in size and form. Where high-energy travellers prefer high levels of activity, low-energy or passive travellers prefer fewer activities (Plog, 1979). These differences, however, do not explain which psychographic motivations align with either level. On the one hand, 'impulsivity' may demonstrate high-energy level travel, as it suggests decisions are made in the moment, for the moment (Plog, 1987). 'Self-confidence', 'planfulness', 'intellectualism' and 'people-orientation' (Plog, 1987), on the other hand, demonstrate carefully considered goals, suggesting decisions about activities emerge gradually, at the low-energy level of travel. In the same way, the divergent strength of various needs illuminates the importance of identifying goal-states (Murray, 1938). Thus, visitor needs could be classified as either 'qualitative', implying an emphasis on directing needs toward an object, or 'quantitative', implying an emphasis on the energetic intensity of needs toward an object (Murray, 1938). At the same time, most needs are activated by and learned from cues within the external environment (Murray, 1938). Ultimately, where advertising and promotion is designed to skew activation and energy messages toward appropriate groups of travellers (Nickerson & Ellis, 1991), image and attitude dimensions toward place improve.

It might be argued, then, that push factors are more important than pull factors. Thus, this study shall understand how the location proximity, income, primary decision to visit, activity preference and social attendance dimensions of young low-season visitors provides a link between behaviour and specific needs. Moreover, the study shall identify whether a pattern of drinking is strong, since most 17-24 year olds in particular demonstrate potentially hazardous drinking behaviour. To that end, the study shall determine whether most young low-season visitors prefer the eating-drinking dimensions of the event to others. From here, the study shall identify whether there is a link between an eating-drinking preference, the primary decision to visit and socialising, since young visitor behaviours have been known to transform events into 'playgrounds' for autonomous play. In addition, the study shall understand how typical low-season

eating-drinking behaviour compares and contrasts to typical high-season eating-drinking behaviour. In even more detail, the study shall determine how strong the link is between the primary decision to visit and social behaviour preference, since visitors to events around the world have been known to rarely participate in the lives of host community members, creating limited opportunities for interactions between sub-groups and local cultures. Finally, the study shall determine where most young low-season visitors fit within self-confidence, planfulness, intellectualism, and people-orientation archetypes, since special properties or combinations of properties distinguish individuals from one another, which can help explain attitudes, patterns of demand and how personalities may be enduring or evolving. This would not only identify which participation 'energy-level' most young low-season visitors possess, but how this level compares and contrasts to the major high-season personality.

### *2.3.2 Motivation*

Visitor behaviour, event awareness, affective association, event preference, and situational factors are among the most influential stimulators of experience (Ryan, 1997). If individuals are aware of what they want and what they need because of short-term goals and experiences, visitor satisfaction may be easier to conceptualise, for it could simply be the result of an initial comparison between pre-purchase expectation and post-purchase evaluation (Wang, Zhang, Gu & Zhen, 2009). There are also a number of key indicators that effectively distinguish between different groups or classes of people. For example, 'social-status' groups rate entertainment and gambling highly among event attributes (Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang & O'Leary, 1996), which is also to say, these groups seek prestige, derived from the push factors of both ego-enhancement and anomie (Dann, 1981). At the same time, these social status groups demonstrate greater motivations to interact, as indeed, behaviour is often context-based (Stokowski, 1990). This kind of visitor motivation could be understood as a subset of a wider sociological pursuit. "What the traveller says are [their] motivations for travelling may only be reflections of deeper needs, needs which [they] do not understand nor wish to articulate" (Lundberg, 1972, p. 107). Yet, it is important to note that the desire to experience novelty and difference is a prime motivator of the consumption phenomenon among visitors (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Indeed, the desire for novelty, strangeness and variety could be expected to decrease as services become more institutionalised (Cohen, 1972). So how could these modern visitors be expected to "leap over the walls



of their own cultural, intellectual and spiritual ghettos” (Calvo, 1971, p. 9) if they have come to rely on a traditional, institutionalised product? For the researcher, the answer may actually be found in how the visitor typology can be approached. Indeed, the most interesting question of all visitor behaviour is not why, but often a combination of who, when, where and how visitors begin to manipulate the social and economic characteristics of travel (Crompton, 1979).

Quite possibly, it may be that answers to these questions about visitor behaviour reveal a kind of stability or continuity over the visitor’s life-course, which could be related to the background, the demographic, the life-stage and the income characteristics of that given group of people (Madrigal, Havitz & Howard 1992; McGehee, Loker-Murphy & Uysal, 1996). At the same time, ‘modern idealists’ seek intellectual excitement and entertainment without packaged itinerary attached to it (Dalen, 1989). Thus, this study shall also determine how young thoroughbred horse racing low-season visitors fit within this consumer archetype, certainly if modern idealists are known to demonstrate a kind of maturity that evolves as they experience many different shades of phenomena (Sharpley, 1994). Consequently, more experiences are understood and much of the phenomenon is appreciated (Feifer, 1985; Sharpley, 1994). The visitor environment becomes, for this segment, an end to the traditionally structured and ordered state of society (Voase, 1995).

Here, the belief in progress based on rationality is supplanted by an emphasis on even more choice, reflecting a plurality of perspective and idealism (Voase, 1995). Indeed, not every visitor displays the same desire to experience difference, especially as visitors display different tolerances to different environments (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), but as visitors gradually become less dominated by economics and more empowered by autonomy, which is to say, as visitors begin to achieve a life with more disposable income to spend at their leisure, events help to simultaneously reinforce and reflect cultural, social and economic divisions nonetheless rooted outside the experience itself (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). That is to say, visitors constantly strive to achieve a state of stability, a kind of homeostasis, which is disrupted when they become aware of a need deficiency (Goossens, 1998, p. 302). To that end, a needs-based taxonomy for novelty, stimulation, relaxation, self-expression and sense of belonging emerges (Shaw & Williams, 2004). In the same way, reductionist, structuralist and functionalist perspectives emerge to accommodate these various categories:

- a) *Reductionist* approaches view visitor motivation as tension between the search for novel experience and familiarity (Cohen, 1972):
- b) *Structuralist* approaches identify a series of underlying structures relating to both ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors (Shaw & Williams, 2004):
- c) *Functionalist* approaches emphasise the significance of attitudes in serving important psychological needs that create tension of a psychological or physical nature (Fodness, 1994).

These perspectives not only determine which research approach to consider for understanding visitor motivation, but how many different approaches there are to consider. The ‘structuralist’ approach, for example, may help determine if racetrack visitors are pulled by the emotional benefits of activities at events. Yet, the ‘reductionist’ approach may help determine whether young low-season racetrack visitors view these events as expressive experiences, which help people step out of real life into temporary activity (Lett, 1983). Still, “the attempt to allocate a development pattern of holiday-making based on a maturing personality transformation is thus difficult to sustain” (Ryan, 1997, p. 41), as the visitor’s desire to engage in a pattern of behaviour they might readily embrace could just as easily be considered a superficial, trivial or frivolous pursuit of vicarious, contrived experience (Boorstin, 1964). At the same time, hedonistic responses occur in both the information-gathering and consumption phases of pleasure experience (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2002). As experience processes evolve, much of the visitors’ decision-making is based on contextual ‘facts’ (Smallman & Moore, 2009). Yet, if there is a dominant preference for intangible reward during experience, decision-making on this basis can also be problematic, because consumers do not always distinguish between what is tangible and intangible about products and services. Thus, for these visitors, there may not be openness about exploratory, playful and curious behaviour that contrasts with strongly goal-directed intentions (Smallman & Moore, 2009).

Perhaps, understanding visitor behaviour becomes a question of certainty, seen especially in indulgent visitors throughout a cycle of pre-disposed or structured phases, as if to achieve inward meaning (Murphy, Jr., 1990). However, immediate deficiencies are constantly affected by external processes of change (Davidson & Maitland, 1997). Therefore, could understanding the ‘liminal’ zone of playfulness truly determine visitor behaviour? Certainly, what the visitor may seek may often be vague, and is likely to change throughout the experience. However, it is important to note how behaviour reverses or how ‘inversions’ change meaning and morals of ordinary behaviour

(Graburn, 1983). Could visitors be motivated to escape summer by searching for winter, to escape crowds by searching for isolation or to escape complexity by searching for simplicity (Burns, 1999)? Would visitors attempt to fit additional information into pre-conceived mental models by devaluing alternative sources (Festinger, 1957)? Would such inversions simply demonstrate binary oppositions along a continuum (Graburn, 1983)? At the same time, it is important to recognise two motivational determinants: discretionary income – limiting choice; cultural self-confidence – limiting relevance (Graburn, 1983). Still, it may be difficult to distinguish between recreational, experiential, experimental, diversionary and existential motives (Cohen, 1979). Indeed, events may be nothing more than exotic backdrops, in front of which visitors construct familiar patterns of behaviour, different only in use of time (Shaw & Williams, 2004).

In this case, there may be a difference in the kind of needs satisfaction among visitors if there is a difference in the kind of experience level. Specifically, more experienced visitors may seek to satisfy higher-order needs, while less experienced visitors may seek to satisfy lower-order needs, and this may be an important measure of pleasure experience (Pearce, 1996). Similarly, competence and self-determination are often identified as important elements in understanding visitor and leisure motivation, and these elements help emphasise the existence of an optimum or balanced level of activation between stress and boredom along a satisfaction behaviour continuum (Hartmann, 1979). Thus, there may be differences as to how visitors determine point of entry goals (Pearce, 1989). Could there be, in that case, a division of low-season visitors? If so, would the motivation to visit for one group oppose the motivation to visit for another, or would the two subsets identify as one in the same? If the more experienced visitors were more knowledgeable about different product components and if their lifestyle, or life-course at this stage, was influential in shaping that particular experience style (Anderson & Littrell, 1995) their behaviour might also suggest that while two different groups of visitors might participate in the same activities, their knowledge and anticipation of outcome may differ greatly. For the purposes of this study, visitors have been segmented into different age groups and income brackets to determine if there is a link between higher age, previous experience and larger income. In doing so, the researcher could estimate how increased knowledge and disposable income affect the motivation to visit. In the same way, 'stylistic possibilities' are born of an awareness of what is possible, built not of imagination or expectation alone, but of

learned experience, as well (Ryan, 1997). Where learning is related to perception, this perceived information is assimilated to develop skills or knowledge in response to the new environment (Decrop, 1999). Certainly, then, as visitors store knowledge in the form of association, those associations construct feelings, beliefs (Decrop, 1999) and ultimately, predispositions to respond to an object or a class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way (Allport, 1935). Thus, if catalysts for change lie in experience expressed through travel, a '*travel career ladder*' therefore suggests visitors develop varying motivational complexities over time through relaxation, stimulation, relationship, self-esteem and development and fulfilment (Pearce, 1988).

The travel career, which could be identified as similar to a moving perspective that enables individuals to interpret the meaning of various attributes, actions and things, is a conscious and purposeful achievement (Pearce, 1988). It suggests that as visitors become more experienced, their behaviour becomes much more curious about culture and history, stimulating interest in place (Pearce, 1988). At the same time, upper ladder needs become more actualised as visitors move vertically toward fulfilment (Ryan, 1997). Therefore, if visitors rate lower-ladder safety and security needs more positively, their experience satisfaction may still decrease if they are not satisfied by upper-ladder needs. Yet, upper-ladder needs may not necessarily stimulate greater satisfaction, either, especially if visitors return to sites with different goals. Nevertheless, young visitors who achieve self-actualisation may be displayed as:

- a) Realistically orientated:
- b) Greatly spontaneous:
- c) Detached:
- d) Private:
- e) Autonomous or independent and:
- f) Rational

(Maslow, 1970)

These self-actualised characteristics thus demonstrate that:

- a) More experienced visitors may prompted by qualitatively different needs to achieve greater satisfaction:
- b) Satisfaction may only achieved once the immaterial need of the moment is met and:
- c) Those with greater experience may achieve the most satisfaction

(Pearce, 1988)

Indeed, satisfaction may simply be a comparison between expectation and perceived meeting of needs (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; 1988). Moreover, though 'peak' experience is important, it is not life-defining, certainly if satisfaction subjectively resides in the experience of the individual (Diener, 1992; Ryan, 1997). On the other hand, if visitors more readily make global assessments of experience rather than narrow assessments of one life domain (Diener, 1992) the whole experience may be greater than the sum of the parts. If this is true, a 'repertoire of elements' may therefore exist, which could identify the sum of behaviours appropriate to a situation (Argyle, Furnham & Graham, 1981). Indeed, by determining how the different elements and behaviours are linked, primary visitor motivation may become more reliable. Specifically, could a commitment to the location of events in itself represent the discovery of new centres of leisure production or satisfaction? In other words, do loyal visitors return to sites because specific host populations or groups inscribe value upon them? If so, it may demonstrate that the locations of events are actively constructed by local visitor attitudes, which shape internal place dynamics and external processes of change (Shaw & Williams, 2004). This 'functionalist' approach not only serves as a basis for categorising sub-groups, but as a way to understand the kind of attitudes that may stimulate motivation within them. To that end, the young low-season visitor survey sought to identify whether most visitors lived near the event location, or away from it.

More often than not, there are significant differences as to strength of motivation between categories based on past visits (Ryan, 1997). Thus, it is important to evaluate both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Visitors who are extrinsically motivated typically prefer activities capable of improving status or self-esteem, as a desire to achieve goals independent of activity exists (Ross, 1998). Those extrinsically motivated visitors who attend events with groups or associates might view activity as simply work or obligatory behaviour (Banner & Himmerfarb, 1985). Visitors who are intrinsically motivated, on the other hand, typically recognise value attached to activity and this intrinsic valence may demonstrate either association with task behaviour or task accomplishment (Ross, 1998). That is also to say, intrinsically motivated visitors who attend events with groups might actually consider such activity rewarding if later identified as satisfying upper-ladder needs. With these components, it is also important to identify the distinctions between 'self-directed' and 'outer-directed' motivational drives. As situational expectations and attitudes closely relate to felt-needs and value

systems, self-directed motivations become emotion-dominant (Gnoth, 1997). Here, the object is targeted because of its perceived promise to satisfy needs and values (Ross, 1998). On the other hand, outer-directed values are cognition-dominant, as they rely on goal-orientated pursuits and are not as easily substituted or reduced once satisfied (Gnoth, 1997). If different contexts structure particular people and places at particular times (Lidchi, 1997), alternative ideals also consign mainstream attitudes to a kind of periphery (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). By combining motives and values, psychological research facilitates clearer understanding of social, cultural and situational factors as it continues to indicate visitor motivational processes (Gnoth, 1997). Indeed, as self-directed and outer-directed motivations contest for space amid the visitor's mental conceptions of experience, the willingness to initiate a trade-off between internal and external needs continues to exist as "a characteristic of those who are certain in their own psychological maturity" (Ryan, 1997, p. 39).

Visitors are more likely, therefore, to switch roles as different needs emerge over time and with experience. In the same way, visitors might conceptualise a particular type of image employed to understand surrounding environments (Ross, 1998). This suggests a process of learning takes place, not of information alone, but of information analysis and choice as visitors internalise selected paths, landmarks and districts (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). Here, cognitive conceptions improve self-confidence, thus increasing the likelihood of return. Familiarity with the event is also said to have a significant impact on future intentions, forwarding the visitor into a more advanced stage in the purchasing process (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Potential visitors who are aware of an event but do not visit do not always express an equal or greater likelihood to visit (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Perhaps it is a question of whether there is an overlap between perceived and promoted image (McKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). As choice consists of both evaluative and selective processes where different alternatives are compared by their respective attributes, awareness sets include all potential events or activities the potential visitor has in mind, independent from actual decision process (Decrop, 1999). Thus, what might be considered 'prior knowledge' is an important element in conceptualising experience. Here, visitors are far more conscious of their own needs.

Once potential visitors have considered these events, only those events that become reasonable alternatives remain as potential choices. Eventually, a final event is selected

among those reasonable alternatives (Decrop, 1999). This suggests that there are identifiable factors and processes which exist to mediate the degree of overlap between perception and preference. To that end, visitors indulge in the kind of behaviour that optimises time and space within short day-trip schedules by accepting the opportunity cost of discarding other areas (Ryan, 1997). Pleasure is experienced in many different ways and here, different visitor realities may constitute social lifestyle (Roberts, 1997). Moreover, systematic differences in leisure practice often link to historic predictors (Roberts, 1997) and these predictors may help determine goals about the degree of involvement as a product of consumer interaction (Decrop, 1999). Specifically, to what extent visitors become involved is a question of what “the level of perceived personal importance or interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation is” (Antil, 1984, p. 204). By way of measurement, decision-making can be scaled according to:

- Plutchik’s (1980) ‘Eight Primary Emotions in the Tourist Experience’ (emotion):
- Pettigrew (1973) and Pfeffer’s (1981) ‘Political Model of Decision Making’ (politics):
- Cohen, March and Olsen’s (1972) ‘Garbage Can Model’ (context):
- Um and Crompton’s (1991) ‘Model of the Pleasure Travel Destination Choice Process’ (inputs):
- Moutinho’s (1987) ‘Vacation Tourist Behaviour Model’ (phases) and:
- Woodside and Lysonski’s (1989) ‘General Model of Traveler Leisure Destination Awareness and Choice’ (awareness).

By themselves, however, such multistage models are problematic, or at least, imprecise instruments for studies about consumers with limited experience (Phillips, Olson & Baumgartner, 1995). Specifically, they can “fail to capture the rich interactions of decisions and behaviors” (Woodside & MacDonald, 1994, p. 32). Instead, thicker descriptions about what, where and how outcomes and cultural interpretations are expressed in the visitor’s own language add greater motivational depth (Woodside & MacDonald, 1994). Thus, situational and experiential models are more important instruments used to complement where and how consumers arrive at cognitive and affective intentions, judgements, practices and evaluations (Decrop, 1999). As a substitute, Murray’s (1938) ‘Classification of Human Needs’ model could be used to more appropriately assess the needs of young low-season visitors, more likely to demonstrate interest in socialising or independence, amusement, prior knowledge and gambling. This could be expressed as follows:

Table 1

**Classification of Human Needs**

Achievement Needs	To feel that something has been accomplished
Dominance Needs	To control other people; organise group behaviour
Autonomy Needs	To strive for and value independence
Affiliation Needs	To socialise with and enjoy the company of others
Play Needs	To amuse oneself; to have fun; to be entertained
Cognisance Needs	To explore; to seek/apply knowledge

In addition, Maslow's (1943) 'Hierarchy of Needs' could be used to demonstrate how needs might change or evolve:

Table 2

**Hierarchy of Needs**

↑	Self-Actualisation Needs	Self-fulfilment, reaching potential	↑
	Esteem Needs	Achievement, confidence, prestige, recognition	
	Love Needs	Belonging, friendship, group membership	
	Safety Needs	Freedom from threat; security; predictability	
	Physiological Needs	Hunger, thirst, sleep, sex, oxygen, etc	

The two models also tend to parallel Anderson (1983) and March's (1994) post positivist 'Rule Following' paradigm, which implies logic of reason or order (Decrop, 1999). It pertains to establishing consumer identities and matching rules to existing or recognised situations. Specifically, "there is a logic of appropriateness instead of expectation" (Decrop, 1999, p. 113). However, idiosyncratic, ludic involvement can also inadvertently transform as visitors slip from an uninvolved, social role to a more involved, cognitive or knowledge-based role, redefining place with reference to self (Ryan, 1997). In other words, a needs selection process creates complex patterns of behaviour among visitors (Ryan, 1997). At the same time, if lower-order 'physiological' needs dominate visitor concerns when stressed by negative experience (Ross, 1998), higher-order 'esteem' needs may dominate pleasure activated if by positive experience. Perhaps, these differences suggest esteem-based visitors are more prepared for the experience than visitors more concerned with physiological needs satisfaction.

The 'product lifecycle' model typically determines that different visitor types are attracted to the same experiences at different stages (Butler, 1980; Plog, 1974). In addition, different regimes of knowledge inscribe particular meaning and effect (Hall, 1997). Approximating the patterns of life-course also helps explain age difference, but does not account for changes from ageing (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002), which suggests



“the life structure evolves through a relatively stable sequence of alternating periods of structure-building and structure-changing” (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978, p. 41). If this is true, it is also likely to suggest that those between the ages of twenty and thirty would pursue an activity they could articulate as non-care, certainly if “a fair proportion of these young ones [18-25 year-olds] get completely trashed [from alcohol]...” at the thoroughbred horse racetrack during the high-season (Ormond, 2011). Specifically, young visitors would desire ‘pleasurescape’. To that end, it is important to recognise Plog’s (1974) ‘Psychographic Model’, which argues there are two key differences to the personality of tourists, or in this case, visitors. These can be expressed as follows:

#### *The Psychocentric*

- Less adventurous and explorative:
- Restrictive in spending income:
- Cautious and conservative:
- Have a tendency to revisit once they are satisfied and:
- Prefer well-known brand products and advertising mediums

#### *The Allocentric*

- Curious and explorative:
- Spend income readily:
- Make decisions easily:
- Seeks new destinations on a continuous basis and:
- Chooses new products rather than popular brands

#### Plog (1974)

In this way, events stimulate expectation of pleasure, certainly if purpose-built structures ensure security. Thus, if most visitors would seek the excitement and stimulation they appear to need in the relative safety of organised mass culture (Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992), then young high-season racetrack visitors could be expected to fit into a *psychocentric* archetypes. The question then becomes: do young low-season visitors fit within typical *allocentric* personality archetypes, or do their behaviour choices reflect a kind of *midcentric* visitor? If social structures are strengthened by predictability, then “the confidence that most human beings have in the continuity of their self-identity and in the constancy of the surrounding social and material environments of action” suggests ontological security and routine are intimately connected (Giddens, 1991, p. 92). Yet, if these psychocentric high-season

visitors, who prefer to have fun while drinking alcohol with friends as part of a race-day hospitality package (J. Hill, personal communication, June 8, 2011), become progressively less inclined to depend on the comforts and structures provided by the event industry and become at least more open to strange experiences and journeys that provide a more complete reality (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), then it suggests pleasure may in fact be sought or enjoyed in many different circumstances. Surely, then, if experience continues to grow parallel, the spatial and temporal barriers begin to blur (Shaw & Williams, 2002, p. 241)? Therefore, social contexts become pluralistic and provide opportunities for expression (Ryan, 1997). Moreover, modern visitors have become highly eclectic, achieving different forms of behaviour sought through sacred, broadened, beautiful, informative, uplifting and different sites (Ritzer, 1998). It could also be argued that as these visitors become pluri-active and multi-motivational, expecting the same experience to fulfil several different roles (Ryan, 1997).

If primary motivators indicate social collectiveness, different sets of behaviour still indicate similar needs (Ryan, 1997). In doing so, motivational behaviour conforms to norms consistent with shared social interaction (Ryan, 1997). It not only initiates and guides forms of stylistic and adaptive behaviour (Allport, 1961), but highlights important dispositions which represent highly characteristic tendencies (Ryan, 1997). However, because only a handful of dispositions characterise personality, the perception and response to an environment or event might only exist within a close relationship between attitude and motivation (Ryan, 1997). Accurate place assessments, then, are almost always subsumed to expert opinion and for the visitor, the process becomes perhaps more important than the place itself (Relph, 1983). Similarly, if there is no preconceived routine, habitual pleasure or expectation among visitors, rationality perhaps exists as an action informed and subsequently guided by conscious decision. Still, it could also suggest the role of the individual is just as likely to be the only distinguishable feature of experience. If new visitors are only expected to internalise experience of place, habitual or experienced individuals are surely expected to occupy situated roles. That is, experienced individuals categorise “a bundle of activities visibly performed before a set of others and visibly meshed into the activity these others perform” (Giddens, 1991, p. 96). As a result, sequential activities could be observed throughout the course of fieldwork. The event environment also carries with it a certain valence. Quite often, messages communicated to audiences are different or misleading.

It suggests, perhaps, not an objective reality, but a process of different facets emphasised to different groups (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Thus, in exploring a person's perception, it is important to identify if they in fact see themselves as having a choice in non-work activity and how this affects their perception of this activity as leisure (Ross, 1998).

As social actors are constrained by external societal controls, these same individuals must decide whether to remain in character, which goes some way towards defining acceptable roles and responsibilities (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Ultimately, "roles differ according to how seriously... the performers stick to the script" (Goffman, 1961, p. 140). Spectators are always looking for products with symbolic overtones to match the meaning they wish to elicit within themselves (Fowles, 1996). As such, there may be no identifiable motivational framework and if so, it may be that "the more closely a particular [visitors'] activities coincide with those typical of a particular type, the stronger his/her role embracement" will be (Wickens, 2002, p. 847). At the same time, the strangeness of a place is experienced by the outsider as a labyrinth in which they have yet to find their bearings (Wickens, 2002). Still, much like their experienced counterparts, the new experience environment, equipped with standard products and services, should not become a direct threat to the new visitor's "habitual thinking as usual" (Schutz, 1971, p. 294). Thus, as formerly defining structures and divisions begin to blur, a sense of social fluidity is achieved (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998).

The researcher recognises that young low-season racetrack visitors will exhibit different behaviour traits than typical high-season visitors within a similar age range. Therefore, visitor motivation among twenty to thirty year-olds at low-season thoroughbred horse racetracks shall be understood by identifying the existence of 'social-status' groups, since they rate gambling highly and possess a greater motivation to interact. Then, this study shall identify the demographic and income variables of these visitors. In addition, the study shall identify whether these visitors may fit into 'modern idealist' archetypes, since these idealists seek intellectual excitement without packaged itinerary, demonstrating a kind of evolving maturity that may provide alternative ideas about young visitors at thoroughbred horse racetracks. At this point, this study shall identify the gap between the 'reductionist' visitor search for novel experience and familiarity and the 'structuralist' question of whether these young low-season visitors are pushed to the event or pulled by it. Finally, this study shall identify which need categories visitors

can be classified by, where the majority of visitor needs fit within a hierarchy of needs and which personality archetypes most visitors fit into, since this would not only help develop a young low-season visitor profile, but begin to demonstrate the implications that exist for the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry by building on existing high-season research foundations.

### *2.3.3 Seasonality: Industry Perspective*

Venues normally rely on the continual support of advertising to attract visitors. However, events do not always need to be advertised to attract or encourage visitation. The thoroughbred horse racing industry, for example, provides over three hundred and fifty race meetings or 'events' throughout the year, yet, only a quarter of these events are expected to interest or attract visitor crowds of more than a few hundred. Nevertheless, each and every race meeting is broadcast on television and radio for both the New Zealand gambling market and the Australian gambling market. Thus, just like a sports game or music concert, images, sounds and information is available in real-time for an international audience. For the purposes of this study, each thoroughbred horse race meeting in question shall be labelled an event because they are phenomena transmitting live information from the centre of a scheduled public activity.

As potential visitor markets are expected to observe advertising, they are expected to embrace it. This suggests, however, that all visitors should be treated as typologised units (Mo, Howard & Havitz, 1993) whose behaviour can be anticipated provided the necessary cultural conditions are met (Walmsley & Young, 1998) and whose future touristic decisions could be charted and tracked (Sirgy & Su, 2000). Moreover, event service and marketing characteristics are highly interchangeable, while attractions are both directly and indirectly produced for visitors (Palang, Fry, Jauhiainen, Jones & Sooväli, 2005; Silm & Ahas, 2005). The commercial success of these attractions relies heavily on the number of visitor admissions throughout the systematic movement of a particular service quality over the course of usually one year (Hylleberg, 1992). In purchasing products, the consumer participates in a process or 'cultural exchange', where meaning is used, represented, accepted and reinforced (McCracken, 1986). Thus, with seasonality, the number of visitors becomes a measure of the quantitative dimensions of consumer demand, while attendance at local events measures the attractiveness of private or public services (Cuccia & Rizzo, 2010). In other words, it is "the temporal imbalance in the phenomena... which may be expressed in terms of...

numbers of visitors, expenditure... employment and admissions to attractions” (Butler, 1994, p. 332). To the same extent, market-driven and customer-orientated ‘fitness for purpose’ events commonly change throughout seasons for service industries (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

As society is dominated by historical and economic relationships, places are constructed to appeal to particular groups (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Consequently, some interpretations become more valid than others at particular stages, producing contested identities (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). In the same way, events have to respond to competing demand, as it not only demonstrates the disparity between seasonal capital, but the disparity between groups of visitors, as well (Shaw & Williams, 2004). Here, the distinctions between leisure and non-work are difficult to contextualise. As one group of visitors interprets the process of travelling as limiting leisure time, another may view travelling as part of the leisure experience. However, the hybridisation of event peaks could be attributed to both climatic and social conditions and distinctions. Rainfall, sunshine and cloud-cover are natural cases for event selection, while holiday entitlement, scheduling and service supply are institutional cases for choosing particular events. These two decision perspectives not only support historical claims about the significance of ‘key vacation windows’, but identify that advertising has always been targeted in bursts (Morgan, 1996). At the same time, the decisions that are made about events are often reflected in how involved with or attached to a particular event visitors expect to become. This suggests that non-travelling, ‘seasonal’ visitors are constrained by a number of social conditions.

From a planner’s perspective, investment budgets may be allocated to schedules with greater security combinations to reduce the overall effect of instability (Sinclair, 1999). That is to say, because of their knowledge of demand patterns and investor return, planners schedule major events at ‘favourable’ periods throughout the year. They attempt to maximise revenue based on the likelihood of mass participation and the result of a “need to generate a full year’s revenue within a short operating season while servicing fixed costs of a twelve month period” (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001, p. 2). In this case, visitor motives are influenced by institutional schedule design. Nevertheless, relying on and targeting peak-season crowds is just as likely to make events vulnerable to actions that may negatively affect security measures (Jang, 2004), as in the case of New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetracks, which have to employ extra employees to

address the large number of intoxicated revellers during the high-season. Specifically, motivation realised in positive experience is quite unlike motivation realised by visitors threatened by negative experience (Ross, 1998). Therefore, by addressing low-season activity, events might stimulate demand in a systematic organisation of social product, income distribution, production and consumption.

#### 2.3.4 Seasonality: Visitor Perspective

The motivation to become involved, on the other hand, demonstrates the existence of three distinct dimensions. That is, *attraction*, or the perceived importance of an activity and the pleasure derived from participation (Funk, Ridinger & Moorman, 2004); *self-expression*, or the extent to which individual participation demonstrates identity and enhances self-image (Selin & Howard, 1988); and *centrality to life*, or the extent to which particular social networks revolve around specific activities (Havitz, Dimanche & Bogle, 1994). Together, these dimensions determine whether lifestyles are meaningfully impacted by participation (Havitz et al., 1994) and whether individuals identify with or become dependent upon different places at different stages. As a result, “marketers have adjusted their ideas to... keep their products and brands on the potential [visitors’] agenda throughout the year” (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998, p. 46).

Indeed, stronger place attachment is often associated with previous visits and a setting focus (Wellman, Roggenbuck & Smith, 1982). However, ‘classic social background’ variables are seen as less important explanatory factors for motivation (Settle, Alreck & Belch, 1978). In other words, neither social class nor occupational prestige is known to constitute an effective sign of leisure preference (Ross, 1998). Moreover, social class and prestige indicators do not necessarily address age differences. Indeed, there is an often greater proportion of travellers that belong to an older age bracket during the low-season than a proportion of travellers that belong to a younger age bracket (Hank, 1992). Thus, the stronger the definition of particular visitor markets, the greater the distinction of visitation patterns between them. In the same way, the culturally-coded patterns of behaviour grounded in the dispositions that evolve around different classes of people (Bourdieu, 1984) produce distinctive behaviours which form to articulate shared understanding (Edensor, 2000) and these demeanours help shape decision-making processes. The decisions made by visitors, however, may not demonstrate static or immutable behaviour choices. At the same time, these choices often create “a process which involves the ongoing (re)construction of praxis” (Edensor, 2000, p. 322-323) and

to ignore or deny the reverberations and paucity of typically humanistic subjects with interchangeable moods and interests orders an investigator to take into account that leaving aside these considerations makes a true analysis of the market impossible (Przeclawski, 1993). Here, different visitors articulate different meta-social commentaries, which inadvertently reproduce conventions and social norms (Geertz, 1993). Thus, those visitors who value more than just basic mainstream ideas possess more than just a “selective interpretation of human existence and a restrictive idea of self and its possibilities” (Murphy, Jr., 1990, p. 191). At the same time, recognising the unique agendas and values of visitors within the encounter is important to understanding how the experience may affect resultant satisfaction (McIntosh & Thyne, 2004).

This study shall therefore identify whether visitors are simply attracted to the event because of a strong attraction to a particular activity, or whether suggests there is a link between the primary decision to visit, the activity preference and prevalence, and social attendance variables, suggesting they visit as a form of self-expression or wider social continence, since these expressions help determine if lifestyles are meaningfully impacted by participation at different stages. In addition, the study shall identify whether there is a link between having visited before, the primary decision to visit, activity preference and activity prevalence, since previous visits and a setting focus indicate stronger place attachment. Finally, the study shall identify whether there is a link between a lower-income threshold and a younger age bracket, since social class hasn't been known to constitute and effective sign of leisure preference, while most low-season visitors in the event industry belong to older age brackets.

## 2.4 Gambling

### *2.4.1 Typical Behaviour*

Gambling activities become cognitive distortions (Ladouceur & Walker, 1998) for gamblers with little prior experience or existing knowledge of context. At the same time, however, gamblers do need at least some gambling knowledge to be successful. Indeed, the way people react to events depends on the amount and type of information available prior to those events (Petrocelli & Sherman, 2009). With this in mind, it is important to pay particular attention to how the amount of information affects the behavioural reaction to both the decision made about visiting gambling venues and the likelihood of those made in the future. Moreover, excitement-seeking is one of the more important motivational factors related to gambling behaviour (Pantalon, Maciejewski, Desai & Potenza, 2007). The formation of such behavioural intentions is also believed to be based on the intensity and amount of effort made by the individual to actually engage in the targeted behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975; Ajzen 1991). Excitement-seeking, however, is a behaviour more readily associated with social interaction. If this is true, then a gambler interacting with like-minded people sharing similar experience at events generates strong social satisfaction. Nevertheless, gamblers at horse racetracks often exhibit evidence of stable, internal traits (Strong, Breen & Lejuez, 2003), pictured as:

- a) Single representative agents holding unbiased beliefs:
- b) Single representative agents who prefer the size of the bet to be the same regardless of which horse in a race the bettor chooses and:
- c) Single representative agents with an understanding that the odds are in equilibrium

(Ali, 1977)

That is not to say horse race gamblers are any more cautious than their gaming or casino counterparts. Rather, evidence has suggested that more often than not, horse race gamblers are risk-loving, abandoning the conventions that inhibit compulsion (Golec & Tamarkin, 1998). Although, thoroughbred horse gamblers in New Zealand often prefer to gamble on races with twelve (12) to fourteen (14) horses per race (Sargent, 2009) and as a result, there is thirty percent (30%) more betting on a twelve (12) horse race than on an eight (8) horse race (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009). At the same time, evidence has also suggested that horse race gamblers exhibit skewness-loving traits (Golec & Tamarkin,



1998), which suggests there is at least prior knowledge as to the quality of particular horses in each race. Thus, thoroughbred horse gamblers could be expected to know which horses are racing before they arrive at each event and which horse they choose to gamble on in each race.

This study shall therefore identify how a prior knowledge of horses might affect the young low-season visitor's decision to gamble, since little prior knowledge or existing context knowledge can make gambling activities cognitive distortions, even though horse race gamblers exhibit skewness-loving traits. In addition, the study shall identify how advertising information about horses at the event might have stimulated increased gambling, since it is important to pay attention to how the amount of information affects the behavioural reaction to decision-making. Then, the study shall identify how often these visitors gamble, since the formation of intentions is believed to be based on the intensity of effort made by individuals to engage in targeted behaviour. Finally, the study shall identify how the link between a lack of information and gambling intensity creates unbiased beliefs, since horse race gamblers are risk-loving.

#### *2.4.2 Typical Choices*

If the leisure environment maximises the visitor's potential, situational parameters, like time, money and opportunity set the stage for visitor motivation (Gnoth, 1997). However, behaviourists regard behaviour as the product of drive and habit strength (Hull, 1943), while psychologists stress anticipatory knowledge (Lewin, 1942). Thus, expectancy theory is cognitive, while drive theory is emotional. While some gambling catchments span large areas, others are restricted to centres, where communities typically congregate and where expenditure increases. That is also to say, there is an often strong relationship between the shorter distances travelled to gambling venues and greater expenditure on gambling products and thus, just as the spatial extent of venue catchments varies, the intensity of their impact does, as well (Marshall, 2005; Doran & Young, 2009).

Part of a sense of belonging involves both social identification and relationship with regard to geography of place (Ryan, 1997). As a result, sources for gambling expenditure are more likely to be located near large markets (Cronon, 1991). Here, gambling behaviours are not shaped by inborn motivations. They are artificially produced and controlled by powerful local or extra-local groups who become a common

and sometimes justifiable apparatus for gambling behaviour growth (Stewart, Liebert & Larkin, 2003). Landscapes that enable individuals to learn about local interconnections can demonstrate how effectively such phenomena are internalised (Stewart et al., 2003; Proshansky, Fabian & Kaminoff, 1983). As a result, individuals achieve a kind of ‘environmental competence’, which is to say, an ability to conform to social conventions within gambling locations (Stewart et al., 2003; Proshansk et al., 1983). Similarly, as individuals exert personal freedoms and restraints, they become ‘self-governing consumers’ (Reith, 2007). If they become successful, or at least, interested gamblers, individuals demonstrate ‘openness to experience’, ‘conscientiousness’, ‘introversion’ and ‘agreeableness’ (Mowen, Fang & Scott, 2008) and these responses strongly support sensation-seeking (Mowen et al., 2008). In addition, demographic variables have divergent traits, influencing individual participation (Fang & Mowen, 2009). Gambling, therefore, could be an outlet for expressing internal behaviours that are provoked by push factors. While individuals may visit a gambling venue to ‘join in’, participating, however, may still demonstrate solidarity. Thus, it is important to understand how specific attitudes improve an individual’s likelihood to gamble.

This study shall therefore identify how income affects the visitor’s ability to gamble, since it is often attributed to setting the stage for visitor motivation. In addition, the study shall identify whether gambling behaviour is the result of drive and habit strength by evaluating if there is a link between the primary decision to visit, the activity preference and gambling prevalence, or whether gambling behaviour is the result of anticipatory knowledge, by evaluating if there is a link between the primary decision to visit, the horse name influence and activity preference. Then, the study shall identify whether there is a link between living within the event’s city location and gambling on more races, since there is an often strong relationship between the shorter distances travelled to gamble and expenditure on gambling products. Finally, the study shall identify where visitors fit within openness to experience, conscientiousness, introversion and agreeableness archetypes, since they strongly support the push factor element of sensation-seeking.

#### *2.4.3 Typical Skill*

Knowledge plays an important role in determining gambling confidence. Inherently competitive individuals are more likely to pay attention and respond favourably to messages with competitive themes (Mowen, 2004) and thus, messages that feature

financial reward should be effective (Fang & Mowen, 2009). Such messages act as pedagogies for behaviour (Cosgrave, 2010), as temporary glimpses of excitement-seeking simulate carefree experience and even more so if visitors have access to insider information. Indeed, the *intellectual* component assesses the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in leisure activities that involve exploration, discovery, thought and learning (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Similarly, the *competence-mastery* component assesses the extent to which individuals compete, challenge, achieve and master activities. If both mentally and physically aroused by activities, visitors remain focused and engaged. In doing so, they receive positive feedback, a reflection of complete ‘flow’ involvement (Csikszentimihalyi, 1975). If it could be argued that amateur or first-time visitors blindly follow expert knowledge, “biased judgements are not necessarily less accurate than unbiased judgements”, so “people exploit their lack of knowledge to arrive at an accurate decision” (Hall, Ariss & Todorov, 2007, p. 277-278).

It could be argued, then, that gambling is driven by experiential consumption and by affective emotions, moods and reinforcements (Dickerson, Hinchy & Fabre, 1987; Walker, 1992). Still, it is common to observe regularity in consumption, even if each individual makes their own decision (East, Wright & Vanhuele, 2008). Instead, the pursuit of risk, beyond that associated with knowledge, is taken to express changing social structure and social transformation (Gephart, Jr., 2001; Hannigan, 1998).

This study shall therefore identify whether young low-season visitor motivation, activity preference and activity prevalence fits within either the intellectual component personality archetype or the competence-mastery component personality archetype, and subsequently, how these visitors fit within them, since individuals with such traits often remain focused and engaged. Finally, the study shall identify whether there is a link between a lack of prior horse and gambling knowledge and gambling on most races as a preferences, since gambling can often be driven by experiential consumption, affective moods and emotions.

### **3.0 Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Approach**

The study is based on a post-positivist, mixed-method epistemology. It follows a cyclical research path by moving sideways before advancing. With each cycle, the researcher has created a “feeling for the whole” while “grasping subtle shades of meaning” to pull together divergent information by “switching perspectives” (Neuman, 1997, p. 331). The research understands the social world through this paradigm because it not only maintains aspects of positivism for quantitative data quantification, but accommodates interpretivist concerns surrounding subjectivity and meaning (Seale, 1999). In other words, the presence of qualitative data greatly assists the analysis of quantitative data (Bryman, 2006, p. 156) if successful in producing both a rounded portrayal of experience and a solution to the ‘duality of structure’ (Giddens, 1976).

By combining these two analyses, the data is triangulated, which both deepens understanding and adjudicates the accuracy of interview accounts by increasing sensitivity toward “the variable relationship between the account and the reality to which it refers” (Seale, 1999, p. 59). Moreover, researchers typically infer from the empirical details of social life by passing judgement, reasoning and concluding based on multiple sources of evidence (Neuman, 1997). Thus, a post-positivist approach accommodates this ‘cross-over’ by rejecting totally relativist positions through its adoption of increased sensitivity toward subjectivity and meaning (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Objectivity is, therefore, an inherently social phenomenon. Responses obtained from these methods could also be used to cross-validate, corroborate or confirm findings within the study (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). At the same time, the post-positivist approach aids in understanding the meaning of human experience while recognising the temporal and contextual influences of these experiences (Greenfield, Greene & Johanson, 2006). A mixed-method approach also enables the researcher to rectify potential imbalances by reintroducing discovery into the inquiry process (Guba, 1990). As a result, researchers can identify if the respondents’ position on one variable is consistent with their position on another (Blaikie, 2003).

### 3.2 Research Process

Firstly, three sets of survey results were discussed in Chapter 1 to illuminate the empirical significance of existing racehorse owner and racetrack visitor behaviour. While the NZTR National Owner's Survey provided a basis for identifying how to classify the terms, 'young' or 'youth', more importantly, the racetrack visitor survey, the NZTR Spending Habits Survey, provided information about racetrack preferences, while the next survey, the NZRB Visitor Survey, provided information about 'motivation, spending habits, preferences and expectations'. Thus, the researcher considered, given the nature of such similar research focus, that the NZRB Visitor Survey survey, with a sample size of over 3,000 respondents, was a sufficiently reliable triangulation instrument to compare and contrast typical visitor behaviour with Low-Season survey results. In addition, two open-ended, in-depth interviews were conducted to gather further information and provide a narrative on typical youth visitor behaviour that exists throughout the thoroughbred horse racing high-season. Finally, ninety closed-ended surveys were conducted at six thoroughbred horse racetracks during the winter low-season to identify behaviour differences and evaluate such differences in conjunction with the existing body of work on high-season visitor profiles to create a more holistic picture. These Low-Season Survey questions were answered by both male and female visitors between the ages of twenty and thirty.

#### *3.2.1 Pilot Study*

The research process did not include a pilot study. Since the study involved interviewing and surveying human subjects, the thesis was subject to high-risk ethics approval. Consequently, the research approval process involved two failed approval attempts. As a result, the study had not been approved until May 2011. At that point, two considerations were made: firstly, that the researcher had only a total of nine (9) months to complete a thesis in an allocated twelve (12) month period and; secondly, that previous, successfully completed research had already been undertaken by the thoroughbred horse racing industry with results that answered questions about motivation, visitor preference, expectations and spending habits similar to this study. Thus, for the sake of time and appropriateness, the researcher chose not to undertake a pilot study.

### *3.2.2 In-Depth Interviews*

Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were utilised to collect detailed oral accounts of high-season visitor behaviours from industry members at the national level. Purposive sampling, which is a sampling method whereby specific individuals are targeted for their perceived expertise on a particular subject representing a wider population of people, was utilised to identify and select two (2) senior members within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry. Both their particular managerial position and their proximity to media and marketing processes had been used to identify their ability to contribute data of relevance or interest. One expert was selected on the basis of their national marketing position and another was selected on the basis of their national media position. Since it was apparent while preparing Chapter 1 that the thoroughbred horse racing industry was fragmented because of marketing budget inequalities, unpredictable visitor numbers, and because the culture of New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing has meant the most attractive racing events continue to be held at the largest racetracks during the most favourable season of the year, creating considerable racetrack bias. Therefore, the most reliable account of typical young visitor behaviour might not have been found in how much divergence there is in experience managing each young visitor market among racetrack managers, but in how much congruence there is among key industry members concerning young visitor behaviour at a national level.

Their insights were used to represent the decision-making culture within the industry, since marketing expenditure is distributed from funding models in a top-down approach. Firstly, a national media member was contacted, via email, through a network that was established during the research proposal process. Secondly, the contact details of a national marketing manager at New Zealand Racing Board headquarters was retrieved from an industry-based racing magazine, and that member was contacted via email. Both informants agreed to a voice-recorded interview at their place of business. The answers from these interviews were used to develop a conceptual framework through in-depth descriptions of interviewee experience with such matters. This informed an understanding of human behaviour by establishing an industry perspective on the subject of racetrack participation by youth demographics, which helped validate the results of the NZRB Visitor Survey, determining it a much more reliable instrument. Having spent enough time observing and commenting on human behaviour at racetracks

before, the interview participants provided answers that were embedded in experience. Therefore, “what gives meaning its objectivity is language”, which gives an “authentic insight into people’s experiences” (Silverman, 2001, p. 87) and becomes a quality of the environmental property of human behaviour (Dewey, 1925, p. 179). Specifically, interviewing is the art of hearing data, which involves “intense listening, a respect and curiosity about what people say and systematic effort to really hear and understand what people tell you” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p. 17).

Most importantly, however, objectivity is not an inherently meaningful condition to which people react, but rather, an accomplished aspect of lived experience (Dawson & Prus, 1995). This lived experience is more likely to be shaped by prior cultural understandings (Denzin, 1991), certainly as it is intended to represent some external reality, which assists in uncovering situated or locally produced reality (Silverman, 2010). Thus, it may also be argued that uncovering a cultural point of view to locate something ‘inner’ just as easily uncovers the extent to which “people represent themselves to themselves and one another” (Geertz, 1973; 1979, p. 228). From this, researchers abandon what they have been taught to believe, that from some sort of extraordinary sensibility, an almost preternatural capacity to think, feel, and perceive is relinquished (Geertz, 1973; 1979). Thus, by identifying the strongest ideas, values and meanings, the researcher untangles or reduces the puzzlement of such a pre-determined visitor culture.

Qualitative data analysis does not often draw upon a large, well-established body of formal mathematical knowledge, it relies more implicitly upon context-based words, which are not only more fundamentally intellectual in the social structure of the discipline, but necessarily greater at connecting the various realms of argument and experience (Collins, 1984). It also enables the researcher to eliminate redundant ideas and build new concepts to create a much more realistic picture of social life (Neuman, 1997). Thus, the research questions, in-depth interview questions and Low-Season Survey questions were framed around concepts from secondary data sources. In doing so, the concept categories are connected to one another, and the researcher is capable of interweaving these statements into much more reliable theoretical constructs. Yet, it is important to note that the qualitative approach was as open as possible, at least to ensure the investigation was as not completely uncontaminated by prior conceptions. Essentially, this helps increase the likelihood of unexpected contours (Deacon et al.,

2006). More so, the researcher's proximity to the interviewee's verbal nuance yields greater 'closeness', strengthening the impression of inherent validity against purely quantitative discovery (Deacon et al., 2006). At the same time, it is important for researchers to conduct qualitative research naturalistically, which not only aids in uncovering perception, but succeeds in providing richer detail, as well. This detail is achieved at the 'interactive-level' of social analysis.

### *3.2.3 In-Depth Interview Data Analysis*

To analyse the open-ended, qualitative data derived from semi-structured interviews, the researcher has adopted the use of 'content-analysis'. Specifically, sentences have been systematically analysed to produce a description of the symbolic content of text, as it is often an optimum method for studying beliefs and human relations (Woodrum, 1984). Indeed, as Neuman (1997) suggests as best-practice, the researcher has brought themes to the surface from deep inside the data to convert relatively inert, if not fixed abstractions into stories about groups of people who conceptually, may never be fixed (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973). To determine convergence, the researcher has identified where the results are applicable to the external environment through 'successive approximation'. To that end, the concepts are also rooted in the concrete evidence, reflect the context and establish a 'method of agreement' by identifying that critical similarities exist. By focussing on these regularities, the researcher has also contrasted them with regularities that are not context-specific. Still, this 'analytic comparison' technique draws much attention to what is termed, 'outcropping' in qualitative research, which suggests that observable data is only a sample of surface-level reality. That is to say, beneath the outer surface of observable reality lies an even deeper social structure or relationship dynamic that only partially reflects what exists independent of a researcher's knowledge of it.

### *3.2.4 NZRB Visitor Survey*

The New Zealand Racing Board Visitor Survey 2010/2011 was conducted to identify and evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) of marketing and delivering the racetrack experience to customers who visit throughout the racing high-season. To that end, it was important for the NZRB to identify and evaluate visitor behaviour, which included questions associated with motivation to visit, activity preference, total race-day expenditure, advertising effectiveness, future intentions,



expectations, the significance of socialising at these events, and whether or not these customers are returning to the racetrack or visiting for the first time. Thus, this survey aligned more appropriately with the researcher's aims and objectives than any other set of thoroughbred horse racing event instrument results on record.

### *3.2.5 Low-Season Visitor Survey Sample Size*

Respondents had been approached in racetrack club rooms, corporate boxes, public grandstands, members' grandstands and public lawn areas during selected race-days at the approval of racetrack managers. The researcher approached each potential participant by politely greeting individuals that appeared to 'look' between the ages of twenty and thirty. Having asked each potential participant to confirm their age, the researcher invited age-appropriate individuals to complete a survey. Of all the individuals approached, 90% qualified as age appropriate, and of all the age-appropriate qualifiers, 90% agreed to complete the survey. Of all 90 returned surveys, 100% were answered completed.

There had been no attempt to deliberately skew the research toward either male or female over-representation, but the researcher does recognise the imbalanced distribution of race events in New Zealand for thoroughbred horses, where an over-representation of North Island racetrack data exists in the research. This is not only because the majority of thoroughbred horse racetracks are situated in the North Island of New Zealand, which has the largest cities, and the most cities, but because most young thoroughbred horse racetrack visitors prefer the Auckland, Wellington, Hamilton and Canterbury racetracks, identified in the NZTR Spending Habits Survey. Most importantly, the research does not consider the proportion of male versus female visitors, and thus, there was no deliberate attempt to over or under-represent either sex. Therefore, the sample size reflects the significant imbalance in visitation that exists across the thoroughbred horse racing seasons, where very few, if any young visitors appear at racetracks outside the known and well-established racing high-season. Yet, a small number of young visitors still appear at thoroughbred horse racetracks during the low-season, and it is the focus of this thesis to determine why when there is a significant lack of entertainment resources tailored to the typical interests of young visitors.

### *3.2.6 Low-Season Visitor Survey Representativeness*

Ninety (90) closed-ended, self-reply surveys have been used to collect data from the youngest target market at New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetracks during events. The Survey is an instrument produced to discover the characteristics of a small number of visitors from New Zealand's twenty to thirty year-old age group and a means to identify a particular, often consistent quality within the sample at the 'individual-level' of social analysis. The survey begins to apply this characteristic to New Zealand's twenty to thirty year-old target market by measuring the value of both 'continuous' and 'discrete' variables across the market sample. In doing so, the survey provides a description of visitor behaviour by regulating accounts derived from the constitution and behaviour of incidents responsible for manifest reality (Pawson, 1989). In other words, what people state is important, certainly if conscious motivation has value (Allport, 1937). That is to say, quantitative survey data improves a researcher's ability to critique social conditions and reveal deep structures across social relations by stripping away the layers of qualitative discussion and providing empirical evidence at the centre of such commentary. To that end, variables are clearly distinguished from natural or physical phenomena once socially constructed.

### *3.2.7 Low-Season Visitor Survey Data Analysis*

To gain a representative twenty to thirty year-old survey sample, six (6) of the top ten (10) thoroughbred racetrack locations in New Zealand were targeted. They included:

- *Ruakaka Racecourse* in Whangarei:
- *Ellerslie Racecourse* in Auckland:
- *Te Rapa Racecourse* in Hamilton:
- *Tauranga Racing Club* in Tauranga:
- *Trentham Racecourse* in Wellington and:
- *Riccarton Park Racecourse* in Christchurch

One racetrack within each of the six locations had been visited once during a 'premier' low-season race meeting to enhance and improve the chances of establishing a sizeable sample. Most notably, Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington and Christchurch had been targeted, since they were considered by much of the NZTR Spending Habits Survey sample to be favourable locations for younger visitors. The researcher arrived before 'Race 1' and waited until the end of 'Race 2' to interact with their sample audience via the survey. The survey data was collected from the completion of Race 2 to the

completion of Race 10. The eight race period (Race 3-10) was divided evenly between surveying participants in the public grandstand and surveying participants in the private rooms / corporate boxes. Probability sampling, which in this case is a random selection method to ensure that the researcher followed a protocol to enlist any given male or female visitor at any rate without bias, was utilised to identify if visitors belonged to this age group. To analyse the closed-ended, quantitative data derived from self-reply surveys, the researcher adopted the use of 'descriptive statistics'. Specifically, both 'univariate', or single data statistics, and 'bivariate', or multiple data statistics, were systematically summarised within frequency distributions.

The analysis considers three data levels; that is, the *nominal*, *ordinal* and *ratio* constructs. Relevant ratio-level univariate data evaluations have been represented within pie charts and bar-graphs, which also enable the researcher to identify the highest and lowest values around which most scores cluster (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Relevant bivariate data evaluations are thereby represented in cross-tabulated contingency tables, which illuminate important positive, negative, symmetrical and asymmetrical forms of association. Where identified as univariate, the data analysis has demonstrated frequency of characteristics and grouping of score ranges to underline mutually exclusive categories of information. Where identified as bivariate, the data analysis has demonstrated comparisons between categories, established the strength of relationship between variables and adjudicated the influence of dependent variables upon independent variables to underline important consistency within social relations. Both the univariate and bivariate data had been analysed with SPSS software.

### 3.2.8 Triangulation

Since the NZRB completed a major behavioural survey study of its customer base during the 2010/2011 high-season, it was appropriate to include the results of that study as a basis for identifying existing high-season visitor profiles as a background context. Moreover, with results that answered important questions about motivation, visitor preference, expectations and spending habits, the survey was considered a reliable source for establishing a young high-season visitor profile, later to be compared and contrasted to a young low-season visitor profile. Since utilising racetrack manager interview data would have provided mixed perceptions about visitor behaviour among youth, given the severely imbalanced nature of visitor numbers, racetrack policies on public activities and popular locations within New Zealand, relying on in-depth

interview accounts from industry members at the top level proved much more likely to yield complete consensus, since they are in fact involved with racetrack events on a national, rather than local or regional scale. The selection of but only two interviewees was the result of two considerations; firstly, that very few individuals within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry are involved with visitor/social research at a national level and; secondly, that time constraints as a result of delayed ethics approval meant data collection phases had to be completed with enough months to left to analyse, evaluate, discuss, and conclude the study before a new academic year commenced. Ultimately, the results of the NZRB Visitor Survey not only provided a rationale for the kind of perceptions that were exhibited within the two interviews, but through simultaneously reinforcing the evidence that was exhibited within those interviews, greater reliability. From here, the Low-Season Survey was able to serve as an alternative source of information, providing a fresh perspective on a select or niche sample of young visitor attitudes toward the industry.

Triangulation is one of the most common efforts to integrate both quantitative and qualitative research (Deacon, Bryman & Fenton, 2006). It not only provides greater confidence in findings, but strengthens research rigour through combining methods, theories, measures and perspectives (Denzin, 1978; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, triangulation helps identify how critical highly organised and restated research is within formal, systematic study (Neuman, 1997). Thus, the research framework is constructed into “logically consistent rules and terms” (Neuman, 1997, p. 330).

Essentially, the data is triangulated across multiple sources. The NZRB Visitor Survey and the perspectives of industry members are combined to fortify singular data sets, while the Low-Season Visitor Survey method is utilised to investigate a singular issue. To that end, methodological triangulation increases both the convergence of existing visitor knowledge and the concurrent validity of such knowledge by enhancing the trustworthiness of analysis derived from the mixture of quantitative survey data and qualitative interview narrative (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1984; Jick, 1979; Kidder & Fine, 1987; Mason, 1994). The researcher’s position in this study relates more implicitly to whether motivational perspectives are consistent within interpretable social reality. That is to say, a position that relates to why a motivational consensus should emerge from within a combination of questions pertaining to the visitor’s primary decision to visit,

the domineering activity preference, and the activity prevalence. At the same time, triangulation accommodates critical realism, a principle feature of post-positivism which recognises that observation is inherently fallible and with error, ultimately suggesting theory is revisable. That is also to say, observations are theory-laden while researchers, indeed populations are inherently guided by cultural experiences and worldviews. If all measurement is fallible, the post-positivist therefore emphasises the importance of multiple observations and measures, each possessing different categories of error. Therefore, triangulating multiple sources improves the researcher's knowledge of what is actually happening.

Here, post-positivism rejects the relativist idea of the incommensurability of different human perspectives. That is, the idea that humans could never understand one another because they derived from different cultures and subsequent experiences. Post-positivism accommodates the imperfect construction of worldview derived from fallible observation and perception. Most importantly, multiple methods identify consistent realities, since convergent data underpins consensus, which often demonstrates how constructions fit data and how credibility is achieved in meaning and relevance (Perlesz & Lindsay, 2006).

Accordingly, references to data symmetry were conducted throughout analysis. Developing a 'chain of evidence' enabled the researcher to address alternative data explanations and systematically select typical or common cases. Here, a 'history of the inquiry' leads the reader through each of the different stages of data development, while quantitative visitor surveys answer important questions about motivational behaviour. Thus, "triangulation yields completeness because quantitative methods can further develop findings derived from qualitative research" (Risjord, Dunbar & Moloney, 2002, p. 269). However, the researcher realises that it is important for the different methods and their results to remain independent, for quantitative data seeks to explain measurable phenomena, while qualitative data can help identify meaning, intentions and values (Risjord et al., 2002). Ultimately, by carefully and purposefully triangulating different methods, breadth and depth are added to analysis (Fielding & Fielding, 1986), which might produce "natural selection theory of knowledge" where ideas have 'survival value' and where knowledge "evolves through a process of variation, selection and retention" (Trochim, 2006, p. 1). To that end, reliability is strengthened as researchers confirm and disconfirm findings across different sub-populations and thus,

data on ‘high-season’ visitors to the racetrack is used in analysis to determine how an indicator has high representative reliability if it yields the same result for a construct when applied to different sub-populations (Neuman, 1997).

### *3.2.9 Research Adequacy*

In this study, triangulation ensures the quantitative data is current (Greene & McClintock, 1985). At the same time, triangulation is also enhanced when the status of a quantitative survey instrument reflects the status of a qualitative interview instrument when the components are implemented simultaneously, interactively and independently (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 2006) to enhance, elaborate or illustrate the results from one method upon another. As open-ended qualitative research manages to achieve an *ex post facto* reconstruction between accounts, it rationalises and injects coherence into the different elements of the research process (Gilbert & Mulkay, 1984) once mixed with other methods by: offsetting weaknesses to clarify paradigm strengths; demonstrating completeness through detail; comparing unexpected results to identify similarities; simultaneously connecting variables while revealing meaning through words. Qualitative data is also concerned with the accessibility of individual subgroups, the relativity of actor accounts in the social world and the relation between sociological descriptions and conceptions by actors of their actions (Halfpenny, 1979). Thus, a researcher could continue to gain insight from pre-established data sets by cross-validating the kind of theories that exist because of them. To that end, triangulation should prevent the researcher from drawing invalid conclusions (Fielding & Gilbert, 2006). Ultimately, quantitative research supported by qualitative instruments places the different parts of social life into a larger whole to preserve meaning (Neuman, 1997). In other words, the whole “gives meaning to each part and each part without the whole has little meaning” (Neuman, 1997, p. 331). This enabled the researcher to make valid inferences from quantitative results compared to knowledge gained through qualitative data.

### *3.3.0 Methodological Relationship with Research Aim & Objectives*

The researcher utilised a 2009 NZTR Spending Habits Survey instrument, a 2011 NZRB Visitor Survey instrument, and first-hand interview accounts from media and information-related professionals within the industry to establish an understanding of contemporary thoroughbred horse racing youth culture during the high-season. This

helped provide an environmental context for connecting the various realms of argument and experience within the industry. Moreover, this enabled the researcher to determine how influential social networks are for young visitors, what the industry perception of young high-season visitor image currently is, and what effect concentrated promotion and investment during the high-season has over the motivation to visit among young markets. In addition, the collection of first-hand, primary survey data often yields greater significance than secondary or second-hand research. Therefore, it was also necessary to communicate, via survey interviews, with the young low-season visitors at the racetrack in-person, certainly if conscious motivation has value (Allport, 1937).

In order to determine a pattern of behaviour among low-season visitors, the various components of motivation, preference and knowledge had to be analysed so that primary survey data could be used to adjudicate the accuracy of survey and interview accounts throughout the high-season. Subsequently, this helped increase sensitivity toward “the variable relationship between the account and the reality to which it refers” (Seale, 1999, p. 59). Here, the researcher was able to identify if the low-season respondents’ attitude toward a survey question was consistent with the established attitude resonating from within the high-season respondent survey answers about similar issues. Consequently, the concepts that can be identified have arisen within concrete survey evidence, whereby reflecting the context upon which they surfaced while determining the critical differences that exist. Most importantly, survey data was able to determine how closely visitors exhibited typical thoroughbred horse gambling behaviours at the thoroughbred horse racetrack, whether social networks continue to become important, how much of a gap exists between young low-season behaviour and the industry’s perception of youth behaviour, and how little influence promotion can have over certain visitors within the same market. Ultimately, the low-season survey enabled the researcher to confirm theories through the use of additional and more representative data sets tailored to a more specific demographic.

### 3.4 Summary of Data Sources

Objectivity is said to emerge as multiple data sources contravene within the context of a broad, often contentious community of researchers who criticise each other's perspective (Trochim, 2006). To that end, adequacy is attained once sufficient data is collected to the point of near-saturation (Morse, 1994). Most notably, it enables the researcher to examine patterns of difference or similarity across cases to understand their diversity. At the same time, it enables researchers to identify if a respondents' position on one or more variables is consistent with their position on at least another (Blaikie, 2003). Here, it is necessary to build new theory to create a much more realistic picture of social life both rich in detail and sensitive to context (Neuman, 1997). Thus, it was discovered that the NZRB Visitor Survey data reflected the qualitative in-depth interview data. This could be expressed as follows:

*Table 3*

**Data Source Comparison**

<u>In-Depth Interview Results</u>	<u>NZRB Visitor Survey Results</u>
<i>Weak Betting Purpose</i>	<i>Weak Betting Purpose</i>
<i>Weak Betting Knowledge</i>	<i>Moderate Betting Knowledge</i>
<i>Weak Betting Activity</i>	<i>Moderate Betting Activity</i>
<i>Weak Betting Preference</i>	<i>Weak Betting Preference</i>
<i>Strong Social Preference</i>	<i>Strong Social Preference</i>
<i>Strong Food &amp; Beverage Values</i>	<i>Strong Food &amp; Beverage Values</i>

Ultimately, through careful analysis of the cases that do not exhibit expected behaviour, researchers recognise over-simplification within the theoretical structure of the study (Kendall & Wolf, 1949). Thus, researchers become aware of the importance further variables generate if incorporated into predictive schemes (Kendall & Wolf, 1949) until the point of informational redundancy.



### 3.5 Limitations of the Research

#### *3.5.1 Post-Positivism*

As a research tenet, post-positivist assumptions recognise limitations surrounding techniques, as knowledge is not universally generalised (Greenfield et al., 2006). Moreover, the knowledge that is obtained reflects the interests of the observer, produced from the social perspective of the analyst, expressing inclination toward certain values and groups (Jackson & Sorensen, 2003). Post-positivism also contends that all observation is theory-laden and that researchers are inherently informed by their cultural experiences and worldviews. Therefore, if perception and observation is inherently fallible, constructions are imperfect. Thus, researchers only begin to approach objectivity (Trochim, 2006). To the same extent, reality does not exist within a vacuum. Rather, it is influenced by its context and thus, many structures of reality are possible (Hughes 1994), never perfectly perceived within reasonable mental capacity. There is also a concern that the post-positivist may become too close to the investigation, for the interactive and participatory nature of such research can create personal impressions, which can be subject to bias (Mays & Pope, 1995). Thus, the paradigm is known to establish “warranted assertibility as opposed to absolute truth” (Crossan, 2003, p. 54).

#### *3.5.2 Quantitative Analysis*

Visitors can often provide inaccurate or misleading information when questioned either consciously or unconsciously (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Specifically, they may mislead interviewers because they do not wish to provide negative or passive responses, lie about their activities as they may be ashamed or embarrassed by them or know with any great certainty where and when they will visit again in the future (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Moreover, seasonality creates problems, as imbalanced demand suggests that different visitors and classes will use event products at different times of the year, so surveys conducted at one stage may in fact miss entire market segments in the process (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). More importantly, however, it is entirely possible for a perceptual, motivational and evaluative survey score to reflect a ‘mood of the moment’ (Ryan, 1997) rather than an item of personality, which is to say, motivations may only have meaning with reference to the social environment upon which they formulate (Ryan, 1997). Thus, “the apparent lack of incongruity between the propositions and observable [visitor] behaviour may mean that the concepts... aid in an

understanding of complex behaviour, but are not in themselves proof of the validity of the propositions” (Ryan, 1997, p. 46).

### *3.5.3 NZRB Visitor Survey Questionnaire Design*

The NZRB survey had been designed as a SWOT analysis to understand the different visitor behaviours that exist throughout the horse racing high-season and where those behaviours might shape marketing and customer service quality in the future. However, the survey questions, albeit detailed, were designed to address both thoroughbred horse and harness horse racing visitors, and it is unclear which set of visitors answered which questions. Moreover, each question yielded a different number of responses, which suggests that some of the questions did not apply to some of the visitors. To that end, it suggests the NZRB survey did not address these visitors on a universal level, but in a way that skewed the questions toward the major racing code, thoroughbred horses. Consequently, there is bias in the survey response, producing mixed, unclear results and thus, in deciphering the details of key thoroughbred horse racetrack visitors, the NZRB survey could not be completely relied upon.

### *3.5.4 Low-Season Visitor Survey Questionnaire Design*

One of the principle shortfalls of the survey had been the detail design of selected questions. Rather, certain questions were censored by some of the principle ‘ethics’ initiatives underpinning social research as interpreted by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC). Specifically, questions ‘10’, ‘12’ and ‘14’ had been designed to reveal deeper social structures within the sampled population, which is to say, originally designed to answer important questions surrounding; how often an individual might gamble; how much as a percentage of total race-day expenditure is spent on gambling; how much money as a percentage of total race-day expenditure is spent on alcohol and; why a visitor might want to spend more time gambling than socialising, eating-drinking or networking. As a result, censorship not only threatened research outcome by denying accurate consensus and subsequent conclusion about characteristics typical of the sample sub-population, but produced grounds to query the internal robustness of particular strands of evidence within the researcher’s own survey logic (Deacon et al., 2006). Ultimately, as research knowledge is shaped by political values (Perlez & Lindsay, 2006) it not only suppressed detail in the result, but as Ryan (1997) suggests, prevents visitor behaviour research from continuing unabated. The survey was only able to reach ninety (90) visitors. This, in large part, was due to the fact

that there were very few visitors at the racetracks during the selected low-season race events and even fewer visitors on-course within that age group. Moreover, two of the six selected race-days were affected by rain, greatly influencing the way potential visitors make decisions about attending events. It was also determined that most of the sample consisted of both male and female visitors within the twenty to twenty-five year-old age bracket, compared to the twenty-five to thirty age year-old age bracket. In addition, the low-season survey could not match the detail quality of the NZRB Visitor Survey. Yet, this quality issue was the result of the fact that the low-season survey had to reflect the specific aim and objectives of this study, and the aim and objectives did not seek to investigate the following NZRB research areas:

- How visitors gained entry to the racetrack:
- What areas of the racetrack they spent most of their time in:
- Whether they are current TAB account holders:
- How far in advance the decision was made to visit:
- How often they have visited in the past 12 months:
- Where they recalled advertising for the event:
- What they expected to experience at the racetrack:
- Post-purchase evaluations of the event:
- What they did to prepare for the event

To confront these low-season survey limitations, the researcher considered that it was wholly inappropriate to include questions about the ideas listed above, as well as questions about gate entry, big screen televisions, group packages, music entertainment, fashion competitions, and advertising quality, since these features are not available for low-season visitors. Most importantly, it was more appropriate for the low-season survey to be conducted in-person, rather than online. This was the result of a concern that the event may be so insignificant for the everyday visitor that they may have difficulty recalling their experience online at a later date. To that end, the low-season survey had to include short questions worded as simply as possible, so that respondents could complete the survey within a few minutes, given the disruptive nature of survey tasks during social activities. Still, the researcher was more likely to yield greater response rates by ensuring surveys were completed at each racetrack.

### *3.5.5 Triangulation*

As triangulation deals with a collision of values and approaches, researchers must often deal with reconciling inferences (Deacon et al., 2006). Indeed, such research does not simply involve “grafting qualitative detail onto statistical rigour”; rather, “it presents a

range of contradictions that need to be recognized and grappled with” (Deacon et al., 2006, p. 38). The results of multiple methods may be seen as far more complimentary than convergent (Greene et al., 2006). To that end, the research outcomes of triangulation are not easily interpreted, certainly as researchers must deal with making sense of dissonant data (Deacon et al., 2006). Moreover, methods that ask and answer different questions can undermine the triangulation logic and subsequent result (Mark & Shotland, 1987). The approach also recognises that with multiple sources, objectivity can sometimes be an unachievable ideal, insomuch as imbalanced knowledge remains unequal (Yeung, 1997). Indeed, as social, cultural and political issues continue to shape knowledge for critical theorists at different stages, triangulation produces both convergent and divergent data for analysis (Perlesz & Lindsay, 2006). In addition, the extent of divergent data can confirm the reality of multi-faceted behaviour complexities, especially as individual sub-groups begin to occupy different social, age and experience roles. Most importantly, the researcher relied on a single low-season survey data set to identify the behavioural characteristics of low-season youth behaviour. Consequently, given the detailed nature of previous high-season studies, and the interview accounts that supported them, the low-season survey is limited in its ability to confront existing profiles as an independent instrument with a small sample size.

## **4.0 Findings**

### **4.1 Low-Season Visitor Survey**

Chapter 4 shall demonstrate, with quantitative empirical evidence, the values and interests of an alternative young visitor market. Ninety (90) short, closed-ended surveys were utilised to collect data on visitor preference, activity and behaviour. The surveys were conducted at six (6) city-based thoroughbred horse racetrack locations throughout the low-season in New Zealand and reflect the characteristics of regular weekend thoroughbred horse racetrack visitors specifically within the twenty (20) to thirty (30) year-old age range.

The data is presented in two forms. Firstly, univariate statistic tables, pie graphs and bar graphs shall provide a clear basis for identifying what the values, interests and preferences are among young low-season visitors. Secondly, bivariate statistic contingency tables (cross-tabulation tables) shall provide a supplementary basis for evaluating how certain independent variables influence additional variables to become dependent, creating correlations within the data set. This should not only help identify which variables relate to one another, but the degree of congruence or divergence across such data.

## 4.2 Univariate Result Statistics

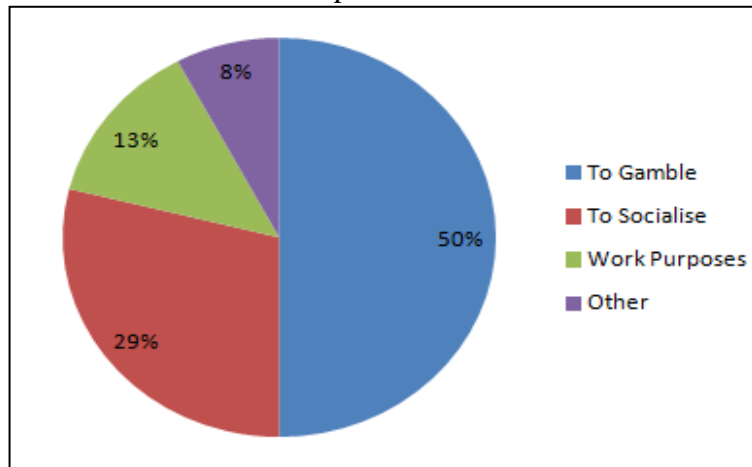
Table 4

**Decision to Visit Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
To Gamble	45	50.0
To Socialise	26	28.9
Work Purposes	12	13.3
Other	7	7.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 11

**Decision to Visit Pie Graph**



(N=90). The above results indicate that as much as half the sample visit thoroughbred horse racetracks during the low-season primarily to 'gamble'. However, only just over a quarter of the sample visit primarily to 'socialise', with even fewer motivated to visit because of their commitments to 'work'. Gambling is a significant factor for half the sample.

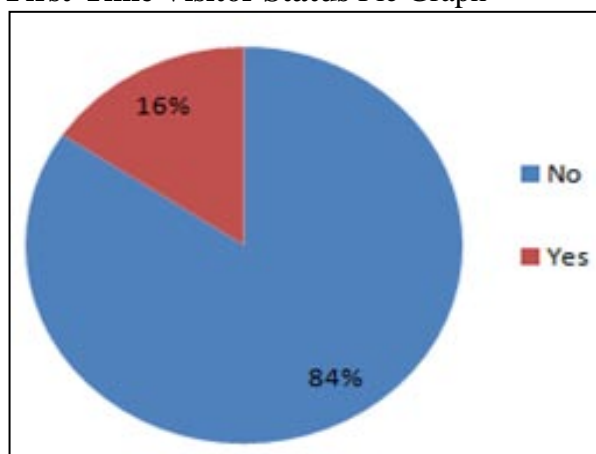
Table 5

**First-Time Visitor Status** Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Yes	14	15.6
No	76	84.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 12

**First-Time Visitor Status** Pie Graph



(N=90). The vast majority of the sample had already visited a thoroughbred horse racetrack before the day they were surveyed. This response was given by over three-quarters of the sample, and it indicates that most respondents are not only returning, but returning during the low-season, which is either a decision to experience an alternative to high-season racing, or an attraction to the kind of season that does not create as much crowding or activity. The former is likely to suggest there is curiosity among a small portion of young visitors, while the latter is likely to suggest the low-season serves as a preferred environment for undertaking various routines or interests.

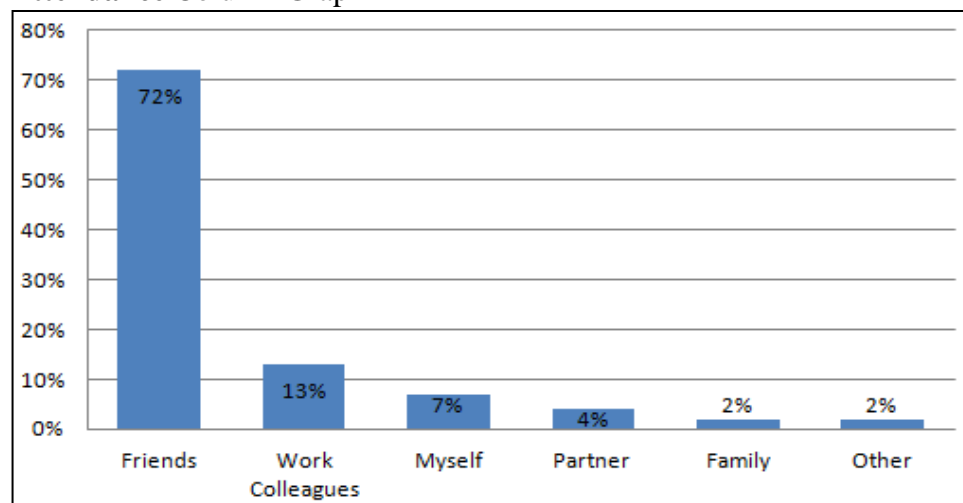
Table 6

**Attendance** Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Friends	65	72.2
Work Colleagues	12	13.3
Myself	5	5.6
Partner	4	4.4
Family	2	2.3
Other	2	2.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 13

**Attendance** Column Graph



(N=90). Most visitors attend thoroughbred horse racetracks with ‘friends’. As it was indicated in *Figure 11* that the primary motive to visit was to gamble, it is necessary to note that this result suggests visiting a racetrack accompanied by friends is an important element in decision-making. Interestingly, more respondents would rather visit by themselves than with their partner or family members, suggesting that the decision to visit a thoroughbred horse racetrack during the low-season is not only socially constructed, but that gambling is an activity shared with friends, rather than colleagues, partners or family members. Thus, it is considered far more acceptable to gamble with friends during the low-season than with anyone else, reinforcing the idea that just as there are multiple encouragements involved in social drinking activities among young people (McCreanor et al., 2008), there may also be multiple encouragements in gambling activity decision-making among young low-season visitors, as well.



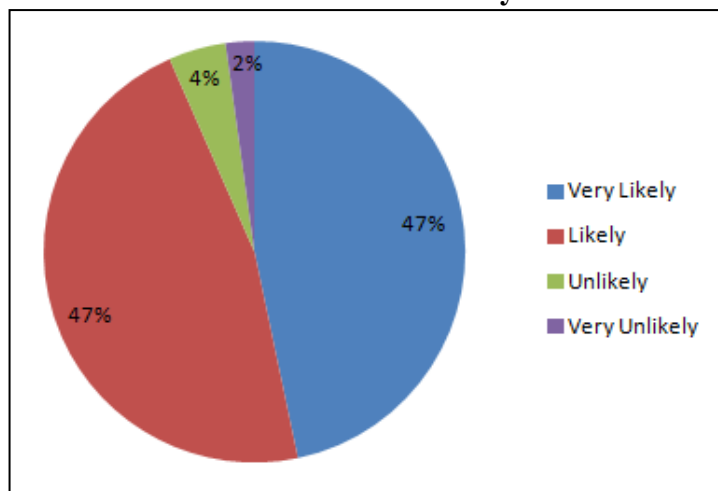
Table 7

**Likelihood to Return if Persuaded by Friends Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Very Likely	42	46.7
Likely	42	46.7
Unlikely	4	4.4
Very Unlikely	2	2.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 14

**Likelihood to Return if Persuaded by Friends Pie Graph**



(N=90). There is a very strong chance the sampled population would visit thoroughbred horse racing events if they were encouraged by friends to do so, since 93.4% indicated that they would be persuaded by friends to visit. Moreover, the low number of total responses to 'unlikely' and 'very likely' (6%) reinforces the idea that decision-making in visiting thoroughbred horse racing events is not only socially constructed, but that it may be uncommon for young low-season visitors to attend without friends and thus, just as the qualitative interview content analysis and NZRB Visitor Survey data sets indicated, decision-making among young people is more likely to be predicated on the basis of social persuasion.

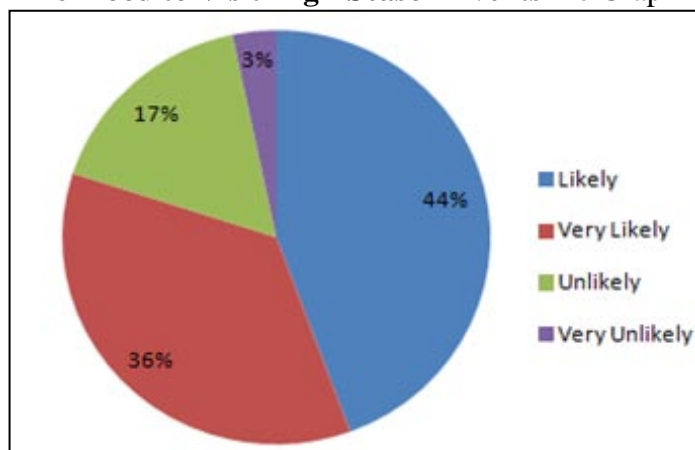
Table 8

**Likelihood to Visit High-Season Events Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Likely	40	44.4
Very Likely	32	35.6
Unlikely	15	16.7
Very Unlikely	3	3.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 15

**Likelihood to Visit High-Season Events Pie Graph**



(N=90). Similar to *Figure 14*, there is a strong chance the sampled population would visit thoroughbred horse race events if there was an influential element in decision-making to persuade them. Indeed, as the total number of responses to ‘likely’ and ‘very likely’ (80%) are almost as high as the total number of indications that visitors are easily persuaded by friends to visit (93.4%). This suggests the different emotional or cognitive reactions to ‘Likert Scale’ measures are much more distinct if friends are involved in decision-making, or the racing event occasion is significant, or as the qualitative interview content analysis and NZRB Visitor Survey indicated, a combination of both. Ultimately, most young low-season visitors are still attracted to high-season thoroughbred horse racing events, which so far suggests the key element, or point of difference, influencing the ‘moment of truth’ in decision-making among these visitors is the persuasion of friends to visit.

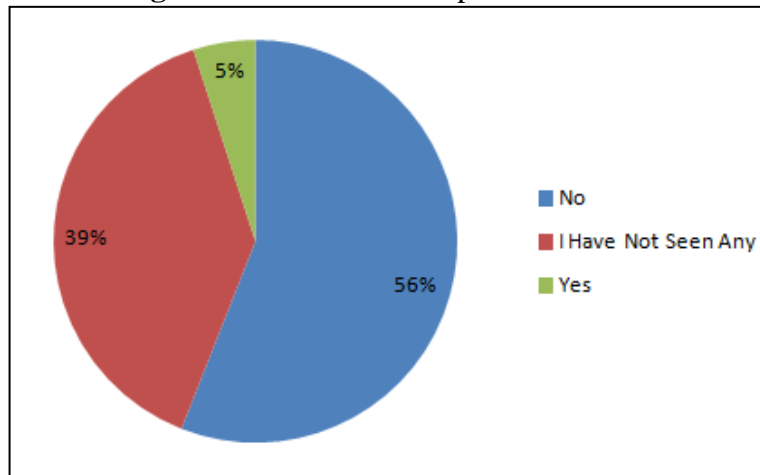
Table 9

**Advertising Effectiveness Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
No	50	55.6
I Have Not Seen Any	35	38.9
Yes	5	5.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 16

**Advertising Effectiveness Pie Graph**



(N=90). The majority of the sampled population does not respond to advertising about race days during the low-season. At the same time, a strong proportion of the sample indicates that their decision to visit had not been influenced by any information from the racetrack about race days. This suggests messages about racing events during the low-season are ineffective, and thus, like the NZRB Visitor Survey results, these young visitors are unlikely to be affected by the kinds of advertising images or messages the thoroughbred horse racing industry projects, since 95% of the sample visited during the low-season without any kind of persuasion. Thus, decision-making is more likely to be influenced by ‘push’, rather than ‘pull’ factors, which is indicative of the influence of friends in decision-making.

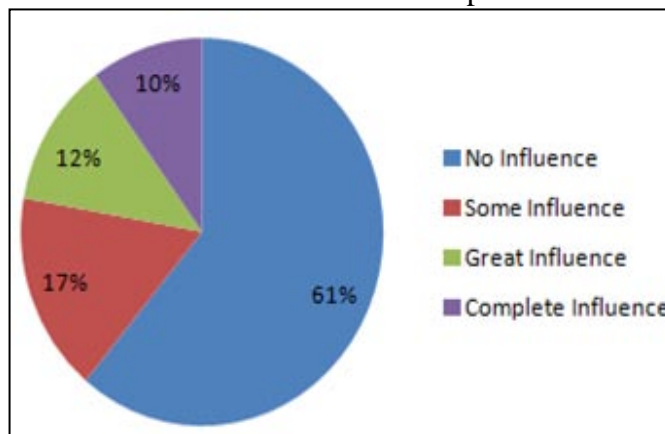
Table 10

Horse Name Effectiveness Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
No Influence	55	61.1
Some Influence	15	16.7
Great Influence	11	12.2
Complete Influence	9	10.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 17

Horse Name Effectiveness Pie Graph



(N=90). The majority of the sampled population are not influenced at all by the horses that are racing during the low-season event. Moreover, this suggests that, like the NZRB Visitor Survey and *Figure 16* (p. 81), the level of knowledge achieved about low-season horse racing events is likely to be low due to a lack of advertising awareness, effectiveness or interest. The respondents who indicated ‘some influence’ and ‘great influence’ suggest the kind of horses racing at the low-season event are relatively important factors in motivational decision-making. Similarly, the respondents who indicated they were ‘completely’ influenced by the horses that were racing represent a much less distinct group. Thus, it is much more likely, because of a lack of advertising persuasiveness, that most visitors within the sample would have had less exposure to the specific details of the event in advance. Consequently, young low-season visitors are attending such events without the knowledge or interest in knowledge element about horses a professional gambler or racing enthusiast might consider in decision-making.

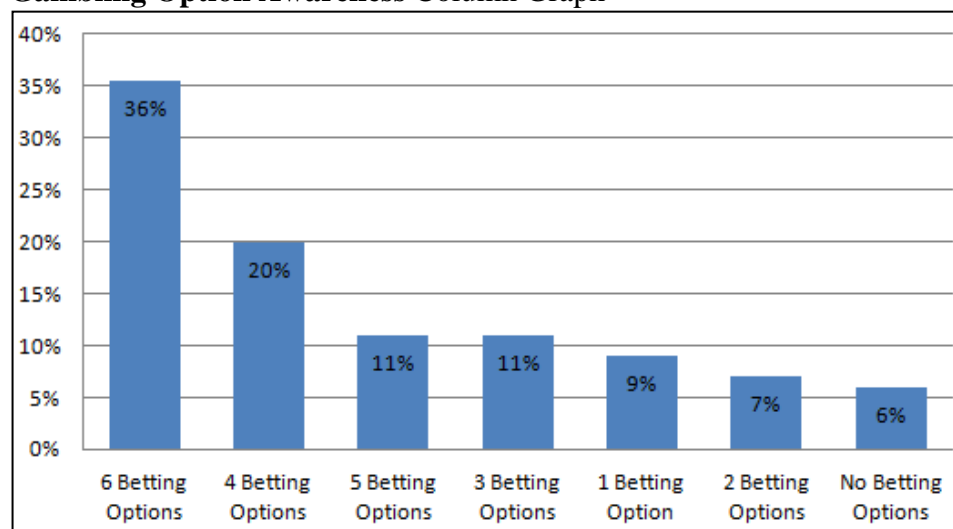
Table 11

**Gambling Option Awareness Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
6 Betting Options	32	35.5
4 Betting Options	18	20.0
5 Betting Options	10	11.1
3 Betting Options	10	11.1
1 Betting Option	8	8.9
2 Betting Options	6	6.7
No Betting Options	6	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 18

**Gambling Option Awareness Column Graph**



(N=90). The majority of the sampled population indicated an awareness of all six listed gambling options on the survey, which included *Win & Place*, *Each-Way*, *Quinella*, *Trifecta*, *Quaddie*, and *Pick 6*. Most importantly, 42.2% of the entire sample demonstrated an awareness of between only 3 and 5 different betting options. This suggests that the number of betting options available is either too many or too few to feature as key elements in decision-making. However, the vast majority (93%) of visitors within this sample retain knowledge of at least 2 betting options, which indicates that there is an element of choice with regard to gambling activities. This not only confirms the existence of prior knowledge tailored to information about gambling, but improved visitor autonomy, certainly if the effective persuasiveness of friends and the ineffective persuasiveness of advertising inhibit accessibility to such information.

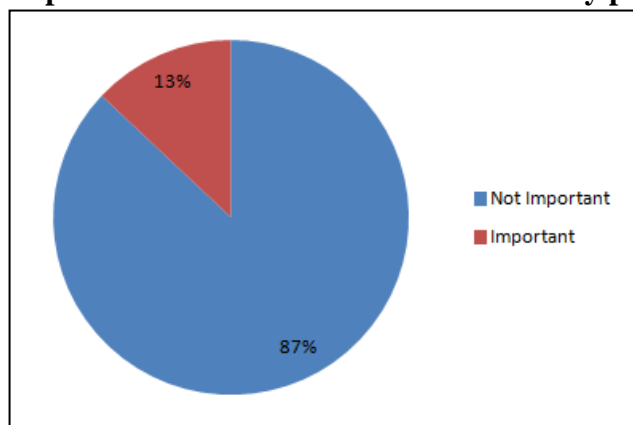
Table 12

**Importance of Increased Horse Availability per Race** Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Not Important	78	86.7
Important	12	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 19

**Importance of Increased Horse Availability per Race** Pie Chart



(N=90). An overwhelming proportion of the sampled population indicate that the number of horses in each race is not a key element in decision-making. This not only supports commentary provided by qualitative in-depth interview analysis, which indicated that gambling dynamics were seen to be so basic among young visitors that gambling was unlikely to be influential in shaping their experience, but empirical evidence grounded in quantitative NZRB Visitor Survey research, which confirmed that such visitor decision-making was more influenced by socialising, eating-drinking, spending time with friends, being entertained and having fun than by a desire to gamble or to visit because of a love of horses. Thus, the gambling dynamics of thoroughbred horse racing continue to reflect minute consideration on behalf of the young visitor.

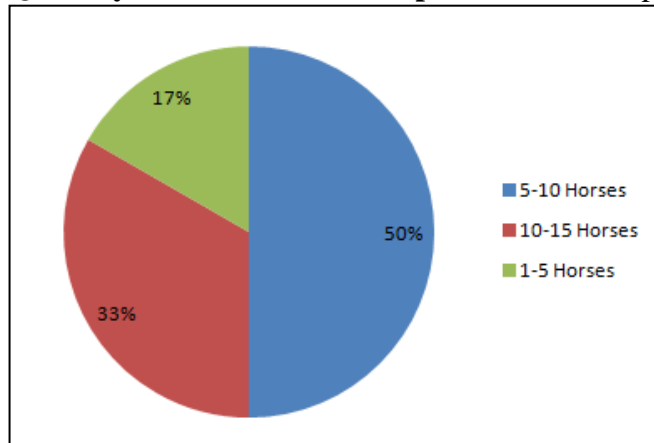
Table 13

**Quantity of Horses Preferred per Race Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
5-10 Horses	6	50.0
10-15 Horses	4	33.3
1 to 5 Horses	2	16.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 20

**Quantity of Horses Preferred per Race Pie Graph**



(N=90). Of the 12 respondents that indicated that increased horse availability per race was important, half required only '5 to 10' horses to encourage them to gamble. Moreover, only 4 respondents required as much as '10-15' horses. This not only contrasts existing gambling behaviour within the thoroughbred horse racing industry, which indicates that most regular thoroughbred gamblers prefer the availability of 10-14 horses per race to encourage them to place a bet (Sargent, 2009), but supports existing NZRB Visitor Survey evidence, which indicates that the intentions to watch particular horses race are not key elements in decision-making among young visitors. Thus, increased horse availability does not affect motivation among most young low-season visitors

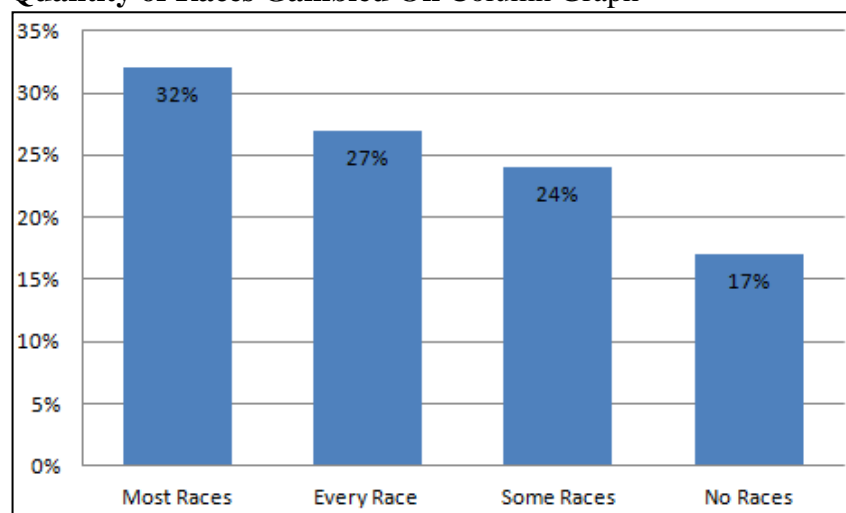
Table 14

**Quantity of Races Gambled On** Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Most Races	29	32.2
Every Race	24	26.7
Some Races	22	24.4
No Races	15	16.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 21

**Quantity of Races Gambled On** Column Graph



(N=90). Most of the sampled population tends to gamble on ‘most races’, ‘every race’ and ‘some races’ at a thoroughbred racetrack during a low-season event. These figures, which make up 59% of the total sample, suggest visiting a thoroughbred horse racetrack to gamble supports *Figure 11*, which indicated that ‘gambling’ was the primary motivation. Moreover, the above statistics not only improve the motivational significance of gambling, but the incidence of such activity, as well. Thus, primary gambling motives are further strengthened.



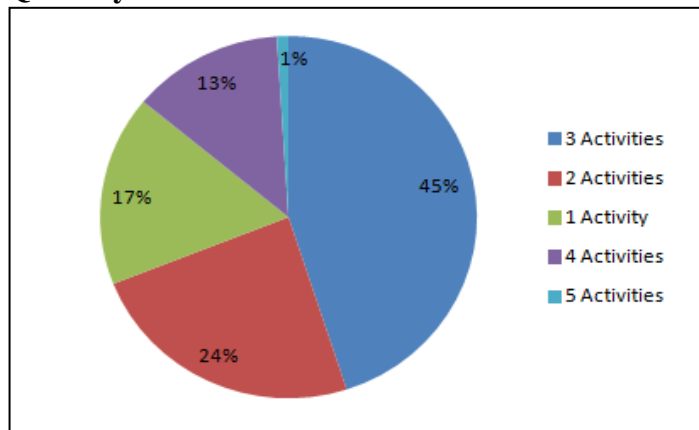
Table 15

**Quantity of Activities Undertaken Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
3 Activities	40	44.4
2 Activities	22	24.4
1 Activity	15	16.7
4 Activities	12	13.3
5 Activities	1	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 22

**Quantity of Activities Undertaken Pie Chart**



(N=90). The majority of the sampled population prefer to undertake a median range of activities (3 activities) at the low-season racetrack. The activity choices, which were based on the lack of entertainment options available during the low-season, included *Gambling, Socialising, Eating-Drinking, Business-related Work, and Racing My Horse*, suggest that where more visitors participate in 3 activities, there are enough elements to consider among young low-season visitors in deciding to attend. Yet, this could just as easily suggest that most young visitors find it difficult to completely immerse themselves into the experience. This is supported by both the qualitative commentary provided by the in-depth interviews, and the NZRB Visitor Survey, when the two data sets demonstrate that more activities, like fashion competitions, live music shows, and MCs are significant elements in attracting more visitors to high-season thoroughbred horse racing events. Thus, the low-season succeeds in offering a consumable experience, but simultaneously fails to address some of the more customer-orientated issues as a result of that attraction.

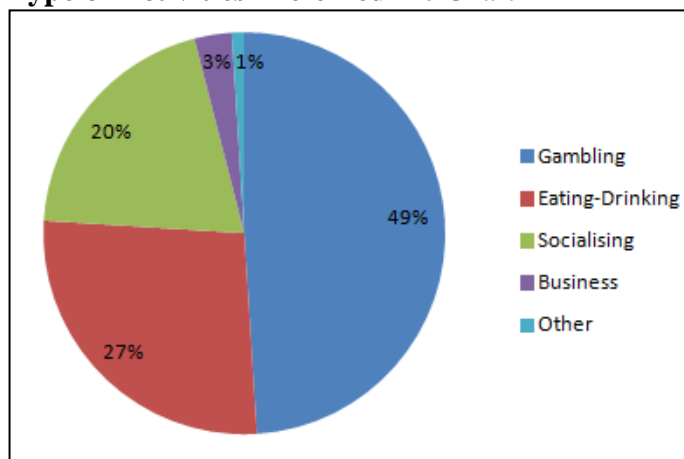
Table 16

**Type of Activities Preferred Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Gambling	44	48.9
Eating-Drinking	24	26.7
Socialising	18	20.0
Business	3	3.3
Other	1	1.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 23

**Type of Activities Preferred Pie Chart**



(N=90). The majority of the sampled population continue to indicate that gambling is an important element in decision-making and activity at thoroughbred horse racetracks. Most interestingly, the ‘eating and drinking’ dimension of *physiological* needs is preferred ahead of the more advanced ‘socialising’ dimension of *love* needs, which suggests choices among this visitor group follow the standard pattern of behaviour outlined by Maslow (1943). Gambling, therefore, is seen to be so immediately present in the mind of young visitors within this segment that most other activities remain insignificant by comparison. Yet, it must also be noted that the diversity of activities these racetrack events possess could be considered adequate functions that appeal to the more universal need sensibilities of visitors, grounded in thoroughbred horse racing event characteristics.

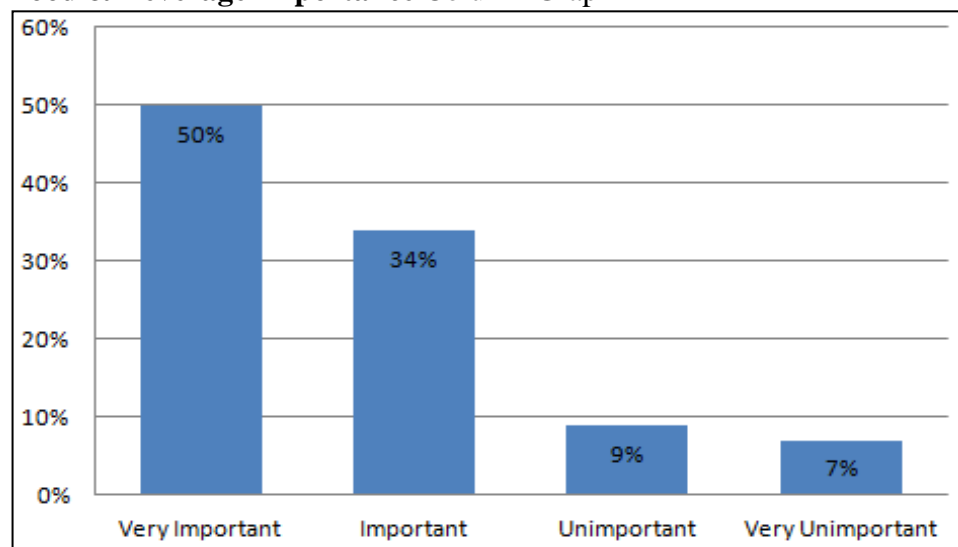
Table 17

**Food & Beverage Importance Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Very Important	45	50.0
Important	31	34.4
Unimportant	8	8.9
Very Unimportant	6	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 24

**Food & Beverage Importance Column Graph**



(N=90). For at least half the sampled population, food and beverage is ‘very important’. For a third of the sample, food and beverage is considered an ‘important’ provision at the racetrack, while very few consider the feature as ‘unimportant’ in their analysis of thoroughbred racetrack activity during the low-season. Yet, even as food and beverage is an essential, *physiological* element in racetrack experience for these visitors, it is still dominated by gambling as a primary element in motivational decision-making, suggesting attitudes among these visitors may be oriented toward the more advanced *Achievement* need visitor classification profile outlined by Murray (1938).

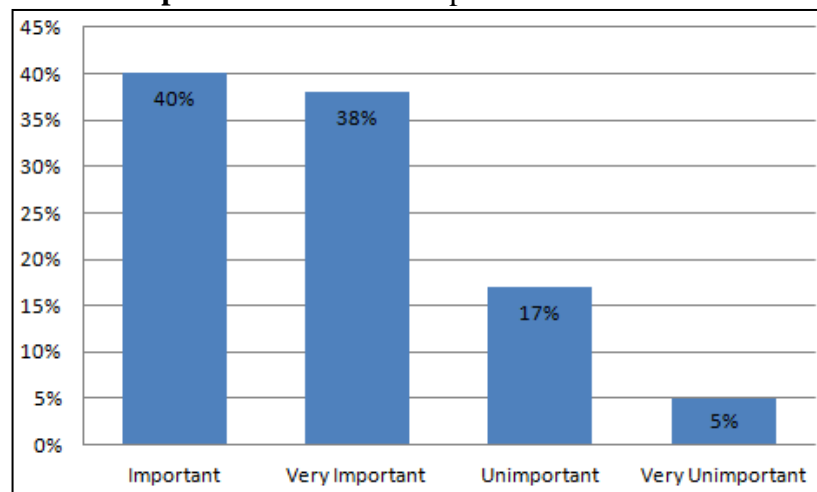
Table 18

**Alcohol Importance** Frequency Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
Important	36	40.0
Very Important	34	37.8
Unimportant	15	16.7
Very Unimportant	5	5.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 25

**Alcohol Importance** Column Graph

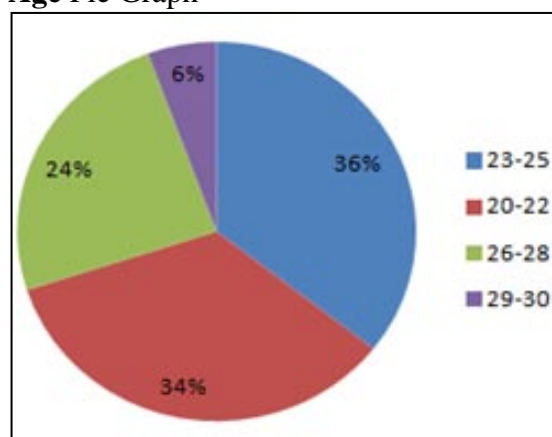


(N=90). The sale of alcohol at thoroughbred racing events is important. Interestingly, those that value alcohol as ‘very important’ represent a smaller portion of the sample, which suggests perhaps subtle differences in maturity across the sample. Most notably, alcohol is still considered either ‘unimportant’ or ‘very unimportant’ in shaping pleasure experience at thoroughbred horse racetracks within this sample. Since gambling has already been demonstrated as a primary motive, an activity undertaken regularly throughout experience and a preferred activity, this might also indicate more an attitude toward the effect of alcohol than a symptom of it. In other words, while alcohol may be considered important, it may not be more essential than gambling. Still, 79% of the sample clearly demonstrates an attraction to alcohol as a product of experience.

*Table 19*  
**Age Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
23-25	32	35.6
20-22	31	34.4
26-28	22	24.4
29-30	5	5.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

*Figure 26*  
**Age Pie Graph**



(N=90). The lower '23-25' age bracket features most significantly within the sampled population. Moreover, the incidence of 20-25 year-old respondents (70%) might suggest the decision to visit regular Saturday racetrack events during the low-season is a role a younger individual may grow into more readily than an older individual within the same sample. Here, it could be reflected in how representative the 26-30 year-old age range is, at 30%, illuminating perhaps an emergence of adaptation within youth culture, albeit minute.

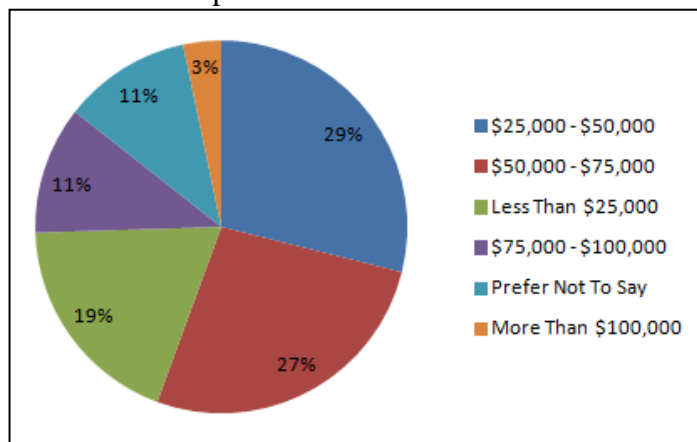
Table 20

**Income Frequency Distribution**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid		
\$25,000 - \$50,000	26	28.9
\$50,000 - \$75,000	24	26.7
Less than \$25k	17	18.9
\$75,000 - \$100,000	10	11.1
Prefer Not To Say	10	11.1
More than \$100k	3	3.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 27

**Income Pie Graph**



(N=90). Most of the sampled population earn between \$25,000 and \$50,000 annually. At the same time, a similar majority earns between \$50,000 and \$75,000 annually. This suggests there may be a class element in decision-making, since the average annual income for 20-24 year-olds was \$24,000 in 2011, while the average annual income for 25-29 year-olds was \$35,000 in 2011 (Statistics New Zealand, 2012). At the same time, Figure 26 indicated that 20-24 year-olds represented most of the sample, and this is reflected above, where \$25,000-\$50,000 annual income represents the largest portion. Yet, the second-largest \$50,000-\$75,000 portion of the sample represents a significant alternative, especially since Statistics New Zealand (2012) report that only individuals between the ages of 45 and 49 earn a national average of around \$50,000. Thus, 27% of the low-season visitor sample represents the interests of a slightly upper-class segment, which suggests everyday activities attract a certain portion of wealthier individuals within this sample.

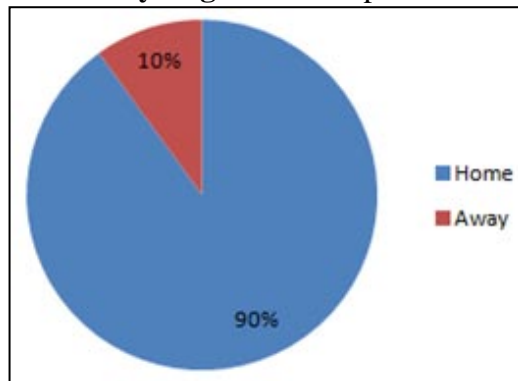
Table 21

**Visitors by Region Frequency Distribution**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Home	81	90.0
	Away	9	10.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Figure 28

**Visitors by Region Pie Graph**



(N=90). The great majority of visitors within the sample live within close proximity of the racetrack visited. That is also to say, most visitors travel very short distances to visit thoroughbred racetracks. Since only very few visitors demonstrated they lived further away from the racing location, it suggests the decision to visit the thoroughbred racetrack during the low-season is strongly conditioned by how short such travel distances may be. In other words, there is a much greater likelihood that young individuals will visit a thoroughbred horse racing event during the low-season if they live within the same city location of that racetrack.

### 4.3 Bivariate Result Statistics

Table 22

**Advertising Effectiveness / Horse Name Effectiveness Contingency Table**

			Horse Names Influence				Total
			1. No Influence	2. Some Influence	3. Great Influence	4. Complete Influence	
Advertising Influence	1. Yes	Count	2	1	1	1	5
		% of Total	2.2%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	5.6%
	2. No	Count	32	10	4	4	50
		% of Total	35.6%	11.1%	4.4%	4.4%	55.6%
	3. I Have Not Seen Any	Count	21	4	6	4	35
		% of Total	23.3%	4.4%	6.7%	4.4%	38.9%
Total	Count	55	15	11	9	90	
	% of Total	61.1%	16.7%	12.2%	10.0%	100.0%	

(N=90). Most of the sample is neither encouraged to visit by advertising nor influenced by what horses are racing during a race event. At the same time, those that demonstrated they hadn't seen any advertising also indicate their decision to visit was uninfluenced by what horses were racing at the event, as well. There is only a partial link between advertising success and horse knowledge, while only very few demonstrate they were greatly influenced by what horses were racing without any advertising to encourage them. Yet, only 35.6% of the sample visited without knowledge of horses and without advertising influence, which suggests only a minority of the sample visited because of some other reason, like friend persuasiveness. For those 3 respondents who indicated that both advertising and horse knowledge was effective, it is likely the result of noticing the race event (meeting) schedule, checking online track guides with details of race listings, and deciding on the basis of whether they considered watching a particular horse or number of horses worthwhile. However, only a minority within the sample demonstrate they were influenced by horse knowledge without advertising to encourage them, and thus, the results ultimately suggest visitors within this age group are more likely to be influenced by some specific force, like the persuasiveness of friends, than by a multitude of stimulants.



Table 23

**Gambling Option Awareness / Age Contingency Table**

			Age				Total
			1. 20-22	2. 23-25	3. 26-28	4. 29-30	
Gambling Awareness	1. 1 Option	Count	3	1	3	1	8
		% of Total	3.3%	1.1%	3.3%	1.1%	8.9%
	2. 2 Options	Count	1	2	0	3	6
		% of Total	1.1%	2.2%	.0%	3.3%	6.7%
	3. 3 Options	Count	3	6	1	0	10
		% of Total	3.3%	6.7%	1.1%	.0%	11.1%
	4. 4 Options	Count	2	7	9	0	18
		% of Total	2.2%	7.8%	10.0%	.0%	20.0%
	5. 5 Options	Count	2	5	3	0	10
		% of Total	2.2%	5.6%	3.3%	.0%	11.1%
	6. 6 Options	Count	16	9	6	1	32
		% of Total	17.8%	10.0%	6.7%	1.1%	35.6%
	7. No Options	Count	4	2	0	0	6
		% of Total	4.4%	2.2%	.0%	.0%	6.7%
Total		Count	31	32	22	5	90
		% of Total	34.4%	35.6%	24.4%	5.6%	100.0%

(N=90). Within this particular sample, thoroughbred racing gambling awareness and knowledge is spread across the different age brackets. Knowledge of the number of different betting options available to visitors is dominated by the 20-25 year-old age range within the sample, since 63.4% of respondents within this age range indicate knowledge of between 1 and 6 different gambling options. Specifically, the results indicate that the strongest awareness within the sample is among the 23-25 year-old age bracket in particular, since 33.4% indicate an awareness of between 1 and 6 different gambling options, compared to 20-22 year-olds (30%), 26-28 year-olds (24.4%), and 29-30 year-olds (5.6%). This may not only reflect the different class structures that exist within the sample (*Figure 27*, p. 92), but the way the low-season could be indicative of a slightly more mature youth market.

Table 24

**Quantity of Horses Preferred per Race / Horse Name Effectiveness Contingency Table**

			Horse Names Effectiveness				Total
			1. No Influence	2. Some Influence	3. Great Influence	4. Complete Influence	
Horses Preferred	1. No	Count	46	12	11	9	78
		% of Total	51.1%	13.3%	12.2%	10.0%	86.7%
	2. Yes	Count	9	3	0	0	12
		% of Total	10.0%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	13.3%
Total		Count	55	15	11	9	90
		% of Total	61.1%	16.7%	12.2%	10.0%	100.0%

(N=90). The majority of visitors within the sample were neither influenced by the kind of horses that were racing nor bias as to how many different horses there should be in a race to encourage them to place a bet. On the one hand, it suggests visitors within this sample are not influenced by the specific gambling dimensions that characterise typical field sizes or interest at the event. On the other, it suggests visitors may be motivated to attend on the basis of their own interpretation of thoroughbred racing. At the same time, those that demonstrate bias as to the size of each thoroughbred race are only partially (some) influenced to visit by the names of the horses racing at the event. This suggests the decision to engage in gambling at the thoroughbred racetrack during the low-season for this demographic is less a characteristic of convention than a characteristic of context. In other words, both the number of horses racing and the kind of horses racing have either little or no influence over 20-30 year-olds during the thoroughbred racing low-season. Therefore, it could be argued that the correlation between holding bias as to race size and increased horse name influence does not exist, which suggests the number of horses in a race and the kind of horses racing are less a factor in deciding to visit. This indicates that visiting a thoroughbred horse racetrack during the low-season may be about having fun, since most respondents were greatly persuaded by friends to visit, about enjoying gambling, since most of the sample has indicated that gambling was the primary decision to visit, an activity that was undertaken frequently, and a preferred activity, but that considering too much detail about gambling detail may be something that exists outside the parameters of enjoyment.

Table 25

**Age / Alcohol Importance Contingency Table**

			Alcohol Importance				Total
			1. Very Important	2. Important	3. Unimportant	4. Very Unimportant	
Age	20-22	Count	9	12	7	3	31
		% of Total	10.0%	13.3%	7.8%	3.3%	34.4%
	23-25	Count	14	11	5	2	32
		% of Total	15.6%	12.2%	5.6%	2.2%	35.6%
	26-28	Count	10	9	3	0	22
		% of Total	11.1%	10.0%	3.3%	.0%	24.4%
	29-30	Count	1	4	0	0	5
		% of Total	1.1%	4.4%	.0%	.0%	5.6%
	Total	Count	34	36	15	5	90
		% of Total	37.8%	40.0%	16.7%	5.6%	100.0%

(N=90). There is a correlation between increasing age and increasing alcohol importance at thoroughbred horse race events during the low-season. In other words, alcohol is highly valued during the low-season for particular age brackets within this demographic. Indeed, as the whole is often greater than the sum of the parts, these values are reflected 77.8% of the total sample, which indicated that it values alcohol, and this is indicative of both the qualitative in-depth interview analysis and the NZRB Visitor Survey results on typical visitor behaviour. Thus, the provision of alcohol is an important element in decision-making among young low-season visitors.

Table 26

**Age / Quantity of Races Gambled On Contingency Table**

			Races Gambled On				Total
			1. Every Race	2. Most Races	3. Some Races	4. No Races	
Age	20-22	Count	7	8	7	9	31
		% of Total	7.8%	8.9%	7.8%	10.0%	34.4%
	23-25	Count	10	12	8	2	32
		% of Total	11.1%	13.3%	8.9%	2.2%	35.6%
	26-28	Count	5	6	7	4	22
		% of Total	5.6%	6.7%	7.8%	4.4%	24.4%
	29-30	Count	2	3	0	0	5
		% of Total	2.2%	3.3%	.0%	.0%	5.6%
Total	Count	24	29	22	15	90	
	% of Total	26.7%	32.2%	24.4%	16.7%	100.0%	

(N=90). The above results appear to suggest that it is much more common to observe younger participants gambling on the most races at the thoroughbred racetrack during the low-season within the 20-30 year-old age range than older participants within the 20-30 year-old age range. Specifically, those aged between 23 and 25 demonstrate a stronger commitment toward betting on ‘every race’, ‘most races’ and ‘some races’. At the same time, those aged between 20 and 22 demonstrate a relatively strong commitment toward betting on ‘every race’, ‘most races’ and ‘some races’. It not only suggests that participants within the lower age limits (20-25) commit to gambling, but that different stages or limits of maturity within the sample guide gambling intensities. In other words, the older age brackets demonstrate greater gambling disinterest. Yet, the entire 29-30 year-old age bracket gambles on at least some races, which suggests they are the most interested in gambling. However, it must also be noted that the lower age limit (20-25) is represented much more significantly within the sample than the upper 25-30 age limit. While the results are skewed, the 20-25 year-old age range still represents the strongest proportion of visitors gambling on most, if not every race.

Table 27

**Advertising Effectiveness / Likelihood to Visit Major Event Contingency Table**

			Likelihood When Major Event				Total
			1. Very Likely	2. Likely	3. Unlikely	4. Very Unlikely	
Advertising Effectivness	1. Yes	Count	2	2	0	1	5
		% of Total	2.2%	2.2%	.0%	1.1%	5.6%
	2. No	Count	20	21	8	1	50
		% of Total	22.2%	23.3%	8.9%	1.1%	55.6%
	3. I Have Not Seen Any	Count	10	17	7	1	35
		% of Total	11.1%	18.9%	7.8%	1.1%	38.9%
Total	Count	32	40	15	3	90	
	% of Total	35.6%	44.4%	16.7%	3.3%	100.0%	

(N=90). A greater proportion of visitors within the sample are ‘likely’ to visit a major thoroughbred race event during the high-season without encouragements from advertising. At the same time, they are even more likely to visit a major high-season meeting without encouragement from advertising. However, the difference between not observing advertising and not embracing advertising is seen to represent important categorical distinctions. To that end, those exposed to promotional material reporting they were not encouraged by it remain ‘very likely’ to visit a major race event, representing a much stronger presence within the sample than those that ‘have not seen any’. At the same time, visitors that demonstrate either no encouragement or no exposure suggest they are more ‘unlikely’ to visit a major race meeting than those that demonstrate encouragement. It not only suggests decisions to visit across the seasons are constructed on the basis of personal perception, but that even major race event marketing campaigns are far less effective at appealing to participants that attend across the seasons. Still, the total percentages of participants that have not been encouraged to visit by advertising are both ‘likely’ and ‘very likely’ to visit, regardless.

Table 28

**First-Time Visitor Status / Visitors by Region Contingency Table**

			Region		Total
			1. Home	2. Away	
First Visit	1. Yes	Count	11	3	14
		% of Total	12.2%	3.3%	15.6%
	2. No	Count	70	6	76
		% of Total	77.8%	6.7%	84.4%
Total		Count	81	9	90
		% of Total	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%

(N=90). Most visitors within the sample who live close to the thoroughbred horse racetrack (home) have visited before. At the same time, however, most visitors within the sample who indicated they lived ‘away’ from the racetrack also indicated they have visited before, which suggests returning visitors represent a greater proportion of respondents who live ‘away’ from the racetrack. Specifically, 6.7% of visitors who live away indicate that they have made an effort to return during the low-season, which not only represents commitment or loyalty, but stronger ties to thoroughbred racing as part of a set of leisure options. Ultimately, there is a greater likelihood a young low-season visitor is returning to the thoroughbred horse racetrack, even if they live outside the racetrack city location.

Table 29

**Visitors by Region / Advertising Effectiveness Contingency Table**

			Advertising Effectiveness			Total
			1. Yes	2. No	3. I Haven't Seen Any	
Region	Home	Count	5	46	30	81
		% of Total	5.6%	51.1%	33.3%	90.0%
	Away	Count	0	4	5	9
		% of Total	.0%	4.4%	5.6%	10.0%
Total	Count		5	50	35	90
	% of Total		5.6%	55.6%	38.9%	100.0%

(N=90). Most visitors within the sample that live within close proximity of the racetrack are not encouraged by advertising to visit. At the same time, a similar majority of visitors who live within close proximity had not seen any advertising within their own local sphere of influence to encourage them to visit. However, most regional visitors also demonstrate that their decision to visit was not influenced by advertising, nor had they seen any. It suggests a pattern exists not of shifting requirements to advertise alone, but of advertising's lack of effectiveness or relevance for young low-season visitors. That is not to say, however, that racetracks have been accurate in their assumptions that young low-season visitors do not require advertising to encourage them to visit. Rather, young low-season visitors appear to demonstrate a much more complex set of encouragement evaluations that differ both in size and direction. In other words, decisions to visit may not become the result of advertising effectiveness, but various levels of intensity that 'pull' visitors from a particular domicile into the public arena.

## **5.0 Discussion**

### **5.1 Seasonality**

Visitor behaviour can be the result of how events manipulate seasonal patterns of demand. The thoroughbred horse racing high-season demonstrates how unevenly patterns of demand and budget allocations are distributed, especially evident in how high-season event attendances can reach one hundred and fifty thousand nationwide, while low-season event attendances usually average in the high hundreds. If high-season events target fundamental age groups for various activities, high-season visitors appear to arrive at racetracks with goals that reflect mainstream attitudes toward play and love needs commonly exhibited among festival-goers. It perhaps suggests that experiential consumption not only guides autonomous play, but inadvertently creates it as post-purchase evaluations are subsequently informed by pre-purchase expectations. However, that is not to say such relationships are subject to such classification. Instead, it may be argued that young low-season visitors do not exhibit the more complex needs outlined by Murray (1938) to match existing supply, but rather, the basic needs outlined by Maslow (1943).

The thoroughbred horse racing low-season appears to accommodate key elements designed to retain value. In other words, the winter racing low-season does not exist for young visitors as key vacation windows (Morgan, 1996), but as, perhaps, second-generation destinations (Agarwal, 2002). If this is true, it suggests young low-season visitors interpret the kind of rudimentary elements that underpin the environment as acceptable use of leisure time and space. If the one-dimensional nature of the typical second-generation destination experience concept is sufficient for young low-season visitors, who value gambling, food and beverage and social elements, motivation appears to represent the kind of *self-expression* attitude Selin & Howard (1988) argue as important to identity. If such inferences can be made about low-season youth motives, it might also be argued that these visitors adjust their own perceptions to become more flexible. At the same time, the social *centrality to life* networks that sustain such attitudes are likely to affect how *attraction* dimensions effectively contextualise experience. Rather, as love needs are expected to set the stage for young racetrack visitors, they are not attributed to how young low-season visitors make decisions about interests pertaining to fulfilment, as social encouragements inform decision, but do not necessarily guide it. In other words, though social networks contribute to how young



low-season visitors make decisions based on a desire to gamble, they are much less relevant once racing begins. Instead, previous visits, a gambling setting focus and a lower income threshold strengthen place attachment, consistent with what Wellman et al. (1982) believes are important elements in stimulating demand. If attitudes are related to social behaviour (Ross, 1998), then ‘classic social backgrounds’ (Settle et al., 1978) ultimately guide motivation, certainly as prestige is said to be related to out-of-the-ordinary, unique experience.

Still, without the dimension of exclusivity, behaviour may pass unnoticed (Ross, 1998). Here, perceptions among industry members suggest that indeed, the social aspect – the gathering, the drinking and the dress fashion – are the most common behaviours among young racetrack visitors during the high-season, influencing how activities and corporate functions are produced for particular markets. At the same time, this kind of behaviour stimulates a cultural following, as drunken and drug-fuelled debauchery among high-season youth jeopardises racetrack sustainability. Consequently, gambling behaviours pass unnoticed, certainly if the horse dimension of a thoroughbred event is secondary for young high-season visitors. However, young low-season visitors appear to pass through different motivational purpose states, as in the case of wanting to gamble, a practice state, as in the case of consistent gambling on most races, and a preference state, as in the case of preferring to gamble. In doing so, these visitor behaviours become more independent. To that extent, human behaviour may be the result of an interaction between the characteristics of an individual and their choice of activity.

If young low-season visitors are seen as thinking, reasoning consumers who make conscious choices about present activities, like gambling, and future activities, like returning to thoroughbred horse racetracks, the racetrack environment is compatible with needs, goals and expectations. Age differences, however, affect reasoning, as maturation not only distributes behaviour across time, but suggests that younger individuals are subjected to a selective interpretation of existence and its possibilities (Murphy, 1990), since the qualitative in-depth interview analysis and the NZRB Visitor Survey indicate that most young visitors are attracted to the drinking, socialising, fashion and music entertainment features of thoroughbred horse racing, while half of the young low-season visitors appear to visit, primarily, to gamble (*Figure 11*, p. 76), gamble on most races (*Figure 21*, p. 86) and prefer to gamble ahead of socialising or drinking (*Figure 23*, p. 88) Here, young low-season visitor pursuits are expected to be

limited if they are exposed to very few entertainment options. Nevertheless, 84% of the low-season visitors have visited before (*Figure 12*, p. 77), while 80% of the sample is most likely to return during high-season periods (*Figure 15*, p. 80). Thus, the young low-season visitor may still be subject to a variety of media forces that succeed in pushing decision-sets toward these kinds of mainstream entertainment activities. However, for high-season visitors, most of the event is spent drinking alcohol, socialising with friends and competing against other young visitors in fashion competitions. Young low-season visitors, therefore, are more likely to ignore the kind of advertising that creates this image. At the same time, these behaviour choices are interchangeable. If an absence of advertising does not necessarily deter young low-season visitors, they more likely assign certain alternative activities, like fashion competitions, particular functions if the basic elements of those tasks serve as motives mediated by constantly recurring opportunities surrounding visitors. In other words, the *attraction* dimensions that exist as young males become interested in how fashion competitions enable young females to dress a particular way during the high-season is not an attraction that exists for young low-season visitors. Instead, where fashion activities are relevant throughout the high-season, the gambling actions of young low-season racetrack visitors appear to suggest that traditional, everyday racing activities are still about allowing the market to develop unabated, even if satisfaction expectations are much higher among youth.

The presence of particular activities throughout the high-season appears to stimulate the same interest in horse racing events if word-of-mouth advertising supersedes print and electronic marketing effectiveness and if the industry lacks the resources to employ highly skilled staff to identify how to create a sustainable pathway into the industry for young visitors. Although, as visitors are motivated to approach, support or obtain experiences they evaluate as positive, it is unlikely to become the only particular source of motivation relevant to social behaviour. In the same way, young low-season visitors appear to accept that there are fewer resources available at low-season events. That does not suggest that these visitors prefer fewer activities, but rather, that available supply matches existing demand. Certainly, both high-season and young low-season visitors return to sites with experience, as visit frequency and short travel distance dimensions provide encouragement, but as attachment intensity increases, setting and experience evaluations improve. Ultimately, if visitors often possess a wide variety of needs that need to remain in relative balance to achieve positive satisfaction, then young low-

season visitor motivation may not be the sum of potential benefits, but a degree of specific object strength or weakness if setting focus of low-season events inhibits activity growth.

## 5.2 Visitor Motivation

Understanding visitor behaviour variables in event development is important. At the same time, some visitors may not always demonstrate a particular interest in achieving a more intellectual sequence of needs beyond associated love or play states. Indeed, conventions and social norms within the industry are constructed by how love needs affirm groups and by how play needs address esteem. For young low-season visitors, these conventions might have evolved to move motivation closer to relevance in the planning of experience. It suggests that where a thoroughbred horse racing event struggles to achieve relevance for young visitors because of lack of horse interest, the racetrack does succeed in supplying adequate racing to low-season gamblers, who appear to negotiate the underlying cultural issue within the New Zealand public by understanding the different gambling dimensions that are offered and what it takes to win, even if that is often achieved at home and on television. These are the kind of visitors the industry wants to harness, certainly if they are experienced, knowledgeable gamblers who understand what the attraction is. Still, as the love dimension of racing continues to exist, young low-season visitors attend with friends perhaps to demonstrate how self-confidence is sought as a product of ego in everyday living. If this is true, it also suggests young low-season visitor motivation follows a pattern of needs-based goal states. Here, it may be argued that *Figure 23* (p. 87), which demonstrates that the largest portion of the sample prefers to gamble, provides a basic structure for this phenomenon. This could be expressed as follows:

*Table 30*

### **Hierarchy of Needs Theory vs. Low-Season Results**

<b>Maslow (1943) Hierarchy</b>	<b>Low-Season Hierarchy</b>	<b>Example</b>
Self-Actualisation Needs	Safety Needs	N/A
Esteem Needs	Esteem Needs	Figure 1.2
Love Needs	Love Needs	Figure 3.2
Safety Needs	Physiological Needs	Figure 14.2 & Figure 15.2
Physiological Needs	Self-Actualisation Needs	Figure 8.2 & Figure 11.2

Table 31

**Classification of Needs Theory vs. Low-Season Results**

<b>Murray (1938) Model</b>	<b>Low-Season Model</b>	<b>Example</b>
Achievement Needs	✓	Figure 1.2 & Figure 11.2
Dominance Needs	✗	N/A
Autonomy Needs	✗	N/A
Affiliation Needs	✓	Figure 3.2
Play Needs	✓	Figure 1.2 & Figure 12.2
Cognisance Needs	✓	Figure 11.2 & Figure 8.2

The above models demonstrate that young low-season visitor needs do not follow the conventional pattern of human behaviour outlined by Murray (1938) or Maslow (1943). Rather, primary visitor needs do not appear to be as straightforward as Maslow (1943) would suggest. Instead, these young low-season visitors begin their search for satisfaction by attempting to maximise the potential of their experience. Specifically, fulfilling gambling pursuits appears to be more important than fulfilling basic physiological or love needs, consistent with what McIntosh & Thyne (2004) argue as a point of difference, that where managers and marketers succeed in recognising the unique agenda and values of visitors within the encounter, they begin to understand how experience affects resultant satisfaction among customers. It could also be argued that not every experience qualifies a certain type of behaviour if moods or affective reactions are often only presumed to exist where the degree of external stimuli renders any and all motivation functionally equivalent.

The results of this study suggest half of the young low-season visitors attend racetracks, primarily, to gamble, while most high-season visitors are primarily attracted to socialising. It becomes, then, a question of the extent to which event awareness affects particular distinctions. As socialising among high-season visitors matches industry perceptions of it, it exists not of a specific encouragement alone, but of an opportunity to experience something as a group. Similarly, young low-season visitors are not only more likely to return as high-season participants, but more likely to map more of the environment, since the short travel distance to the racetracks does not discourage such visitors from participating. In the same way, affective moods or reinforcements invigorate various needs as visitors move from activity to activity. However, for both high-season visitors and low-season visitors, social ‘push’ intermediaries help increase exposure to the racetrack environment more than advertising ‘pull’ factors, which not

only aid in evaluating how much is learned about events, but activities linking events around networks or groups, as well. It is also likely that such pull factors circumscribe such linkages to visitors more assured in their decisions and event preference-sets. If the horse experience is secondary to the actual environment in which the high-season visitor is creating themselves or being presented with, then gambling is expected to become much less relevant. However, gambling constitutes the highest proportion of total spend as a percentage of race-day expenditure among high-season visitors, just as quality horses and jockeys build into expectations and subsequent assessments. Thus, events that manage to achieve expectation and evaluation symmetry demonstrate that visitors can not only be more assured of their role in a thoroughbred horse racing system serving online, television and international market interests, but more consistent in their analysis of how such roles satisfy such needs.

If conscious motives are expected to set short-term goals and experiences, visitor behaviour may be nothing more than experiential consumption to young visitors. Here, moods, emotions and activities appear to play important roles in visitor motivation where hedonistic responses occur in the consumption phases of pleasure experience (Morgan et al., 2002). Thus, visitors are more likely to respond to playful images, acting as “part of a process of optimisation of experience” (Ryan, 1997, p. 49), no more obvious than in the fun and entertainment sought among high-season visitors. Indeed, if play needs dominate youth culture, regular commitment or interest is expected to sustain it. Yet, young low-season visitors demonstrate a clearer attitude toward or longer-term interest in place identity. Their decisions seem to be constructed with greater gambling purpose, utility and consistency than their high-season equivalents, who, amid fashion competitions, marquees and youth club activities on-course, appear to have very little knowledge of how much money horse gamblers and owners are winning around them, at a growth rate of over 107% for the past decade (NZTR<sup>1</sup>, 2009).

Both the qualitative in-depth interview analysis and the NZRB Visitor Survey suggest that play goals are not as precise or distinct with regard to horse racing, that expectations of play are broad and diverse and that very little is understood about the significance of gambling. In that way, racetracks appear to transform themselves into contrived sellers of goods and services as proactive marketers of products for high-season visitors, which as Chapter 1 revealed, leaves very little resources for low-season activity. Moreover, both the qualitative in-depth interview analysis and the NZRB Visitor Survey indicate that there is a strong preference among young high-season

visitors for social drinking and fashion competition activities, and these activities could thus reflect an intensity of play and esteem needs among high-season visitor markets. By catering to these needs, this suggests that racetrack marketers react to an intensity of physiological deficiencies, constantly affected by internal dynamics and how such dynamics interact with external processes of change. Yet, change does not appear to be taking place throughout the high-season. Indeed, the status quo is not an option if the industry wants to leverage opportunities and escape the kind of existential social drinking cycle among youth it has been stuck in for over twenty years. In other words, racetracks do not negotiate their engagement with visitor processes, nor contest their roles in the world. If visitor satisfaction is an initial comparison between pre-purchase expectation and post-purchase evaluation (Wang et al., 2009), then, as Ryan (1997, p. 44) would argue, “intense moments of strong affective emotion seem to follow periods of negative psychological experience”, certainly if The NZRB Visitor Survey results (*Figure 8*, p. 21) suggest a broad range of low expectations, like leading trainers and jockeys, rate more positively among satisfaction indicators. In such cases, the visitor’s post-purchase perception of the event is more positive than their initial expectation. To that end, minor net effects may be important in establishing long-term effects. It also reinforces the idea that conscious motives become more important in pleasure experience.

Visitor needs are by no means exhaustive, certainly if agendas change. Rather, visitors assume a physiological factor, like food, exists independent of an individual’s awareness of it, as if to occupy some underlying state achieved as visitors misinterpret wants for needs. Indeed, high-season visitors tend to demonstrate that basic, physiological functions, like quality food and beverage (*Figure 8*, p. 21), are important elements in decision-making to achieve goal-states. Although these same underlying physiological needs are important for young low-season visitors, they are not as important as gambling, which dominates the visitor’s immediate need and subsequent preference.

Young low-season visitors demonstrate that the socialising and drinking dimensions of autonomous play not only exist as products of how preference-sets match supply, but by how such items encourage most young low-season visitors to maintain an intensity of such activities. It may also suggest that high-season visitors are less likely to react to the external pressure for conformity among thoroughbred horse gamblers, who are expected by the industry to help drive up income and stake money, since their largely play

consumption at these racetracks could be considered more existential, rather than experiential. Yet, young low-season visitors, who depend on similar comforts, demonstrate that even as a decision to visit is primarily informed by group activity, subsequent gambling choices, activities and preferences may remain individual pursuits. Gambling decision-sets, then, appear to be subjective, certainly if high-season visitors do not demonstrate how important such activities ultimately become. Thus, young low-season visitors may not only be more assured of their gambling behaviour, but more consistent within it. Similarly, visitors that rely on social status are more likely to value entertainment and gambling highly (Moscardo et al., 1996). High-season visitors not only ascribe the most value to status as they attend to socialise with friends in a social environment fostering aesthetic fashion, but demonstrate a fundamental attraction to various entertainment facilities, as well. Entertainment, however, also appears to be threatened by how such facilities manufacture patterns of behaviour, since play needs among young visitors are seen as inhibited by how identities are constructed and by how satisfaction is affected. If so, this would not only indicate how much the entertainment dimensions of high-season horse racing would be reduced, but, in affecting patterns of promotion, how patterns of behaviour would have to change, as well. For young low-season visitors, social status does not rate highly, while neither fashion prestige attached to esteem nor belonging attached to love seem to dominate preference-sets. On the one hand, what young low-season visitors ascribe to entertainment may not be more than their own assessment of how such internal place dynamics stimulate such particular goal states if racetracks eliminate most live entertainment throughout low-season racing schedules. Nevertheless, entertainment sustains attractiveness. To that end, the push factors are said to derive from a connection between the internal live band, BBQ and fashion competition entertainment and the external festive season processes matching existing demand.

The kind of underlying or deeper needs visitors do not wish to articulate or express (Lundberg, 1972) suggests motives appear to be rooted in patterns of behaviour, central to the kind of value systems that guide pleasure experience. However, products and services may be less a feature of experience than a function of it. If hedonistic or play needs are an important phase in a cycle of various behaviours, then high-season visitor perceptions about products, like alcohol, and the customer service that underpins it do not reflect a search for novelty or difference. Indeed, visitors demonstrate that the sale of alcohol appears to play a significant role in racetrack consumption as it becomes a

prime motivator of the high-season experience. Here, hedonistic consumption reflects both the 'party' dimensions that characterise play and the drinking dimensions that characterise physical pleasure and social life. Thus, the search for the extraordinary may end when high-season visitors satisfy goals. On the other hand, if young low-season visitors equally value products, like alcohol, at the racetrack, they may not become archetypical 'idealists' who seek intellectual entertainment without mass-consumption attached to it (Dalen, 1989), but rather, a kind of hedonistic intellectual influenced by the social behaviours of the group they visited with.

Young low-season visitors not only appear to design their own schedules, but seem to sustain such schedules, as if parallel. To that end, intellectual entertainment may be found in how racetracks manage to set the stage for gambling as young low-season visitors utilise knowledge to challenge both the context upon which spontaneity derives and the potential upon which skill, growth or maturity emerges. Quality, then, may not be a factor or reality in such industries, but a perception in the minds of each customer (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999), as if to say, visitors are not conscious or rational until their maturity as potential visitors evolves to accommodate many different shades of phenomena (Sharpley, 1994). In fact, quality is one of the biggest concerns the thoroughbred horse racing industry faces, and admits to having lost its way by trying to accommodate large international racing markets at the expense of local interests. As high-season visitors demonstrate strong commitment to satisfying love needs derived from socialising, play needs derived from fun and esteem needs derived from prestige, it not only suggests needs are selective, but subjective, at least in the minds of younger markets. In the same way, young low-season visitors appear to commit to satisfying cognisance needs derived from gambling, as particular knowledge guides particular experience. For high-season visitors, it is more likely that the extractive use value ascribed to activity matches particular perspectives of it, while the attribution of low-season product value demonstrates how particular young low-season visitor ideals personalise particular choices within an industry that has consumed its energies, and its betting public, with too many racing days.

It could be argued that different visitors display different tolerances to different environments. On the one hand, high-season visitors predominantly display basic, physiological, love and play needs at thoroughbred horse racetracks. Yet, in the same way, young low-season visitors display similar physiological, love and play needs. The point of difference, or in this case, the strong gambling preference among young low-



season visitors (*Figure 11*, p. 76; *Figure 21*, p. 86; *Figure 23*, p. 88), therefore indicates that visitors only display different needs-based taxonomies, but, when compared, different complexities within them. In fact, as most high-season visitors are expected to be influenced by social groups, their decisions suggest it is something both straightforward and predictable. Young low-season visitors, on the other hand, seem much more flexible, as primary motives not only suggest that cognisance needs dominate self-pursuit, but that autonomy needs simultaneously reinforce social and economic divisions nonetheless rooted outside the experience itself. To that extent, racetracks must consider the economic relationships in their cultural context, and not simply as a set of market mechanisms, an approach the industry has been all too familiar with throughout its relationship with T.A.B agencies, television channels and the Australian racing industry. In that way, 'functionalist' approaches to visitor motivation suggest young low-season visitor behaviour supports market segmentation and analysis. Indeed, as visitors merge acts of consumption into notions of play (Shaw & Williams, 2004), they are beginning to reinstitute homeostasis, certainly if such deficiencies are 'restocked' throughout a cycle of specific phases, reactivated by internal processes of demand and reconstituted by how effectively such events alleviate such needs. It perhaps demonstrates that 'structuralist' approaches to young low-season visitors not only identify how states push visitors toward events, but how young low-season visitor motivation could be seen as a process of lasting dispositions. If novelty is not built into how such processes evolve, the 'reductionist' relationship, observed as tension between familiarity and originality, does not affect young low-season visitor pursuit, because advertising does not transform the everyday racetrack into a media event. Perhaps, if recognising that high-season marketing and selling tends to lose its way with regard to loyalty between generations of markets, perceptions of low-integrity inside and outside the industry lead young low-season visitors to search for everyday experiences that somehow exist outside the political and economic parameters of commercial success.

If young low-season visitors are not pushed by their emotional needs or pulled by the emotional benefits of activities at events (Goossens, 1998), they appear to be influenced by the cognitive dimensions such activities produce. Specifically, play, love and esteem needs, primarily valued by high-season visitors, ultimately disappear. However, if multi-sensory images and arousal are important in the use of consumer products at events (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), then it implies some object injects significant

relevance into place identity. Indeed, the industry already contributes as much as \$1.4 billion in total economic activity through New Zealand television, Australian television and T.A.B gambling outlets, making up as much as 1.3% of New Zealand's GDP, which suggests that racetracks become for the country, as a whole, a significant source for income and turnover. If these sources accommodate cathartic experience or demonstrate how these experiences enable visitors to step out of their real lives into temporary activity, events successfully stimulate carefree experience, activating otherwise inactive motives, like gambling. However, the roles of young low-season visitors begin to change as they negotiate their engagement in the context of competing demand.

These visitors, because of their on-going interest throughout the year, not only demonstrate how significantly internal processes of racetrack supply tend to restrict different markets from creating demand, but how contrived experiences are transformed where young visitors both explore and exploit prior knowledge. Thus, the low-season may become for these visitors an expressive experience, insomuch as it encourages younger markets with greater utility to return. However, disentangling contrived experience from a gradually maturing behaviour transformation that appears to be taking place throughout the low-season may be difficult, certainly if the love and play needs that dominate high-season experience also reflect needs among young low-season visitors. At the same time, the contextual 'facts' that are available about events may not be more than temporary allocations if preferred activities produce knowledge in and of themselves. In other words, the kind of information that is available about low-season racing events may be of little relevance to young low-season visitors, who have already visited the racetrack during the low-season before with goals to suggest they are interested in gambling on most races more than eating, drinking and socialising. Yet, dominant gambling preference-sets are problematic, as risk not only heightens uncertainty of outcome, but does not always distinguish between what is tangible and intangible about products and services. If this is true, play needs entangle cognisance needs.

For young low-season visitors, the liminal zone of playfulness is not a product of converging activity cultures, but a product of how events generate relevance across markets. Frenetic, indulgent high-season behaviours, on the other hand, appear to reflect a rejection of gambling interest. If this is also true, it assumes young low-season visitors operate from within a specific gambling need, gambling want and gambling preference

cycle of phases both pre-disposed and structured, as if to achieve a kind of introspective meaning. However, where this cycle transforms regular gambling need motives into gambling preferences, it suggests that the meaning of ordinary behaviour does not change, certainly if visitors are quick to learn the key features of location. It is, perhaps, especially relevant to the discussion of ‘dumbing-down’ the gambling experience to make it easier for new gamblers within the thoroughbred horse racing industry, which has already had trouble convincing gamblers to treat each bet as something they should have considered researching before placing.

Where performance is inferior to expectation, adaptive behaviour is developed to create alternative wants and achieve satisfaction (Ryan, 1997). If visitors escape summer in search of winter, crowds in search of isolation and complexity in search of simplicity, young low-season visitors may in fact be attempting to fit alternative experiences into pre-conceived mental conceptions of the industry by searching for difference. However, it implies that such binary oppositions close the gap between love, autonomy and cognisance needs, alleviating the various tensions they create as independent realities. Indeed, as public and private life converges, income variables do not inhibit visitors and are seen as less an obstacle to exploration than a reaction to it. At the same time, the kind of cultural self-confidence high-season groups enjoy appears to be sought in how primary gambling needs sustain primary gambling actions with friends among young low-season visitors. To that end, socio-economic-symbolic inversion both extends such processes and sustains them. If similar love and play needs are expected to constitute both experiential and existential motivation (Cohen, 1979), experimental and recreational consumption appears to demonstrate how motives, like gambling, become an important process in pleasure experience. Indeed, though they may be seen as a diversion (Cohen, 1979), these motives ultimately suggest that what visitors set out to accomplish appears to sustain such categorisations.

For young low-season visitors, experiential and existential motives not only characterise gambling culture, but suggest that experimental, diversionary and recreational motives altogether sustain such activities within it. Certainly, if events are nothing more than exotic backdrops, in front of which visitors construct familiar patterns of behaviour (Shaw & Williams, 2004), these backdrops set the stage for young low-season visitors, who through gambling express a desire to immerse themselves in the culture of their event (existential; experimental; experiential) and utilise opportunities available to them (diversionary). To the same extent, as these backdrops are seen as different only in use

of time (Shaw & Williams, 2004), the social (experimental), pleasure-seeking (diversionary) and self-esteem (existential; recreational) motives among high-season visitors appear to suggest that what events demonstrate as quantity may in fact reflect a shift in quality, since market-driven and customer-orientated 'fitness for purpose' event definitions do change throughout the thoroughbred racing seasons for this service industry. Certainly, for high-season corporate guests, the relevant Christmas theme is something that becomes a part of the corporate function culture, where six hours can be spent entertaining clients, enjoying a free lunch and drinking event-sponsored alcohol. It may be argued, then, that the low-season becomes an alternative backdrop for young markets who want to relax in wide open spaces with a picnic on a Saturday or Sunday afternoon.

It is important to recognise similar shifts in visitor experience, as they not only delineate various roles, but various place identity values, as well. However, if it could be argued that visitors who seek to satisfy high-order needs, like esteem and love, achieve greater knowledge as the product components of their lifestyle begin to shape particular techniques (Anderson & Littrell, 1995), these same visitors may demonstrate greater competence and self-determination in achieving balance between stress and boredom (Hartmann, 1979). On the one hand, high-season visitors contend that various esteem motives match existing expectation and subsequent satisfaction where pursuits sustain feelings of belonging. On the other hand, as higher-order love and esteem needs dominate behaviour, the environment might only successfully exist for these visitors as an object no more endearing than in its perceived promise to provide experiential excitement. To that end, visitors not only limit learned experience (Ryan, 1997), but curiosity, as well.

High-season visitors are not only seen as much less interested or curious about history or culture of place, but far less interested in how such processes evolve over time. In fact, even the industry would admit that it has not provided the basis for cultural interest among young markets, as infrastructure designed in the 1960s to be more user-friendly for older age groups continues to dampen the industry's image as a 21<sup>st</sup> century entertainment outlet. In the same way, 'travel career' achievements determine what direction visitors move across a continuum or up a ladder as various needs are scaled or rated throughout time (Ryan, 1997). That is also to say, if lower-ladder physiological needs achieve greater ratings than upper-ladder love, cognisance or esteem needs, satisfaction decreases. Eating and drinking is activated among youth, confirmed as

important among visitors. However, as upper-ladder needs dominate motivation, high-season visitor needs become more actualised as love and esteem motivation, expectation and satisfaction aligns symmetrically. For young low-season visitors, higher-order cognisance motives are just as balanced. That is to say, gambling motives match expectations and subsequent satisfaction. However, as lower-order physiological values strengthen among young low-season visitors, they become essential to visitors with greater knowledge and pursuit. As much of those values orbit the younger portion of visitors within the low-season sample with stronger commitment to such motives, it suggests maturation not only shifts, but evolves to spread across patterns of seasonal demand, activity and operation. In the same way, it suggests that while two different groups of visitors pass through very similar experience cycles, their knowledge and anticipation of outcome varies, certainly if gambling motives transform as utility materialises.

If external encouragements are important in shaping interest at stages of development, a commitment to events may not represent the discovery of new centres of production. Rather, young low-season visitor motivation appears to demonstrate how important centres become in shaping preference-sets and how sets re-create internal place dynamics of the past as socially constructed, external processes gradually begin to remodel specific market values. If this is true, these visitors are expected to become realistically-orientated, which is probably why most arrive at the low-season racetrack with knowledge of how to gamble and of how often they want to gamble. However, that is also to say that such high-risk activity, like gambling, is mediated. Young low-season visitors not only demonstrate how important gambling activity becomes, but how values do not restrict motives from overlaying experience. In the same way, spontaneity plays a significant role in pleasure experience as it removes barriers created by the industry and the notions of event or place-marketing, reinforcing autonomous play.

For young low-season visitors, it might be reasonable to conclude that a lack of advertising increases spontaneity, certainly as most of the market is otherwise encouraged. However, spontaneity is greatly reduced by how symmetrically initial motives are built into preference-sets and activity among young low-season visitors. To that end, young low-season visitors do not detach themselves from objective reasoning. Instead, as returning visitors, their behaviour is more likely to suggest that rather than through a set of underlying forces combining to aid the transformation of landscapes into new spaces for consumption, young low-season motivation may simply be

emerging through a gradual, if not subtle search for everyday pleasure. If this is true, these visitors represent a portion of the consistent customer base the industry has sought for over three decades. Moreover, they appear to become the kind of ambassadors the industry hopes will help sell the event to like-minded individuals, even against a tide of typical New Zealand middle-class thoroughbred horse gambling, which continues to contribute to an annual leakage of around \$300 million.

Quite often, it is important to understand how individuals consume objects. If visitors who achieve self-actualisation are private, they would appear to conceal the practice of such activities from friends or family. However, most young markets not only appear open-minded, but influenced by how such audiences contribute to such interest. For young low-season visitors, friends and family only appear to accommodate experience and are not barriers to motivation. Rationality, then, appears to exist among young low-season visitors, who do not report any particular commitment to alternative activities, even as highly commercial Christmas, Carnival and Cup racing events continue to interest this age group more than any other racing event throughout the year.

If only experienced visitors are more assured of their needs to achieve greater satisfaction (Pearce, 1988), both high and low season visitors demonstrate that gambling expectations appear to be qualitatively different. As a result, 'peak' and 'off-peak' experience suggests that what young low-season visitors ascribe to needs, actions and preferences could just as easily render any stimuli functionally equivalent. In other words, the differences that do exist do not necessarily have to exist if similarities encourage visitors to make global assessments of experience rather than narrow assessments of one life domain (Diener, 1992). However, visitor behaviour among youth at the thoroughbred racetrack is an issue steeped in history, perhaps because the industry has always allowed the market to develop unabated. The consequent high-season youth fights, the vomiting, the drug use and endangered children, warranting police intervention, certainly contributes to the high-season 'Party Central' attitude racetracks continually embrace. Indeed, if this 'repertoire of elements' (Argyle et al., 1981) converges culture, no significant differences as to strength of motivation between categories based on past visits is said to exist (Ryan, 1997). However, young low-season visitors appear to demonstrate much more consistent commitments to gambling motivation, which have enabled them to achieve greater knowledge and behavioural depth, as well. It might be argued, then, that young low-season visitors appear to seek intrinsic reward, certainly if typical prestige attached to extrinsic esteem is of little

value, indeed relevance throughout a season that does not foster such interests. At the same time, young low-season visitors recognise value attached to activity, as it not only builds into gambling task behaviour, dominating experience, but improves it, accomplishing tasks. Although, as high-season visitors attend with friends, gambling activities also begin to move from relatively inert motivational positions to rapidly regenerated behaviour tasks, which suggests social visitors might actually view activity as rewarding if later viewed as something to accomplish (Banner & Himmelfarb, 1985). Indeed, if extrinsically motivated visitors often regard activity as work or obligation (Banner & Himmerfarb, 1985), the corporate packages provided throughout the high-season appear to alleviate such concerns, certainly as they provide a service enabling visitors to sit at a table and consume a free lunch. That is also to say, such activities are 'self-directed', as they closely relate to emotion-dominant felt-needs and value systems (Gnoth, 1997). To that end, 'outer-directed' pursuits appear to occupy low-season interests, as visitors not only continue to enjoy similar comforts, but manage to mitigate various deficiencies by strengthening others.

Such behaviours of representation are contested entities, as they do not merely reflect reality, but contextualise and structure particular people and places at particular times (Lidchi, 1997). Thus, outer-directed young low-season visitor motivation may not be more than an idea consigned to the behavioural periphery, somewhere outside the power and politics of mainstream activity (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). If this is true, it suggests that thoroughbred horse racing events only successfully attract young visitors during favourable periods of the year that are capable of achieving the ingredients necessary to ensure the aesthetic beauty of the horse, the best jockeys, the fashion competitions, the live bands, the BBQs and the marquees all contribute to a familiar image of thoroughbred horse racing as sufficient use of mainstream entertainment resource management. Nevertheless, as motives and values may be combined, psychological studies may begin to facilitate much clearer, more consistent portrayals of social, cultural and situational factors as they begin to standardise motivational processes (Gnoth, 1997). It also suggests that, as outer-directed pursuits displace inner-directed needs among young low-season visitors, their perception of low-season event management represents a kind of individual psychological maturity. Indeed, as the primary young low-season visitor interest does not switch from gambling to socialising, eating and drinking, or anything else throughout the course of experience, the cognitive maps that conceptualise place image not only develop patterns of learning, but depths of analysis and choice, as young low-season visitors continue to internalise and utilise

traditional gambling channels at the racetrack. If experience has the ability to stimulate retained additional learning, cognitive maps or familiarities subsequently influence decisions among visitors, forwarding each into a more advanced stage in the purchasing process (Milman & Pizam, 1995).

On the one hand, experience perhaps explains why most young low-season visitors arrived at the racetrack ready to gamble on most races. On the other hand, it perhaps suggests that seasonal advertising obscures or avoids some of the issues of the high-season, creating systems of social differentiation. As potential visitors, aware of an event, do not visit, they are not expected to express an equal or greater likelihood to visit (Milman & Pizam, 1995) if cognisance deficiencies already inhibit such individuals from engaging. In fact, the presence of young low-season visitor attendance alone demonstrates how the identifiable factors and processes between the two seasons enable this market to exist within a degree of overlap between perceived and promoted image. However, if this overlap often standardises the image held by the visitor when the values and expectations do not change, primary young low-season visitor motivation does continue to distinguish the actual experience of the event, widening the division between the more established 'economic' perspective on high-season return-on-investment and the 'everyday' perspective that appears to be emerging within a portion of younger visitors who demonstrate interest in some of the wider functions of thoroughbred horse racing culture.

For high-season visitors, that gap appears to close as the actual image matches ideal perceptions of that image. For young low-season visitors, the ideal image may in fact reflect indulgence in the kind of behaviour that optimises time and space within a short day-trip schedule by accepting the cost of discarding other areas. That is also to say, pleasure may be experienced in many different contexts and in many different ways, but it is pleasure and difference which separate visitor experiences from everyday life (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Here, the realities within which young low-season visitors exist may constitute similarly constructed social lifestyle formations, since systematic differences in leisure practice still link to historic predictors (Roberts, 1997). In other words, most thoroughbred horse gamblers within the New Zealand gambling market continue to favour television, T.A.B. and overseas gambling, which is always reflected in the pressures the industry faces with low attendance averages and high-season crowd targets. Roles therefore determine how realities shape pleasure experience and how activity shifts individual roles (Ryan, 1997). Young low-season visitors not only



maintain their position on gambling throughout the course of pleasure, but seem at least more assigned to such roles than high-season 'equivalents'. Here, gambling may in fact become a selective process of opportunities to satisfy needs as play routines encourage individuals to engage. At the same time, high-season visitor roles do not appear to shift, as physiological needs remain relatively inert concerns. Indeed, higher-order esteem needs become increasingly dominate as gambling expectations inform subsequent preference.

For young low-season visitors, expectations appear to reside in the relative strength of activity and in the relative confidence various individuals possess as experienced visitors. Thus, young low-season visitors appear to embrace definitions of both object and place, recognising their specific attributes. Indeed, if different visitor types are attracted to such places at different stages (Butler, 1980; Plog, 1974), maturation demonstrates how knowledge evolves. If the everyday thoroughbred horse racetrack visitor favours Saturday racing, just as the everyday overseas racetrack gambler favours local New Zealand racing after 12:00pm for the same day, then young low-season visitors appear to accept what it takes to drive such internationalised activity. Perhaps, the low-season could be seen as both an environment upon which different regimes of local and global power inscribe activity meaning or economic effect. Nevertheless, young low-season visitor interests are most likely a departure from the holistic, discursive formations of particular high-season commercial interests as visitors begin to decode mainstream stereotypes. In fact, the cultural conventions that underpin what the young visitor market expects to consume may not be more than what they expect to see or what creators want them to expect. Specifically, the marketing fund allocations that are targeted at New Zealand's most popular thoroughbred horse racetracks by the NZTR for high-season activity subsequently suggest that racetracks will not provide funded activity for visitors until the November to March period. Thus, most potential low-season visitors do not expect to experience overcrowding, while most thoroughbred racetracks do not expect more than ten thousand visitors to arrive at their gates more than three or four times a year. Alternatively, the young low-season visitor profile appears to suggest that as age decreases, competence increases. Nevertheless, young low-season visitors appear to represent an important element in the event system.

Shared mental conceptions depend on the relationship between things in the world and the conceptual system which operates as mental representations of them (Hall, 1997). Perhaps, such motives constitute 'pleasurescape', true not only of why young markets

visit, but of how they shape such behaviour displaying what they enjoy. It is as if to say, the young low-season visitors that do not prefer the same high-season patterns of dancing to live bands, socialising in marquees or dressing-up for fashion competitions become, with regard to typical youth behaviour, cultural invaders, somehow consigned to some perspective of stranger-hood. It is more likely, however, that young low-season visitors discard provincial, if not purposeless experiences for centres of self-production. Still, as both love and physiological needs structure such centres, young low-season visitors appear to seek the same stimulation mass markets appear to need in the relative safety of organised mass culture, where younger markets maintain a particular attraction to Christmas, Carnival and Cup racing events.

If young low-season visitors appear to search for pleasure wherever it is available, it suggests that events imbue their products with cultural appeal, impinging on the market's sense of identity or orientation. The travel distances undertaken to arrive at the racetrack also appear to persuade such visitors to return, suggesting that as experience permeates, so too does knowledge, if it is accessible. If this is true, it perhaps suggests that as annual visitors, young low-season visitors represent everyday industry gamblers, who are willing to attend racetrack events during the low-season predominantly established for the betting markets. To the same extent, various activity cycles appear to suggest such marketing approaches denote 'Best vs. Rest' truths. Specifically, that marketing to the thousands of young high-season visitors is the best approach, while marketing to a few hundred total visitors throughout the low-season is not. Nevertheless, while much of the annual marketing budget must be allocated to events that attract the better horses, receive the most attention and interest the largest crowds, the industry still has to accommodate overseas gamblers, who prefer to bet on international races five to ten minutes apart, if they can, whenever they can.

Most notably, the young low-season visitor personality appears to fit somewhere in-between the established 'psychocentric' and 'allocentric' archetypes. Specifically, these visitors become 'mid-centrics', as they are more curious and explorative (50% visit to gamble; 94% likely to visit when encouraged; highest proportion of visitors have knowledge of all common gambling options; majority engage in 3/5 activities), less restrictive in spending (58.9% gamble on majority of races), less cautious and conservative (58.9% gamble on majority of races; 61% not influenced by horse names), more likely to revisit sites (84% returning visitors; 79% likely to return for 'major' events) and less likely to prefer well-known brand products and advertising mediums

(only 5.5% influenced by advertising; 49% prefer gambling, while only 27% prefer eating-drinking). For the thoroughbred horse racing industry, this archetype essentially provides a 'bridge' between extrinsically orientated high-season activity and intrinsically orientated low-season decision-making, where such visitors appear more likely to exhibit loyalty to thoroughbred horse racing events in the future.

### 5.3 Visitor Behaviour

As seasons transform sites, they become, in societal and cultural terms, even more wide-reaching than financial returns alone. Thus, expressions of needs are satisfied if the environment successfully accommodates the kind of representations that can no longer be divorced from the underpinning economic and structural realities from which they surface (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). That is to say, while the thoroughbred racing low-season may not provide the same mainstream drinking, social and entertainment activity excitement, the racetrack continues to be a familiar place to gather, where visitors can enjoy food and beverage, socialise with friends, place a bet and attend something that may be new and different. However, where high-season groups seek a mixture of needs, young low-season visitors appear to favour relatively distinct experience. Like the high-season visitor, the different young low-season visitor behaviour indicates that there are particular needs, representing highly characteristic tendencies and existing only within a close relationship between perceptions of young market gambling, low-season gambling attitude and subsequent motivation.

Push factors do not appear to have any particular influence over visitors as indeed, refined images do not always lead to refined preferences. Instead, where particular processes may be seen as obstacles (Schutz, 1971), new visitors more likely seek a kind of shelter or home within the kind of habitual physiological and love based phenomena racetracks continue to provide. Thus, the new environment is no more a threat to their habitual thinking (Schutz, 1971). Therefore, social fluidity or comfort appears to be the result of how young low-season visitors articulate that environment and its effect, which is to say, what their attitude becomes toward high-season processes. If these underlying processes do not stimulate low-season demand, visitor behaviour becomes an immediate, conscious decision. Yet, young low-season visitors demonstrate in their primary gambling consumption that everyday needs are still important recognitions of leisure space. In other words, if a successful high-season social atmosphere is the result of a delicate relationship between women, who attract more men to the racetrack, and men, who follow women toward activities, then young low-season visitor attraction may

be the result of everyday weekend scheduling that manages to sustain international investment within the industry while providing uninhibited portrayals of New Zealand's 'racing and beer' culture, etched in experiences that ensure every home has its own traditional race event to attend (Sargent, 2009). If it could be argued that situational determinants, like peer-pressure or advertising, are informed by strong perceptions of leisure, mutually responsive motivation and outcome appears to eventuate among visitors. However, there appears to be an uneasy co-existence between the young low-season visitor, who discards perceptions, and the experience provider, who enforces them. In particular, young low-season visitors do not appear to search for the kind of experiences that thoroughbred horse racing event creators invest most of the marketing budget in, offer as a premium service and identify as sufficient use of racetrack selection, even when over 12,000 high-season visitors reportedly enjoy them the most. Instead, the typical 'Party Central' attitude tends to disappear as most young low-season visitors stated they prefer to arrive at the racetrack to gamble on most races. Still, immediate conscious approaches appear to suggest young low-season visitors in fact 'escape' the everyday environment as 'seeking' routines appear to end at how little influence horse names have over motivation, how few activities are engaged in and how easily visitors are encouraged. Indeed, very little may be sought beyond play or love need satisfaction among young low-season visitors. To that end, activities surrounding physiological values, like alcohol, appear to suggest that gambling is less a distinct origin of play than a result of it. Nevertheless, young low-season visitors appear more certain in their assessment of experience, as gambling knowledge proves to be much higher among young low-season visitors.

Not surprisingly, physiological needs appear to strengthen among visitors within the younger segmentation. Thus, 'escape' behaviours may be found in how alcohol directly affects youth, who, with increased gambling knowledge, gamble on most races. Still, young low-season visitors do not appear to search for the kind of playgrounds of pleasure central to anonymity or hedonism among visitors Lehtonen and Mäenpää (1997) and Campbell (1987) describe, but perhaps, situations for self-reward central to personal growth. That is not to say that such situations represent scrupulous or covert intentions, certainly as they already appear guided by knowledge. Instead, as Crick (1989) proposed was often the case, an emphasis shifts from production, image and advertising to consumption among visitors. Here, low-season events no longer rely on the kind of over-stimulating excitement that attempts to fit fashion competitions, corporate marquee hospitality, live band performances, BBQs, Christmas functions and

Social Club activities into an 11:00am to 5:00pm racing schedule already influenced by the international gambling market that expects racing to commence every five minutes around the world. Nevertheless, a prevalence of episodic drinking is still high in Australasia (Karam et al., 2007) as fundamental attitudes toward social environments are influenced by frequently changing social networks surrounding visitors within these environments. At the same time, these visitors cannot be treated uncritically, as they are not, and have never been, value-neutral. Instead, lower-order need preferences often represent embryonic stages in activity, as if visitors are almost exclusively orientated to become pillars in an establishment of needs that only later mature. However, young low-season visitors represent reversed or at least recalibrated worldviews predicated on the relationship between both the high-season market's and their own. Specifically, even as the provision of alcohol at the racetrack is very important for young low-season visitors, it is not nearly as important as satisfying gambling needs, which dominates their behaviour, contrasting strong high-season desires to have fun, drink and socialise. In the same way, as racetracks construct images of increasing importance for visitors who are expected to become more attracted to thoroughbred horse racing by 2014, low-season programme management systems perhaps suggest all kinds of visitors can be driven to escape the anxieties of large crowds, illustrating how industrialised landscapes are perceived differently and why public imaginations differ.

If most young low-season visitors travel short distances to arrive at the racetrack, they are less likely to be encouraged by advertising and more likely to be encouraged by how appropriately managed various events become. Thus, historical relationships do not always determine how events and visitors are represented, but instead, the specific social and economic forces influencing such representations. Here, notions of consensus, or in the case of thoroughbred horse racing, accurate attendance forecasts, not only mediate interpretations of reality, but at least suggest that as similar socio-economic visitor background stimulates similar experience, motivation is better conceptualised from the emergent strength of particular ideological bias as visitors secure loyalty to their own value system. Rather, young low-season visitors appear to resist the ideological play and esteem images that are transmitted by society during the high-season. That is to say, in promoting products, certain aspects of society are illustrated, reflecting and reinforcing preferred interpretations from the collective cultural and mainstream information knowledge base (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). However, high-season visitors do not appear to retain the same values over the course of an event. The same love, play and physiological pursuits are also sought within safety

needs, eventually affected by gambling cognisance needs, as well. Thus, motivational validity may not be shaped by how such worldviews contrast, but by how such conflict dissipates within them. Therefore, not all cultural processes are clearly understood unless observed within the context of human activity as a whole (Williams, 1985) and become an important framework as modern events attempt to evolve into a kind of archetypical dynamism of new industry, or in the case of thoroughbred horse racing, a service that mitigates the pressure it must face to meet internationalisation agreements that enable local racing events to suit the timeslots and lifestyles of overseas markets. Although, if it could be argued that a variety of needs produce ‘atmosphere’ (Dubinsky, 1994), then young low-season visitors appear to escape the kind of proliferated experiences that are represented throughout the high-season. It could just as easily be argued, however, that such experiences play a vital role in shaping racing industry values through their contribution to the ongoing process of socialisation. If so, visitors do not become impressions of themselves, *per se*, but gradations of wider social issues underpinning goal-states. In other words, young low-season visitor attitudes are subtle modifications to the way young thoroughbred horse racing event social values usually configure.

If such contested imaginations are actively influenced by media (Urry, 1990), young low-season visitors perhaps borrow images from mass culture and redefine them. Similarly, common thoroughbred horse racing industry perceptions only address relationships as they exist, not as they emerge. Thus, the cognisance attributes that constitute young low-season visitor behaviour appear to emerge from within a gap between media image and mainstream perception. Thus, just as advertising has no influence over low-season motivation, intermediaries, both commercial and informal, appear to have no influence over motivation, either. Instead, as they are fascinated by immediate gambling consumption and the realities of that consumption, representations which usually structure purchasing behaviour are inadvertently created by those it otherwise represents. In other words, visitors unknowingly create information concerning event attributes (Goffman, 1961). For young low-season visitors, this suggests they represent the kind of attitude otherwise reflected in older visitor markets that arrive at thoroughbred horse racetracks to enjoy the old-fashioned facilities designed for them and the industry racing schedule with the kind of horses that interest experienced betting markets attracted to wagering activities. Here, the groups that inform such representations appear to link such visitors to the wider world of

mainstream social values, certainly as these values become cultural symbols, charged with social significance. If it could be argued that such identities are neutral, universal and irreducible elements of all individual and collective life (Wernick, 1991), it might just as easily be argued that relationships outside the image structure exchanges, increasing significance by treating them as items of play derived from real world consciousness. To a certain extent, the low-season may be viewed by these visitors as an opportunity to interact with similar members of the same culture. Specifically, high-season racing events are usually highly structured and informed by stereotypical representations. Therefore, the low-season environment becomes an unmarked path for young visitors, who perhaps filter-out the antagonistic features of high-season events, naturalising the role or standpoint of participation.

Young low-season visitors also appear to evolve from a combination of special or specific properties. If these properties also distinguish individuals from high-season equivalents, young low-season visitors appear to become autonomous. At the same time, 'energy-level' amplifies autonomy. Indeed, as young low-season visitors demonstrate 'self-confident', 'intellectual' and 'people-orientated' traits across fewer activities, they ultimately possess 'low-energy' psychographic motivation. However, where a lack of prior advertising and subsequent 'planfulness' represents impulsivity, young low-season visitors also appear to demonstrate 'high-level' motivation traits. Thus, strength-of-energy may be found in how such visitors internalise each experience, as it underlines the importance of identifying goal-states (Murray, 1938). For these visitors, the relative balance that exists between experience, demand, operation and satisfaction suggests needs are rather more 'quantitative' based, implying an emphasis on the intensity of needs toward an object (Murray, 1938). To that end, needs may not be activated by or learned from cues within the external environment (Murray, 1938), even as the external thoroughbred horse racing environment strives to attract more than 2,500 visitors on-course wherever it can, with hundreds of thousands of dollars invested in marketing and streams of overseas royalty profits to encourage gambling growth.

As these visitors pursue only pre-selected needs under appropriate conditions, they are more likely to favour traditional market environments, as marketers and managers attempt to attract 'low-activation' visitors. If meaning is indeed designed to skew energy messages toward appropriate groups (Nickerson & Ellis, 1991), young low-season visitors appear to both ignore such influences and develop their own hierarchy of preferred influences, which centre upon gambling. It not only suggests that different

people desire different modes of experiences (Cohen, 1979), but that an implicit order to the experience life-course may exist as a sequence of ‘energies’ or seasons through which visitors must pass, each in their own way. If young low-season visitors do not view their experience as an escape, they do not appear to search for the kind of mainstream experience high-season visitors enjoy, either. To the same extent, the low-season may be an attempt to break through the barriers which typically separate mainstream spaces from the reality of the everyday public, certainly if young low-season visitors appear less concerned with the same social interaction. That is to say, where the mainstream environment is designed to eliminate any possible missing features of complete experience, young low-season visitors appear to favour the remote image of an undefined ‘wilderness’, so to speak, where big screen televisions do not try to advertise and entertain visitors between races, and where fashion competitions do not draw a visitor’s attention away from the horse racing that surrounds them. In other words, the representation of young low-season visitors appears to be removed from the mainstream image of society, which is to say, it is a phenomenon grounded in a relationship between the high-season core and the low-season periphery. If this is true, it suggests young low-season visitors perhaps become more committed to the popular racetracks they live near because of the amount of attention they receive by the industry, which chooses to invest the largest portion of NZRB funding into the kind of racetrack events that more than 12,000 nationwide visitors reportedly favour. Although, if visitors in fact consume images and signs (Schofield, 1996), the events upon which they surface appear to influence such targets. For high-season visitors, the images and signs attached to commodity are not an accurate portrayal of how such devices work, but rather, of how forces of particular cultures operate across media streams in conditioning motivation.

#### 5.4 The Event Image

Images and signs do not create low-season activity. Specifically, advertising, social and income variables have little or no effect. Thus, for young low-season visitors, the gambling processes demonstrate why no symbols need to exist and how sustainable such gambling activity becomes. Thus, racetracks manage to accommodate underlying pursuits throughout low-season activity, while managing to succeed in maintaining younger market interest. To that end, visiting throughout the low-season may be less a result of pulling markets toward experiences than a force designed to attract young visitors. For young low-season visitors, the event perhaps becomes an end to the



perpetually saturated world of fashion competition characteristics, instrumental social club activity and excessive drinking cliché. However, if marketed image is an important determinant in decision-making (Ryan, 1997), young low-season visitors appear to create their own image as mutual interest exchanges value through compromise. In other words, where advertisements provide an edited and selective view of society (Williamson, 1978; Marchand, 1985), young low-season visitors interpret their own acceptable social reality, which perhaps suggests that such analysis leads to greater understanding of both society and low-season visitors. To that end, there may be clearer understanding of the degree of congruence between the representations shown and those created outside as a result of advertising (O'Barr, 1994). However, for high-season visitors, the experience is in fact an expression of different love, play and safety motives, later reflecting different cognisance needs, while young low-season visitors assign events specific functions. That is also to say, young low-season visitors are just as likely to change their motivation to visit an event from one stage to another over time. Here, the racetrack has not lost its distinctiveness in what has become a crowded 'place market' that strives to attract 150,000 visitors to specific events for many different activities. Rather, relevance appears to have shifted as cultural processes have evolved to become a product of contesting forces. As a result, young low-season visitors appear to select thoroughbred horse racing events which offer the most accessible and appropriate experiences and these same events become, as a result, interchangeable.

Perhaps, young low-season visitors regard the more accessible low-season as the 'real world' outside high-season events. Perhaps, to the same extent, visiting throughout the high-season represents a kind of visitor behaviour that unwittingly recognises or becomes the sector of society that may virtually disappear if overseas investment exceeds domestic investment to the point that a gambling market share encourages foreign investors to control local racing schedules, national expenses and international profits. Thus, cultures of consumption are by no means static or fixed. They are spurious, reliant, if not shaped by how such oppositions become vacuums, altogether rescuing adrift low-season 'voyeurs' from a sea of mainstream perspectives. Indeed, if it does suggest that mainstream events become small monotonous 'islands' that homogenise such images (Turner & Ash, 1975), self-sustaining systems of illusion (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998) not only compress such realities, but transform such events into transferable experiences. To that end, everything eventually becomes a copy or subtle imitation of something else, for someone else. However, the knowledge young low-season visitors possess is not separated from the social circumstances that underpin

it. To explain this, it might be argued that young low-season visitors become 'lost wayfarers' negotiating mainstream ideologies both rigid and complex. Moreover, their low-season interest appears to become a centre of self-production, or a culturally significant 'new world', both industrious, as to suggest they enjoy gambling on most races, and distinct, as to suggest they choose to gamble before they arrive and prefer to do so more than eating, drinking or socialising. If there are many audiences for new images, each particular market can influence each image. Here, the language of imagery utilises representation to construct meaning (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998).

These images do in fact suggest social identities are constructed through an exchange of sign values (Urry, 1990), as they demonstrate how important activities become because of how much difference there is in activity and perception between the two seasons. If these activities do not actually transfer or adapt, however, such events foreshadow new ideas or worldviews, as visitors become less likely to depend on the structures and comforts of mass culture, more open to stranger journeys and experiences that provide a more complete reality. In the same way, young low-season visitors do not appear to obey the kind of rules governing mass-consumerism. The decisions that are made about why they visit, what they do and how these affect satisfaction appear to demonstrate how effective independent decisions become along a freely chosen set of ideas. Thus, young low-season visitors are not looking for mass-media driven activities if what they imply suggests that what is contrived seems 'more real than the real'. Instead, they appear to construct their own version of reality, a reality built onto the kind of visual canvas that naturalises individuals, cementing their hold on society. It is as if to say, they are placing themselves into the role of the 'sophisticated' consumer, creating the kind of attitudes larger audiences idealise and image creators embrace.

Still, a single market cannot itself be relied upon to reposition products, create effective image campaigns or influence nationwide target markets (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Thus, as complex, multifunctional places, high-season events not only address consumer needs from a number of different approaches, but from a number of different outlets, as well. Moreover, innovative and potentially powerful campaigns are launched on the basis of research fact about what most visitors want and when. For the thoroughbred horse racing industry, it is the result of matching desired Auckland, Hawke's Bay, Wellington and Christchurch racing event locations with potential fashion competition, marquee, big screen television, BBQ and Christmas function activities. Still, the low-season maintains traditional market interest, stimulating

alternative images. Therefore, it is only in the mind of the individual visitor that representations are turned into new meaning and the racetrack gambling content finds its purpose. Here, fewer activities clear a path for a specific task by enabling most young low-season visitors, who live close to the racetrack, to shape their own local environment, certainly if the residents of particular locations often play a part in choosing the desired image, directly or indirectly influencing how it is projected (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). At the same time, the 'ideographic', 'organisational' and 'cognitive' perspectives that emerge also suggest young low-season visitors hold more than one perspective. As it might be argued that these visitors are not influenced by the characteristic attributes of ideographic culture, it might just as easily be argued that these visitors are influenced by the spatial nature of organisational typologies and the cognitive values of place.

If young low-season visitor perspectives are not informed by pressures or campaigns, perspectives informed by prior knowledge subsequently help improve commitment and interest. However, if a large number of entertainment features enable visitors to visualise images, then a smaller number of entertainment features appear to affect visitor conceptualisations throughout the low-season. Certainly, a young low-season visitor may struggle to see how a \$6 million to \$12 million on-course revitalisation investment from the NZRB, attempting to expend its energies attracting more high-season visitors, would benefit everyday gamblers, who do not need high-season activity to encourage them to visit. To that end, an event activity may not be considered anything more than the creation of 'atmosphere' (Dubinsky, 1994). Yet, purpose-built services are an important element in understanding how events become the centre of attention for visitors who want to immerse themselves entirely (Ross, 1998). Therefore, young low-season visitors function within a gap between the created and the perspectives of creators, which is to say, within a struggle between matching existing supply with perceived demand. Indeed, if high-season visitors only articulate value in what is offered through the media, it would help identify why visitors pay heightened attention to the changes between experiences which separate individuals from the kind of point of entry end-goals at events that help determine motivation, satisfaction and preference. Nevertheless, it is important to appreciate that average on-course betting turnover decreased from \$50 million in 2000 to \$46 million by 2009, even as a younger market is arriving at the racetrack to gamble during the low-season.

## 5.5 Gambling Behaviours

If it could be argued that young low-season visitor gambling behaviour is the result of prior knowledge, it might very well suggest such visitors discover new social realities. That is to say, the production of mutual exchange suited to both visitor and the visited. Often, the way people react to events depends on the type and amount of information available about the event (Petrocelli & Sherman, 2009), but young low-season visitors appear to suggest information from the external environment does not play a part in conditioning behaviour, even as it is expected to. Perhaps, young low-season visitors do not simply accept that gambling not only becomes the target of primary pleasure, but of habitual pleasure, influencing activity preference. Thus, experience attitudes are more likely to be stable if young low-season visitor gambling appertains to prior knowledge and utility. Thus, information or expertise is said to have a significant effect on both the behavioural reactions to such decisions and subsequently, the likelihood of those made in the future. To the same extent, behaviour intensities are expected to vary, but more importantly, improve across the adult life-course (Madrigal et al., 1992; McGehee et al., 1996), which is to say, across age.

Young low-season visitors indicate, however, that prior knowledge and gambling utility are much more reflective of individuals within the 20-25 year-old age range. It might even be argued that these patterns of gambling behaviour represent specific motives underpinning counterfactual thought as most visitors continue to shape their experience over time, seen as determining affective, judgmental, and behavioural reactions to events and outcomes. However, if it may be difficult to understand their motivation if gambling on most races implies young low-season visitors may not be affected by the loss of money, it may indeed suggest such behaviour evolves from a relationship between those who visit and those who are visited. Yet, this relationship does not appear to profit thoroughbred horse racing enthusiasts if gaming grant funding is reduced from \$8.8 million to \$2.3 million over the course of a year, if marketing budgets are exclusively high-season, and if racetrack infrastructure investment budgets are reduced by \$1 million (NZTR, 2011). At the same time, these decisions threaten the sustainability of everyday gambling activities within the industry, encouraging more New Zealand thoroughbred horse gamblers to wager with overseas markets to the point that export gambling turnover can increase from \$143,000 per race at 12:00pm to \$347,000 per race by 4:00pm that same day. On the one hand, ideologically conditioned perspectives suggest most young visitors know what kind of experience to

expect inasmuch as that experience reflects experiential 'play' pursuit. On the other hand, people are products of particular social and historical relationships (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). To that end, young low-season visitor gambling should not be considered experiential, but rather, evidence of stable, internal traits, like competitiveness and intelligence. While the psychographic need for increased income is important (Maslow, 1970), it does not dominate such motivation. Specifically, predominant gambling intentions among young low-season visitors are based on the intensity and amount of effort made by the majority of the sample to actually engage in the targeted behaviour.

Such behaviour appears to suggest that while social interaction does influence excitement-seeking, gambling behaviour appears to be conditioned by what internal traits each visitor possesses. Specifically, young low-season visitors do not hold biased beliefs, as they were not aware of what horses were racing. Moreover, the size of the bet is more likely to remain consistent, certainly as most young low-season visitors demonstrate an attraction to gambling on most races. At the same time, most thoroughbred horse gamblers are expected to prefer 12 to 14 horses in a race to make gambling worthwhile. Yet, 87% of the young low-season visitor sample report they do not need a minimum number of horses in a race to encourage them to gamble. Moreover, of the 13% that does demonstrate bias, the largest portion report interest in only 1-10 thoroughbred horses in a race. Thus, the betting odds may be in equilibrium if there is evidence to suggest that low horse race sizes do not have a direct influence over bias. If this is true, gambling motivation not only represents a confident ability to undertake such work, but a departure from some of the more conventional patterns of thoroughbred horse gambling in New Zealand. Ultimately, while gambling choices among most young low-season visitors are not informed by promotion, gambling experience and subsequent assurance suggests these visitors are not 'skewness-loving', but rather, less 'risk-loving' than may be expected.

### 5.6 Visitor Gambling Skill

As information may play an important role in gambling confidence, the low-season is not, however, influenced by the same kind of competitive messages with themes that feature social or financial reward. At the same time, if *intellectual* cognisance components assess motivation on the basis of exploring, discovering, thinking, and learning (Beard & Ragheb, 1983), high-need cognisance pursuits are seen as dominating lower-need physiological triggers if projected and actual needs converge. To the same

extent, young low-season visitors display *competence-mastery* cognisance attributes as they compete, achieve and master activities, refining and developing their capability. These focused and engaged individuals may appear to receive much greater positive feedback. Still, that is also to say young low-season visitors may not enjoy risk more than average investors if gambling expectations are weighed and balanced by the number of races gambled on and the kind of assessments made about how many horses need to race to make gambling worthwhile. It might be argued, then, that such individuals not only set their own trends, but create a status as experienced visitors with gambling knowledge, at least more interested in thoroughbred racing than their high-season equivalents.

If similar attitudes sustain differing values or motives across a variety of situations, they are not experientially consumed. Rather, they are part of a wider system of affective emotions, moods and reinforcements. Thus, it is common to observe regularity in consumer purchase (East et al., 2008), not only reinforcing particular ways of seeing the world, but channelling people into certain mind-sets (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998) expressing social transformation (Gephart, Jr., 2001; Hannigan, 1998). For young low-season visitors, the experience does not exist to provide a glimpse of gambling as an organisational feature of a contemporary entertainment society searching for excitement as it would during the high-season. Instead, the everyday low-season racetrack event exists for any visitor as a glimpse into the everyday operations of an industry that must continue to attract a minimum number of horses to race, a minimum number of horse trainers to manage each horse and a maximum number of overseas gamblers to interest throughout the year. Here, it is not about the big crowds, so it is not the primary focus. Still, if it could be argued that the goals of many gamblers are social and recreational, satisfaction is ultimately the result of breaking even (Scott, 1968). Nevertheless, amateur or first-time visitors might ignore or deny basic human assumption, led by their own sensitivities to believe their experience may not be successful without such gambling knowledge. If this is true, a recreational perception and attitude may not only be a cognitive distortion (Ladouceur & Walker, 1998), but a belief undermining a visitor's gambling potential, affecting choice.

### 5.7 Gambling Event Choice

If gambling sets the stage for motivation among young low-season visitors, it also plays a significant role in constructing representation. In other words, the opportunity cost of visiting throughout the low-season appears to affect the way events are re-invented and

subjected to changes from external forces. To that end, visitor behaviour is not the result of anticipatory knowledge (Lewin, 1942), but rather, the product of drive and habit strength (Hull, 1943) informing expectant experience (Gnoth, 1997). That is not to say young low-season visitor behaviour is any less cognitive, though. Instead, young low-season visitor motivation might be considered a relationship between an image representing knowledge and a behaviour representing loyalty, and as previously reiterated, these young low-season visitors appear to become the kind of ambassadors that understand what the attraction is to thoroughbred horse racing, creating a consistent customer base. Thus, by demonstrating such relationship, young low-season visitors transform otherwise obscured realities into concentric visitor models. At the same time, there is an often strong relationship between the distance travelled to gambling venues and expenditure on gambling products (Marshall, 2005; Doran & Young, 2009) and in the case of young low-season visitors, 90% live near the racetrack, electing to gamble on most races. Consequently, if the spatial proximity between a young low-season visitor's home and a thoroughbred horse racetrack decreases, the intensity of their impact increases as a result.

Still, young low-season visitor motivation is not artificially produced or controlled by powerful local or extra-local groups, as organisations are not involved in its production. Nevertheless, young low-season visitor experience appears to conform to the same kind of social norms that visitors display throughout the high-season. Thus, events produce systems of representation that foster meaning through display of object (Lidchi, 1997). At the same time, the unfamiliar is encoded, where a certain meaning is promoted and where another is discarded (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Perhaps, as nearby visitors make such decisions these events become intersections at which young low-season visitors begin to create gambling value, which add to their life experience context. Certainly, it would explain why such landscapes enable individuals to learn as they conform to social conventions within completely developed societies (Stewart et al., 2003; Proshansky et al., 1983). Yet, there have not been developments within the thoroughbred horse racing industry that have suggested social conventions are the result of completely developed decision-making. On the one hand, the social conventions that are produced in response to thoroughbred horse racing among young markets are often the result of marketing campaigns that concentrate on increasing the number of social activities that can be made available for young visitors who expect extravagance when they attend high-season events. On the other hand, these conventions are also the result

of how the industry has been operated for the past twenty years. That is, sliding downwards, managed the way previous generations expected it to be, and today, with an overseas gambling market about to achieve dominant market share, and with \$300 million in foreign leakage, these social conventions appear to evolve from actions that have been taken to ensure the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry simply survives, at whatever the cost.

In the same way, the personal freedoms and restraints move autonomy needs-based satisfaction closer to young low-season visitor motivation. Rather, visitors not only become self-governing consumers, but independent identities in an arena informed by predominant ideological constructions which shape experience and meaning (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). It suggests that “if a gambler exists, it should be seen, or become visible, in relation to gambling markets, rather than just being assumed to exist” (Cosgrave, 2010, p. 121). Perhaps, it is why so many young low-season visitors demonstrate ‘openness to experience’, ‘conscientiousness’, ‘introversion’ and ‘agreeableness’. It might be argued, then, that young low-season visitors possess a variety of profiles and traits. However, a young low-season visitor group not only appears much more similar to another young low-season visitor group, but much more different than high-season group equivalents. Perhaps, gambling activity demonstrates solidarity, as it is an activity which separates primary low-season motivation from primary high-season motivation and an activity thoroughly pursued throughout the course of experience. To that end, young low-season visitors do not necessarily meet new people or forge new friendships. Indeed, the visitor relationship is not multi-dimensional if the activities which shape pleasure experience do not impose alternative high-season ideals onto low-season settings. Thus, the events of local community life reaffirm community identity (Stewart et al., 2003).

### 5.8 Gambling Popularity

It could be argued that local markets are constructed on the basis of mass media superiority exerting dominance over consumer subservience (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). However, young low-season visitors appear to ignore or deny such relationships. Where high-season consumers are influenced by media perceptions of thoroughbred horse racing prestige, young low-season visitors do not appear affected by such representations. For these young low-season visitors, the visitor behaviour not only succeeds in accommodating the kind of entertainment experiences they want, but the kind of network upon which media-based formations have no influence, either. It might



be argued, then, that such visitor activity does not represent typical modern consumerism, certainly if returning to the racetrack to gamble as an experienced gambler with prior gambling knowledge suggests young low-season visitors accept the everyday thoroughbred horse racing industry quality, which conforms to the interests of excitement-seeking visitors during the high-season and the requirements of overseas business specifications, affecting the search for royalty profits from nearby Australian markets. Instead, as the gap between management perceptions of consumer expectation and service quality specification is narrowed considerably throughout the high-season, the gap between consumer expectation and perception of the quality of the service received appears to widen that much further.

For young low-season visitors, the standards, attitudes and preferences they use as analytical tools to articulate such difference suggests they are in fact aware of what they are consuming and why they travel to gamble. The young low-season visitor may also be creating and recreating an image of reality in an effort to embrace the pleasures of real life. However, gambling may also be considered harmless, especially if it is an intervening factor between event accessibility and the higher participation levels of economically disadvantaged age groups (Doran & Young, 2009). Although, lower average income levels of between \$25,000 and \$50,000 are reported for both high-season and young low-season visitors, who both appear to distribute the highest portion of total expenditure toward gambling. Instead, such relationships outside such environments are significantly increased by the tendency to treat image as no more an item of play removed from the real world (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). Thus, the racing events that are transformed by high-season visitors into everyday objects and the everyday objects that are transformed by young low-season visitors into racing events do not suggest middle classes have become broader, more diverse or powerful economic groups, but individuals more concerned with transferring meaning onto a product from the outside through repeated association. In other words, the activities young low-season visitors encounter appears to influence their identity and taste.

If such identity and taste can be viewed as significant if the racetrack begins to gain status from providing a particular experience to achieve a particular cultural goal over time, then these identities and tastes could most likely become the kind of interest that may help the industry attract the 575,000 visitors to racetrack events by 2014 it wants, even when it is struggling to achieve average crowd sizes of more than 1,500, relevance in the wake of a T.A.B. growth spurt that continues to serve the interests of international

consumption, and containment amid the hundreds of millions of dollars in overseas leakage from New Zealand gamblers that occurs every year. The position young low-season visitors have appears to contextualise the representation of particular people at particular stages. That is also to say, what these young low-season visitors are presented with reflects the relationship between those subjected to such classification and those promoting it and thus, contrived, mainstream events are removed from the reality of everyday life. In both creating and observing this attitude, young low-season visitors become independent markets making decisions without influence. In the same way, young low-season visitors appear to require much less consultation or advice and are not subjected to media-influenced expectations. Ultimately, young low-season visitors assume a particular cultural identity for a particular cultural reality motivated by a particular search for everyday culture, as it not only eliminates various elements from a wider cultural context, but shifts greater value toward much more specific end products.

## **6.0 Conclusions**

### **6.1 Conclusion**

Gambling is a significant primary motive among young visitors at thoroughbred horse racetracks during the low-season. It is not only the most influential indicator affecting decision-making among young visitors, but the strongest indicator of prior knowledge. However, young low-season visitors do not appear to be aware of the fact that thoroughbred horse gamblers usually prefer consistent race sizes of twelve (12) to fourteen (14) horses. Instead, young low-season visitors appear to demonstrate very little interest in the number of horses racing when gambling and of those that do, very little understanding of what gambling behaviours are commonly demonstrated within the industry among everyday thoroughbred horse gamblers. At the same time, the names of horses at events have no effect over their decision to gamble. Still, gambling has the greatest effect over young low-season motivation, as it not only stimulates the strongest attraction, but sustains a particular attitude, influencing activity preference.

This activity preference suggests young low-season visitors are not affected by the same social dynamics influencing high-season activity. Even as young low-season visitors share similar social values, they do not, however, determine that such behaviour is important to what they consider satisfaction. Instead, the experience is one of personal pursuit, which is to say, not just constructed on the basis of social fluidity, but inward conscientiousness and introversion influencing values and beliefs. Indeed, young low-season visitors appear to search for the kind of activities that satisfy cognisance needs, as they both enable visitors to apply existing knowledge and fulfil an important role.

Fulfilling an important role is clearly evident as needs-based motives consistently support historical needs theory (e.g. Murray, 1938; Maslow, 1943). However, even as they support such theory, they do not follow an identical hierarchy or pattern. An everyday visitor is assumed to desire a basic physiological function, like food or beverage, as an immediate need, while a complex cognisance function, like a search for or utilisation of knowledge is assumed to be a need realised throughout the course of an event. Yet, young low-season visitors appear to acquire such needs in reverse. Their immediate concern, gambling, appears to suggest it is important for these visitors to achieve personal goals, certainly if prior knowledge influences activity. In the same way, achievement needs are sought as a product of gambling motivation, where primary motives stimulate experience attitudes and subsequent outcome. According to *Figure 23*

(p. 88), which demonstrates that the largest portion of the sample prefers to gamble, young low-season visitors also continue to value social behaviours, which continue to play a vital role in their experience through contribution to the ongoing process of socialisation, heightening impact.

Most young high-season visitors are expected to possess basic, physiological states, like food and beverage, as immediate needs. At the same time, these needs are not expected to evolve into states any more complex than play, love or affiliation needs throughout the course of an event. More importantly, however, young high-season visitor decisions are expected to be strongly influenced by mainstream perceptions surrounding gambling in New Zealand. If these perceptions are what determine which thoroughbred horse racetrack activities suit younger markets, young thoroughbred horse racetrack visitors are expected to desire mainstream events, influenced by the kind of business dynamics taking place and the kind of extravagance associated with high-season schedules. If these mainstream visitors are only attracted to the commercial activities that exist throughout the high-season, the facilities these activities operate within appear to have no influence over such attraction and thus, the facilities of a thoroughbred racetrack alone could not expect to attract young visitors. However, young low-season visitor needs reach more complex states. As they begin to satisfy such needs, they are negotiating the kind of mainstream perceptions that otherwise shape suitable events for young markets. Where high-season prestige does not exist as an attraction, young low-season visitors appear to accept the facilities and subsequent schedules within them as products of internal place dynamics.

Visiting throughout the low-season might also be seen as a product of greater commitment to New Zealand's racing culture than high-season equivalents, certainly if most of these visitors demonstrate *mid-centric* personality traits. Since the design structure of spaces for socialisation and consumption is bolstered to include big screen televisions, mobile facilities, marquees and corporate catering for high-season visitors, young low-season visitors appear to accept a lack of investment as sufficient use of leisure space. Indeed, millions of dollars are invested in on-course entertainment revitalisations each year for summer activities, as thousands of high-season visitors report interest in Carnival, Christmas and Cup racing. For young low-season visitors, however, the absence of 150,000 nationwide racetrack visitors during the high-season, marquees that re-design customary infrastructure aesthetics and concentrated fashion activities appears to represent a search for the everyday. To that effect, young low-

season visitors negotiate the lack of commercial interest by determining their own pathway into a culture that depends on funding appropriations to streamline target market campaigns. Even as the success of thoroughbred television and T.A.B. gambling outlets have become considerably more popular during periods of low activity, young low-season visitors somehow exist outside the known perspective on everyday gambling behaviour. Instead, they appear to recognise the 'racing and beer' culture of New Zealand through everyday use of thoroughbred horse racing, which may be built into conventional weekend shopping, Lotto, pokie and casino activity preferences. Thus, the function of horse racing at the racetrack is not secondary, but rather, primary, ahead of socialising and drinking.

At the same time, these visitors do not represent the historical loss of a wagering generation. Instead, some of the wider cultural brokers discrediting New Zealand gambling appear to have no influence over their actions or subsequent preferences. They choose to gamble on almost every race and arrive at the racetrack with knowledge of how to achieve that. The perception that a shift in food and beverage quality underpinning that experience during the low-season should deter young visitors from engaging also appears to have no influence over how they determine their experience. Indeed, for these visitors, gambling is seen as more important. Moreover, if the customary design of infrastructure during the low-season is acceptable to younger visitors, then it suggests a balance emerges between what older visitors desire and what younger visitors are willing to accept, and here, the two generations exist in relative harmony.

By deliberately enlivening the racetrack experience during the high-season for younger visitors at the expense of older visitor values, younger visitors must also negotiate the kind of visitor segmentation rules that are developed because of the modern activities designed to attract thousands of young, non-member visitors to the racetrack. As a result, the stringent guidelines complicate high-season experience. Here, the low-season not only accommodates the search for greater gambling expertise, but enables young visitors to become ambassadors, who understand what the attraction is, which is something that should be harnessed and even more so because most young visitors live nearby. To do this, the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry should spread marketing, infrastructure and sponsorship investments across the two seasons to nurture the interests of existing young visitors. At the same time, the industry should look to expand its analysis of visitor research to include young visitors during the winter

Premier meetings within specific age brackets, comparing racetrack interests and identifying trends. The social clubs that cater to some of the major high-season visitor interests might also appear to be of use as monthly programmes for young markets that choose to continue utilising its benefits. In doing so, the industry might achieve greater awareness, relevance and cultural acceptance among younger generations, who only appear stimulated by racing through benefits attributed to extravagance. It might also stimulate interest among young professionals, with the kind of disposable income that enables them to sustain commitments to racing club culture, which may subsequently stimulate interest in syndication among club members or eventually, breeding, ownership and sales. Certainly, as more young professionals are tempted, for example, by social club discounts on corporate boxes, online racing games that assign members to certain groups at the racetrack on race-day, food and beverage discounts, and sponsorship programmes targeted at low-season activities or groups, the industry may be achieving a more secured future for thoroughbred horse racing among emerging generations.

Indeed, if benefits become personal or group milestones, younger visitors may feel more inclined to become more involved. At the same time, the New Zealand visitor market is small, especially if racetracks fail to attract thousands of young visitors each year. Ultimately, where young high-season visitor motivations are externally influenced by mainstream experiences presented to them, young low-season visitor motivation appears to exist as an internal product of potential self-reward, a pursuit which would certainly revolutionise the way young, modern markets interact within a gambling culture that has for more than three decades suffered as an alternative to leisure at the hands of a mainstream youth movement, which often searches for the kind of experiences that can be delivered at a premium.

## 6.2 Summary of Contributions

The study not only confirmed the existence of a young visitor market at the thoroughbred horse racetrack during the low-season, but the behaviour of such visitors, as well. An analysis was conducted on existing perceptions of young visitors within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry and these perceptions were confirmed by an existing profile of high-season visitors. Survey data on young low-season visitors was then used to compare and contrast existing profiles, whereby critiquing social conditions, revealing deeper structures across social relations.

The interview data on perceptions within the New Zealand thoroughbred horse racing industry of young visitors maintained important consensus. Specifically, it affirmed theory on traditional visitor needs and provided a contextual background for the thoroughbred horse racing high-season visitor profile that was analysed parallel. On the one hand, the interview data provided an insight into some of the specific activity preferences of young thoroughbred horse racing high-season event visitors, which ultimately concluded that young visitor motivations are influenced by basic beverage and social needs. On the other hand, the data also explained why these young high-season visitors do not attend thoroughbred horse racetrack events throughout the low-season.

The low-season survey was able to determine that gambling becomes a primary motive among young low-season visitors, that gambling is a sustained activity throughout the course of an event and that gambling eventually becomes the most preferred activity among young low-season visitors. The survey also confirmed that some of the social dynamics taking place throughout the thoroughbred horse racing high-season do not influence young low-season visitors quite as significantly, reflecting, perhaps, the availability of fewer activities to engage in. Most importantly, however, as primary motives reflect higher-order needs, the survey also demonstrates that visitor age, income and gambling requirements do not directly influence what activities young low-season visitors undertake. Instead, the survey demonstrates that older age brackets within the sample do not possess a greater likelihood to gamble, that lower visitor income does not prevent young visitors from gambling, that conventional gambling standards within the thoroughbred horse racing industry do not influence how young low-season visitors gamble and that most young low-season visitors could be classified as ‘mid-centrics’.

### 6.3 Implications for Tourism Practice & Research

This thesis has identified the existence of a somewhat contrasting behaviour among a small portion of young visitors to thoroughbred horse racetracks in New Zealand. This result suggests there are two shifts; firstly, that primary behaviour activity at the racetrack during the low-season is different to primary behaviour activity at the racetrack during the high-season and; secondly, that there is also a shift in choice of season to visit. Even as the visitor sample is limited, the results have however suggested that as event seasons change, so too do behaviours among visitors that attend. For the tourism industry, or more specifically, for locations and events that aim to attract different visitor segments or archetypes across a variety of seasons, these results continue to reinforce the idea that service and activity providers must address not only the deficits in product or experience quality or quantity, but the interchangeable interests of potential visitors or customers that exist because of those deficits. Indeed, the results also suggest that potential visitor or customer profiles are not always fixed, but have the capacity to mature or evolve independently, even if service and experience providers have little or no influence over decision-making.

### 6.4 Future Research

While this study has underlined some of the key motives among young low-season visitors at New Zealand thoroughbred horse racetrack events, there is an opportunity to build on this phenomenon. Specifically, by comparing the underlying motives of young visitors who attend thoroughbred horse racing events throughout the low-season in one country to young visitors who attend thoroughbred horse racing events throughout the low-season in another country, the researcher could gain greater insight into some of the global marketing trends within the international thoroughbred horse racing community. Moreover, by evaluating the similarities or differences, the researcher could also gain greater insight into some of the alternative behaviours that emerge as a product of intensely commercial high-season activities attempting to standardise entire market segments by servicing annual costs in short bursts.



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## **Appendices**

### **Qualitative In-Depth Interview Questions**

#### *Question 1*

Why do you believe young people choose to visit the thoroughbred racetrack?

#### *Question 2*

How do you think that differs from why older people choose to visit?

#### *Question 3*

How do you think the presence of more young people at the thoroughbred racetrack would change the consumption of racetrack activities, like gambling or fashions-in-the-field?

#### *Question 4*

Why do you think there has been an increase in the number of different activity options at the racetrack, like increased bet size and fashions-in-the-field, when there is still a relative lack of knowledge about what actually motivates young people to visit thoroughbred racetracks?

#### *Question 5*

Why do you believe the thoroughbred racing industry has chosen to focus so much of its attention on what young visitors can do at different areas of the racetrack, like fashions-in-the-field, instead of how much they can become involved with each race?

#### *Question 6*

What do you think the key motivational differences are among those young people that visit the thoroughbred racetrack as corporate guests and those young people that visit the thoroughbred racetrack as general public?

#### *Question 7*

How do you think this fits in with the fact that by 2005 there were 2815 races per season, while by 2009 there were 3088 races per season? Surely the racing itself is becoming more of a focus?

#### *Question 8*

With increased hospitality packages, access to food and beverage, fine dining, music parties and fashion glamour, how do you think the thoroughbred racetrack differs from any other gambling entertainment venue, like a casino?

# Visitor Survey



## Question 1

What was the first reason you decided to visit the thoroughbred horse racetrack today?

(Please circle one)

To Gamble

To Socialise

Work Purposes

Racing My Horse

Other\_\_\_\_\_

## Question 2

Is this your first visit to a thoroughbred horse racetrack during a race meeting in the autumn/winter?

(Please circle one)

Yes

No

## Question 3

Who did you attend with?

(Please circle as many options as are applicable)

Myself

Friends

Work Colleagues

Partner

Family

Other\_\_\_\_\_

**Question 4**

How likely are you to visit a thoroughbred horse racetrack if your Friends/Work Colleagues/Partner/Family/Other told you they were going?

(Please circle one)

Very Unlikely      Unlikely      Likely      Very Likely

**Question 5**

How likely are you to visit a thoroughbred horse racetrack if there is a major race meeting being held?

(Please circle one)

Very Unlikely      Unlikely      Likely      Very Likely

**Question 6**

Did thoroughbred horse race advertising encourage you to visit today?

(Please circle one)

Yes      No      I Haven't Seen Any

**Question 7**

How much did the names of the horses racing today affect your decision to visit this racetrack?

(Please circle one)

No Influence      Some Influence      Great Influence      Complete Influence

**Question 8**

Which of the following thoroughbred horse race gambling options are you already aware of?

(Please circle as many options as are applicable)

Win & Place      Each-Way      Quinella      Trifecta      Quaddie      Pick 6      None

**Question 9**

Do you need a minimum number of horses in a race to encourage you to place a bet?

(Please circle one)

Yes      No

If you circled, “Yes”, how many different horses do you need in a race to encourage you to place a bet?

(Please circle one)

1 – 5      5 – 10      10 – 15      15 or more

**Question 10**

How many races have you decided to place a bet on today?

(Please circle one)

Every Race      Most Races      Some Races      No Races      Undecided

**Question 11**

What activities have you participated in so far today?

(Please circle as many options as are applicable)

Gambling      Business      Eating/Drinking      Fashion Show      Socialising      Other\_\_\_\_\_

**Question 12**

What activity do you prefer to spend the most time participating in while at the thoroughbred horse racetrack?

(Please circle one)

Gambling                  Business                  Eating/Drinking                  Fashion Show                  Socialising                  Other\_\_\_\_\_

**Question 13**

How important is it that thoroughbred horse racetracks provide food & beverage?

(Please circle one)

Very Unimportant      Unimportant                  Important                  Very Important

**Question 14**

How important is it that thoroughbred horse racetracks provide alcohol?

(Please circle one)

Very Unimportant      Unimportant                  Important                  Very Important

**Question 15**

Which age group do you belong to?

(Please circle one)

20 – 22                  23 – 25                  26 – 28                  29 – 30

**Question 16**

What region do you live in?

(Please circle one)

Northland	Auckland	Waikato	Bay of Plenty	Taranaki	Manawatu
Rangitikei	Wellington	Canterbury	Otago	Southland	

**Question 17**

What is your average annual income?

(Please circle one)

Less than \$25k	\$25k - \$50k	\$50k – \$75k	\$75k - \$100k	More than \$100k	Prefer not to say
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Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Your anonymous responses will be used to conduct a Master's thesis to complete a university qualification.