



RECREATION PLANNING
AND THE
PROVISION OF SWIMMING POOLS.

by

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Aerial Photographs Dated Feb. 1985.
Courtesy Department of Lands, South Australia.

ABSTRACT.

The development of recreation planning in Australia has been slow and uncertain, and there are still no clearly articulated policies showing why publicly provided recreation services should exist, what they might contain, or the part they might play in helping Australian society into the next century. Although public spending for recreation is a large budget item at most levels of government there has been no study into the political economy of leisure and recreation in this country. This thesis is an attempt to take the first steps towards redressing this situation.

The first part of the thesis outlines some of the important social parameters which help to govern recreation behaviour. It then traces the development of recreation planning in Australia and the unsophisticated planning methods in current use, which contrast with the recommended practices of leading writers in the field. These are set against the policies and structures of recreation planning in this country, and the general lack of vision from politicians, bureaucrats, and academics

alike. There are no clear cut objectives which stem from a well articulated social and economic rationale for recreation planning. Funding and planning actions do not necessarily reflect the rhetoric of the few vague policy statements which do exist, and may indeed run counter to them.

In the second half of this thesis, the provision of swimming pools is examined in some detail as an example of the problems noted above. The fact that there are few policies or objectives governing recreation planning means that the planning, location and distribution of pools has received little thought and has often occurred on the flimsiest planning evidence. A profile of the generic term of swimming is developed to clarify the activities which take place in swimming pools, and the implications these have for planning, design and management. A case study of pool provision in Adelaide and Melbourne is used as an example, and research into backyard pools in the South Australian local council area of Salisbury illustrates the relationship between private and public use of pools.

The thesis concludes with a model for developing recreation planning and planning strategies, and a list of recommended further research.

DECLARATION.

I hereby declare that none of the material contained in this thesis has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by any other person, except where due reference has been made in the text of the thesis.

I consent to this thesis being made available for photocopying and loan if it is accepted for the award of the degree.

Sally Methven

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Introduction.

Most people working at the interface between recreation and planning have had their professional parentage called into question. Those in the recreation area still feel the need to embark on lengthy definitions of leisure and recreation, and there is still something of an identity crisis when working with professionals from other areas and disciplines. Planners likewise often feel the need to identify themselves and what they do, and the commonly used prefixes of "physical" and "social" are signs that the act of planning itself still needs clarification in some way and 'holistic' planning as a concept remains some way off. The recreation planner, with such uncertain professional parentage, is therefore struggling to establish credibility, and to bring maturity and stability into a new area, by using uncertain and unproven tools with imperfect understanding, and following paths which are frequently changing and ill-defined.

Until very recently in Australia, planning for recreation was done either by planners or engineers who knew little about recreation, or by recreationists who knew a great deal about recreation but little about planning. The slow development of recreation planning as a specialism is beginning to redress this situation, but progress remains slow and uncertain; professional skills are often acquired slowly and on the job, while political convention and institutionalised thinking at various levels retards

experimentation and innovation. At the same time Australian society is changing rapidly, and cultural, economic and political forces impinge on the expectations that all sections of the community hold about public sector provision.

This thesis tries to confront these issues by examining them against a backdrop of recreation policy and current planning practices. This has been made more difficult by the speed with which factors have altered during the course of writing, always a problem with part-time study on a discursive topic. However, it is not always the political changes which have occurred over this period which have had the greatest impact but the growing realization (personal as well as professional) of the changes taking place in society and the demands these changes are making on all of us. This should be seen against the general backdrop of disillusionment and uncertainty with welfare capitalism and the realisation that, in spite of massive public spending in many areas of community life, divisions and disadvantage, though often different, are as acute as they were before.

This thesis examines the present state of the art for recreation planning in this country, and then studies more closely the problems facing the provision of one kind of facility, that of swimming pools, which is both widespread and commonly thought to be understood both by the general public and the providers of that service. While there are dangers attached to looking at one form of recreation provision in isolation, it was thought that the sheer

commonality of that provision would allow for a closer examination of recreation in general. In fact the problems associated with the provision of swimming pools have indeed highlighted very clearly the problems facing recreation planning in general. Largely, one suspects, because of the nature of recreation, there has been a development of skills and knowledge in certain specific areas, but these remain discrete and fragmented and are rarely, if ever, brought together by rational policy formulation and planning strategies. Hence the linkages between ideas and practice, between the various levels of governments and their agencies, and between expectations and the reality remain unconnected, and indeed efforts are often contradictory in their nature.

It became necessary therefore, in this thesis, to take a large step backward from swimming pools to public recreation provision in general. What began as an examination of recreation planning, by looking at a particular case study, rapidly became a more searching examination of the whole spectrum of recreation provision in an era of social change. It became clear very early on that, with one or two notable exceptions, recreation professionals are not exploring the political and ideological parameters of recreation provision within a welfare capitalist society, so that there is no feeling for, nor an understanding of, either where we are or where we might be heading. There is little or no discussion of these issues at any level, let alone a consensus on these matters. This is due partly to

the fact that recreation is a very young profession dealing with a very old problem, and partly to self-interest and uncertainty; but mainly it appears to be due to the lack of willingness to confront the more difficult conceptual and political issues, and in this the lack of academic leadership must take at least some of the blame.

This thesis attempts to redress this imbalance by breaking the discussion down into two distinct parts, one concentrating on the theoretical framework and one on the empirical details concerning facilities and activities. In the first part, Chapter One examines the social parameters which shape recreation behaviour; recreation is universal, but its behavioural manifestation is individualised and ever-changing. It has an important part to play in our general lifestyle, responding to an infinite variety of factors such as age, health, income, education, occupation, housing and family structure. Chapter Two examines in some detail the main methodologies that recreation planners have used over the years. It is shown that there is a major division between the ideas of the leading international writers on the most appropriate methodologies to use and the current and popular practices which actually exist at most levels in Australia. Chapter Three outlines briefly the development of recreation in this country and the way in which this development has affected recreation planning. The reason for including this information is that this development has influenced decisions and outcomes which still play a large part in shaping the

problems we face.

Chapters Four and Five examine the policies and politics of recreation planning in Australia which are found to be wanting in many respects. The fragmentation which appears to be an unavoidable part of Federalism generally is particularly apparent in recreation and is exacerbated by the narrowness of recreation departments, their outlooks and operational structures. There are few vertical linkages between levels of government but also very tenuous links between departments and agencies at the same level. To be truly effective, recreation should be intimately linked with all aspects of lifestyle, including such things as housing, welfare, education and environment. Equally however, it is important that the needs of recreation are not driven by other areas, such as tourism, to the detriment of substantial sections of the population and to recreation as a whole.

There seems to be a lack of vision, not so much of not knowing what we want, but of understanding why we want it, so that it is never clear why the public domain should be involved or how it might best fit in with the commercial sector or private acquisition. In the Australian scene much basic research on all these areas is non-existent, and vision without understanding can be dangerous. However, it is essential that recreation, in conjunction with all human service areas, develops a vision of where Australian society should be by the turn of the century, thus allowing for the formulation of long-

term policies which help redress some of the imbalances and divisions which presently exist.

The section including Chapters Six to Nine takes a more empirical view of recreation by examining a single group of activities and the facilities in which they occur. The lack of guiding policies and principles, as discussed in the first section, is seen to be particularly important in areas where large scale capital investment, high operating and debt servicing costs, and a range of technical expertise is required.

Chapter Six surveys the literature on swimming pools and highlights the important issues regarding planning, design and management. In Chapter Seven an activity profile of swimming is developed which allows for careful scrutiny of the activities subsumed under the generic term, with the planning, design, and management implications which need to be considered. In recreation the general name given to some activities, and the lack of clarity regarding what is covered in such terms, extends to the location, priority and distribution of such facilities, as well as being responsible for many errors in planning, design and management. The results of this lack of clarity are shown in Chapter Eight, which examines pool provision in Melbourne and Adelaide. The chapter concludes with an examination of the role of backyard pools in the northern suburbs of Adelaide, and their relationship between the acquisition of such pools and the use of public pools.

In the final chapter an attempt is made to produce a model of public sector provision which is rational and informed, leading towards an inter-sectoral approach of policy formulation which allows for more comprehensive and rational planning strategies. The need to develop truly inter-sectoral approaches to community well-being is seen as particularly pressing, as Australia can no longer afford the luxury of expensive services run without clear-cut objectives and a well articulated economic rationale. There is an urgent need to come to grips with political realities and to work out where public recreation provision stands in the spectrum of capitalist welfare policies, and how it can best mesh in with commercial provision and private consumption without disadvantaging sections of the community.

The thesis concludes with a list of recommended research topics, both technical and theoretical, which seem to be in particular need of urgent attention.

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Chapter One.

Social parameters of recreation planning.

Introduction.

Recreation is about people and their lifestyles, the activities in which they participate or would like to participate, their skills and abilities, life experiences, family structure and background. For these reasons recreation is more changeable than many other areas of life, and therefore as a publicly provided service faces more variables and imponderables than many others. Planning is about who gets what, where and why, and the formulation of objectives and policies is an intensely political process. It is therefore important to be able to identify the winners and losers in society, and planners need to be able to utilise measures to do this in recreation as with any other services. To understand this it is necessary to look at the socio-economic factors which shape our lifestyle and which empower or impede our access to recreational opportunity.

This chapter will look at a number of these socio-economic factors. Although for the sake of clarity they are discussed under separate headings, it is important to remember that they do not stand in isolation from one another but are all complex, dynamic, and interconnected. The factors discussed here include income and occupation, education, age and lifecycle position, gender, ethnicity,

and spatial or geographical location. All these add up to more than the sum of the parts; that is to say, that recreation planners need to be acutely aware of these factors but need also to understand that they do not, ON THEIR OWN, explain or predict anything in recreation.

Income and Occupation.

 These two factors are closely connected with one another and with patterns of recreational behaviour observable in society today. Earlier researchers in the field gave considerable emphasis to these two factors in explaining recreation patterns. Latterly however, researchers are less willing to ascribe the same significance to them as major determinants of recreation attitudes and behaviour, at least on their own. It seems that the two factors in tandem have more relevance than either of them as individual items. Many authors have commented upon the importance of occupation in the shaping of lifestyle generally and recreation patterns in particular (1). Early studies by Havighurst & Feigenbaum (1959) related leisure lifestyles to occupation in their Kansas City Study, making the following evaluations.....

" (i) The most successful lifestyles, as judged by the level of role performance scores, have concomitant patterns of leisure activity. The community centred lifestyle includes a leisure pattern which spreads out from the home through a variety of community circles. On the other hand, a successful home centred lifestyle contained a home centred leisure pattern. These successful leisure patterns tend to be autonomous, creative, instrumental, vital, ego integrative, whether they be community centre or home centred.The two types of leisure styleappear to be equally accessible to middle class people, but rarely are working class people community centred.....There

are few exceptional cases where lifestyle and leisure class are not in close relation. [Some of these] men and women generally invest most of their energy in work...with little time and inclination for leisure. [Others]....are dissatisfied or inadequate workers who attempt to compensate with a high leisure performance" (2).

The proposition being explained here is that if individuals have full and varied lifestyles which include occupational milieu, then the recreational lifestyles are also likely to be equally full and varied. Although the study was written in an era of American conformism, and based on a scoring system which modern researchers might suggest is value laden, it is difficult to quibble with the general gist of the study.

Other researchers, writing rather later than Havighurst, have postulated that the kind of work people do will determine whether their attitudes to leisure are an extension of work or a compensation for it (3). This is perhaps a continuation of the early theories of play which saw play fulfilling either a cathartic role, (the dissipation of tension and aggression), or an ego fulfilling role, (that of self fulfilment and satisfaction). With regard to leisure/work patterns the suggestion was that people saw their recreation patterns either as more of the same or as an antidote to the work situation. Both are dangerous generalisations but the weight of opinion has perhaps come down on the side of the former statement, so that people in autonomous and creative jobs would seek 'self fulfilling' recreation, and those in boring jobs

would have 'boring' recreation; though "boring" to whom has never quite been spelt out. In spite of this some researchers do not hesitate to put it in very blunt terms.....

...Those who have a high degree of self determination in their work life are the ones who also find the time and energy to be heavily involved in community life and the active use of leisure. The other pole is equally clear. Those who are worked as donkeys behave as donkeys in their leisure time, - a can of beer, TV, sports, and a bet. (Emery & Phillips 1976:78).

No attempt at value neutrality here!

Some occupations allow/demand flexibility, creativity, responsiveness, while others are entirely dictated by other people or machines, and remain the same day in and day out. Some jobs are enjoyable, others are not; some people work under enormous pressure (sometimes self imposed), and others do not. None of these extremes is exclusive, and most jobs contain a little of all of them. Apparent differences in the status of jobs may not make as much difference in recreation as first thought if pressures are the same. The micro-surgeon with a nine hour operation, the social worker mediating in a domestic dispute, and the industrial worker forced to keep up with a machine he cannot control, may all be glad at the end of a day just to sit and watch TV or listen to music. The choice of programme or music may be different (or may not), but the action or reaction is the same. It is simply too easy a generalisation to suggest that work is THE major

shaper of leisure patterns. Curiously, the reverse hypothesis is rarely considered even though for some examples such as music, art and sport it is demonstrably true. The proposition that an individual's personality, recreational interests, and ability may affect work choice as much as recreation choice seems fairly obvious and is at least worthy of debate and study. Principles of cause and effect are rarely as clear cut as they seem.

A further complexity not adequately covered by many researchers is that recreation patterns may differ for the same reason, or be the same for different reasons. For instance, respondents gave the same reason, "having young families" for quite opposing actions, that of either acquiring or disposing of backyard swimming pools (Methven 1982). Alternatively, people may seek the same experience for any number of reasons, eg. a visit to the opera may be to enjoy a particular work, to be seen in a particular public, to use a company box, to hear a certain singer or composer, to be with a friend, support a charity, go to a particular venue, and so on. This makes relating activity participation to a single variable a very hazardous business, since any one activity may mean dozens of different things to different people. As Kaplan puts it in his Proposition 5.....

"Selection in leisure is generally determined by a complex of purposes, and it is the configuration of such purposes that determines the use of specific experience". (Kaplan 1975:54).

The simple 'number crunching' exercises that have frequently been employed by so many recreation researchers could be very misleading if Kaplan is right. This point is taken up later, in Activity Profile, see Chapter Seven.

There are some frequently recurring themes in work/leisure research, such as high status occupational groups tending to engage in more away-from-home activities and vacations (4). This might well be more a combination of free time and discretionary income rather than occupation as such. Occupation groupings are perhaps most relevant in predicting leisure time blocks, since how much time a person has, and how and when it can be taken, is a specific shaper of recreation patterns. What is perhaps equally relevant now is whether a person has any occupation at all. The factor of employment as it relates to income levels and discretionary income is of particular importance. From these figures below the amount of disposable income which is available for recreation expenditure is severely limited for those on government pensions or benefits. Those on wages and salaries are spending roughly three times as much per week as those on pensions and benefits.

Table 1:1 Recreation Expenditure by Principal Sources of Household Income.

Income Sources	\$ per week Recreation	Total \$ per week	% total per week.
Wages & Salaries	53.80	440.73	12.2
Own Business	39.60	385.69	10.2
Age/Invalid/Wives pensions	15.54	150.64	10.3
Unemploy't/sickness benefits	19.97	250.05	7.9
Other Gov pensions/benefits	24.63	216.86	11.3
Other regular Income	45.03	311.14	14.4

[Taken from Table 2: p14. ABS 1984 Household Expenditure Survey, Australia. Summary of Results. Cat 6530.0]

While these circumstances do not preclude participation in recreation activities as such, they will certainly place limitations on the ability to participate in the high profile, high spending areas of recreation and leisure. This in turn limits the amount of choice available to some sections of the community compared with other sections.

It is difficult to separate income from occupation since there is clearly a close relationship. Level of income on a household basis affects the acquisition of recreational equipment, whether it be a pool, piano or pot-plant, it governs most away-from-home activities, and such things as access and participation rates generally.

Table 1:2 Recreation Expenditure by Household Income Decile Groups.

Income per week \$	Decile Group %	Rec Exp. per week \$	Weekly Total expenditure \$	%weekly total %
0 - 113	lowest 10	15.10	140.79	10.73
114-171	2 nd	18.39	187.70	9.80
172-235	3 rd	26.11	239.54	10.90
236-314	4 th	28.36	284.92	9.95
315-387	5 th	34.38	326.35	10.53
388-472	6 th	45.14	369.12	12.23
473-564	7 th	48.15	412.78	11.67
565-675	8 th	54.94	443.61	12.38
676-860	9 th	63.97	527.12	12.14
861 +	top 10	96.79	686.96	14.09
All Households.....		43.13	361.84	11.92

[Taken from Table 1: p11. 1984 Household Expenditure Survey].

Not surprisingly the recreation expenditure increases in both amount and proportion as the income scale is climbed. The lowest decile group spends less than a sixth of the amount spent by the highest group, even though total weekly expenditure is approximately one fifth, and income one eighth of the highest group. At the bottom end of the scale it is clear that discretionary spending has to be severely curtailed to ensure financial survival (5). In most western countries similar trends have been exposed; the wealthier groups in society are generally most active both in terms of the actual activities pursued and in terms of the number of activities followed. There is a correlation between wealth and high status activities such as opera and wilderness visiting, but, as Mercer quite properly cautions....

"it is almost impossible successfully to distinguish cause from effect. A strong correlation is not necessarily a cause" (Mercer 1977:62).

Some years earlier Rodgers (1969) had also drawn attention to the fact that not all expensive pastimes were pursued by the wealthy, neither were all inexpensive pastimes pursued by the poor.

Traditionally those persons in higher income brackets are to be found in greater numbers in environment-oriented and community concerned leisure (6) type activities, requiring active involvement . They seem to be less likely to pursue passive entertainment, especially watching TV. Whether this is a true statement of affairs, or whether it reflects the normative values of survey techniques is a moot point. In any event it is possibly more a function of education and socialisation factors than income on its own. All other things being equal, there is obviously more chance that better educated persons will be more aware of environment and community issues, and that their jobs will more likely be linked with these in some way. Also, better educated persons are more likely to know how policies are formulated and decisions made, and be more able to manipulate the system and available services to their own advantage should they so wish.

A further point to note is that the acquisition and display of recreational hardware appears to be an accepted part of the household status image. There is evidence that in most societies once survival needs have been met and

communities have reached a certain level, people purchase goods not only to use but also to display, to show that they 'have arrived' and are living a certain kind of lifestyle. Witness the recreational equipment such as skis, kayaks, or surf board on roof racks which are often carried around as semi-permanent fixtures on cars to demonstrate the drivers' participation in a particular kind of lifestyle. There is certainly no doubting that much of today's recreational behaviour is dependent upon a considerable amount of equipment of increasing expense and sophistication. Neither is this movement confined only to capitalist societies (7) .

It is important to remember that a certain level of wealth entitles the holder to a single priceless attribute in the search for a compatible leisure lifestyle, and that is mobility. Not all carless households are disadvantaged, and some are carless by choice, but there is no doubt that lack of access to a personal transport system is a significant handicap in any away-from-home activity. Not only does the car provide personal mobility in day to day living, but it also acts as removal vehicle and living base for many activities. More will be written about mobility later, but suffice to say here that an income which is insufficient to provide a household with a car for away-from-home activities is perhaps the single most

important measure of recreational disadvantage in Australian society as it is today, given our suburban sprawl and generally poor public transport (Black 1977).

Education.

Studies regarding the better/less educated doing more/less of certain types of recreation activity are common in the literature (8). Studies such as these are generally looking at length and type of schooling, the type of qualification gained at the end of it, and the activities pursued. Such studies may be very misleading in that they often do not take into account the many other factors which may have had more of an impact on recreational choice. However, the level and type of school does have an obvious impact in general leisure skills in a way which is often ignored by many writers. As well as the whole socialisation process to which schooling contributes, there are skills in literacy, language, sport, music, arts and home-making which are all of vital importance, and in recent years it is possible to add computer skills to that list. Less obvious but equally important are the kinds of attitudes and appreciation gained, of literature, music, athletic and artistic endeavour, and of the environment. Ordinary literacy may be the greatest recreational skill which most Australians acquire in some measure. Although schools are often castigated for apparently dropping

standards in "the three R's ", the country as a whole appears to read widely and regularly if the numbers of magazines and journals available in our newagents are anything to go by.

There are other forms of literacy which are almost as important. Computer literacy has as many social as recreational implications to its mastery and the ability to handle simple keyboard functions may suggest a generation gap analogous to the ability to drive (see later for a discussion of this area). Musical literacy is, generally speaking, handled rather poorly in many state schools in this country. While the inability to read music does not preclude musical appreciation or participation, there is no doubt that music as a recreational skill is ill-managed within the education system generally.

Physical literacy is another area; physical education within the school system is now fairly universal, but too often takes the form of sports coaching for the talented few, while the rest get little or no help. Emphasis is often put on team games, which means emphasis also on competition, frequently of a very intense kind, so most people drop out at a fairly early age to become spectators, again not particularly good preparation for lifetime

leisure skills. The recently introduced ACHPER Daily Physical Education Programme ⁽⁹⁾, will only pay dividends if an institutional response is built up which allows and encourages lifetime participation in interests which change with maturation over the years. On the whole the "bronzed Aussie" is still very much a myth. There will be a long battle to overcome the present apathy towards participation in physical education with its spin offs in community health and fitness and recreation skills, an area in which Australia compares rather badly with some other countries. Many schools are widening the opportunities available to students in a slow response to the needs of today's students. Individual activities, outdoor education and environmental studies give more children the chance to experience situations and activities which were impossible before. This is to be commended as a move away from reliance on team games only, but a caveat is added here. All too often it appears that children are not given time to master or understand their new skills before passing on to their next activity. A real problem with the smorgasbord approach is the "been there, done that" mentality resulting from trivia and superficiality in a programme without depth or meaning. It is quite possible that some of the boredom and cynicism displayed by some of today's youth is a reaction to this superficiality as they believe that everything has been done and nothing is new.

Of course education plays a role in shaping recreation because it equips people with the initial job skills or prospects which play such a large part in shaping lifestyle as a whole. However, more people are questioning whether the formal education acquired in schools is doing sufficient to prepare people for living in a society which has been seeing "The Collapse of Work" (Jenkins & Sherman, 1979). The debate regarding education for leisure or leisure education, (according to the particular philosophy espoused) has been going on for some years, though 'lightweight' reports such as Fox (1979) and Myers (1980) are generally descriptive and do not come to terms with the topic at all. There has been little impact in the political arena, notwithstanding Barry Jones' efforts at Federal level. Part of the problem is simply lack of understanding, but the other part of the problem is that no-one appears to know how to deal with it, either on a political or an educational level. The whole thrust of the educational system has been towards preparation (in one form or another) for the job market, at the same time as moving away from the pursuit of excellence towards that of egalitarian 'relevance' for all. However, the shrinking of the job market means that education for a life of 'leisure' may be more appropriate. What that might be and how it can ever be achieved without lowering even further the general standard of education, or, alternatively, creating a two tier system which further

disadvantages the jobless, is part of the current debate (McRae 1987, Veal 1987:77ff).

Generally speaking there does appear to be a link between a high level of education and type of recreation interest. For some time studies have shown that such persons tend to be more appreciative rather than exploitative of the natural environment (Hendee et.al., 1971), remoteness seeking rather than gregarious, have more awareness of health and fitness issues and be generally more active (Wolfe 1969). Certainly a longer period of education appears to increase the range of options open to people, but none of the above categories is exclusive, and it may well be a combination of factors rather than education on its own acting as a catalyst. Once again, to impute cause and effect is dangerous; it could well be that those who are active mentally and physically in their general leisure and recreation patterns are also those who live the rest of life to the full, which includes educational achievements.

Age.

It has been said that age is the single most important stand-alone predictor of recreation activity choice. Clearly, where active, rugged and outdoor types of activities are undertaken it is likely that the

majority of participants will be younger rather than older. But is this only a function of age or are other factors involved here? Activities where speed, strength, fast reaction times and the ability to absorb physical punishment are concerned will be likely to appeal more to younger people for a number of reasons. Sports relying on body contact (such as the football codes) and those where physical punishment is both given and received (such as boxing) are amongst those with clearly defined age cohorts, with participation dying out in the early thirties as a general rule.

Most other sports need not be so strenuous and could be played throughout one's active life if one wished. The fact that they are not, at least not so often in Australia, is perhaps symptomatic of other reasons rather than chronological age. Some of these may include boredom, competing interests, family demands, conflicting mores and cultural expectations, lack of time, and general maturation out of, or reaction against, intense competition. In many other countries a general expectation is to go on playing into one's forties or fifties, as there are opportunities for 'veteran' sports where one plays for fun, the social aspects of sport, and to keep fit. In Australia the general expectation is that one has to be fit to play, and the intense competitiveness of much of Australian sport, while conducive to high performance, is inimical to

sporting longevity in the individual. Given the drift of many sports from seasonal into year round participation with its training requirements two or three times a week, and the emphasis on starting organized competition very young, it is hardly surprising that players have had enough by the time they are thirty, and many promising youngsters opt out long before that.

There are other approaches. The Council of Europe for instance, through its Sport For All policy adopted in the sixties, attempts to provide for social sport to be available to all age groups, and it is something which needs to be closely studied for adaptation to the Australian situation. Certainly the success of the South Australian Community Association (SACRA) philosophy of providing opportunities for social sport, and the success of programmes such as Auswim, indicates that there is a significant need for this kind of provision. Roberts (1981:75) uses the term "domestic age" in order to combine chronological age and family responsibilities. This is a useful concept as it accepts the fact that it is family status and lifestyle opportunities rather than age as such which shapes what we are doing at any one stage. Domestic lifestyle with all its implications tends to have more impact on recreational activity than age on its own, at least in near cohort terms. It is, for instance, probably more important to know that a young person is

married with a new house and family than it is to know whether he or she is 24 or 34 in terms of recreational lifestyle, as the table below helps to illustrate (and see also Table 1.12 to illustrate the importance of family structure on recreation patterns).

Table 1:3 Age of Head of Household and Expenditure on Recreation.

Age	\$ per week recreation	\$ per week total	% total
Under 25 yrs	40.45	362.11	11.1
25 - 34	43.35	387.94	11.1
35 - 44	52.92	430.33	12.2
45 - 54	54.95	455.14	12.0
55 - 64	43.89	344.62	12.5
65 +	23.06	196.23	11.7

[Taken from 1984 Household Expenditure Survey, Table 8 p 30].

What does tend to diminish in direct proportion to increasing age is the willingness to experiment with new experiences. Diminishing mental flexibility and reduced desire for new sources of stimulation mean that people tend to stay with situations in which they feel comfortable. This may be a biophysical reaction to life fatigue or a trait in certain psychological conditions rather than age. Certainly in this regard some people seem to be 'old' in their forties, while at the other extreme there are many examples of people in their eighties travelling, learning new skills, and acting in a leadership or guidance capacity to others. Many of the studies which have indicated that activity drops among the elderly have often defined neither what is meant by activity nor the elderly. There is an

immense difference between the healthy and mobile person and the frail or immobile person in poor physical or mental condition. If by activity researchers mean outdoor and vigorous pursuits then that is easy enough to prove, but may relate as much to lower income, or health levels and mobility as much as anything else. Rarely do studies discriminate between the vigorous and less vigorous activities; reading, sight-seeing, travelling, walking, gardening, community education, and visiting are all valid activities which do not apparently score very highly with some researchers as they do not rate a high enough profile to fall into survey statistics.

The number of persons over 65 years of age is growing rapidly, both in real terms and as a proportion of the whole population.

Table 1:4 Changing Age Structure of the Population
1976-81-86.
Adelaide Statistical Division (STE-4/STD-01)

Age	1976	%	1981	%	1986	%
0 - 19	315652	35	295872	32	288638	29
20 - 49	363347	40	389965	42	430501	44
50 - 64	136177	15	144094	15	141507	14
65 - 74	52995	6	64445	7	71330	7.3
75 +	32263	3.5	37510	4	45745	4.7
All	900434		931886		977721	

[Taken from the ABS census data of 1976,1981,1986].

This indicates that in the 65 years and older group there has been a gain of 31,817 people between 1976 and 1986, or 37.7 per cent, while the percentage of the 65 year+ group

now represents 12 per cent of the whole ASD population. And using a slightly different ASD base for 1981 the Department for Environment and Planning in South Australia makes the following projections to the year 2001....

Table 1:5 Projected Population Growth 1981 - 2001
Aged Persons and Total Population.

Adelaide Statistical Division.

Group	1981	2001	Pop Change	%
Pop 65 yrs+	104,916	165,400	+ 60,484	= + 57.6
Total Pop	954,366	1,138,756	+ 184,390	= + 19.3
% 65 +	11%	14.5%		

Much of the population change in the over 65 group will be what is called ageing-in-place, and furthermore will occur in inner and middle Local Government Areas (LGA's) against an overall decline in total numbers.

Inner LGA's.

Group	1981	2001	Pop Change	%
Pop 65 yrs +	22,781	31,106	+ 8,325	= + 36.5
Total Pop	126,075	119,440	- 6,635	= - 5.3
% 65 +	18.1%	26.0%		

Middle LGA's.

Group	1981	2001	Pop Change	%
Pop 65 yrs +	67,065	93,101	+ 26,036	= + 38.8
Total Pop	493,150	461,192	- 31,958	= - 6.5
% 65 +	13.6%	20.2%		

Outer LGA's.

Group	1981	2001	Pop Change	%
Pop 65 yrs +	15,070	41,193	+ 26,123	= +173.3
Total Pop	335,141	558,124	+ 222,983	= + 66.5
% 65 +	4.5%	7.4%		

[Taken from Table 6 p 21 SA Dept Environment & Planning. Projection of Population by Age and Sex for LGA's in the ASD 1981-2001. Dec 1985].

The changing shape of population has immense implications

(10)

for all planners and not just those in recreation .

The term 'post-retirement' has been used by some researchers and has some useful connotations but is misleading if applied to the whole of the age group, including as it does people with no post-work skills at all as well as those who take their retirement opportunity to write, sit on boards, do consultancy work, stand for councils and management committees, and so on. The number of those who are able to continue in a work oriented interest after their formal retirement is likely to grow, and provision for their continued functioning in the community will need to be very different from those without such interests. By and large everyone can expect a deterioration in well-being as age advances, whether it be joint degeneration, inadequate functioning of organs, growing inability to throw off injury or infection, impaired sensory organs, or just systemic fatigue. One has to work harder at keeping fit as one grows older, and what came naturally in youth requires more effort decade by decade. The rate of deterioration however varies markedly from person to person, according to genetic good fortune, lifestyle, occupational safety, and psychological attributes such as attitudes to self and the ageing process. Given these differences in well-being, as well of those of interest and recreational choice, recreation providers need to be aware that, although there are some common denominators, overall there are more differences than similarities in this group, and that planning for "the

elderly" is becoming less and less appropriate.

Rather than treating age as a single variable it should also be combined with historical and generational influences if it is to be really meaningful. The broad brush historical approach looks at significant happenings (such as World War II) or influences of a decade, such as the growth of personal mobility or unemployment. This approach is quite reasonable but it is perhaps more useful for recreation planners to view it from the other perspective, that is, what experiences were shared or missed by groups of people at certain periods of their lifecycle.

The first thing to remember is that generational cohorts reflect the privations and excesses of the times they have lived through, but the degree to which these experiences shape the lives of a cohort depends to a large extent on the particular stage reached by any one cohort. Table 1:6 (overleaf) is an attempt to show how some of the major historical happenings add up to a lifetime of social and personal experience. It is a salutary exercise to look back and see that today's 80 and 90 year olds spent their young adult working lives through two world wars and a depression, and that during most of their working lives, if they had work at all, holidays of any kind were minimal and paid holidays

Table 1:6 Generational Experiences.

Socio-economic Factors	Age Cohorts.							
1900-1910								
End Victorian Era. Boer war. Womens suffrage	0							
1910-1920								
WW1. Poor food. Hard labour. Womens Jobs. Play centres. Schooling. Drill for PE.	10	0						
1920-1930								
Depression. Acute poverty for some. Unemployment. 1 weeks holiday p.a. Female emancipation.	20	10	0					
1930-1940								
Depression years. General poverty & misery. Concern for chdns health & later for nations' fitness.	30	20	10	0				
1940-1950								
WW2. Social rethink and forward planning. General PT in schools. 2 weeks holiday often paid. General austerity, housing shortage. Korean war.	40	30	20	10	0			
1950-1960								
Postwar building. National service. TV. Sports. Increasing mobility.	50	40	30	20	10	0		
1960-1970								
Increased affluence and mobility. Sports facilities. Widespread TV. 3 wk paid holidays. Travel. Conservation. Vietnam. Outdoor Ed in schools.	60	50	40	30	20	10	0	
1970-1980								
4 weeks paid holiday. Public facilities. Travel. Colour/satellite TV. Rising petrol costs. Conservation outdoor recreation. Political instability. Unemployment & affluence.	70	60	50	40	30	20	10	0
1980 -								
Large scale unemployment. Localisation of facilities. Social polarisation. Rapid reduction in public exp. in recreation area.	80	70	60	50	40	30	20	10
1990 -								
???	90	80	70	60	50	40	30	20
2000 -								
?????	100	90	80	70	60	50	40	30

almost non-existent. Given these kinds of conditions it is obvious that, quite apart from all the other influences, the recreational experiences of those generations were very restricted and of quite a different kind from anything
(11)
experienced today .

In terms of recreation planning the significance of this may best be illustrated by examining one skill of both recreational and social consequence. The ability to drive a car fulfils both these criteria. The present generation of 80 year olds includes most women and a sizeable proportion of men who never had the chance to learn to drive, or, when that chance came, felt that they were 'too old to start'. As, generally speaking, females outlive males, this has meant a built-in lack of mobility for most of that cohort still surviving, within a society which revolves round that skill. With the present cohort of 60 year olds, most men and a large percentage of women learned to drive, or have had a licence, though many women may not enjoy driving very much. Females are at a disadvantage in this generation too, but this time because their experiences were of an era when it was an achievement to have just one car in the family, and therefore they had less opportunity to practise that skill than the men. Lack of practice affects confidence, and in turn the mobility needed once the female is left on her
(12)
own . Many males in that cohort learnt to drive during the war years as part of army training; during WWII and

national service afterwards, many thousands of young men and some women were taught to drive, many of whom, especially the women, might not otherwise have had the opportunity in those relatively austere days. Of course, in all those examples, it must be remembered that car ownership followed a long way behind the possession of a drivers licence. In Australian society today the ability to drive is taken for granted, and the acquisition of a car or motor bike licence is taken by today's young people as a coming of age certificate, with ownership of a vehicle coming soon after in many instances. These generations will not be nearly so disadvantaged in old age, at least with regard to personal transportation availability. The immense implications for recreation planning of these generational differences should not be overlooked. Similar exercises can be undertaken with other kinds of skills.

However, it is not only the sum total of generational experiences that are important but the time they occur in the lifecycle which may be critical. Quite clearly some periods of the lifecycle are more critical than others when it comes to developing a leisure lifestyle. The age groups thought to be more important here are the school years, for reasons already mentioned, the young adult group, (roughly 16-25 yrs), and the middle-aged pre-retirement group (roughly 45-65 yrs). These correspond approximately to the second and fourth phases delineated by Rapoport & Rapoport

(1975) who used the categories of 'young people', 'young adults', 'the establishment phase', and 'lifestyles for later years', in their discussion of lifecycle influences on leisure attitudes and activities. The Rapoport's used their four categories to explore and describe in depth leisure behaviour and how it was shaped by its location within the individual's lifecycle. What they did not do very well is to locate the lifecycle phases within an historical context, although they acknowledge the importance of this (1975:29). In suggesting that some periods are more crucial than others the writer is adding to the Rapoport's theory the dimension of co-incidence between events and their effects on certain groups of people. These co-incidences are accidents which shape attitudes, skills, and opportunities for many years to come.

The 16-25 year period is the age when money, mobility and maturation come together for the first time. Young adults are mainly past their formal schooling with the basics of their main recreational skills vocabulary already acquired, i.e. reading, sports, music, and social skills, and they are physically mature enough to take any of these further if they wish. Those in employment have money coming in, and since many of them will still be living at home, or, if married, may not yet have children, means that they may not have the financial commitments that many older adults have got. Generally speaking this group is fairly mobile so

that socially and geographically they are free to pursue new interests in new areas and with new friends. This is a time for exploring those sports and recreational activities seen on TV or read about in the press, and for each individual it is a time of personal exploration and experimentation, sifting out the long term interests from those to be discarded.

The late middle and pre-retirement years are likewise crucial as they set the scene for much of the behaviour which is to follow. As adults shed their responsibilities and are over the worst of their financial commitments, a late burgeoning of new recreational interests may emerge. While claims of increased longevity in retirement years may be debatable, there is no question that an active retirement with many different interests adds to the quality and enjoyment of those years. Persons who have forgotten how to play, or who have such a poor self image that meeting any new experience is traumatic rather than pleasurable, are unlikely to enjoy the only sizeable block of free time that many of us will ever see. There is no loss of learning ability in this age group providing the conditions are right for learning to take place, as Harwood (1972) and others have proved. This period is as crucial to the retirement years as the young adult stage is to full adult life.

Given that these periods in life are perhaps more critical than some others in shaping recreational behaviour, it is instructive to remember where these periods fell for each generation. The present 80-90 years olds had their young adulthood at the time of the first World War, the 70 year olds during the Great Depression. These cohorts missed out on many of the opportunities which went before or came after. Schooling, sports and cultural activities, not to mention material well-being and good health, were all affected, and the time of life when one is learning most about oneself was passed in an era of severely diminished opportunity. Many of this group also spent their late middle age in the forties and fifties, which was another period of upheaval, austerity, and social dislocation. These periods of restricted opportunity, coupled with factors such as lack of driving ability generally (see earlier comments), have had severe implications in their retirement years.

On the other hand, the generation which has had their young adulthood in the nineteen fifties and sixties have been doubly privileged. As babies lucky enough to survive the war, they have grown up as a new post war generation precious to a society which had seen much uncertainty and suffering. Schooling was pragmatic and often based on principles which have since been discarded, but equally was without most of the pressures today's youngsters have to cope with. The greatest boon of all was that this generation

moved into the workforce at a time of full employment, giving stability and ease of transition into adulthood, coupled with opportunities most of their parents had never had. This generation is now entering the power-broking stage in their working lives. As a member of that generation the author feels that it is most necessary that we remember that our coming of age has been infinitely easier than those generations both before and after. Decision making should be tempered with the understanding that other generations have had experiences other than ours, and their needs and expectations, in recreation as in anything else, are quite different. Above all, employment or lack of it, and the uncertainties created by possible unemployment, have divided the other generations more severely than ours into the haves and the have-nots.

Although persons from different ethnic backgrounds will have had a different pattern of experiences, and often a more disadvantaged and dislocating one, the principle remains the same, that each generation reflects the sum of its experiences. In terms of recreational skills suitable for today's society many persons in the older generations seem to be ill-equipped to handle the pace of change that has occurred over the past two decades in particular. Their problems in terms of recreation planning may not be the ones which face us two decades hence. It can be assumed that

overall every generation which reaches 60+ will be more active and mobile, be better educated, have had a richer life experience, and a greater vocabulary of skills on which to draw. They will also, on the whole, be more knowledgeable and sophisticated regarding the decision making processes and the manipulation of political and public thinking. Following on logically from all this it is obvious that they will also have far greater expectations regarding the provision of public facilities and opportunities to satisfy their continued exercise. In the future responses will need to go rather further than considering the elderly as a single "block", or by the formulation of inadequate theories such as "disengagement" (Cumming & Henry 1961), and they will certainly not be satisfied with the provision of a few RSL clubs and bowling greens. They will also, and this is especially important, be a sizeable enough group numerically to be far more influential than any other group of elderly has been, though this factor needs to be tempered with the knowledge that this state of affairs will also co-incide with a reduced taxation base from the rest of the population. The degree to which 'the oldies' can be supported financially from the State is one of the problems yet to be addressed.

Geographical location.

Location is important in a number of ways so far as recreation and leisure are concerned. There is, most

importantly, the national context with its 'tyranny of distance' under which this country has both benefited and suffered; there is also the regional or macro-perspective, and the micro or metropolitan perspective. All three have impacted on leisure lifestyles and recreational behaviour in interesting ways. As a general rule, Australian literature covering these aspects is fairly sparse and is available mainly in the context of individual chapters in sociology and geography texts of varying worth (13). Until recently both disciplines skirted round the areas of leisure and recreation with veiled allusions to the topics being in some way unrespectable and unworthy of serious study. Those that did touch on the area usually did so in an historical context, this, for some reason, being seen as academically more worthwhile. Even here, such texts usually dealt with sport rather than recreation (14). With the belated development of human geography there has been a recognition that the study of recreation is a valid area of investigation and Australian texts at all levels are beginning to emerge with interests in the area, for instance Hanley & Cooper (1982). Individual geographers have made an immense input into the area, with David Mercer being the outstanding example to date (15). Interestingly, Australian sociologists as a group seem not to have made any attempt to match this advance in their discipline, with the area still being largely ignored, although many individual sociologists such as Earle (1986)

have made valuable contributions to leisure research and applied policy. Australian texts on leisure sociology to match those of the UK or the USA, are not yet forthcoming, and there is nothing at all to match the outpouring of radical critiques and economic examinations of leisure (16) now emanating from the British and European scene .

Given the geographical isolation of this country, and the way in which Australia was established, it is easy to argue that the tyranny of distance has played a very large part in shaping our leisure lifestyle. The establishment of isolated outposts around the edge of the continent has meant that Australians have always been coast huggers first and travellers inland second, a situation which has not markedly altered even with the advent of personalised transport systems. The early development of leisure was characterised by two (17) things, a predominantly male society , and huge distances between metropolitan centres. While the first characteristic is now redressed, the last remains pertinent to today's situation, although modern technology has diminished its importance somewhat.

We are still an urban population and despite the mythology surrounding the bush we always have been. Approximately three quarters of our population live in or close to a handful of large urban centres, most of them discrete coastal centres remote from one another. The

concentration of urban populations has many implications to the leisure scene in Australia such as crowding, severe environmental impact problems in most peripheral outdoor locations, a concentrated need for certain facilities such as urban boat ramps and marinas, the second home and shack phenomenon, and the crowding of our roads during weekends and holidays. Until relatively recently these problems were confined to small areas, but the growth of the population and personal mobility has meant that access to most places is now relatively easy, especially when assisted by government actions aimed at 'unlocking' the countryside (18). However, the continued development of the metropolitan sprawl means that for many people just moving around their cities presents major logistical problems, especially in cities like Sydney, Brisbane and Melbourne.

The distances between major centres have always been something of a handicap, especially to the development of Australian nationalism. We have been, and to a large extent still are, a commonwealth of colonies. In the past this was geographically unavoidable and led to distinct regional differences which are still observable today. It had particular ramifications for the development of sport, as most major cities organised their own sporting identities and competitions. Only recently has it been geographically possible to have viable national competitions in sport. In many cases previously it was hard even to

organise them on a truly State-wide basis due to the distances involved. It is felt that Geoff Caldwell is mistaken when he writes of the shift in the organisation of sport as being an "Americanisation" of sport in this country (Caldwell 1983:55). There are two cultural changes inherent in this shift and one is commercialisation. The other, which is the change from intra- to inter-city sport is as much the growth in easy travel as anything else. Up until the early seventies it was common for State teams to travel by train or bus; a Queensland team participating in Perth for instance had a three week 'tournament', - two weeks of travelling and one week of playing. Now of course it is common for clubs to travel all over the continent to participate in individual matches as well as in tournaments, although the costs are such that some sponsors are having second thoughts. The so-called 'Americanisation' of sport is a misnomer in another sense too, in that inter-city competition has long been an integral part of British and European sport for many decades. Having said this, it should be noted that the effects of the new style of competition as described by Caldwell have a lot of validity.

At the regional level it is obvious that the daily opportunities for outdoor recreation activities are shaped by the geographical area in which people live (19). If a person lives at Alice Springs, Leigh Creek, or Thargomindah, normal day to day opportunities for marine sports are fairly

limited. On a seasonal basis they may not be so different however. Many inlanders, whether they be graziers or miners, make an annual pilgrimage to the coast for their summer vacation, and in a very real sense their opportunity for this kind of holiday may be no different from those living in the inland suburbia of metropolitan cities. The distances travelled by Far West communities would horrify Europeans, but the time taken to do the trip may not be much longer than those of the Parisienne going to the South of France or the Londoner to the West Country.

If one is fortunately placed, recreational travel may give easy access to everything from mountains to coast, and from rain forest to semi-desert. Families in such fortunate positions may opt for many weekend holidays, and their recreation may revolve around their ability to camp or have the use of a shack somewhere. Given the immense variation of Australian outdoor resources and a generally benign climate for outdoor recreation, it is not impossible to imagine a family snow ski-ing in the morning and swimming in the sea of an afternoon, a combination possible in very few parts of the world (20). Much is often made of the ability to walk in nearby hills or swim at nearby beaches as being peculiarly Australian. While not wishing to denigrate the Adelaide Hills, the Dandenongs, or the Blue Mountains, this ability is not unique, and indeed in many other countries similar near-urban playgrounds are much easier to

reach, and often served by public transport as well, so that car-ownership is not a pre-requisite for outdoor recreation. Where Australia does seem to score over many other countries is in the variety of outdoor recreation opportunities available to the weekend recreator as opposed to the day tripper mentioned before.

On a micro-scale one's location in an urban context is a very strong determinant of the opportunities likely to be readily available. The politics of land and home ownership mean that the better off generally live nearer the natural advantages such as sea, river, hills or lake; the politics of government mean that it is usually those areas which tend to be better provided for regarding the man-made advantages such as parks, sports facilities, hospitals etc. Urban location may therefore severely circumscribe the recreation opportunities which can be taken up. For instance, a family day trip from Sydney's western suburbs to an ocean beach may be such that the time involved and the wear and tear on car and tempers is simply not worth the effort; they might just as well have been living in Bathurst for all the relevance the sea has to their recreation patterns. The problem of travel in Sydney has been noted elsewhere...

" I mean you have to be tough. Off you go to the beach with half a million other eedjits jammed into cars jostling to stop you. You get sunburned to a crisp and what the sun doesn't burn the barbeque does. And on to the beach you're expected to dig and run and play.

And then go in to swim so that kids on surfboards can use you for target practice. And then, when you are utterly exhausted, there's the mad rush to get home and relax at work. One of the good things about this trip is that that I'll spend a stretch of time in Melbourne. I hear you are a bit more sensible about these things"

Dave Allen (21).

It may be that comparative geography is the point at issue here rather than differing temperaments of the inhabitants of Sydney and Melbourne. It is interesting to note in this regard the part that the metropolitan seaside caravan parks play here. Rosebud in Melbourne, and West Beach for Adelaide, play a major role in servicing the needs of their own city residents as well as the 'genuine' visitors to these areas. A considerable percentage of the West Beach Trust visitors for instance come from the Adelaide metropolitan area, and represent people who find it easier to camp on their own urban coastline during holiday time than to travel from the other side of the city to the beach every day (Methven 1981). If the problem of recreational travel is recognisable in a small town like Adelaide it is very much more acute in a large sprawling metropolitan area such as Sydney.

Socio-cultural factors.

Apart from the matter of gender, the other major issues here are family structure and multi-culturalism, all complex issues to which the recreation planner has to respond. Australia is gradually becoming a genuinely multi-cultural society like the United States, Canada, Britain, and certain

of the European countries. With the growth of multiculturalism comes a plurality of traditions, attitudes, values, and expectations, made even more complex when members of the same culture come as either refugees or immigrants. In such cases tensions not only occur between groups but also within them. At the same time the 'traditional' problem of finding a place for immigrant values in a new society has to be worked out, frequently at the cost of intergenerational bitterness and conflict within families. This is as true of leisure as it is for any other area which contributes to lifestyle; heavily chaperoned females in an otherwise permissive society, reduced recreation opportunities to certain groups of immigrants, peer group patterns imposing strains on traditional family recreation structures, are all recognised recreation problems in this country. An added factor is that the leisure providers are generally white, Anglo-saxon, and middle class, whether of government or commercial origin. Under the circumstances it is hardly surprising that there is sometimes a poor fit between the ideas of the providers and those of the immigrant groups, and the latter then turn in on themselves to form clubs with their own sports and recreational patterns in order to strengthen their links with their own value systems; this may remove a genuine chance of interaction between the immigrant and host cultures when play patterns remain separate. It also seems to be true that many of our

immigrant groups are closer to a form of work ethic than are the increasingly hedonistic Australians. The old values of hard work which stemmed from voluntary or enforced pioneerism have long since faded with large sections of the Australian community.

Another sociocultural factor to be considered is the growth of commercialism in leisure, itself both a cause and effect of materialism in capitalist society generally. With the affluence of the sixties there was an upswing in discretionary spending, and whole new markets opened up. The 'Americanisation' of leisure took place with the growth of commercial TV and the popularising of new activities with fancy gadgets to play with, such as windsurfers, 4 WD vehicles, jet-skis and so on. Martin & Mason (1982:230) indicate that in the UK in 1981 one third of all consumer spending was identified as leisure-related, and they expected this percentage to rise. New markets in the leisure industry are constantly being opened up, although with the faddishness which is inherent in recreation patterns this does not always indicate a net gain. Neither in the phenomenon new, but its scale of operation is certainly much larger than anything before.

The tables below show that the ability to share in the opportunities in commercial recreation is very uneven. On the basis of these tables anyone not a wage or salary earner

or self employed is distinctly disadvantaged in the amount of discretionary income available for recreation spending.

Table 1:7 Employment Status of Head of Household & Recreation Expenditure

Employment Status	\$ per week Recreation	\$per week total	% total
F/T Wage & Salary earner	53.63	441.91	12.1
P/T " " " "	41.46	330.28	12.5
Self-employed	43.15	396.96	10.8
Unemployed	22.65	270.70	8.3
Not in labour force	28.58	231.97	12.3

[Taken from Table 8, p32 Household Expenditure Survey 1984].

Table 1:8 Principal Source of Income of Head of Household by Recreation Expenditure.

Income Source	\$ per week recreation	\$per week total	% total
Earned income..Wage/Salary	53.08	437.63	12.1
" " Own Business	42.76	404.82	10.5
" " Other	50.29	345.11	14.5
Government Pensions			
Age/Invalid/Wives	18.72	175.14	10.6
Unemployment/sickness	23.08	271.36	8.5
Other gov Pens/Bens	28.20	236.52	11.9

[Taken from Table 8, p30 Household Expenditure Survey 1984]

Two elements which have not received much attention in Australian texts dealing with leisure and recreation are those of gender and family structure. Both have received close scrutiny in welfare related issues but not nearly enough attention in recreation studies, and even less in those texts dealing with the associated issues of leisure values and the tourism industry. Both areas have been guilty of having assumptions made about them, some of which do not stand up to close examination.

Early references to women and recreation took the view that they often formed a deprived group since they were 'required' to participate in two careers if they wished to work outside the home, that of their job as well as that of homemaker. Reports such as Anderson (1975) and Mercer (1974) were the earliest serious attempts at publicizing gender inequality in Australian recreation as an issue on its own, as opposed to being an addition to family studies or male recreation patterns. There has since been a major awareness campaign from the mid-seventies to involve women in both the recreation profession and in womens' groups with regard to access to recreation opportunity. On the whole, womens' issues have remained primarily concerned with the more immediate problems of shelters, financial security, job discrimination, and child care, but they have also touched on recreation in discussions on allocation of free time, location, and accessibility of recreation facilities, and the leisure patterns of various kinds of female lifestyles with their concomitant self-image.

Without becoming involved in the feminist argument at this stage, it is clear that there are many inequalities which need to be addressed. The lack of female representation in the decision making circles of the recreation profession is one of the first matters to be tackled, but is by no means the only one (22). Equally however, the

current practise of talking about women as if they were a homogeneous group, or, even worse, a "special population", is not likely to achieve useful results, and may alienate many females who object strongly to being so classified. A further point here is that this emphasis obscures other groups of people who suffer from the same kinds of disadvantage; there can be few people more isolated than a young male single parent for instance.

Family structure as a factor in recreation behaviour is particularly important, although with the traditional stereotypes breaking down, the effect of family types of recreation behaviour is less clear than was once thought. The sociological model of the "symmetrical family" is becoming less and less common (Young & Willmott 1973). Up until the last decade it was generally true that the nuclear family was the norm, closely coupled in Australian society with its half acre block in suburbia.

Tables 1:9 and 1:10 overleaf indicate that this assumption is worth closer study.

Table 1:9 Family Structure in the Adelaide Statistical Division 1976 - 1981 - 1986. [STE-4/STD-01].

Family Structure	1976	%	1981	%	1986	%
Head only	58402	19.8	77097	23.6	70566	20.1
Head/children only	10980	3.7	17634	5.4	21640	6.2
Head/Spouse only	70198	23.8	77629	23.7	88981	25.3
Head/spse/chdn	80592	27.3	86211	26.4	87762	25
Hd/other ads only	13162	4.5	14540	4.4	?	
Hd/other ads/chdn	4134	1.4	4299	1.3	?	
Hd/Spse/other ads	28092	9.5	26699	8.2	32449	9.2
Hd/spse/oth ads/chn	29054	9.9	22498	6.8	21859	6.2
Total Households	294800		326607		350383	

[Taken from the ABS census Small Area Summary Data 1976/81 and what was available for 1986 at the time of writing. It appears that for 1986 the reporting format has been changed for this section which means that categories may not be strictly comparable].

Table 1:10 Changes in Family Structure in the ASD 1976/81/86.

Family Structure	Change 76 - 81		Change 81 - 86		Change 76 - 86	
		%		%		%
Head Only	+ 18,695	+35	- 6,531	- 8.4	+ 12,164	+20.8
Head/chdn	+ 6,654	+60	+ 4,006	+22.7	+ 10,664	+97
Head/Spse	+ 7,432	+10.5	+ 11,352	+14.6	+ 18,783	+26.7
Hd/Sp/Chdn	+ 5,619	+ 6.9	+ 1,551	+ 1.7	+ 7,170	+ 8.8
#All Hshlds	+ 31,807	+10.7	+ 23,776	+7.2	+ 55,583	+18

This also includes some other categories not specified in this table.

If nuclear families are considered as Head, Spouse and Children, then as a proportion of the population they are becoming less important, although there was a gain in real terms between 1976 and 1981, and a smaller one from 1981-86. If this category is combined with Head and Spouse Only, the total 1981 and 1986 percentages are still only 50 per cent of all households. This indicates that in modern society, at

least in Adelaide, recreation planning which takes place on the basis of the lifecycle stereotypes as modelled by Rapoport & Rapoport (1975), and Young & Willmott (1973) may no longer be valid. There is a surprisingly large percentage of single person households. A very large increase over the five years 1976-81 occurred of 18,695 people, taking the 1981 percentage of such households to almost 15 per cent of the whole. There is an unexplained drop in the 1981-86 period, and it is suspected that this may be the result of the changed ABS categorisation rather than any real change, but the overall gain in single person households is still 21 per cent over the period 1976 - 86. Females consistently outnumber males at a ratio of 6:4, largely, one suspects, because the former live longer. Other reasons for the increase may be the rising number of divorced couples living separately, and the fact that it is now far more acceptable for females to live alone than has been the case previously.

There is also a significant increase in the number of single parent households, and far more of these households were headed by females. There is a small increase in the numbers of adults sharing households between 1976 - 81, but in both censuses the percentage of the whole, and the male/female ratio, remains the same.

An interesting change in the 1976-81 period comes from the last three categories of the shared and extended households. Both in percentages and in real terms, there was a very

marked drop between 1976 and 1981 in all three categories, for reasons which are unclear. At least part of this may be dissatisfaction with the standard and design of housing for such groups, which generally speaking does not easily cater for this kind of living arrangement without substantial expenditure. The initial layout of the 1986 census returns makes later comparison for these groups rather risky. Following on from the first five points it is obvious that there is a large increase in the number of households in the Adelaide Statistical Division. The rates of change are indicated below.....

Table 1.11 Rates of Change in Household/Population Numbers in the Adelaide Statistical Division, 1976/81/86.

	1976	1981	1986
Population	900431	931886 + 31455 \ + 3.5%	977721 + 45839 \ + 4.9%
Households	294800	326607 + 31809 \ + 10.7%	350383 + 23776 \ + 7.2%

This is in part because...

- a) there are more elderly people, surviving for longer and living alone;
- b) more single adults are living alone and it is perceived as being more acceptable for females to do so;
- c) there are more separations and divorces, so more couples are forming separate households;
- d) the 'baby-boom' cohorts are into the household formation stage;
- e) there is a natural increase in the population because of immigration and baby-boom reproduction.

(Hugo 1983:24 & 41).

Table 1:12 Family Composition and Recreation Expenditure in Australia.

Composition	\$ per week recreation	\$ per week total	% total
Single parent hsehld	27.42	292.18	9.3
Other single family hsehld	44.99	351.98	12.7
Multiple family hsehlds	59.70	586.84	10.1
Single person hsehlds	22.45	178.92	12.5
Mltple prsns non-f hsehlds	68.50	482.33	14.2

and with regard to the Married Couples family households..

Couple only	40.74	331.49	12.2
Cple + 1 dependnt child	40.33	383.80	10.5
Cple + 2 depndnt chdn	45.32	397.73	11.3
Cple + 3 plus " "	48.20	440.27	10.9
Other,depdnt & non-dep ch	66.77	572.13	11.6
Cple + non-dependent chdn	67.72	542.96	12.4
Cple and others	80.23	546.41	14.6

[Taken from Table 6, pp22 & 23 Household Expenditure Survey 1984].

The enormous variation in purchasing power for recreation should be noted here as it has marked implications for equity in public provision, a point referred to later in this thesis.

Conclusion.

The recreation planner has a large number of factors to respond to, many of which are imperfectly understood or the consequences of which are uncertain. Recreation planning is a relatively new arrival in the field of human services and community development in Australia, as will be demonstrated in the next couple of chapters, and there is much that we do not yet fully understand. Recreation planners are dealing with an area of human behaviour which

in one sense is universal, but is also highly individualised and capricious, responding to an infinite variety of factors including such things as health, age, income, education, occupation, housing and its location, and family structure. All these aspects are essential ingredients of lifestyle but not the sum total, neither do any of them stand as reliable predictors of recreation behaviour. One aspect of recreation behaviour which is absent from this thesis is that of housing from the point of view of the structure of individual homes and gardens and their influence on lifestyle and behaviour. The reason for this absence is the almost complete lack of research available on this anywhere, but especially in Australia (23). Research findings are becoming available from the UK (Cherry 1985, and Glyptis 1986), but there is little systematic information of Australian housing and its use by different family structures and lifestyle, a lack which has been noted elsewhere, and not only with regard to recreation (Mendelsohn 1979:282). This is clearly a major area for further research.

Australian society has undergone widespread change throughout the eighties at an unprecedented rate. From a period of relative stability and full employment to a "restructured" economy in a few short years via a recession has meant that several new trends impinge directly on the need for and action by a number of human service areas. These trends include long term unemployed youth, homeless youth, a rising

divorce and separation rate, the ageing of Australian society and early forced and voluntary retirement, all of which have a significant impact on services such as recreation.

In a capitalist and post-industrial society such as Australia there is a need to redefine work from the domination of the means of production and the "development" model to that which is less rigidly cast, gives greater flexibility in work patterns and types, and allows for a more sustainable economy (Sandercock 1983). There exists a need, and one which will grow more desperate, to lessen the differences between the haves and the have-nots in our society and to lessen the imbalances that "restructuring" has inevitably caused. Education plays an important role here but the discussion on leisure education remains vague and insubstantial and the danger of falling into the trap of educating people out of employment prospects is acute. The importance of adequate preparation in the various skills of literacy, numeracy, health and the ability to think and question still remains the best form of leisure education available to date.

The way in which the recreation industry and the professionals within it have responded to the need for recreation services in an era of social change is taken up in the rest of this thesis. The institutionalisation of leisure is a complex process, reacting to individual differences and circumstances as shown in this chapter. However, recreation

services can also be acquired through commercial consumption and private purchase, which allows for a great deal more choice, less dependence on government, and infinitely more variation in individual recreation lifestyles and opportunities. That such a situation can also exacerbate the inequalities in life should also be apparent, and later chapters address this issue also. The vastly extended variety in individual choice make the type and standard of government provision more crucial since it is now competing for clientele in a cost-conscious climate. The reasons for and the degree to which governments contribute to public recreation provision is what recreation planning is all about.

Footnotes and References.

1. See texts such as..
Young & Willmott (1973), Rapoport & Rapoport (1975),
Parker (1976), and Roberts (1981).
2. Quoted in Murphy (1974:127).
3. See for instance..
Friedman (1961), Parker (1976), Roberts (1981)
Jenkins & Sharman (1979 & 1981), and Sharman (1986).
4. See discussion of these themes by
Mercer (1977:62) and Robinson (1976:26)
and most major texts on tourism.
For an interesting light on the reverse side of the
coin, i.e. those without vacations, see the TUC/ETB
report, "Holidays - The Social Need". Trades Union
Congress/English Tourist Board London, 1976.

5. In the ABS 1984 Household Expenditure Survey figures given in this chapter, the 'total expenditure' quoted refers to "Total Commodity or Service Expenditure", of which Recreation is but one section. The other sections include...

Current Housing Costs,
 Fuel and Power,
 Food and Non-alcoholic Beverages,
 Alcoholic Beverages,
 Tobacco,
 Clothing and Footwear,
 Household Furnishings and Equipment,
 Household Services and Operations,
 Transport,
 Personal Care,
 Miscellaneous.

Obviously many of these would include items normally thought of as recreational.

- # In the Recreation Category the items included....

TV and other AV Equipment,
 Books, Newspapers, Magazines, & Other
 Printed Material,
 Other Recreational Equipment..
 (eg photographic, musical, camping, sports,
 marine, etc)
 Gambling,
 Entertainment & Recreational Services..
 (eg hire of equipment, repair/registration/
 insurance/ of equipment, subscriptions,
 admission charges etc),
 Animal Expenses,
 Holidays - Australia,
 Holidays - overseas.

See ABS Information Expenditure Survey Information Paper for more details. Cat No 6527.0. 1984.

6. See also Chapter 10 'The Role of Government' for the equivalent English experience of this, from Gratton & Taylor (1985).
7. See for instance Brine et al (1980) especially Chapter 9 by D.J. Shaw entitled "Achievements and Problems in Soviet Recreation Planning".
8. Most of such findings are as part of biographical information collected in surveys on specific activities or those on a particular site looking at visitation levels. Other sources include macro

studies of recreational habits on a national scale, see Sillitoe (1969), and the Canadian Outdoor Recreation Demand Survey CORDS (1973) for example. The problems of the latter in their predictive usefulness are well known and need no restatement here, however they did appear to show that the longer a period of education undertaken, the more likely a person was to participate in more recreational activities. However, it needs to be stated that the general assumptions in these surveys often means that the data refers to 'away-from-home' activities only, using commercial or publicly provided facilities and programmes.

9. Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (ACHPER).
10. See Department of Environment & Planning, SA. Projections of Population by Age and Sex for LGA'S in the Adelaide Statistical Division, 1981-2001. It is in publications such as this that the old notion of 'age pyramids' becomes invalid and out of date. A vast number of LGA's show age bar charts which are squared off , or even skewed and inverted pyramids.
11. For an interesting view of this kind of perspective see the chapter by Mike Featherstone "Leisure, Symbolic Power and the Life Course" pp 113 - 138 from... Horne et.al., (1987).
12. Much of the abrupt change in lifestyle, and the isolation felt by newly widowed females, may be because of the sudden withdrawal of personal transport after a lifetime of being chauffeured everywhere, an expectation which neither partner questioned. In a country such as Australia with its open plan suburbia and indifferent public transport systems, this can lead to acute isolation in the elderly.
13. For instance the early edition of Davies & Encel (1965) had a few passing references to sport and leisure and none at all to recreation. This derisory treatment has been partially rectified in later editions. The companion volume on a study of class, status, and power by Encel (1970) also ignored the area. Blainey (1966) makes oblique references but has nothing substantial. All writers were, of course, writing in an era when leisure/recreation/sport were not seen as academically respectable areas of investigation, a fact which is itself an interesting comment in a country such as Australia.

14. Good examples of this can be seen in Brasch (1971) and Dunstan (1973).
15. Mercer D.C. has written or edited the four major Australian texts so far available on recreation, and has contributed a substantial number of articles and chapters in other publications. See bibliography for details.
16. See for instance the many conference papers produced over the years by the Leisure Studies Association in the UK, (LSA), see bibliography, and by recent publications such as Critcher & Clarke (1985) and Rojek (1985).
17. In the early days males outnumbered females by 5:1. The imbalance in the adult population was not properly redressed until after WW1. For a brief indication of the effect this had on leisure patterns see Blainey(1966:171).
18. Although many examples could be quoted here the Daintree rainforest area at Cape Tribulation, Qld is the most topical and a particularly 'good' example of this kind of attitude.
See Habitat Australia Vol 12/2 April 1984.
19. See Woolmington E. & Hart D. 'Recreation, Urbanisation and the Concept of Hinterlands', Chapter 4 from Mercer (1977) for an interesting discussion on this.
20. Cyprus and California are two other such examples.
21. Dave Allen talking to Peter Smark of The Age, 18/10/80, in an article entitled "One Thing He Learned was that The Sydney Weekend was Hard Work".
22. Most departments of Recreation and Sport are heavily, if not exclusively, male dominated.
23. However, see Halkett 1975 for a start in this area. It does not seem to have been taken up by other researchers in the recreation field, although there has been some work in housing styles and their impact on different family structures at Flinders University in SA.

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Chapter Two.

----- Planning Methodologies and Ideas. =====

Introduction. -----

In this chapter the main methodologies used in recreation planning are outlined, with a more detailed discussion of the better known. It is proposed to introduce the more important ideas through the writings of four major authors in the recreation planning field. These writers are important both for their own ideas and also for their feel and overall knowledge of what is happening in recreation planning in their own countries. All have contributed to the development of ideas or are practising in the 'real world', and some have been or are senior public servants at state or national level, so can justifiably be thought of as leaders in this area. Each writer has synthesised the material which has gone before and readers are directed to their main texts as listed in the bibliography.

Where possible discussion of the merits or otherwise of their ideas will be illustrated with practical and real life problems, showing that the links between the establishment of recreation policy and the understanding of the end product (that is, the provision of recreation opportunities via the medium of planning), are not always simple and obvious. There are many breaks in those linkages, both conceptual and pragmatic. The means and the

ends frequently do not match, and plans conceived with the best possible motives may have unintentional and unfortunate outcomes; on the other hand good outcomes may occur by default rather than intention. This happens in every sphere of planning ⁽¹⁾, but may be more prevalent in recreation due to the poverty of planning theory and practice in this area. A further problem demonstrated in this chapter is the gap between general practice and theoretical consensus. What is commonly happening in many places is the continued use of methods which are universally condemned as outdated, inefficient, and inequitable.

Planning Theories and Ideas.

In the United States, Seymour Gold has defined recreation as....

"..not a specific event, a point in time or space.. [but] a dimension of self-development which has little to do with activity" (2).

He therefore defines recreation planning as.....

" a systematic way of anticipating, causing, preventing or monitoring change related to the provision of public and private leisure opportunities. It is a continuous process of change in response to new social values, lifestyle patterns, technology, legislation, and the availability of resources" (3).

Although this is a long definition it is worth quoting in full as it is far more comprehensive than most and has interesting components in it which others do not include. Gold discusses his theme in his two major texts as part of

the process of moving American recreation planning into
 the 1980's⁽⁴⁾. He lists several planning methods within the
 'traditional' and 'innovative' categories. Amongst the
 former he includes 'standards' and amongst the latter he
 includes the resources approach, the activity approach,
 the economic approach, and the combined approach.

In Gold's view the traditional approaches emphasised..

quantity over quality,
 physical rather than social,
 form over function,
 development over conservation,
 and community rather than individual.

He saw such concepts as being enshrined in a process which
 was blueprint-and end-product oriented, working from a
 centralised point within fixed time and space boundaries,
 which is the antithesis of his definition of what planning
 should be. He characterised the modern 'innovative'
 approaches as emphasising...

quality over quantity,
 social rather than physical,
 function over form,
 conservation over development,
 and individual rather than community,

with such concepts being enshrined in incremental and
 dynamic planning with flexibility and responsiveness being
 the key factors (Gold 1981:118). The last one is likely
 to produce problems by raising public expectations in a
 way which cannot possibly be met. How many people, or what
 percentage of the community, must be "in need" before an
 expensive item such as a swimming pool can be envisaged?

To what extent is public provision required to provide for individual preferences? At what point does the agency say 'thus far and no further', and how do they justify this?

Much of Gold's writing is directed to urban open space planning and recreation resource availability, and not necessarily towards urban recreation provision across the whole spectrum of opportunities. Nevertheless, the principles are just as valid, even though there are indications that he has adapted some of his views over time. For instance, his strong support of advocacy planning in his earlier book appears to be considerably tempered later on, possibly because of the general realisation in the seventies that advocacy planning was good for lawyers and those engaged in engineering social change, but that the political and personal motives for doing this did not always match the needs of the recipients and might have ethical ramifications not yet thoroughly explored. This is an area discussed much more fully in British and American planning theory than in the recreation planning texts of any country. Gold's early discussions on the benefits of the public purse going to middle class groups rather than disadvantaged poor remain valid though, and he was one of the first recreation writers to point this out (Gold 1973:185 ff). He continually emphasises the importance of 'citizen participation' in the recreation planning process, the importance of which in the American

community scene has not diminished over time; he sees this as a way of taking

" values, behaviour, or priorities of many people and accommodat[ing] these through political compromise" (1980:25).

The combined approach to recreation planning outlined by Gold attempts to synthesise the best of his ideas into a streamlined methodology. The aspects of this approach are.....

- "1) classifying people into user groups that require certain environmental characteristics which can be described and measured;
- 2) dividing each planning area into resource types by its environmental characteristics;
- 3) relating the desired recreation experience to resource types;
- 4) developing planning and measurement guidelines based on an analysis of user and resource requirements" (1980:52).

These can be broken down into a series of conceptual steps which can be further analysed as required. While this is far more comprehensive than other approaches it appears to be most pertinent to outdoor recreation planning and to be largely dependent on known responses and the articulated needs of the community. Its strength lies in the fact that it combines the other methods without slavishly following any one of them, and it also allows for the plurality of most communities, even if it does not suggest how, or if, one should address the needs of the inarticulate (5) . Gold does not appear to give recreation planners a lead in deciding WHAT should be provided, or HOW such decisions are to be obtained.

In Canada, Thomas Burton has experience with national and provincial governments as well as in academia both in the UK and in Canada. His earlier text books are now somewhat dated ⁽⁶⁾, but his general ideas have stood the test of time considerably better than most and he has been immensely influential in recreation development in several countries, including Australia. Burton has suggested that there have been three distinct phases in the development of recreation planning. The first was what he called the planning 'of' people, when.....

"planners knew what was good for people and set out to provide this through manipulation of the physical and, later, the social environments" (7).

This was later followed by planning 'for' people, the time of great surveys and data collection on people for planning use ⁽⁸⁾. In turn this has been superseded by planning 'with' people, planners now acknowledging, or having forced upon them, the right of others to participate in areas of concern to them. Ideally Burton sees this movement as changing planners from being the directors of change to being the facilitators of community needs.

Burton also identified the traditional approach to planning in much the same terms and at about the same time as Gold. He defines the traditional approach as a static, linear, and sequential planning process, illustrated by

the use of standards. In contrast to this he discusses the concept of leisure environments which has as its goals the achievement of diversity in the provision of leisure opportunities, fitting in to a system of socio-economic relationships. The problem here is that recreation is not only one point of a higher order of relationships, but is also an unusually complex one, with activity opportunities varying from casinos to campgrounds and from picnicking to Puccini, at the same time as all possible social and behavioural contexts shift and change. Burton sees the current fragmented responsibility of administration for leisure within governments as a serious drawback to the development of the holistic planning concept. While the proposition of a Department of Leisure is understandable given the context in which he was then writing (9), it is unfortunate that he did not also canvass the equally valid opposing view, that it is precisely because leisure is such a diverse thing, meaning all things to all people, that it is too important to be left in the hands of one group of bureaucrats or politicians. Indeed, some would argue that it is too important to be left to any of them. Politically Burton has a good deal of support for his view. There is a general agreement among State and Federal departments of recreation that there should be more co-ordination of recreational needs, with the departments being the co-ordinators. In terms of

controlling expenditure and efficiency there is much to support this view; in terms of having a very important part of community life shaped and controlled by one small group of bureaucrats with limited educational, social and political awareness, the dangers are all too obvious.

Burton is on much stronger ground when talking about public involvement in the recreation planning process. He identifies six major groups of actors in the planning process.....

- politicians
- executive and management staff
- professional and technical staff
- landowners and developers
- interest groups
- the general public,

and he lists nine major mechanisms for facilitating useful relationships in this process....

- the institutional structure
- the task force/working group
- small group meetings
- public meetings
- public hearings
- surveys
- workshops and seminars
- conferences
- telecommunications techniques.

While the last is less likely to be used in Australia until such things as teleconferencing, videotex, and local-issue media time achieve greater prominence in this country, there is no doubt that the other mechanisms are already viable and used variously from situation to situation.

Burton is frank about the difficulties besetting public involvement in planning, especially the large amounts of time needed to do this properly, and the frequent professional frustrations which result from this; he also highlights the problem of the unvocal majority who do not usually participate in the planning process, but who may be very quick to complain after the event. It is less obvious how the recreation planner copes with the aggressive vested interest, the contributions made in well-meaning ignorance, and the fact that the vast majority of people can only talk about what they have personally seen, giving a very real chance of pushing planning into conservative rather than progressive actions. This is often seen in surveys where community responses for swimming facilities are always in support of a 50m "Olympic" pool, because that is all the community knows about. Surveys undertaken by the writer in Knox (Melbourne), and Ingle Farm (Adelaide) showed this up very clearly. Burton also does not adequately address the problem of responsibility for change through public participation. Planning is by definition an interventionist procedure; it is no less interventionist simply because it has been done at the behest of a community group, and indeed may be a good deal less objective than if done by bureaucrats alone. However, that criticism aside, his seminal work in the early seventies has been invaluable to

the development of recreation planning in the UK and Canada in particular. More recently, in setting the scene for the planning process, and by producing 'A Manual of Planning Tasks' which clearly lists tasks and actors, Burton has gone a good way towards setting out the parameters of a difficult job ⁽¹⁰⁾. It is highly likely that the pragmatic and commonsense planning articles and booklets from a number of Canadian sources, (indicated in Appendices A & B), have been the direct result of his work and concern with sensible community involvement in the recreation planning process.

In England Tony Veal has been prolific in his writings as a active researcher into recreation planning matters from the Centre for Urban and Regional Studies (CURS) at Birmingham University, before moving to the Polytechnic of North London, and from there to Sydney. As well as being one of the founding members of the Leisure Studies Association (LSA), Veal has been deeply involved with recreation planning at the practical level, working on projects for the Sports Council and local government in England. His monograph "Planning for Leisure: Alternative Approaches" represents an attempt to produce a ..`satisfactory methodology for planning for leisure' (1982:1). He bemoans the fact that no official guide for leisure planning existed in the UK at the time of writing, although they were available in Canada and New Zealand ⁽¹¹⁾ ; to a certain

extent this has been overtaken by the Sports Council publication 'The Next Ten Years' (1982), although that of course was oriented towards sport and physical recreation, and has not been without considerable criticism (12).

In his paper Veal describes the traditional recreation planning approach that uses standards, and then goes on to discuss alternative approaches such as the:

- gross demand approach
- spatial approach
- hierarchy of facilities
- grid approach
- organic approach
- community development approach
- issues approach.

Some of these have a good many weaknesses and, as with Gold's list, none should be used without recourse to other methods. It may be appropriate to spend a little time discussing the methods Veal lists since much can be learnt from them.

The Gross Demand Approach extrapolates from known participation rates as applied to relevant demographic data and community groups. This is akin to Gold's activity approach. Thus, to use Veal's example, squash participation was known in 1977 to be almost twice as high in the 25-29 year cohort as in the 30-45 year group, from which it was possible to predict court demand amongst any particular community group. The rate can be further refined by using socio-economic data and applied to any single community

under study. The advantages of such a method are that it is simple to use and understand, especially for a layperson, and it is flexible enough to respond to new information.

The disadvantages are numerous however, most obviously that of basing one's planning on participation rates which are themselves a function of levels of provision, so the whole thing becomes tautological. A second point is that many participation rates will be affected by two contradictory factors; one is that more people will have grown up playing squash and will have expectations of being able to continue either socially or in veteran competition, whereas previous generations were unlikely to start playing a game such as squash in their 40's or 50's when provision for the game became commonplace. Contrasting trends include the slow down in the birthrate, which indicates that once the 'bulge' has moved through the level of participation may level off as a matter of course.

The real drawback with this method so far as Australia is concerned though is our almost total lack of benchmark data on participation rates. Unlike Canada, Britain or the USA, Australia has had no regular survey of activities undertaken on which to base such predictions. Apart from the ABS survey of 1975⁽¹³⁾, and some limited surveys by individual States, none of which are directly comparable⁽¹⁴⁾, and the recent nationwide leisure survey⁽¹⁵⁾, we simply lack the data on which such predictions can reliably be made.

The method also assumes a single purpose use and fixed capacity for the facility in question, something which is unfortunate but understandable for squash, but shows lamentable ignorance when applied to other facilities such as swimming pools, as demonstrated later in Chapter Seven.

The so-called Organic Approach is based on the
- - - - -
principle that the case for facilities should be based on participation rates, usage patterns and level of existing facilities. This also has some obvious problems along the lines of those discussed in the previous paragraphs, and it clearly has problems when dealing with new communities such as new towns or suburbs. It is possible to extrapolate using other areas, but as populations for newly developing communities are likely to be substantially different from those of established areas this is obviously fraught with danger. A further danger is that 'proof of need' for further facilities may rest with demonstrating that full 'capacity' has already been reached in existing facilities, something which is value-based, needs a greater understanding of activities and their needs than is usually demonstrated, and which is inextricably linked with managerial strategies (16). In the meantime, minority activities may already have been pushed out. There is also the problem of equity. Using this method may mean that those suburbs which already have and use facilities get more, while those without facilities find it difficult

to raise the necessary proof of need high enough up the list of priorities when decisions about facility allocation are being made. As well as that it means that those communities with old, inappropriate or unattractive facilities are also operating under a severe handicap since many of their potential users go elsewhere to participate, or have dropped out altogether. It is also sensitive to managerial styles. If pool managers are uncomfortable with a certain group of people they are unlikely to promote suitable programmes for them, and may even arrange their programme schedules in such a way as to make it very difficult for them to attend at all (17) .

The Community Development Approach is one closest perhaps to Gold's economic approach, and one that has general applicability to the Australian situation. There are two basic constituents to this approach, an intrinsic acceptance of public involvement in decision making, and a concern with the social and behavioural aspects of leisure rather than facilities. Using this method it is reasonable to assume that communities can themselves decide what services they wish to spend their budget on, without having it tied to specific projects or programmes. The problems here of course relate to responsible management of the budget by people whose expertise in the area is necessarily limited, and the degree to which the funding body has a right and a public responsibility to have some

say in the way its money is used. The balance between genuine community involvement and public accountability is a difficult one at the best of times, exacerbated in an area as broad and all-encompassing as recreation.

In the Community Development Approach the employment of people in the areas of community need may include leaders in community arts and sports, youth workers, and play and school/community liaison officers, all employment areas looked upon with some suspicion by those trying to keep budget lines down to a minimum. They may also be so viewed by those who are self sufficient in their leisure requirements and who therefore cannot see a need for such community workers. Groups formed under leaders who are politically motivated may also have a considerable social impact over and above the immediate recreation area, and are therefore sometimes seen as troublemakers by local authorities. While this may make life uncomfortable for council officers and their elected members, it may also be a way of providing a social and community focus for those least able to help themselves.

The Issues Approach is one which has been popular in
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Australia, though not necessarily named that way or even understood as such, but it has been heavily used nevertheless. It is popular in that it follows a format which is acceptable to politicians and senior bureaucrats as such

work can be presented as a total package which needs little further refinement to show that 'something has been done'. In the 'issues' approach a lengthy examination, review, and report of an activity and its facilities is carried out, and recommendations made to government regarding future provision and funding. In Australia at least three States have made swimming pools just such an issue, and other facilities have also been treated in the same way. There are problems with isolating one issue at a time, attractive though it may seem initially; as the writer pointed out in 1979 with regard to swimming pools....

" a point worth discussing is the validity of looking at a single type of facility in isolation....[which] ...places an unreal emphasis on aquatics, to the omission of other equally valid....activities, and infers a degree of interest and commitment...which may not be there in reality" Methven (1979:3.7).

Veal makes the same point when he queries how 'issues' are chosen in the first place, inferring that often it happens through the personal interests of officers rather than through clearly identified and articulated reasons which are put up for public scrutiny. He castigates the US Department of the Interior for proceeding in a similar manner, with the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service (HCRS) not clearly stating in their mammoth national plan their methodology of choice at any critical stage (18) . The other major problem is that the issues chosen are often based around a facility type rather than focussing on an

activity or associated group of activities and/or recreational experiences. The end product of such an examination then has to be couched in terms of providing more of such facilities, rather than the quality and type of recreational opportunities offered to the community.

An approach which is noticeably absent from all three writers discussed so far is that of systems modelling, although a few other researchers have used the techniques both as general theoretical tools and as specific case studies⁽¹⁹⁾. Both Veal and Gold dismiss this approach with caveats about its practicability and its rigidity⁽²⁰⁾. Among the many problems with systems modelling as a recreation planning tool are that it is not easily understood by the layperson, (further complicating matters often already obscured by jargon and technical terminology), and that the mathematical functions often used are based on fixed assumptions regarding inputs which bear no resemblance to the huge and unpredictable variability of behaviour in real life. On the whole this approach seems to have waned in popularity and has never been strongly endorsed by anyone in the recreation profession apart from a few academics. There are too many imponderables in recreation to treat it with the same kinds of assumptions taken as given for an essential service.

The ideas discussed thus far represent a value or qualitative approach to recreation planning, broadly similar in type to Gold's 'innovative' area, and Burton's planning 'with' people. They represent the oft expressed wish of meeting the needs of "all persons in the community", a wish which Veal admits is probably not possible. In its broadest sense it may not even be desirable, and public authorities should beware of falling into the trap of assuming that every community wish can and should be met. It may be considered for instance that swimming is a 'good thing' and that it is the duty of every local council to provide accessible facilities for this to happen on an equitable basis in the community. But suppose for example a group in the community propose to restore and drive bulldozers for their recreation. Is it therefore incumbent on the local council to provide land (and buildings?) for this activity to take place? This may sound an absurd example but it illustrates the problems which can occur if vague statements such as the above are taken at face value. And in a sense this has already occurred with provision for mini and trail bikes being a problem area for many agencies. It has to be realized, by those in authority as well as the general public, that planning for the public good cannot mean open slather, and the oft quoted 'freedom of choice' in recreation is actually not possible. Simply because a particular piece of recreational equipment becomes available

on the open market does not impose a moral imperative for government agencies to provide the land or facilities in which that equipment can be used.

The quantitative and spatial approaches named by Veal as standards, grid, spatial and hierarchical are discussed in more detail later. By and large they fall within the more traditional methodologies and it is appropriate to handle them separately.

In Australia Ken Marriott has distilled many of the ideas in Australian recreation planning in a critical review of current practice ⁽²¹⁾. He criticised urban planning in Australia as often being..

'piecemeal and discontinuous, conservative and with too much of an emphasis on provision and not enough on evaluation' (1979:97).

It is doubtful whether things have changed markedly since the time of writing. Although Marriott was writing from the general perspective of urban open space provision, there is no question that his comments are just as relevant to all recreation planning in this country. He has identified four main approaches....

"Ad hoc planning: whereby the planning authority has no fixed plans for open space development but provides for needs as they are recognised by Council or as they arise from within the community"

"Standards planning: whereby the local council &/or a regional planning authority adopts or develops a set of open space standards or guidelines which it then seeks to achieve for the community"

"Investigative planning: in this approach surveys are carried out to assess the recreational interests and needs of the community and, on the basis of the information collected, a series of plans for the future development of open space and recreation facilities are devised"

"Participatory planning: in this approach community meetings, workshops, and seminars are held to allow participation in the planning process and to elicit responses and ideas. Community groups and committees may be formed to put forward proposals and have voting powers when final decisions are made" (1979:101/2).

The first two approaches fall into the so-called 'traditional' methods listed by previous writers, and the last two are closer to the 'innovative' framework outlined by Gold earlier.

It is not proposed to discuss 'ad hoc' planning here at length since this writer does not consider it to be a planning methodology at all but simply opportunism and a contradiction in terms. As opportunism it may have its uses, demonstrating flexibility when obvious deficiencies manifest themselves, or when 'windfall' possibilities suddenly occur. Where ad hoc planning is the only modus operandi of an agency it merely demonstrates poverty of thought and ideas (22). Like Marriott the writer believes it leads to facility duplication, gaps in provision, an emphasis on bricks and mortar at the expense of services, and a total absence of long term budgeting and planning. A point not adequately addressed is the very fine political tightrope between that of responding to public need and that of responding to pressure groups; the point at which 'the

public' becomes the "too specialised clientele" (1979:100) is extremely difficult to recognise.

Marriott is a strong proponent of participatory approaches to recreation planning, seeing these as an attempt to give the public greater control in deciding its community fabric, and getting planners greater support for projects deemed to be in the public interest. Public involvement in the planning process also helps to defuse negative attitudes about, or disapproval of, projects undertaken by public agencies. Where people can see that the community has been involved they are likely to accept the decisions made as being in the public good, even if they themselves are in disagreement. Marriott's list of possible problems is daunting however and includes the following points:-

- # there may be many diverse viewpoints within the community;
 - # there is evidence to suggest the public does not have the expertise to participate in a meaningful way (* except from the middle class whose values are anyway closest to those of the planners *);
 - # there is more willing participation in local issues rather than in strategic or regional ones;
 - # the view by the public that inviting their participation is an easy way out by bureaucrats to avoid difficult decision making;
 - # many members of the public are uninterested and see it as irrelevant to their lives;
 - # there is a chance a vocal minority carries more weight than the less articulate majority;
 - # to be most constructive it has to begin early and continue well into the management phase of the project (* This is not to say that the same individuals are necessarily involved, only that there should be continuous public input *).
- Marriott (1979:49-51).
(* this writer's comments added *).

Points which are equally valid but which Marriott does not list are:-

- # that participation in planning and agreement at that stage does not guarantee usage of a facility; people can support a project on the grounds of it being 'a good thing' without any personal interest in or intention of using it;
- # people may agree on projects for hidden and diverse reasons, which may not be in the best interest of the community as a whole and which may not produce a harmonious state of affairs when the project is in use;
- # a very common problem is that there may be substantial agreement about the need for a facility, but total disagreement about where it will go. Most people would like to see a pool/scout hall/sports centre etc in their area, but not on their block.
The same attitudes, which are perfectly understandable, are common to all kinds of community development;
- # the problem of accountability as discussed earlier. Can citizens be held accountable for public resource allocation in the same way as professional workers can and should?

What Marriott makes perfectly clear is that, valuable as Arnstein's exposition of the degrees of citizen involvement was in laying out the issues clearly, and exposing the lower rungs of participation for the tokenism it really was (23), at the other end of her scale total citizen control is inappropriate, impractical and politically unacceptable, points with which other Australian authors concur (24). As Marriott notes, while public participation may contribute much to the planning process....

"..it is at times a double edged sword, serving at one level to complicate matters to such a degree that planning virtually comes to a halt, while at another leading it to a relevance and sensitivity which it had never before achieved" (1979:88).

Marriott is also one of the few writers in the area

who has highlighted the amounts of money involved in recreation planning, and the relative lack of checks and balances in the spending of that money. There is not enough concern about, and few mechanisms available for checking that money is spent 'efficiently and effectively' or even understanding what is meant by those terms. His recently released planning manual for local government is long overdue in terms of giving LGA's a carefully outlined approach to recreation planning and its evaluation (25) .

In summary it can be said that although the above writers come from four countries and are writing over a period of some 10-15 years, their general ideas are closely matched. The terminology may be a little different and their areas of interest vary, but there is a surprising co-incidence of views. All dismiss the so-called traditional approaches to recreation planning with their reliance on quantitative or spatial measures and direct allocative procedures. All have gone for the so-called innovatory approaches of combining methods which utilize to a greater or lesser degree public participation in the decision making process. However, because of the difficulties inherent in these methodologies and the fact that they leave a great many questions unanswered, and because their condemnation of the traditional approach flies in the face of what is still current practice (26) , it is proposed to devote a

little time to discussing this approach to see whether it has any utility at all in modern recreation planning, and if so, at what level.

The Standards Approach to Planning.

There are three ways in which the standards approach is commonly used in recreation planning, with the third being in more general use than the other two.

$$\text{areal} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{facilities per area} \\ \% \text{ of provision per area} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{population} = \text{facilities per measure of population.}$$

In the first two the measure of provision, whether expressed as a ratio of completed facilities or as a percentage of the whole (in budgetary, facilities, or space terms), is given to a geographical area, expressed in hectares, square kilometres or miles, or by suburbs. Common expressions of these forms are the allocation of open space per area or suburb, or the requirement in certain States for a percentage of land in any given development to be for open space or recreational purposes. The population standard is the one most often applied, and this generally refers to an allocation of facilities per thousand population. Quite obviously there are many problems with all these forms of standards, some of which are contradictory, and lead on to the fundamental aspect of equity. But before that is discussed it is useful to know how standards are used

elsewhere, concentrating mainly on the provision of swimming facilities.

Comparative standards. It is difficult to be very precise about standards of swimming pool provision in other countries because of the difficulty of finding relevant literature, the fact that they are anyway subject to constant revision according to circumstances, the variety of agencies through which they may be expressed, and the common gap between expressed ideal and the realities of funding. However, so far as is known the following are believed to be relevant:-

- (i) In East Germany public provision appears to be at a rate of..
 - 10m² per '000 population for indoor heated pools (I/H),
 - 100m² per '000 population for outdoor unheated pools (O/U), with a hierarchy of pools specified for the size of the community to be served (27).

- (ii) West Germany is basically similar but works on a sliding scale for dense and sparsely populated areas, accepting the fact that levels of provision are higher per head in rural areas (28).
 - Levels of provision are:..
 - I/H pools..10m² per '000 in densely populated areas,
 - 25m² per '000 in rural areas;
 - O/U pools 50m² per '000 in densely populated areas,
 - 150m² per '000 in rural areas.
 - The German guidelines specify the criteria under which these figures are relevant, referring to such matters as type of school use, to the presence of "natural" outdoor waters, to tourist use and so on. They are therefore far more detailed than the guidelines from the GDR.

- (iii) In Poland in 1973 there was one I/H pool per 50,000 people and one O/U pool per 30,000 people, most of them short course pools. Over the following 15 years a further 100 O/U and 71 I/H pools were planned, with more of them to be full length (29), but it is not known if this has been achieved in view of Poland's economic problems.

- (iv) In France there was a sliding scale of provision in 1971, according to population densities. In communities of about 100,000 people the allocation was..

I/H provision at 13m² per '000,

O/U provision was 14m² per '000;

For small communities of about 10,000 people there was an allocation of

I/H at 25m² per '000,

O/U at 31m² per '000, (30).

It is known that significant percentage of these standards was achieved in the following decade and that these figures have been revised upwards.

- (v) For the Soviet Union it is difficult to find figures relating to swimming pool provision. That there are standards of provision is not to be doubted as these are an integral part of all GOSPLANS in the USSR, and they are known to exist for playing fields and open space provision. The normal number crunching exercises are even more complex here because of the vast discrepancies between specialist facilities and those for recreational use, between Moscow and other cities, between cities generally and the countryside, between Russia and other republics, between inner city and suburban areas, and also between paper targets and the reality (31).

- (vi) The UK played for some years with standards of provision using a formula which was subject to a good deal of debate, and was based on population and attendance figures; it generally worked towards the provision of I/H provision of approx 7m² per '000, excluding specialist provision (32). Now the Sports Council has abandoned that approach and replaced it with.."

"..an approach more sensitive to the importance of location and catchment area" (33).

A large part of the justification for the increased number of facilities of all kinds in the Sports Council national plan (34) is based on the continued increase in participation in all age groups plus the recognised need for for new or refurbished facilities where populations had increased or changed dramatically. This approach is not based on a per '000 population, but rather demonstrated need in specific localities, and a philosophy aimed at increased sports participation of all types. The move is thus away from numerical population standards towards one based on provision for recognised need areas. The problem here is that one now enters a very woolly long term

planning world where the rationale for provision or non-provision in any one area appears to have no clearly stated criteria, and that overall provision is based on monetary terms and, in some vague way, in comparisons with Holland and Germany, Sports Council (1982:25).

- (vii) To give these figures some sort of parochial focus it is thought that the following may be of interest. They refer to public provision in Adelaide and Melbourne metropolitan areas only:-

In Melbourne (1979)...O/U + O/H..31m² per '000

I/H4m² per '000

In Adelaide (1980)...O/U + O/H...31m² per '000

I/H.....0.36m² per '000.

These exclude commercial and private provision, specialist facilities for the disabled, and school and tertiary pools. The situation has improved considerably since then in Melbourne, and marginally in Adelaide, but these figures have been used as they were the times of the last official surveys of swimming facilities and are closer in time to the other standards mentioned in the previous points.

Having briefly touched on the use of standards in a comparative sense it may now be helpful to look at the advantages and disadvantages of standards as a planning methodology.

Advantages.

- (i) They are simple to use; this may be a help when dealing with non-planners and community groups;
- (ii) They are efficient in the sense that they are clearly understood, and are readily available in the literature, therefore saving every agency or local authority from reinventing the wheel by doing their own research.
- (iii) They imply equal distribution of public goods.
- (iv) They have an aura of authority; this legitimation may be very useful for gaining political leverage to be able to show that other agencies/states/countries are following the same criteria. It is also a method used in other areas of planning, such as numbers of school places, hospital beds per '000 and so on.
- (v) As standards are essentially quantitative in nature achievements are easily measurable. This is important in an area where so much is value-laden, implicit rather than explicit, unclear and un-measurable.

- (vi) They are therefore useful for comparative purposes giving a yardstick by which to demonstrate performance of what is possible and/or desirable.
- (vii) Being quantitative in nature they help to regularise service which may assist those who are directing service provision.
- (viii) The use of standards may raise the issue above politics which can be useful at times.
- (ix) They can also raise an issue above pressure group interests which may also be a useful escape valve for planners on occasions.

Disadvantages.

- (i) Identical provision is probably neither necessary nor desirable; comparisons are therefore unnecessary and are used too often for community ego-tripping rather than as genuine yardsticks of what might be desirable.
- (ii) They are not as clear as is claimed, in that there is frequent confusion as to whether they refer to maximum, minimum or mean levels of provision.
- (iii) A standard of provision may not be achievable; for instance, to provide inner city open space may require such acquisition expenditure as to be self defeating, when other types of provision maybe both cheaper and more acceptable.
- (vi) A standard of provision ignores significant variations between communities in population make-up, socio-economic and cultural factors, geography, and market needs.
- (v) Standards are end-product oriented, allowing the provider to focus only on ends (facilities), rather than using them as a means of gaining recreation experiences.
- (vi) Standards assume a static environment instead of one which is always changing and subjected to many external pressures and interests.
- (vii) Standards rely on quantitative information only which says nothing about the quality, appropriateness or usefulness of that provision.
- (viii) If they are above politics they are undemocratic.
- (ix) If they are above pressure group interests they are above community input.
- (x) Standards cannot take into account other factors such as conversions and new activities, commercial/private provision, external usage from tourism, proxy/artificial environments etc.
- (xi) Standards are basically mythical figures which have been derived from contexts historically, culturally, constitutionally and geographically different from our own. Even where they have been refined in recent

Australian contexts, becoming quasi-official, they have been validated only by reference to existing participation rates, which of course reflect existing provision.

- (xii) On their own they do not ensure equity, and in fact used carelessly may perpetuate inequities. For instance,
- a) standards based on participation rates make it very difficult for communities who have already bypassed their own out-dated, poor quality, or inappropriate provision for those of another area.
 - b) standards based on area ratios or percentages may provide certain areas with more of what they have already at the expense of those in need (35).

All this begs the question of what is meant by equity, a problem which is tackled later in this thesis.

It has to be said that the disadvantages are considerable, and yet the advantages are real and should not be overlooked. It is much like any other professional methodology; to slavishly follow, or totally ignore, one method over another is to demonstrate rigidity and inflexibility of thought. The main problem with standards is the way they have been devised and used rather than the concept as such. It is difficult to see for instance, how one could look at the concept of recreational deprivation, of which more later, without, in the political world at least, some recourse to quantitative criteria, regardless of whether local activists insist that value judgments are all that is required. Since the concept of urban blight and priority areas is often linked into the whole spectrum of community provision, recreation must have some means of quantifying and demonstrating need

along with other areas of provision. The use of standards is certainly not the only way of doing this, but it is one way which could be used fairly effectively if properly refined and linked with other factors.

The spatial and hierarchical approaches.
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These approaches generally refer to geographical areas in a number of ways by using standards, a hierarchy of provision, or a given facility for a particular area or number of people in that area. Known basically as catchment areas, superficially they look simple and easy to understand, but in terms of practical application they are a good deal more complex than would first appear. In simplified form catchment areas are made up of three main components...

- travel distance
- travel time
- travel mode.

Travel distance is the one most often referred to in text - - - - - books but usually only superficially. There are two factors related to distance, one is the ACTUAL distance and the other is the PERCEIVED distance. The perceived distance can be the most telling, and according to mood, weather, family circumstances and so on this may vary for the same person over time, and will certainly vary between people. For some people dog-legging round an obstacle may make a journey seem much longer than it really is; for other people the need to climb a hill may

appear to increase the distance quite considerably, especially if one is on foot or on a bicycle. It should be clear then, that relying on map measurements alone could be misleading to a planner as it takes no account of how people actually feel about the distance involved.

Travel Time. In many cases, particularly in a urban area,
- - - -
the amount of time invested in travelling to a facility is important. As a general rule people seem to be prepared to invest less time in travelling to a recreational experience in the urban scene than for a sporting one. However, the travel time popularly expended on getting to recreational activities varies according to the activity and the facility. Generally speaking, people will not spend much more than 15 minutes getting to their local pool for recreational swimming, but people playing recreational squash seem prepared to travel for up to 20 minutes for their game. This is partly a function of the type of people involved, the activity image, and the nature of provision that has taken place over the years. Such catchments are well documented and have been replicated in (36) England and Australia fairly consistently, and so have the unexplained anomalies, people by-passing one facility (37) to go to another for no apparent reason. What is certain is that one catchment area derived from travel cannot be translated to other facilities of the same type, even in the same urban area. There may be significant

differences brought about by traffic flow, traffic lights, difficult right hand turns, lack of pedestrian or safe bicycle access and so on, which may slow down or speed up the ability to travel safely and easily.

Travel Mode. Both the above factors are greatly affected - - - - by the travel mode. In 10 minutes one may obviously travel a lot further by car than by foot, and most people these days travel to their recreational activities by car. However, the problems of peak hour traffic, of getting parents to stop what they are doing to take the children to the pool may add 'hassles' to the travel mode which are not apparent to the outsider. It is a fact that most people in Australia travel to a recreational facility by car, and this has both increased and decreased access in a number of ways. The more mobile we become the more choice we have about where and when we go. But planning which is predicated on this freedom means that those who do not have it for one reason or another are further disadvantaged because their access problems to recreational facilities have become worse. The discussion regarding the demise of local shops versus the growth of regional shopping centres is also focussed on this point.

(38)

Since much has been written about catchments , it is not proposed to go into too much detail here, but the following points are summarized:-

- (i) Catchments are NOT neat little concentric rings drawn around some recreation facility which can then be transposed to another facility or another purpose.
- (ii) Catchments can be skewed or reduced by....
man made barriers such as arterial roads, railways, factory blocks, airfields etc: and by natural barriers such as hills, lakes, rivers, the sea.
- (iii) Catchments may be altered by...
peaking at certain times or seasons
certain traffic flow patterns
public transport availability
public visibility of the facility
other facilities around
site location
managerial strategies
population type and density around the facility.
- (iv) Catchments vary per activity in the same facility. Most stated catchments for swimming pools have been for recreational swimming, (though this is rarely stated explicitly), and are essentially local. For other activities at the pool the catchment may be very different according to the activity and its regional importance in the lives of the community. If there are special features at the pool, such as disabled access, water slides, or very deep water, the catchment will be different again.
In many respects Veal's hierarchical approach has relevance here (Veal 1982:24-29).
- (v) Catchments will vary according to marketing and management strategies. Identical facilities will vary according to the programmes run and the expertise of the staff in finding and maintaining a clientele. That is an axiom in commercial circles, but is often forgotten in public provision.
- (vi) Catchments will vary according to the community mix. Age, socio-economic status, ethnic and cultural background can all have a marked impact on accessibility, and will need to be reflected in the types of programmes run.
- (vii) Catchment size does not increase proportionately to the size of the facility. The area of catchment may increase because of the regional

attractions, but that does not mean the number of people will necessarily increase as other people will be put off by the size of the place, by its club orientation, and the obvious point that it becomes rather less than local for a substantial number of people.

In summary, one can say of the spatial approach that it has a great many useful points, and that a catchment area can be established with fairly simple regular research, but that the following caveats need to be borne in mind...

- * catchments of similar facilities in different locations will be different,
- * catchments of different activities within the same facility will be different,
- * catchments for recreational use (eg recreational swimming) will be different from the catchment for the activity in a sporting context (eg competitive swimming) even within the same facility,
- * catchments do not increase proportionately with the size of the facility,
- * catchments are affected by many externalities which vary for the same person over time, and are different between people at any one time,
- * however superb the facility, its catchment is determined by..
 - its relevance to the needs of the area
 - its visibility and accessibility
 - community awareness of its existence
 - its marketing and managerial strategies.

A variation of this theme is the hierarchical
 - - - -
 approach, a commonly used system in Australia. It is
 - - -
 based on the idea that there is a recognisable pyramid
 of delivery which starts at the grass roots or community
 level and peaks at the international level facility. The
 good points about the system are that it is easily under-
 standable by the public, politicians and professionals,

and that it is a practical and measureable way of establishing facilities. Its problems are that it is much less easy to work out for services and programmes, so it has tended to concentrate on facilities only, and it is also open to political manipulation, especially in a country such as Australia with States vying with each other and a sporting culture which rests largely on separate sports organisations rather than groups of sports such as in Europe. Also, in our large geographical country with its small dispersed population, the hierarchical approach tends to make catchments for the higher echelons in the pyramids difficult to measure equitably or usefully.

This brings us to the last of the planning methodologies to be discussed, that of Veal's Grid Approach (1982:30-37). The name is unfortunate, smacking of dull uniformity applied across the board, which is not the case. It is an attempt to pull together some parts of the methodologies which have gone before into a useful framework which builds on other information which should be available to ascertain and assess current provision in any community. He sees the grid as two dimensional, the dimensions being..

- a) the range of constituent groups within the community, and
- b) the service available to that community.

The level at which an analysis can take place depends on the size of the constituent parts and the reasons for doing

the analysis in the first place. If planning is on a regional basis then a coarse grid approach is appropriate, if it is purely local then much finer detail will be warranted. Where this is done thoroughly it seems that gaps in provision, (either geographically or of population groups), become obvious, or where over or under capacity of existing facilities and services is found, then appropriate planning policies can be undertaken to rectify this.

The method calls heavily on the need for information on facilities, services, and community data. At a local level recreation officers are constantly answering questions such aswhere can I play X?...what can I do in suburb Y?... are there clubs where I can learn Z? All this is what makes up a supply inventory which recreation officers should have, or be compiling. In these days of computers it is relatively easy to get a system going at the local level, though it remains a major problem to get a system which is compatible across local units on a regional scale, since most systems are both hardware specific and software idiosyncratic. However, now it seems that systems of videotex and teletext are becoming available in Australia; once something like VIATEL becomes readily available, it should be possible for recreation to amass supply side information accessible to recreation planners and the general public alike, and may/should link into broader

based community information systems available state or countrywide.

Conclusion.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to summarize the ideas and practices concerning recreation planning. It has been shown that a major dichotomy appears to exist between the ideas of leading writers as to the methodologies on recreation planning which should be used, and the current and popular practices which actually exist at most levels. Both concepts and practices appear to have many problems, some of which are identified by the writers but not necessarily solved, and others which the writers and practitioners rarely, if ever, identify in the first place. So far as Australia is concerned this situation is in large part a direct reflection of the historical development of recreation (and sports) planning in this country, referred to briefly in the next chapter.

It is also perhaps a reflection of the political apathy shown generally by the planning profession as a whole and by the recreation profession in particular as a point which has been signally absent in this discussion is any reference to the political framework in which recreation planning takes place. This is a notable omission in all recreation planning texts as the vast majority of writers appear to assume that recreation planning takes place in a political

vacuum. This lack of recognition may well be the reason that recreation planning remains underdeveloped compared with other areas, since it has not yet sought, or been able, to arouse the kind of awareness levels of other public issues (such as conservation for instance). In part this stems from the failure of academics to address this issue properly. This point is taken up later in the thesis.

Problems alluded to in this chapter include equity and accountability, the expectations and imperatives of provision, and the logistical, political, and financial problems of ensuring community input. Other problems which also need to be addressed include privatisation (in both of its meanings), recreational deprivation, and the political economy of recreation provision within the general sphere of community provision.

Footnotes and References.

1. see for instance the examples given in Le Grand 1982.
2. Gold S., Urban Open Space in the Year 2000. Paper presented at the RAIPR annual conference in Canberra, 24/10/77^a. Also reprinted in Ekistics 273, Nov/Dec 1978, pp447-450.
and Urban Leisure Environments to Come Parks & Recreation (USA) No 52 May 1977, pp52-57.
3. Gold S., Components of a Recreation Access Plan, p 117.
from Fawcett, Manus, Sorensen, 1981.

4. Gold, S., Urban Recreation Planning, 1973.
 " " " Recreation Planning and Design, 1980.
5. The immense effort made to tap the needs of the Angle Park community in Adelaide in the early days of the Whitlam era is an illustration of how difficult this is to achieve. Despite the expense and time devoted to the Parks Centre, it has still been criticised as not really meeting the needs of the local community.
6. Burton, T.L., [Ed] Recreation Research and Planning. 1970.
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7. Burton, T.L., The Challenge of the Leisure Environment.
 1st National Conference: Leisure a New Perspective. Canberra April 1974. paper 11 p 11.
8. Canada in particular went for surveys in a big way in the 1960/70's. For instance, the Canadian Outdoor Recreation Demand Study (CORDS) was one such exercise costing over \$2m and taking more than 10 years to complete. The Canada Land Inventory (CLI) was another of similar size.
9. Burton, T.L., op cit 1974.
 This was a keynote address at the conference at which the representatives of the newly created Federal Dept of Tourism and Recreation were present, and also, it is thought, the then Minister of that portfolio, Frank Stewart. Burton enlarges on that theme in his later book....
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 Van Nostrand Reinhold. Toronto. 1976.
10. Burton T.L., The Planning Process. and A Manual of Planning Tasks.
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11. see for instance...
 Garrett, T., Guidelines for Community Recreation Planning.
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- anon.. Culture & Recreation Master Planning.
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12. see for instance..
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Leisure Studies Association.
undated but circa 1983/4
13. ABS General Social Survey. Leisure
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Australian Bureau of Statistics,
Canberra. 1975.
14. Leisure Activities Survey. March '82-
Feb 1983.
S.A. Dept of Recreation & Sport.
July 1985.
15. Recreation Participation Survey. 4
Quarters from October 85 - July 86.
Dept Sport Recreation & Tourism,
Canberra 1987.
16. As a personal illustration of the difficulties this
presents, the writer, when at Birmingham University,
was informed by Sports Council staff that none of the
5 pools in the local area were being used 'to capacity',
yet at no time was it possible to get a lane for
training. Neither was it possible to establish what
was meant by 'not being used to capacity'. The
frustration of not being able to train was only
relieved by the eventual opening of the university
pool.
17. An actual example of this was at the Harold Holt Pool
in Melbourne where the manager said in an interview
with the writer in 1978 that he 'hated oldies', and
that the pool 'was for kids'. This is a good I-O/H
complex in an area with a considerable proportion of
middle-aged and older people who as a result went
elsewhere to a far more expensive commercial facility
because there the manager was friendly and ran
programmes especially for them. In any planning
approach, the managerial style adopted will be of
crucial importance to the pools success.
18. USA The Third Nationwide Outdoor
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Heritage Conservation and Recreation
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19. see for instance..
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 Booth, P.J., Facilities: Public Swimming Pools in
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20. see Veal op cit. 1982:22 and
 Gold op cit. 1980:222.
21. Marriott, K.L., The Provision and 'Effectiveness'
Evaluation of Open Space in
Australian Urban Areas.
 Ph D Thesis. Dept Geography, Monash
 University, May 1979.
22. In a survey of 37 local governments in Melbourne,
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 See Marriott ibid Table 4.1
23. Arnstein, S., Ladder of Citizen Participation.
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24. see for instance..
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 See also associated papers at the launching seminar
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26. In Marriott's survey, (see footnote 22), 27 of the
 37 respondent councils said they used the Standards
 approach "most commonly" (=14) or "sometimes" (=13),
 making it by far the most used methodology overall.



27. Hufnagel, H., Town Planning and Concepts for the Construction of Swimming Pools in the GDR.
Theor.Prax.Korperkult., Berlin 23 (1974) 10 pp 895-906.
28. IAKS Koordinierungskries Bader. Richtlinien fur den Baderbau.
IAKS. Nuremberg, 1977 pp29-30.
29. Marjanski, J.A., The Construction of Indoor and Outdoor Pools in Poland.
Arch.Badewes., Oberstdorf 28 (1975) 1, pp27-28.
30. FRANCE Sports Programme and Facility Design. Public Works & Buildings: Sporting & Socio-economic Equipment.
The Monitor, France 1971. Original pp 251-304, translated version p 68.
31. The improvements which have been made are usually couched in percentage terms which is misleading as the Soviet Union was generally starting from a zero base after WWII. There have been major pushes to provide more facilities of all kinds through the various agencies such as trade unions, collective/state farms, ministries, tourist complexes, but there have also been many complaints about shoddy workmanship and bad planning. The Soviets are catching up a long way behind demand and in a very different constitutional framework, but it appears that there are many similarities with those of capitalist economies. See for more details in the first instance...
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32. E.M.S.C. Recreation in the East Midlands.
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33. Sports Council Provision for Swimming. p 30
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34. Sports Council The Next Ten Years. 1982.
35. For a good discussion on this point see ..
Chap 8, Open Space from Paterson, Yencken, Gunn, 1976.
36. Many studies have come up with similar findings regarding the general 'localness' of pools for recreational swimming in the urban setting, showing that a majority of people are prepared to travel 2-3 kms or for approximately 15 minutes to take part in this activity. The small variations which can be found in these studies can be explained by the different urban settings in which they have been carried out.
See for instance (using the Swimming Pool Bibliography in Appendix B):
Sports Council Research Working Paper 1 1977:2;
Thompson/YSR 1977; BERG Study 14 1978:34;
Methven 1979:2.4; SA Swimming Pool Study 1980:39;
Methven 1982: vol 1 pp45-48.
37. There are anomalies in every catchment study, most of which reflect the normal quirks of human behaviour. However, there are also consistent findings which show people are prepared to travel substantially further and for longer to attend or participate in something which is perceived as being better than normal. See for instance (Appendix B)
Sports Council Study 19, Leisure Pools. 1979:13.
38. see for instance
Hillman, & Whalley, 1977.
Veal, 1978, Sports Council 1978 (Chap 5) and
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Chap 9. Accessibility.

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Chapter Three.

The Development of Public Recreation Provision in Australia.

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Introduction.

The previous chapter looked at the development of recreation planning in a global sense by examining the ideas of four major writers. It was seen that there is a major split between the ideas of those who are theoreticians and academics and those of the agencies in the field. The next two chapters examine recreation planning in Australia as it is in the nineteen eighties by looking at the framework in which it occurs. However, before it is possible to analyse the present situation we need to refer briefly to the historical development of recreation planning in this country. The following chapters will consider the way the service is delivered to the Australian community.

A history of the development of recreation and recreation planning in Australia has yet to be written. Because of this it has been thought necessary to include a short resume of such development, since simple reference to existing documentation is not possible. This chapter is in no way a definitive statement but merely outlines the development of recreation and its planning in Australia. The reasons for doing this are

due to the way development has taken place, which has influenced decisions made and outcomes achieved, and because these have in turn shaped some of the problems we now face. As the beginnings of a new service or professional area, recreation perhaps occurred without sufficient thought going into it, driven partly by economic exigencies and political opportunism, and partly by genuine desire for social reform and community development. This chapter will attempt to highlight the way recreation has developed, the effect it has had on recreation planning and the implications for the future.

To do this in the quickest and simplest way the chapter broadly outlines the two main stages of development, which are pre-1972 and post 1972. After that the chapter looks at the structure of involvement by government departments and local councils in recreation planning, the roles of managers and managerial expertise, the development of professional associations, and the part played by tertiary education. Those four areas have been chosen as the main actors in recreation development in this country so far.

Pre 1972.

The early part of this century saw little in the way of public provision for urban recreation. Cities and

major country towns had their racing tracks, cycle tracks, and sports ovals, which were important centres of community interest but which catered mainly for the male half of the population. There was little felt need to provide for passive, unstructured, or specifically female participation, apart from the establishment the previous century of Botanic Gardens or gracious urban parks. The tradition had been established very early on that football and cricket were the major areas of provision, a tradition which built up assumptions by the providers and expectations by the public that few (males) would play, and many (including females) would watch, and that public land could be reserved for this process. This has remained largely unchallenged until quite recently. These expectations were reinforced by the school system, where school honours and physical training consisted of team sports, and were built mainly around the production of successful teams. Other involvement in public recreation revolved round the perceived need to regulate and control behaviour and dress in public spaces such as parkland and the beach.

This pattern of provision started to change with the onset of war conditions in the late 1930's. The gradual realisation of what the ravages of the Depression had done to the health of much of the nation sharpened the concern about the level of fitness in the country and

the ability of its people to fight if war broke out. This culminated eventually, after much acrimony and arguing between politicians, between State and Federal governments, and between sections of the media and the community, in a National Fitness movement ⁽¹⁾. The very title of National Fitness, and the fact that it continued in this form in all States until well into the seventies, (and later still in Queensland), is an interesting comment on cultural expectations, especially since a similarly named movement in the UK was.....

⁽²⁾
"ineffective, unpopular and shortlived " .

Notwithstanding the problems of the name, and the Councils' financial limitations and operational constraints, the National Fitness Councils did some valuable work and had great impact on the Australian community through schools, colleges, government services, and community service groups. It was the only significant government intervention in the urban sports and recreation area before 1972, and the members of those councils can look back with pride on what was achieved in those years in the face of general government indifference. In line with the public and cultural attitudes of the time most of the initiatives from most of the councils centred more around sports provision and leadership rather than ⁽³⁾ community recreation as we would understand it today .

Post-1972.

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In December 1972 Labor was elected to power and immediately established a Department of Tourism and Recreation with a stated intention, for the first time in this country, of looking at the whole leisure area, rather than sport and fitness only. One of the most quoted policy statements of Gough Whitlam in 1972 indicated his priority for the area.....

"there is no greater social problem facing Australia than the good use of leisure" ,
and this sentiment was in harmony with the overall zeal for social reform which that government pursued throughout its years in office.

For three years under Whitlam an autonomous department existed under Frank Stewart as Minister, which was the first time the area had been given such status. This fact alone was largely responsible for a move in many States to establish a similar political and administrative base for the area, with the Victorian Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation leading the way, and others following suit soon after ⁽⁴⁾ . In 1974 the first national conference was held in Canberra called Leisure, a New Perspective. It is difficult now to remember the very genuine group feeling of impatience and enthusiasm at that time to get on with 'the job' when compared with the somewhat world-weary, cynical and blase

attitude of delegates in the next one held in 1984, simply
(5)
titled National Leisure Seminar . In Canberra, with
the removal of Whitlam in 1975, the Department lost its
autonomy under Fraser and was merged and moved a number
of times, each time downgrading it a little further in
profile and political clout, first to part of a Depart-
ment of Environment, Housing and Community Development
(EHCD), under Kevin Newman, and then into Home Affairs
(6)
under Bob Ellicott . An autonomous department was
only re-established when Hawke won the election in 1982
and formed a Ministry of Sport, Recreation and Tourism
under John Brown. This has, since the 1987 election,
become a 'super' ministry of Arts, Sport, the Environment,
Tourism and Territories, first under John Brown, and now
with Senator Richardson as the Minister. Recreation
appears to have lost its significance once again in this
amalgamation, though whether that is because of the
increasingly cumbersome nomenclature and catch-all nature
of a super ministry, or because of political down-grading
has yet to be determined. Though a detailed history is
badly needed it is not warranted here, and so only a few
of the major factors have been highlighted to indicate
how some of the problems discussed elsewhere had their
genesis.

How was Recreation Identified?

The speed with which Whitlam instigated new moves caught everyone by surprise (not only in recreation), and with hindsight some of the ensuing problems were fairly predictable. Obviously, when a new department specialising in a new area is suddenly created, the experience and expertise needed does not just appear. So it is hardly surprising that in those early heady days the emphasis was on sport and tourism since everyone thought they knew what they were and no-one was quite so sure about recreation. This was precisely the problem with one of the earliest direction finding reports commissioned by the Department and written by John Bloomfield (1973). In spite of its title the report was almost entirely about sport and physical education, not surprising under the circumstances, and probably reflecting the brief given to Bloomfield as much as his own background in physical education. The department, in its various guises has, since that time, given far more attention to sport than to recreation, it being far easier of course to deal with organised groups which have a high public profile (and therefore political value) than with amorphous recreation interests which are difficult to define, much less to identify and reach. It also fits in with the cultural expectations mentioned

previously that such an area would deal primarily with sport and fitness, and also, in the early stages, be heavily male oriented.

The need for qualified staff and leaders throughout the country called for another examination of the situation, this time dealing with the preparation and education of such people for Australia. This examination resulted in two reports prepared by Elery Hamilton-Smith (1973 & 1974). Given the circumstances at the time, and the speed with which it all happened, the reports were practical, far-sighted and, generally speaking, politically and socially acceptable. Most of the major recommendations were implemented over the ensuing five years. Some of the main ones included the establishment of departments for recreation studies in universities and/or colleges of advanced education (CAE's) at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, their contextual location within these higher education institutions, and the establishment of incentives and methods for providing a body of personnel from which both educational and professional leadership could develop. All these are important and have had ramifications with the development of recreation method and practice in Australia, and are worth looking at in a little more detail.

The Education of Recreation Workers.

Given the rapidity with which these courses were established in the mid-seventies it was inevitable that they were variable in type and standard, and took a few years to settle into an acceptable format. It was also surprising, and is to the great credit of those who headed up those first courses, that the settling down process was as smooth and sensible as it turned out to be. Most universities were not interested in the new area, so in practice it was the CAE's, and in Victoria the Institutes of Technology (IT's) who took in this new sector. It was at a time of much expansion in these institutions, a good deal of money was available, and therefore there was a willingness to try new things and less adherence to traditional discipline areas. This helped the initial establishment and expansion of such courses, but has had the long term effect of appearing to tie such community development courses to the academic policies, practices, and methodologies of teacher education, with all the attendant problems of such a narrow band of professional
(7)
experience .

It is partly because of the above that recreation has frequently been seen, by outsiders as well as occasionally by student applicants, as a kind of 'poor mans phys: ed:', a misapprehension which has been hard to shift in the general public or with fellow academics.

Had a little more time been taken at the outset to locate recreation in an area more aligned to community development, social policy, or public administration, or as an autonomous area of 'leisure studies', then some of the present academic problems may not ^{have} occurred. A further point here is that while most leisure/recreation courses have now built up considerable academic integrity, we consider ourselves, and are considered by others, to be a specialism. We have signally failed, especially in the CAE's, to 'infiltrate' other community and human service areas of professional preparation ⁽⁸⁾, a factor which can only limit our further development.

A second factor here is that the staff recruited to such courses in the initial stages were also variable in nature, background, and standard, and had, almost without exception, very little actual experience in the field in areas in which they proposed to teach. Most came from backgrounds other than recreation, such as teaching (especially PE), environmental studies, and urban studies, and not all of them had any formal qualifications in recreation. This was very much an experimental period for all concerned ⁽⁹⁾, and it is to the credit of the institutions, the academics, and particularly the students, that the first few triennia ⁽¹⁰⁾ were weathered as well as they have been .

A potentially more serious problem emanates from the actions of this period however, in that the vast majority of lecturers recruited at this time are much of an age, and are likely to be in place for a long while, since there are few other occupational options available to them now with the general recession and cut backs in education. This means that the recruitment of new ideas and new blood will be difficult for some time to come and this is having a double effect. One of these is that this first generation of lecturers are very much (11) 'learner-drivers', and the other is that, for the most part, experienced people now out in the field have no means of getting into academia and may be lost to recreation just at the time when they have most to give. There is a grave need to ensure that incumbent lecturers are given every opportunity to increase their formal qualifications and research/practical experience, and to allow for experienced people out in the field to have far more contact with academic institutions, without (12) losing the career structures of either in the process. Those opportunities will need to be better managed than the incentives scheme of scholarships instigated by the (13) Whitlam government .

Recreation and the Public Service.

In the government sector large scale changes were also taking place. Under the Whitlam Government there

were many ideas for social reform and justice which are the natural ideals for a Labor government newly elected to office. In this area of social change recreation, as a publicly provided service, was only one small part, and should not be seen in isolation, although it is a good example of the changes that took place at the time. As well as an autonomous Dept of Recreation and Tourism, there were also State government departments established, some autonomous, and some shared portfolios or sections within existing departments, but all with a commitment towards the development of recreation and sport in their State. Both levels of government were largely in the business of disbursing funds to local government, agencies, and organisations which applied for it. And there was more money available than ever before.

In such a scramble for funds two things stood out; where organisations were concerned the bigger, better organised and wealthier sports associations received most of the money, while minority sports, womens sports, and recreation generally missed out. And in the local government sector a new skill emerged called grantsmanship, which revolved around the ability to present an interesting, plausible, and politically acceptable case for receiving public money from the upper level of government, to be spent within the LGA. Since local councils were in competition for these funds there was

every reason not to co-operate with neighbouring councils but to compete against them.

In recreation there were two major sectors of government spending, one for facilities and one for staff. With regards to the facilities grants there were certainly many mistakes made of both planning and design, and it is easy in the eighties to be critical of those in the seventies by saying that there was too much emphasis by the unskilled and inexperienced on facilities to the detriment of more important things. In fairness it needs to be remembered that urban Australia was still expanding at an unprecedented rate, and that in vast acres of suburbia, old and new, there was almost a complete dearth of recreation facilities of any kind, except ovals and parks, the latter replete with "keep off the grass" signs. It was in this light that the emphasis on public provision of facilities needs to be seen. The sudden flush of money in the Whitlam era allowed for a rapid building programme of facilities, and many councils rushed in with plans for sports halls, swimming pools and so on, often on the flimsiest planning evidence, with little regard for what else was available, and no long term strategy for provision and servicing. Furthermore, many of the facilities were designed and built by local council engineers or architects, or the equivalent state government building departments, who

had only the haziest notion of the practicalities of such designs and little opportunity for building up such expertise (14) .

As a result of this the same mistakes were repeated and time and time again around the country by councils or departments who had not researched the job properly and who were attracted by the available facility grants into moving quickly in case they lost the money. It has often been impossible to find council documentation as to why facilities were provided, and rarely is there any record of discussion as to why and for whom the facilities were to be run. Policies on management were therefore rarely developed, leaving managers in a policy limbo or pursuing actions which bore little relationship with the design of the facility. It was this kind of action, and the clear indication that councils were not consulting with each other on their recreation planning needs, that led to the Victorian Department of Youth Sport and Recreation appointing their first recreation planner in 1978 to try to get some rationality into the system (15) . Other States followed suit in due course.

For some time there were few recreation planners in Australia, partly because it took a while for the need to become apparent, and partly, as a consequence of this, it took time before available recreation planning courses

in tertiary education institutions translated this need into required units. At the early stages those few people around were either graduates from overseas universities with post-graduate study in planning, or, from this country, statutory planners who had taken a recreation course at a P/G level ⁽¹⁶⁾. In both cases the early graduates appeared to be mainly attracted towards parks and natural resource planning; interest in the urban scene came a little later. Even then it quickly became apparent that the title of 'recreation planner' did not necessarily mean a person could be expected, or even allowed, to do any substantive planning, though frequently recreation officers (RO's), would do some in their normal job routines.

The Role of the Local Government Recreation Officer.

The development of the role of the RO is worth discussing here, since this has played a major part in the growth of recreation in the last decade. Most States have followed a broadly comparable path in this development though there are individual differences such as the subsidy scheme in Victoria ⁽¹⁷⁾. However, councils frequently did not understand what a recreation officer was, why they should, (or should not) have one, and what to do with one when he or she was employed. Job descriptions varied wildly, and expectations once in

the job often bore little resemblance to the job description; sometimes this discrepancy was as a result of genuine evolution and development of a new area, in other cases it was because councils had not done their homework properly, or had quite unreal expectations of the position. In the early days this was also compounded by the fact that many RO's were in the unenviable situation of being both the first incumbent of that position and being in their own first job. This is not a position of confidence and strength, especially when professional expectations are still being developed and occasionally seen by other more traditional areas as potentially threatening.

Given that this thesis is using swimming pools as a case study it is important to realise that in historical terms the recreation service within a local council was split between many different areas. Parks and gardens could often be found in the planning department, and traditionally the planning and operation of a council pool was located in the engineers department, a sacrosanct area of specialism that often gave the engineer more seniority than the Town Clerk and more power than councillors. This is no minor point; engineers are probably the most deeply entrenched and conservative professional group in local government, and there were, (and are), few RO's in a position to

argue with the senior engineer who saw "the pool" as
(18)
his preserve . Maintenance was carried out by blue
collar teams from different areas, (the grounds by parks
and gardens, the technical maintenance by tradesmen), so
that the full costs of operating the pool were rarely
set out clearly and completely. Given this situation
it is not surprising that real costs were often not
fully realised. Frequently the swimming pool has been
the last facility to be assigned to recreation staff
on a council and some engineering staff have fought this
move quite bitterly.

The doubts of the traditional areas were further
fuelled by the gradual move in local councils away from
the previous concentration on physical resources and the
development of property towards the human services area,
and they often saw this as an erosion of professional
dominance as the new areas demanded more and more attention.
The positions of RO were just one part of this general move.
More recently it is interesting to note that recreation
graduates are now frequently being employed as 'community
development officers', a shift in professional thinking
which encompasses recreation as an integral part of the
community development remit, but which of course may seem
to further threaten the supremacy of the traditional
(19)
areas . Also there is a gradual acceptance in local
government generally that the old and separate professional

areas can no longer work in isolation; more and more LGA's are now adopting a corporatist approach where the human services area generally becomes equally important to the property development and maintenance area. This does not always leave recreation in a position of strength necessarily, but it certainly allows for better negotiation and integration.

The Management of Recreation Facilities.

The situation with managers has been worse than with planners, especially where facility management is concerned. In the vast majority of cases such managers were outside the regular contact of local authorities, being an offshoot (largely unseen and forgotten) of the engineering, planning, or health staff, and rarely having any direct input into the recreation planning process at all. The managers themselves often felt they were the forgotten ones, having very little contact with council staff but being the ones, in the main, who worked directly with the general public. They often had few formal qualifications, and their skills were usually of a technical nature, these being thought all that were necessary for recreation, and they were often operating under management conditions and guidelines which were restrictive and contradictory.

These can be illustrated in an acute form with regard to the management of swimming pools. As the operation of pools was seen as an engineering and technical responsibility the line management usually went back to the engineers' department on council staff (20). Consequently the job of pool management has therefore been seen as that of pool technicians and not as recreation facility managers. Many such pool managers worked quite horrendous hours during the summer months, with all their free time being taken in the winter to make up for the overtime worked during the summer. Their job simply was to ensure that cleanliness and water quality standards were maintained, to be open at all times, to let in all who wished to use the pool, and to police the behaviour of patrons using the pool. Such practices meant supervising in bad weather an empty pool which could not be closed, or coping with 2000 people in a heatwave. The manager was usually given no budget for promotions, but may have had to prepare weekly or monthly attendance figures and income and expenditure sheets. Beyond that he was given little say, and, not surprisingly, often lacked the energy, motivation and initiative to try new ideas.

Over the last few years conditions of work have improved at most councils, hours are more regular, and wages have certainly increased. However, the managerial

parameters have frequently not been changed much at all. Salaried officers in councils and their elected members, still tend to see pool staff as plant operators rather than managers of recreation facilities for the public. Plant operation and maintenance is merely the process which facilitates recreation management, it should not be mistaken for the end product. Basic certification in lifesaving and water quality testing is no longer enough. A facility manager is liaising with council officers and elected members, dealing with the public, planning and promoting programmes at the facility, working with officers from other areas (such as Health or Education), and so on. The manager is often not given credit for this or the finances to do it, or alternatively is given amounts which are quite laughable in commercial terms (21). A further point is that while managers of other recreation facilities now frequently have tertiary education qualifications, this is less common for pool staff, partly at least because many of them are not qualified to do so as they have not matriculated. There is a paradox here in that the better qualified staff can get more training while those most in need cannot or do not, in spite of the fact that swimming pool managers in particular are in charge of extremely costly capital and current investments. Formal qualifications apart, the swimming pool managers biggest handicap is isolation from

mainstream council communication, in part because generally that facility is a freestanding, one-purpose facility; and in part because usually the pool was created without real purpose or policy.

Professional Associations.

There are two main professional associations dealing with recreation in this country, plus a fledgling one which may become national in due course. The Royal Australian Institute of Parks and Recreation is the senior one in age, and has a major interest in parks, playgrounds, and near-urban park development. Partly because of leadership at the national level, and partly because of the weight of interest in the other areas of RAIPR in which most of the membership is located, it has never really developed a vital national interest in recreation, despite good regional involvement in several States. The other main association is the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (ACHPER), and its name gives the very clear derivation of interest here. It is a younger group of people whose interests in recreation are somewhat limited by the association with teaching, although this in turn has facilitated some excellent work in health and leisure education areas. ACHPER mainly focusses on physical recreation, and has little relationship to or interest in the arts or the social processes of recreation. Interests and input

from ACHPER are valuable in, amongst other things, leisure education, community fitness monitoring, and health in Australia, an area which is rapidly widening and embracing new areas and personnel. Of the two associations the latter is thought to be the most germane to this thesis, although both have contributed most usefully in SA to in-service functions for recreation workers in this State. However, the main problem remains the lack of a mainstream voice for recreation in Australia. There is a small but growing Institute of Recreation in WA, which may well spread, otherwise recreation professionals remain tied to their isolated specialisms or work spaces⁽²²⁾. There is no such organisation as the UK Leisure Studies Association which looks at the broader philosophical topics from an academic point of view⁽²³⁾.

Conclusion.

This chapter has attempted to outline how recreation planning has developed in Australia. Reasons for including this information are that the nature of this development with its mistakes and omissions has had, and continues to have, an important impact on a number of areas in recreation planning.

The main points discussed have included...

- i) a brief overview of government intervention in the periods both pre- and post-1972;
- ii) the growth and development of the recreation

- officer position in local councils;
- iii) the nature of the problems associated with the development of educational leadership in this area;
- iv) the relative poverty of facility management in recreation and the isolation of managers within the system.

One of the factors that emerges from reading the literature on this area and talking to those in the field, is that, apart from very few voices, there is a marked absence of vision, of knowing where we are going and why we are trying to get there .

(24)

An examination of present policy in the recreation field follows in the next chapter.

Footnotes and References.

1. For details regarding its development see.. Gray (undated but circa 1980), and Hamilton-Smith & Robertson, from Mercer 1977:chap 17.
2. McIntosh & Charlton 1985:171.
The English National Advisory Council for Physical Training and Recreation was set up early in 1937 and came to be known as the National Fitness Council which had 22 Regional Fitness Councils. For a full account of the details see Evans 1974:chaps 2 & 3.
The cultural abhorance of the regimentation thus implied by 'National Fitness' eventually resulted in the evolution of the Central Council of Physical Recreation and, much later, a Sports Council which resolutely stated it was NOT a fitness council. For details see section 19 of the report to the Sports Council by McIntosh & Charlton 1985.
3. When the writer first came to this country in the mid-sixties she was appalled to see primary school children still doing marching and drill as their 'physical education'. The equally counter-productive secondary school equivalent, the 'sports afternoon' which was universally disliked (by teachers and pupils), continued well into the seventies. The implications of those practices on the recreational

skills and experiences of the generations who ans who adult would make an interesting research study.

4. It has been argued that the name of 'Youth, Sport and Recreation' has been unfortunate, perpetuating an image of footy-playing male youth, to the exclusion of other groups. The argument was probably valid to begin with, especially since the Minister concerned was himself an ex-footballer; members of that Department had to work extremely hard in the early years to reassure the general public that the Department was there to serve the whole community. In both WA and Victoria the association with Youth in the title has now been removed.
5. It was certainly apparent that there was a considerably lower political profile in the second conference compared with 1974, and it also seemed that somewhere in that decade we had run out of ideas and enthusiasm.
6. Mr Ellicotts' main achievement from the point of view of this thesis topic was pushing through the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport in the face of considerable Cabinet opposition.
7. Even worse, in some institutions it means that recreation has been lodged within other departments such as physical education, a situation which has seriously hindered its development. However, it must be said that recreation courses have benefitted enormously by having readily available foundation units in sociology, psychology, geography etc, as well as options for further dvelopment in areas such as health, fitness, environmental studies, outdoor education, womens studies, counselling and so on.
8. For instance, architecture courses rarely mention requirements for recreation,(though they often do for high level sport), urban planning courses seem to have very little time for non-functional topics, and teachers are rarely informed on the principles of leisure education. Part of the problem, and one we are all guilty of, is cramming tertiary level courses with more and more technical material at the expense of questioning, debate and the exploration of associated ideas. The old problem of skills versus wisdom.
9. The writer, along with many others no doubt, will have memories of interviews for newly created positions in academic institutions; in retrospect, the interviews were amusing, but at the time they were

nerve wracking and frustrating, as it was quite obvious that most people on such selection panels had no idea what recreation was, what questions to ask, or the ability/experience to evaluate and understand the answers given.

10. Our major concerns now have centred around problems of college amalgamations, reduced government funding, lack of government policy initiatives, and indifferent educational leadership, which all States and most institutions are facing. This is not peculiar to recreation. A problem which does face CAE's however, is the difficulty of doing substantial research in an institution funded only for teaching. For newly developed areas, and ones where outside agencies need consultative assistance all the time, this is a recurring problem. Whether the apparent death of the academic binary system in this country brings some improvement to CAE's remains to be seen.
11. Many of us have had prior teaching and lecturing experience, and many of us have also obtained overseas postgraduate qualifications in the area(s) we wanted to make our specialism. But the fact remains that we were relatively new to the PRACTICE of that specialism and we have been leading by learning, very much a DAIS/NAID approach, 'do as I say, not as I did'. This fact is emphasized perhaps in that this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge, only the second PhD on recreation planning in Australia to date.
12. In the present (1988) climate of political initiatives and 'rationalisation' of the educational policy areas under the new minister (Dawkins), it remains to be seen whether such flexibility and willingness to try new ideas will eventuate.
13. The Scholarships were established to encourage people to go overseas for retraining and gain formal post-graduate qualifications. Unfortunately the system was abused by some of the participants who regarded it as an all-expenses-paid rort, and by other participants who on academic criteria should never have been awarded the scholarships in the first place.
This is not to denigrate those participants who made good use of the scholarships and who gave/are giving great service to the Australian community on their return. The idea was a good one, it was the management of the idea which left something to be desired.

14. It was most unusual in those days for architects and engineers to consult anyone outside their own professional spheres, least of all those few people around at that time with any expertise in the design of sports/recreation facilities. Not only was that obviously seen to be professionally demeaning, but in those days the few experienced people available were usually British, American or Canadian, which meant consultation was then even less likely. There is sufficient anecdotal evidence around that time to indicate that in some cases experienced people were actively excluded from the consultation phase. This situation still occurs now but happily less frequently.
15. The writer was that first recreation planner. Since neither I nor the Department were quite sure what to expect of each other it was an interesting period in which we laid the ground rules as we went along. In retrospect, probably neither party would do again what we did then, but this is all part of the learning curve in a new profession with an even newer specialism. In the event I believe there was rapid officer acceptance of the recreation planner's role, but political acceptance was less readily forthcoming as it was clearly seen as limiting political flexibility.
16. It has to be said in this regard that, on the evidence provided by such planners, the criticisms of the social content of some planning degrees are absolutely valid. See for instance..
Sandercock & Berry 1983 esp chap 2, and
Stretton 1978 esp chaps 2,3,7.
17. The MRO subsidy scheme created a good though quite unintended example of grantsmanship. It did, however, also achieve its objective of educating councils by having an MRO in-place within the council. If the subsidy scheme had not been in operation the LGA change in this area would have been very much slower. South Australia makes a good comparison in this regard. For further details on this see Flagaan (1980 both Volumes).
18. This was especially the case where young RO'S were female. However the point is made on a professional status basis not that of gender.
19. The writer maintains contact with many ex-students in such positions who write of the struggle to gain acceptance for the community development area in 'old fashioned' councils. There is too the parallel struggle to win over elected members who are probably the most

conservative of the lot; this is a time consuming business especially as membership change is more likely here than with permanent officers, so may have to be repeated frequently. It is usually the mature-aged CDO's who manage to survive these situations best, and they also write of the immense rewards when acceptance and initiatives at last become reality.

20. In some LGA's such as Salisbury SA, the line responsibility went back to the Health Officer, since he was deemed to be ultimately responsible through the provision and regulations of the Health Act. This managerial arrangement has now changed.
21. The Sports Complex at the Parks Community Centre, which includes a huge sports hall, climbing wall, weights gym, squash courts, aerobics room, indoor and outdoor pools, outdoor tennis/basketball courts and roller skating track, had a promotions budget in 1986/7 of just \$5000 p.a. which had to cover everything including logos, paper, graphics, radio time and newspaper adverts. Some smaller recreation centres and most swimming pools have no promotions budget at all.
22. For instance..
- | | |
|--------|---|
| AISRCM | Australian Institute of Swimming &
Recreation Centre Managers; |
| RADSA | Recreation Association for the Disabled,
South Australia; |
| MROAV | Municipal Recreation Officers
Association, Victoria. |
23. There was the Combined Universities Recreation Research Group which existed briefly in the seventies, published some useful monographs, but then sank from view.
24. A fellow delegate at a conference recently described the development of recreation in Australia as being rather like steering a boat by looking at its wake, - a depressingly apt metaphor.

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Chapter Four.

Public Recreation and Social Policy.

Introduction.

The previous chapter sought to show how the recreation field developed in Australia the way it did, and the problems which present themselves from this structure. It is now proposed to examine the planning and policy structure for recreation against the social and political framework in which we are operating. Where possible this is illustrated with examples of individual facilities and services within specified suburbs and cities. The point is made that consideration of recreation provision can only be made within a total socio-cultural context; consideration of recreation as a specialty divorces it from reality. Government policies at all three levels are examined and generally found to be wanting in this regard. The growth of recreation planning and its attendant bureaucratic framework is studied and areas of concern noted. These are then discussed further in the following chapter in relation to their effects on equity and access.

Recreation and Social Policy.

As was noted in Chapter Three recreation is a youthful profession, with recreation planning in the formal sense in Australia having a history of little more than ten years. Youthfulness is fun in the sense that those involved are writing their own history in a new area, with all the

implications of that situation, but it does also lead to problems within the institutional framework. The leaders in the area are relatively young, the frame work of legislation is young and relatively untested, and the bureaucratic structure is often inexperienced and unstable, requiring frequent overhauls and reshapings, a situation not unknown in earlier times.....

"....we tend to meet any new situation by reorganising; and a wonderful method it can be for creating the illusion of progress" Petronius (circa AD60).

Because of this there is a lack of political clout both at the individual and institutional levels, efficiency is mistaken for sagacity, and decision-making for policy. Above all the policies which do exist are relatively immature and isolated from the main-stream of Australian planning. Little or nothing has been done to mesh policies for this area with social policy as a whole, or discuss where Australian society is heading in the long term, as opposed to the life of
(1)
whichever government is current. . And unlike the considerable body of writing on the matter from the UK
(2)
in particular over the last ten years , Australia has had very little to say on the discussion about the
(3)
political economy of leisure , and, indeed, until recently has had little to say about recreation policies at all.

There are inherent contradictions with provision for recreation at all levels, and these are rendered more complex if divorced and isolated from other facets of public provision. It is reasonably easy to formulate policies for areas commonly considered to be essential services, as by and large there is little disagreement about their nature. Everybody considers that sanitary services and utilities are 'a good thing' and if disagreement exists it is likely to be about the speed of development and the quality of those services rather than whether they exist or not and who should have them; they are a public good and form part of the collective consumption of all developed nations. People therefore accept that their rates and taxes should go towards supporting such services. In these areas therefore, the aims and objectives are relatively unambiguous and uncontentious, both within the political and bureaucratic framework, and in the mind of the general public. They have also been available a long time in most countries and therefore the providing bureaucracy has developed its own professionalism, becoming in many governing structures a well entrenched group of paid officials often wielding more power than politicians (4) .

Where public provision falls into the merit goods category, that is, those goods and services provided irrespective of their market value and consumer ability

to pay because they are considered to be socially desirable (rather than essential), public provision becomes far more contentious, ambiguous and, therefore, politicised. Where merit goods have broad humanitarian aims, such as provision for intellectually and physically disabled, they are still clear to the general public and difficult to argue against in principle (although there may be professional discussion about the form in which these services are provided, and sharp political argument about their relative costs). However, where merit goods fall into the vague 'quality of life' area, decision making becomes at once more difficult since there are no clearly defined and publicly agreed and uncontested objectives to be pursued. And where there are no commonly agreed upon goals it is also far less easy to establish an achievable and measureable level of provision, or identify unequal distribution of resources. In this situation it is all too easy for governments and bureaucracies to operate via a sort of incremental wish-list, which simply responds to immediate circumstances and has no long term and comprehensive view of society.

In earlier decades the reasons for public recreation provision occurred in the context of work and defence and with the protection of property and the improvement
(5)
in health and sanitation, all non-recreation concerns .

The apparent concern with recreation provision now appears to be largely with providing a secure place for individuals to recreate in a society which cannot give all of its work-force something meaningful to do. Increasingly recreation is becoming a de facto arm of welfare, and what is glibly defined as 'the problem of leisure' is really a problem of society and the distribution of wealth ⁽⁶⁾. Recreation is being seen as the 'too hard basket' of society into which other social problems are being dropped. There is little evidence that the Australian recreation industry as a whole has identified this shift, with all its ramifications, in contrast to the UK and several European countries. The Australian recreation industry has assumed the language imperatives of welfare provision without in any way apparently considering the political implications those imperatives infer for recreation; the philosophic conflicts of using terms such as 'demand', 'rights', 'recreation deprivation' etc in an area which many consider to be a non-essential service and an area of personal responsibility has not been explored. The problem of language and its political leverage and the social expectations engendered by its use are found in discussions of social welfare issues in Australia (Jones 1983 especially Chap 4), but have not yet filtered through to recreationists generally, although they are being widely discussed overseas (Coalter 1984).

The terms 'policy' and 'planning' are used variously and interchangeably by many writers. To clarify the ensuing discussion this writer will adhere to the following definition as a simple operational guideline....

....that of policy being the statement of intent, the goals of a particular agency or government, and
that of planning being the designation of outcomes in line with the policy statements, and the organisation of change(s) needed to achieve those outcomes Goldsmith (1980:22/23).

Recreation Policies in Australia.

The present Hawke government has made two major policy statements which concern recreation:

"Sport and Recreation: Australia on the Move" (Dec 1983), and
 "Towards the Development of a Commonwealth Policy on Recreation" (Oct 1985) (7).

Throughout the first Hawke paper there is the tacit assumption that recreation equals physical recreation and therefore has a tight relationship with sport. Reference is made briefly here to the third chapter of this thesis where the historical development of the recreation industry was outlined with similar problems. The first year of the Hawke government was 1983, and this needs to be remembered when considering the general statement of objectives and the hierarchy of proposed expenditure (8). There is no general discussion on where sport and recreation may fit into the broad spectrum of Labor public policy, which seems a curious omission if one considers the importance given to it by countries

further to the left. There is, however, an uncritical acceptance that there exists a growing....

".... demand for a greater degree of choice and a greater degree of diversity of opportunity " (9), and, with it, the assumption that government must attempt to satisfy that demand. The general aims and objectives follow from this point and lead it into 'motherhood statements' which are extremely difficult to sustain, such as..

"The Government accepts its responsibility to improve the quality of life for all Australians.. ...we are concerned to help people channel their energies in positive directions and to encourage them to participate in some degree of recreation, sport, or other general fitness activity" (10).

This could not possibly be met by the Department of Sport, Recreation and Tourism (SRT), with its resources, or, indeed, by the government in general even if, by chance, the policy was successful. The document is also particularly short on details, as it does not try to spell out who is to benefit from this, or why. Having said that, the publication is also a refreshing improvement on the previous ALP policy paper on Sport and Recreation published in the lead up to the 1982 election, which, for unsubstantiated, ill-written and rhetorical nonsense would be hard (11) to beat .

In the 1985 document there is evidence that the passage of time (in what have been quite difficult years for government) has had an effect, and that there has been something of a move from universality to specificity,

with more attention being given to what is actually achievable. Particular groups have been targetted for attention as they seem to be 'recreationally disadvantaged', such as the aged, and women, although discussion about what constitutes recreational disadvantage is not forthcoming, and both groups of people are treated as a block (see the discussion in chapter one). New policy initiatives have been taken and others tightened up. There is now a passing recognition that the changing aspects of leisure, paid employment and unemployment impinge on other areas of society....

" ..since recreation is closely related to issues in health, education, social welfare, tourism, urban and regional development, housing, transport, (un)employment and industrial relations and the development of a multicultural society' (12).

This being so it is disappointing to find that the document is still apparently formulated in total isolation from the policies of these other areas, there being no further reference to them.

It is also disappointing that the document repeats some of the myths of current recreation practice, without any supporting evidence whatever. Hence we read that

"available evidence suggests that many Australians are not participating in satisfying recreational activities" (13)

and

"many people are still unaware of the important contribution that satisfying and enjoyable

recreational experiences can make to the maintenance of health and feelings of personal satisfaction and well being. Nor have they accepted that the opportunity to participate in such experiences is the right of every Australian" (14).

These are conventional wisdoms repeated in many places and enshrined in one form or another in policy documents of many agencies, yet it is something which sits ill with the oft repeated statements of Australians being hedonistic, beach and sun loving people. It stems in part from the assumption that publicly provided recreation is the only 'good' form of participation, and there are, in truth, many people who never use public facilities, having no need of them for their own pursuits. The Labor party is therefore enshrining, at least in part, a policy which assumes that only collective consumption of recreation, via public or commercial recreation facilities, can be regarded as satisfying to the participant; logically, the next move has to be towards providing the means of consumption to be available to all. This is roughly the logic that is the spur of the British and European Sports Councils policies of "Sport for All", without considering whether such a policy is possible to achieve or desirable even if it were. In any event, it is a logic which finds the capital investment in, and maintenance of, facilities for such a policy to be extremely expensive and demanding on society generally.

It is only a small step from this point to the integration of recreation provision into the welfare system, and the expectations of 'cradle to grave' provision through services and facilities which this implies. If 'positive' recreation activities, referred to above, are only those for which governments can provide, this indicates a massive and important shift of thinking from the development of the self-reliant Australians much favoured in earlier writings, to those totally reliant on government for their personal pleasures, play, and private pursuits. The fact that this is also occurring at a time when family structures and behavioural mores are also changing, emphasises the fact that the socialisation process is moving further and further
(15)
into at least nominal government control .

What seems to have been ignored in this is the degree to which universality of provision is either possible or desirable, and the outcomes which flow from this in terms of social dependence and control. This is of particular importance in an area which may be regarded by many people as low on the list of priorities and something which may be considered by others as a private concern in the first place. Where public provision is supposed by government to be as a means of aiding citizens' choice in recreation, the questions have to be asked as to why that is seen to be important, what level and type of choice is going to be available

to whom, and whether and how measures of positive discrimination are to be employed to favour those seen as disadvantaged in some way. These all need to be seen within the total context of social policy, not, as is suspected, as the perfectly understandable development of self interest in a fledgling profession isolated from the main stream of politics.

At the Federal level the amounts of money involved are not great compared to those of some other countries (16). In the then Federal Department of Sport Recreation and Tourism (SRT) Annual Report 1984/5, the key statistics for that financial year, in a budget of just \$113m are...

	percent
Tourism and Expositions	46.6
Information Services	7
Departmental Administration	19.5
Sport and Recreation	36.4

Within that allocation of 36.4 per cent recreation was a very small proportion indeed. In total Federal budget terms this is 'small change'. This again at least partly reflects its lowly status, both in internal departmental matters and on any government ranking list, especially as it cannot be seen to be a big dollar earner like tourism.

At the State level ministerial involvement is often hampered by recreation being a shared portfolio, and it generally seems that the 'other' portfolio is more demanding and has a higher profile than recreation. The present

arrangement in South Australia for instance has the Minister sharing the Department of Recreation and Sport with Agriculture, with the latter portfolio commanding far more ministerial attention, for obvious reasons.

Until 1988 the State Department of Recreation and Sport did not appear to have a separate policy document as such, but encapsulated its policy in its 1985 Annual Report with a mission statement, specific aims, client groups, and a strategy for achieving its aims.

The Departments' aims were to.....

- 'Increase the number of people participating in recreation, sport and fitness activities.
- 'Increase the competence and personal satisfaction of people participating in their chosen recreation, sport or fitness activity.
- 'Assist and encourage individual and community groups to do more for themselves in the provision of recreation, sport and fitness programs.
- 'Continue and extend co-ordination between Government and non-government agencies in the area of recreation, sport and fitness and in the racing and small lotteries area' (17).

The so-called strategy was nothing more than a restatement of these aims, but there was a breakdown into the areas of..

- recreation
- sport
- specific groups
- fitness
- special projects
- publicity and information
- administration.

In the area of recreation a number of more specific aims were spelt out, viz....

"Strengthen State and regional recreation associations so that they are able to....

- * increase the number of people participating in their particular recreational activity or activities...
 - * conduct education/training courses for leaders, instructors and administrators....
 - * improve the quality of recreation activities available to the community...
 - * improve safety standards for participation in physical recreation activities.
- "Improve organisations, and individuals, ability to be more self dependent in the provision of recreation opportunities.
- "Increase the area, improve and co-ordinate the management of natural resources used for recreation purposes, in order to increase the range and number of recreation users of these resources.
- "Increase the number and improve the management of recreation facilities in order to increase the recreational opportunities available.
- "Increase community awareness of the recreational opportunities available to South Australians.
- "Develop and maintain an information base on participation levels in all forms of recreation"
(18).

There was no discussion of these aims, which seemed to be listed as self evident; there was no rationale as to why these particular aims were selected and why other possibilities were ignored, or how they meshed into the other sections listed above, let alone government policy in general. And many of the terms used, 'increase', 'improve', 'develop' were vague and woolly, giving no idea of rational, realistic, achievable goals, or even the status quo from which these presumably sprung. The other problem with aims such as these is that they appeared to be entirely reactive in nature, waiting for, and reacting to, requests for assistance in one form or another; there was very little indication that genuine initiatives might be taken, proposals put forward for discussion, or that an

overall vision existed towards which the Department, and others, might be working. Neither was there any recognition that the recommendations made to the Department some years earlier with regard to special projects such as swimming pools and sports centres, were either being acted on or rejected; they were simply ignored. It is easy to be critical but under these circumstances a department working by such vague and unspecific aims becomes no more in the public eye than a disburser of funds to those best equipped to ask for them. These are not necessarily the people most in need.

A simplified set of figures regarding grants made in the year 1984/5 is included overleaf.

The 'facilities' category includes much that is recreation related, but the details are not given in the report. In any event it is quite clear that the entire grants budget was very small and that recreation, being by definition less organised, and also more 'down-market' than the other areas, fared rather less well than sport, especially on a per capita basis. It was also not clear how the grant system furthered the aims stated above, or on what basis final individual grant allocations were made.

Table 4.1 Summary of Grants Allocations in 1984/5 (19).

State Organisations		
Facilities (# category A)	\$	%
	152,222	19
Recreation Development & Admin (#cats L,M)	80,401	9
Sporting Categories (# cats B-K,O)	579,377	71
<hr/>		
Total	812,000	
<hr/>		
Grants to Local Clubs/Organisations		
Facilities (# cat A)	331,929	83
Recreation Development (#cat L)	10,745	3
Sports (# cats D,E,F,O)	58,525	14
<hr/>		
Total	401,199	
<hr/>		
Grants by Type of Activity		
Facilities (# cat A)	467,172	38
Rec Development & Admin (# Cats L,M)	157,198	13
Sports (# cats B-K,O)	617,890	50
<hr/>		
Total	1,242,260	
<hr/>		

Titles of Grants Schemes

A Facilities Development Grant	G Sports Salary Subsidy
B Sports Administration Dvlpmnt	H Travel to Nationals
C Coaches Development	J Umpire/Referee Training
D Conduct of Championships	K Junior Country Dvlpmnt
E Sports Equipment Subsidy	L Recreation Development
F Junior Sports Coaching	M Recreation Admin:
	O Community Fitness

Since the early draft of this chapter was written the Department has undergone yet another restructuring and a South Australian Recreation Institute (SARI) has been created (early 1988) to match the already existing South Australian Sports Institute (SASI), but it is still too early to say what impact this will have on recreation planning in this State .

(20)

It is largely the case, at Federal level as well

as in individual states, that policies appear to emanate from discrete departments, and in the case of recreation, are very low on the list of departmental priorities. It is also partly because there is no social policy fabric within which recreation could weave its own small pattern. This means that although SRT can acknowledge that other departments have an important role to play in the provision of recreation opportunities ⁽²¹⁾, the obverse, that recreation is an important part of other departments' social policy initiatives, does not attract nearly enough attention, although this is slowly changing. This is also true at State level, where there remains a fragmented department by department approach. Even where some integration is proposed there may be severe problems. The Liberal Party Policy statement on recreation and sport for the last (1985) SA election mentioned the need to liaise vertically in government between Feds/state/local levels, and also horizontally with the departments of...

education
 environment and planning
 woods and forests
 arts
 marine
 water resources

and to develop a 'leisure package' for all South Australians to be promoted by the Dept of Tourism ⁽²²⁾. While this presumes an integrated approach to and interest in land and amenity management, it rests on the economics of high cost and high profile facilities and opportunities for those who

are mobile, well off and well equipped, and therefore high consumers of certain kinds of recreation. What is conspicuously absent in this policy document is any link with social policy in general and the low-profile, unfinancial, and poorly equipped sector of the community, a sector which is growing all the time.

The reason for the foregoing discussion is that it seems apparent that governments do not have a coherent and overarching reason for the policies they are propounding. Although most Australian governments are refreshingly free from the dogma and overt value judgements common in the nineteen seventies they have instead lapsed into vagueness associated with 'quality of life' issues, without looking carefully at social policies as a whole. This comes at a time when costs of provision are going up, yet rarely are the linked issues of how much, who pays, and who benefits seriously addressed.

In Australia the local councils have had the most impact on recreation facilities and programmes at the general community level, and it is they who bear the brunt of providing and maintaining expensive facilities such as swimming pools, so a consideration of their roles is essential. The first point which needs to be made is that at the local government level it is difficult to generalise since there is such a vast disparity in every scale of

measurement which could be used that average figures are rather meaningless. Population sizes vary from dozens to hundreds of thousands, council areas from a few hectares to thousands of square kilometres, authority sizes from one person councils to those employing several hundreds, and budgets from a couple of hundred thousand dollars to many millions. Given these differences, general figures purporting to include all local authorities in Australia should be approached with caution, since they may hide many contrary trends. As well as the structural differences outlined above there are also considerable political differences from State to State, according to the provisions of the various Local Government Acts and the breadth of remit accorded to local councils through the Regulations of those Acts (23) .

Bearing all this in mind there is still no doubt that in terms of spending for recreation, local government has the largest share of the burden. This is both in terms of the total recreation expenditure for all three tiers of government and in terms of the local government patterns of expenditure within local government alone, as illustrated in the Human Services budget lines in Table 4:2 overleaf. Apart from Victoria, where local government responsibilities have always been spread more widely, for all other States the percentage of expenditures on recreation is over 75 per cent of the Human Services budget. The percentage of the local government budget which is given over to Human Services

has markedly increased over the last 15 years.

Table 4:2 Local Government Per Capita Expenditure by Function by States 1982-83 (in \$).

	NSW	VIC	QLD	WA	SA	TAS	NT
Education	0.34	4.77	0.17	0.21	0	0.03	0
Health	5.49	8.24	5.17	6.12	7.56	3.66	0.07
Welfare	3.74	17.99	1.24	4.12	2.99	2.49	1.62
Recreation & Culture	42.20	53.89	33.51	59.17	34.41	42.35	48.62
Total	51.77	84.89	40.09	69.62	44.96	48.53	50.31

[Source: LGMC, (24)].

Table 4:3 Local Government Expenditure (capital/recurrent) by Function (\$m).

	1972/3	1981/2	%change
Education	2.3	16.5	+ 617
Health	24.6	74.5	+ 203
Welfare	5.6	78.3	+ 1298
Recreation & Culture	103.9	502.8	+ 384
Total	136.4	672.1	+ 393

[Source: ABS State & Local Government Finance Australia (SLGFA) 1981/2 (25)]

The most significant area of increase in local government expenditure has been welfare which has increased approximately 1300 per cent over a 10 year period, but it can also be seen that recreation and culture, although starting from a higher base, has also increased substantially and is still the highest spending sector.

Table 4:4 Local Government Expenditure by Selected Functions, Australia, 1982/3.

Functions	\$000's	per Capita	% Total Human Services Exp.
Education	21,779	1.42	2
Health	95,514	6.21	11
Welfare	107,888	7.02	12
Recreation/Culture	678,330	44.11	75
: Halls	72,720	4.73	8
: Pools	62,918	4.09	7
: Other Recreation	377,911	24.57	42
: Libraries	145,859	9.48	16
: Other Culture	18,921	1.23	2

Total	903,511	58.75	100

[Source: LGMC. Joint Officers Interim Report 3.23. 1985].

Although it should be noted that local government is not primarily responsible for education and health provision, there is a function here within the Human Services expenditure section, and for health at least this is growing, and likely to continue to grow as the Australian population ages. So far as recreation is concerned there seems to be little evidence that many councillors or rate-payers are really aware of their major budget lines, and of how much such things as swimming pools, libraries and the provision
(26)
of open space costs .

Neither Commonwealth nor State government appear to have a clear idea of the local councils' role in the provision of services; indeed, a major professional criticism of the Federal Government 1985 paper was its lack of consideration of the local government level. While some councils have embraced the Human Services area

enthusiastically, others have real reservations about this..

'Councils are entering...into the area of social welfare, an area which I deem to be a taxpayer and not a ratepayer area of responsibility' (27).

There are certainly problems in funding human services from resources funds which are at least in part raised from rates on property. This is exacerbated by the suspicions which LGA's have for Federal and State programmes which can be started (and stopped) by political whim, but which local authorities are required to execute on a face to face basis with the general public. Local authorities have too often been asked to implement, and support with matching finance and staff, human service programmes which have later been abruptly terminated, leaving the local authorities to go it alone or "cop the flak" from an indignant (28) public. What may be seen by public servants and academics as 'the multiplier effect' may be seen as buck passing by the councils at their end of the line.

Local government has moved a long way from the immediate considerations of 'roads, rates, rats, and rubbish' of earlier decades, and amongst the growth in the many areas of welfare and community development recreation and the arts have grown significantly, including the appointment of specialist officers to these positions. Spending on recreation as a whole is significant though variable as this falls under the 'power to provide' powers of LGA's and is

not mandatory in any State (Bowman 1976:5). The level of commitment in South Australia appears to be lower than in some other States, both in specialist officer appointment, and in provision of facilities, especially swimming pool provision (Bowman 1976:48), reflecting perhaps the larger proportion of small LGA's in this State than in some others. In spite of this factor however, recreation services continue to have a large share of council outlays as is evidenced by the table below. From here the discussion concentrates on Adelaide metropolitan councils only; as much care as possible has been taken to match councils by relative location, size, and pool ownership.

Table 4:5 Local Government Finance - Ordinary Services, 1982/3. (\$ 000's).

LGA	Total Revenue	Total Outlay	Balance of Payments	Expend Rec & Cult.	% Total Outlay
P o o l O w n i n g C o u n c i l s					
Adelaide C.	34,454	33,569	+ 882	4,696	13.9
Elizabeth	5,683	6,161	- 478	2,057	33.3
Salisbury	12,869	14,230	- 1,361	3,639	25.5
Tea Tree Gully	9,648	10,782	- 1,134	1,411	13.0
Burnside	6,547	7,249	- 702	1,750	24.1
K & Norwood	2,520	2,977	- 457	392	13.1
Payneham	2,722	2,861	- 139	884	30.1
Unley	5,923	5,885	+ 38	1,003	17.0
Marion	10,898	12,181	- 1,283	2,028	16.6
N o n P o o l - O w n i n g C o u n c i l s					
Campbelltown	7,059	6,243	+ 816	1,282	20.5
Munno Para	4,356	4,479	- 123	729	16.2
Woodville	14,450	14,555	- 125	2,859	19.6
Stirling	2,377	2,515	- 138	515	20.4
Brighton	4,675	4,534	+ 141	621	13.6
Thebarton	1,875	2,700	- 825	310	11.4
Prospect	2,784	3,001	- 217	588	19.5
Noarlunga	8,842	9,167	- 325	1,648	17.9

[Source: Divisional Statistics, South Australia 1985. ABS Cat 1304.4 pp70/1].

It seems apparent from this table that in Ordinary
(29)
Services at least most councils seem to be running a
deficit budget, in some cases with very large over-runs.
It is also clear that there is a significant variation
between councils, which does not necessarily relate to
population size or type, as given in the table below.
Generally speaking though, and disregarding Adelaide City,
it appears that pool-owning councils spend a higher pro-
portion of their total outlays on Recreation and Culture
(an average of 21.6 per cent) than do non pool-owning councils
(an average of 17.3 per cent). Given the costs associated
with provision of pools, (including capital investment, debt
servicing, and operating costs), this added burden should
come as no surprise.

Table 4:6 Expenditure per person on Recreation and Culture.

LGA	#Council Location	1982 Pop. (000's)	Outlay R & C (\$000's)	Expend pr prsn \$.
P o o l O w n i n g C o u n c i l s .				
Adelaide City	Cen.	11.4	4,696	411.9
Elizabeth	O/N	32.6	2,057	63.0
Salisbury	O/N	89.8	3,639	40.5
Tea Tree Gully	O/NE	70.2	1,411	20.0
Burnside	M/SE	38.6	1,750	45.3
K & Norwood	I/E	9.0	392	43.5
Payneham	I/NE	16.9	884	52.3
Unley	M/S	36.6	1,003	27.4
Marion	M/SW	69.7	2,028	29.0
N o n P o o l - O w n i n g C o u n c i l s				
Campbelltown	M/E	44.9	1,282	28.5
Munno Para	O/N	27.9	729	26.1
Woodville	M/NW	79.7	2,859	35.8
Stirling	O/S	13.8	515	37.3
Brighton	O/W	20.5	621	30.2
Thebarton	I/W	9.5	310	32.6
Prospect	I/N	19.1	588	30.7
Noarlunga	O/S	63.8	1,648	25.8

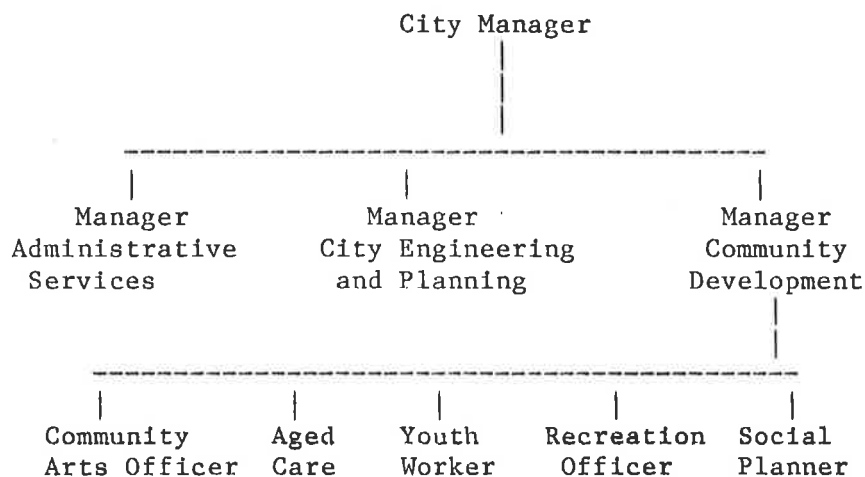
[Source: ABS Div Stats 1985. pp6,71]

(#Council Location I= Inner /
M= Middle / Direction relative to
O= Outer / Adelaide City.

Again it is necessary to disregard Adelaide City which obviously has a metropolitan/state focus and therefore expects to service the needs of more than just its own residents (30). Apart from that it seems clear that pool owning councils spend considerably more per person on recreation than their non pool owning counterparts, an average of \$40 to \$30 per person. The variation within the pool owning councils is very large, - the apparent expenditure in Elizabeth of \$63 per person seems hard to explain on available evidence. It should be noted that the figures given above take no account of the quite sizeable ABS category of "community amenities" which undoubtedly

include some recreational items within it.

It is important not to leave the discussion on LGA's without referring to the general lack of policy or mission statements which guide local government decision making. There are enormous differences between councils in their approaches to policy matters, especially in the human services area. There are those councils, usually but not always the larger ones, such as Salisbury and Unley, with clearly established goals for recreation which are incorporated into a 'human services', or 'community development' division of council. Such councils usually have a recreation officer, clearly defined budget lines and areas of corporate responsibility which may look something like the diagram below.....



In this kind of structure, theoretically at least, all managers are on an equal level when it comes to areas of responsibility and arguing for funds. There are other

councils which are still operating in the traditional way with a clearly established pecking order, which leaves the recreation officer (if there is one) in an isolated and lowly position. This does not automatically mean that such councils do not do as well as those outlined above because so much depends on the elected members of council as well as the officers and the structure which is adopted. But, all things being equal, councils in the first category have increased chances of making more integrated decisions and of having more detailed analysis and evaluation skills at their disposal. However, regardless of structure, it is usually impossible to find out in any local council, through properly recorded council minutes, why a council provided something like a pool. This is partly because most decisions are taken by committee before they ever get to council, and, by and large, committees meet in camera and do not make public the reasons for their decisions. In some cases, especially in NSW, they were 'war memorial pools', but in most cases the best reasons available are verbal histories from retired mayors/councillors who proffer reasons such as 'keeping the kids off the streets', or 'giving the clubs somewhere to train'. Rarely, if ever, for pools built before the mid seventies, was anything like a proper evaluation, feasibility or 'equity impact statement' done, Jones (1977:234ff), or at least put on council minutes as having been considered .

(31)

Conclusion.

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It has been argued that the decision making process and the executive and bureaucratic structure of government for the provision of recreation rarely seem to match up. Policy statements are vague or non-existent at most government levels and rarely appear to be the result of a careful and well constructed rationale for development, partly at least because there is no vision of the future. In turn this is partly due to the nature of recreation itself as there are no unambiguous and uncontested objectives which are felt to be essential to everyone. Added to this the policy statements which are available, and the strategies which are adopted use language imperatives which create unrealistic expectations on all sides.

There appear to be no vertical or horizontal linkages within the various levels of government which might provide a rational framework for public provision and the formulation of recreation policies. Neither does there appear to be any true recognition of the holistic nature of leisure and recreation and the way in which they might link in with other areas of social provision and planning. No level of government appears to have a real idea of what each level might achieve, and the bureaucracies at each level are unstable, variable and frequently shifting ground, with resulting morale problems and lack of long term vision.

Planning decisions and funding processes do not necessarily reflect the mission statements of agencies and are usually operating in total isolation from other such agencies. Rarely is any formal evaluation of decisions and funding ever carried out. Above all, most planning appears to be carried out in a political and ideological vacuum. The overall impression is that of piecemeal development, and political and professional opportunism. The implications of this situation are discussed in the next chapter.

Footnotes and References.

1. A notable exception here is
Jones B., Sleepers Wake,
Oxford University Press,
Melbourne.1982.
2. See for instance....
Bacon (1980), Henry (1982), Tomlinson (1981),
The Leisure Studies Conference of 1984 called
Politics, Planning and People,
Clarke & Critcher (1985), and Rojek (1985).
3. Harry van Moorst has written two provocative papers
in the area of recreation provision and servicing.
The Political Economy of Leisure, O.P. No5 Jan 1982.
Radical Strategies in Leisure and Welfare, O.P. No 6.
Jan 1982. Footscray Institute of Technology, Melbourne.

Another useful article is by Adam Jamrozik Chapter 13
from Castle, Lewis & Mangan 1986.

There is growing evidence of the politicisation of the arts and arts funding in Australia, which takes a number of forms. At one level there is the discussion about the funding of arts bodies in Australia, whether resources go to the top, eg the Australian Opera, or whether they are shared out to lower level concerns, which may play an equally valuable but rather different

role in shaping music in Australian society. Another form is the overt encouragement by the Music Board of Australian artists, which is laudable in principle but may result in, for instance, choirs being funded on the basis of commissioning and putting on new Australian works which they do not wish to sing and to which no-one wishes to listen!

At another level again there is an example of community art being used to make political statements or protests; eg....

'It is inevitable that the (Community Arts Officer) becomes the conveyor of a prescribed agenda for social/cultural change, - an agenda which is INSCRIBED in the policies of the Board, other funding authorities, in the ideology of the "community arts movement", in the very establishment of the CAO as a public position' (p 17)

a statement from which the author goes on to list a number of ways in which the CAO's can actively pursue self determination and confront the established values.

Heks R., Community Arts Officer Review, A Report to the Community Arts Board. S.A.Feb.1985.

It appears that the arts world generally is far more aware politically about the manipulative ability of art than the recreation profession is about the leverage of recreation in society.

4. The Melbourne Metropolitan Board of Works (MMBW) was a good example of this.
In contrast to this it is worth noting that in many of the personal and social services generally, and in recreation in particular, much decision making (even at a relatively trivial level) seems to be made by councillors/politicians/aldermen, as opposed to the paid officials in the other kinds of services. In the human services area it appears that the bureaucracy is not well entrenched and is often vulnerable to manipulation.
5. See for instance,
Rees & Lambert 1985 especially chapter 1, and
Scarman Lord The Brixton Disorders, April 1981.
HMSO London 1981.
(especially paras 6.26, 6.29, 8.2-8.7)
(1986: 65).
Heeley
Gray R., The First Forty Years, 1939-1978. National
Fitness and Community Recreation Councils
of Western Australia.
WA Dept of Youth Sport and Recreation.
Undated.
and, for information about parallel developments in
communist societies see..

Riordan J., Sport in Soviet Society.
 Cambridge University Press, UK 1977.
 " " " Sport in Soviet Society. Fetish or Free
 Play. Chapter 10 in Brine et al (1980).

6. The 'problem of leisure' has been a 'problem' only since the period after WWII, a relatively short period in which the western economies were in an aberrational state of relative stability, growth and full employment. It should also be noted that what passed as 'the problem of leisure' then is not the same problem which carries the name tag now in the 1980's. This fact is not always identified in textbooks.
7. Dept SRT. Australia on the Move. (Dec 1983)
 Towards the Development of a Commonwealth
 Policy on Recreation.
 Oct 1985.
 Dept of Sport, Recreation and Tourism, AGPS
 Canberra.
8. In Dept SRT 1983:pp11-20 are listed the proposed payments, for the following year, most of which are made by SRT.

	\$m Items	\$m Total	% of Total
Sports Institute...			
capital development	10.0		
operating costs	5.35	15.35	46
<hr/>			
Sports General...			
Aust Sports Commission	.274		
Sports Science/medicin	.100		
Nat.Coaching Accreditation.	.065		
International standard			
sporting facilities	8.00		
scholarships for overseas			
athletes	.170		
sports studies course	.324		
national athletics scheme	.900	10.333	31
<hr/>			
Sports Development Programme	5.59	5.59	17
<hr/>			
Recreation...			
recreation and fitness	.800		
life-saving associations	.825		
sport & recreation for the			
disabled	.400	2.025	6
<hr/>			
Total		33.298	
<hr/>			

It is easy to see where the priorities lie here, though at the same time it must be said that the overall amount,

and the percentage of the whole going to recreation, has increased since the Fraser government.

9. Dept SRT (1983) *ibid* p2
10. *ibid* p 11
11. ALP Policy Statement, undated but circa 1982/3.
12. Dept SRT (1985) *op cit* p5.
13. *ibid* p 28.
14. *ibid* p 17
15. Recent re-affirmation of 'family values' in the UK and Australia indicate perhaps the pendulum is swinging back slowly.
16. See for instance Tables 11, and 12, page 15 in *The Next Ten Years*, UK Sports Council 1982.

Table 11 Local Authority Net Expenditure on Leisure and Recreation England and Wales
Estimates 1978/9 and 1980/1.

	Pounds		
	000's 1978/9	000's 1980/1	% Change
Urban Parks & Open Spaces	156,577	219,260	+40
Swimming Pools	63,963	83,262	+30
Indoor Sports Halls & Leisure Centres	48,600	70,047	+44
Art Galleries and Museums Theatres etc, and Public Entertainment	25,615	36,388	+42
Community Centres, Public Halls	18,494	34,781	+88
Outdoor Sports Facilities	18,504	27,037	+46
Country Parks, Amenity Areas, & Picnic Sites	15,487	19,464	+26
Promotion of Tourism	10,613	15,166	+43
Golf Courses	4,669	7,482	+60
Other Facilities & Activities	1,657	1,996	+20
Administration	28,917	41,933	+45
TOTAL	59,400	76,898	+29

As well as the moneys spent at municipal level, in many cases at a level more commensurate with an Australian State government department, there is also a web of national bodies which has added

considerably to the national scene in Britain and which are centrally funded.

Table 12. Government Expenditure on Leisure 1979/80.

	m's Pounds
Arts and Libraries	154
Historic Bldgs, Ancient Monuments	21
Royal Palaces and Parks	11
Promotion of Tourism	27
Sports Councils	22
Countryside Commission	5
British Waterways Bd (cruising w'ways)	11
Water Authorities Spend on Recreation	11
Forestry Commission Spend of Recreation	5
National Park Authorities	7
Nature Conservancy Council	8
<hr/>	
Total	282
<hr/>	

The multiplier effect is seen as particularly important to the Sports Council. As it says in the Annual Report 1985/6 p 5

.....'every 1 pound provided by the Council has been matched by 19 pounds from either the public or private sectors'.

The multiplier effect is mentioned in most Sports Council reports both as a reporting procedure and an encouragement to local councils and private enterprise for further development.

17. S.A. Annual Report 1985 Department of Recreation and Sport. p 6.
There are three other aims listed which relate specifically to the racing and gaming responsibilities of the Department.
18. *ibid* p 13
19. *ibid* p 28/31 Appendix 1:1
20. Details are still somewhat sparse and confusing, but a Board has been appointed (6/4/88) and a brief Policies and Objectives paper is available on request from the Department. This paper, (undated but file nos 155JDSR60 & 445SJDSR52) is brief and enigmatic since it refers to documents not available, is written only in the broadest terms, and is clearly a collection of material from different sources. The Recreation Objectives (p5) are listed simply as.....
"1. To create opportunities for an increase in participation in a wide range of recreation

- activities for all South Australians.
2. To develop a range of outdoor recreation facilities, programs and services so that South Australians can enjoy both the natural and built outdoor environment of the State.
 3. To support indoor recreation by targetting specific recreation programs.
 4. To develop a plan for the efficient and effective co-ordination of water safety in South Australia.
 5. To provide policy advice and assistance on recreation to individuals, organisations, other Government Departments and the private sector after consultation.
 6. To establish a basis for joint recreation responsibilities with other Government Departments and Local Government.
 7. To contribute distribute [sic] funds allocated by Government in a way which enables current Department policies to be implemented.
 8. To promote recreation in South Australia."

For objectives these are not very precise and clear, especially since they refer to policies which themselves are somewhat obscure, and not readily available to non public servants. It is assumed that considerably more work on its terms of reference and operational guidelines has yet to be done by the Board itself if anything substantial is to be achieved by SARI. Cosmetic restructuring without policy rationale and clear planning strategies takes us back to Petronius.....

21. Dept SRT Directory 1986 edition pp 6-9 lists other Commonwealth Departments which have responsibility for recreation.
 22. S.A. Liberal Party Policy statement on Recreation and Sport (1985:6).
 23. See for instance....
Bowman M., Local Government in the Australian States. An Urban Paper.
Dept of Environment, Housing & Community Development. AGPS, Canberra, 1976.
- ACIR Responsibilities & Resources of Australian Local Government.
Advisory Council for Intergovernment Relations. Report No 7. AGPS, Canberra, 1984.

- ACLGA Local Government - A New Perspective.
Issue Discussion Paper No 2.
Aust.Council of LGA's. 1979.
- Jones M.A., Local Government and the People.
Challenges for the Eighties.
(especially p237).
Hargreen Publishing Co Melbourne, 1981
- LGMC Community Development, Human Services
and Local Government.
Interim Report of Task Force Joint Officers
Committee for the Local Government Ministers
Council. Undated but 1985. SA.
24. LGMC *ibid* Para 3.25.
25. LGMC *ibid* Table 5.
25. A good example here is the growing controversy over open space maintenance in a new housing development within the local council area of Tea Tree Gully (SA). Golden Grove has had extensively and pleasantly landscaped and planted public areas put in as part of the private developers' responsibility to the area, using sophisticated watering systems. However, once the developers (Delphin) move on, the council will have to continue with the maintenance of these areas which will represent a substantial burden on the whole ratepaying community of the council and not just Golden Grove residents. A problem such as this should have been foreseen.
27. Abbott Sir Albert Local Authorities' Roles and
Perceptions regarding Community Recreation.
(p235) Leisure Lifestyle and Australian
Communities.
RAIPR Conference Toowoomba Oct 1985. pp235-243
28. ACIR 1984 op cit para 2,29 p 13
ACLGA op cit p 17.
29. Ordinary Services refers to the general functions of local government authorities, but excludes details of any trading activities, such as gas or electricity undertakings.
30. The recent proposal from Adelaide City Council to build a \$3 m leisure pools alongside the existing \$7.3 m Adelaide Aquatic Centre is evidence of this provision for a metropolitan wide clientele.

31. It is useful to note in this context that at the time there were few, if any, recreation courses in operation, and none of them had a substantial component of recreation planning within them. There was therefore a dearth of expertise available, and decision making suffered as a result.

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Chapter Five.

The Politics of Planning for Recreation.

Introduction.

The previous chapter discussed the recreation policies espoused by the various levels of government within Australia, with particular reference to South Australia, and illustrated some of the linkage problems and the paucity of viable policy statements existing at present. This chapter looks at some of the implications of these policies. It is easy to be critical of government but not quite so simple to put up constructive alternatives for discussion. Part of the reason for the conceptual floundering and lack of direction is the innate conflict in western democratic society between espousing freedom of choice in which people are left to make their own leisure lifestyles as they will, and the view that governments should improve the availability of recreation opportunities and provision in order that all may have access, which obviously pre-empts some of the decisions about what is available. This is in an area in which personal choice and development is intrinsic, and private enjoyment is the aim. At the same time the tyranny of language has exacerbated the conceptual problem in uncritically using contentious concepts such as 'freedom of choice', 'demand', and 'rights' without any

regard to their logical outcomes or whether they are
(1)
desirable, necessary or achievable .

It has already been mentioned that much of Australia's recreation planning is considered discontinuous, fragmented and band-aid in nature. Given its historical development, the amount of leeway that had to be made up very quickly, and the rapidly changing political and economic climate over the past 15 years, it can be said that considerable progress has been made. However, it is equally clear that much remains to be done, not least of which is the development of clear ideas about the kind of society we are working towards, the reasons for that choice as opposed to others, and the development of action guidelines to achieve those goals. Just as clear is the fact that this is not a choice for the recreation profession alone, but for all areas with responsibility for the welfare of Australian society, which, of course, includes the general public.

Recreation Provision: Luxury or Public Good?

It is suggested that academics and planners have done leisure and recreation as a whole a disservice by their reiteration of freedom of choice as being the major criterion of definition. Socialist countries generally take a more functionalist approach to the matter of leisure and recreation by applying it as an ideological tool for shaping their

societies. This is done by using suitable nomenclature such as physical culture, linking it directly to work patterns and labour needs, and by providing the means for participation through agencies such as trade unions, collectives, and ministerial agencies; it is thus mainly geared towards the reproduction of labour and a shaper of society. The western appreciation of leisure and recreation is very different, and has connotations in the public mind of idleness and freedom to do anything one wants, but with regard to definitions the caveat of Parry & Coalter should be born in mind....

'...the word leisure derives from the latin word LICERE, to be allowed or to be lawful' (2),

and marxists would join with Frith in stating that...

'Leisure is not really free time at all, but an organisation of non-work time that is determined by the relations of capitalist production' (3).

This being so the writer suggests that recreation academics and planners should therefore cease emphasizing the myth of freedom so enshrined in the western literature and accept that it is a means of legitimating non-work activity, since in practice most governments increasingly shape and regulate the use that can be made of free time. If this is accepted then the decisions about government policies and intervention become that much simpler. Freedom of choice is then acknowledged to be impossible in either inputs or outcomes; promulgation of the concept raises expectations on the part of both provider and the provided to an unreal level, leads to anarchic behaviour (demands for recreational rights) and

a general cargo cult mentality on the part of the population as a whole. From that position it is but a small step to demanding provision for (in land space or facilities) any activity which has a right to exist, which is a step back to the bulldozer theory mentioned earlier on.

In this sense the Federal Government policy on recreation weakens itself by its heavy emphasis on provision for all Australians to participate in activities of their choosing⁽⁴⁾. The difference between this and emphasising the right of citizens to participate or not in activities has immense implications for governments and planners.

The S.A. State recreation aims⁽⁵⁾ were much more restrained, and, therefore, moderate and achievable, and, perhaps oddly for a Labor government, stressed the need for self-reliance in the provision of recreation opportunities. This contrasts fairly directly with Labors' usual adherence to universality in the provision of social services generally, as opposed to the residual policies more often espoused by parties to the right of the political spectrum. The residual approach to social policy views sovereignty or self-reliance of the individual as the essential element in provision, public provision being reserved only where special circumstances or inability to provide for oneself require state assistance⁽⁶⁾. In this policy area market forces and user pays are the essential factors in participation.

Coalter (1984:28) identifies at least three different rationales for the adoption of a residual approach. The first is concern with efficiency more than justice or equity, arguing that free or low direct costs are likely to generate high levels of consumption, making it impossible to differentiate between those with 'a real need' and those whose demands are 'unjustified'. The difficulties for a planner in discriminating between these two categories are very real, since these are sensitive matters for which no hard and fast rules can be laid down; it is no real surprise that the criteria on which 'real need' and 'unjustifiable' are identified are never discussed, either by Coalter or by the users of the approach. The second rationale for the residual approach comes from those who argue that leisure is simply too all-encompassing and open-ended to make total provision a realistic or achievable goal. The third rationale relates to the user pays principle, with general community needs being subsumed under ratepayers' interests. As Coalter points out, this has a strong affinity with the political right, but it also has echoes from many local councillors and politicians about to seek re-election, regardless of their political hue. It also has support from ratepayers who are relatively self-sufficient in their recreation needs, especially those whose 'home is their castle' or whose financial state is such that they can purchase

their recreation consumption on the open market.

The institutional or universal approach on the other hand tends to come from the left of the political spectrum, or, in some cases, from professional self-interest. The latter itself stems from two elements which might perhaps be termed ignorance and arrogance. Ignorance stems from many in the recreation planning field being of similar white, anglo-saxon, moderately well educated and predominantly male backgrounds, and then thinking that everyone else is made in their image. The arrogance comes from assuming that people can/will only recreate via the recreation profession and its leadership, and self interest concerns the not unnatural desire to ensure the development of career prospects and opportunities, and the secure employment of those involved. None of these criticisms are unknown to other sectors of the public workforce. In both cases the arguments for more, bigger, and better public provision are hardly surprising and often quite persuasive (7). The ideological case for increased public provision comes from the view that market forces cannot ensure equality, and capitalist society itself is instrumental in producing that inequality. As a consequence the poorer sections of society can only participate through public provision. The division of institutional and residual approaches into neat ideological divisions of right and left is by no means as simple as it may seem. Constrained

finances at all levels are equally concerned at maximising efficiency and minimising costs, and calls for more self reliance in sectors of public policy can likewise come from both areas.

In the interests of efficiency, there has been considerable discussion over the years about the desirability of bringing together under one bureaucratic roof all responsibilities for the provision of recreation services and facilities⁽⁸⁾, such as outlined by Burton in Chapter Two. There is no doubt that across the entire spectrum of recreation provision there is duplication of services, a lack of co-ordination, gaps in provision, empire building, ignorance, a waste of limited resources, and a general 'unequalness' in provision. There have been suggestions that it would be desirable to bring provision together under the one roof in order to counteract some of these faults, and superficially at least the idea has much to recommend it. Theoretically it should be possible to develop a cost-effective approach to provision; there would be less waste, more efficiency, and everyone in the business would know what was going on. In practical terms however, the move seems impossible to implement with the present bureaucratic style of government, its presumed benefits are illusory, and the dangers manifold.

Given the present Westminster system of government,

the adversarial roles of the major parties, and the deeply entrenched bureaucracy and system of government, it is unlikely that tinkering around the edges with the structure of actual departments will make a great deal of difference. It has not been demonstrated that monolithic departments (eg the Dept of Environment, UK) are any more 'co-ordinated' or cost-effective than smaller ones; indeed it may be easier to itemise and identify individual budget lines in smaller departments. A real practical difficulty exists with leisure/recreation though because of its permeation into every aspect of life. It is not possible, nor even reasonable, to bring together recreational aspects of the use of coast, countryside, urban parks, theatres, casinos, swimming pools, marinas and so on under one department. It is clearly not sensible to follow that line of argument very far, especially since the recreational use of such resources may equally well depend on the primary user requirements, and therefore should not be separated. Some of these areas come together quite naturally but most do not, and to presume otherwise would end up logically with nearly all government functions under the one roof, which is absurd. Although real problems exist in the co-ordination and dissemination of information between government agencies at present this problem is not peculiar to recreation and is not likely to be solved by the creation (9) of monolithic departments, in leisure or anything else .

While the efficiency factor is illusory, there is a far more important aspect to the provision of recreation opportunities, and that is the nature of social control implicit in leisure planning. The dangers inherent in placing too much personal freedom under the aegis of one bureaucratic agency, or at the behest of one political whim, should be apparent to everyone, but they have received scant attention in Australia. Partly this may be due to the fact that those involved in leisure planning in this country are still relatively few in number and often known to each other on a first name basis. This makes criticisms of this idea of a constructive kind rather more difficult without seeming to sound personal in one's attacks on the idea. But apart from that, the present situation in Australia, as in most western capitalist countries, with its creeping welfarism and associated incremental dependency, is such that regardless of the financial costs of waste, duplication and lack of co-ordination, we cannot afford the social costs of putting all our recreational eggs into one agency basket.

The provision of leisure opportunities has always been seen as a means of shaping society or controlling the masses. From the 'bread and circus' days of the Roman empire, to the art galleries and reading rooms of last century, to the entertainment centres, swimming pools and casinos of this century the pattern is much the

same. Under such circumstances it is particularly important that the entire responsibility of leisure provision does not rest with one agency or politician, however well meaning. In a very real sense, the more politicians/agencies/communities involved in the decision making process the better since it will then lessen the chance of social manipulation of an unacceptable kind. It would be much healthier if all agencies which have an impact on recreational interests in the private and public sphere, such as housing, education, land management, transport, arts, tourism, health and welfare etc had recreation trained people in their decision making teams, so that leisure planning became a genuinely holistic approach and the planning implications for peoples' leisure could be taken into account along with the primary functions of these agencies.

As things are at the moment it is clear that Australian recreation planning lacks a comprehensive policy about where it is going and what it is trying to do. Some of the problems are methodological in nature. There seems to be an inability to differentiate between the decision making process and policy formulation, and the methodologies and planning tools which may be used to achieve those ends (see definitions given early in the previous chapter). It often appears as if planning methods, such as standards for instance, are reified into policies as if they have

intrinsic worth over and above the statements of quantitative values they hold, and this is unfortunately a common state of affairs in much recreation planning. There is little evidence, at any government level, of having a policy of, say, preventive medicine through community recreation participation, for the achievement of which appropriate plans are drawn up to equip the area with suitable opportunities through the provision of facilities and services, perhaps using standards as ONE of the planning tools to help in this process. What generally happens is that agencies appear to embrace standards as if THEY were the issue and equity an automatic consequence.

Another major problem in Australia has been the general use of the 'trickle down' approach to recreation provision as an alternative to direct investment at the community level. By pouring in dollars to the top level and high profile areas, such as international sports facilities, festival and entertainment centres, there seems to be the assumption that this will trickle down through to the rest of the community in due course and stimulate action at the lower level.

There are a number of reasons for this:-

ease: it is certainly simpler for a government to put a considerable amount of money into a major project than to spend the same amount of money on several community projects. It is easier to attract commercial interests and sponsorship, top level architects, and land for one big venture than for several suburban ones.

political kudos: it is good for political parties to be seen as stimulating the economy by attracting the

above, and to be the party that 'got' the Festival Centre, the Adelaide Aquatic Centre, the Jubilee Point Marina etc.

- # sporting and commercial lobbies: it is easier for a Sports Association, a Trust, or large commercial organisation to lobby for a single facility for specific and large scale purpose than to lobby for grass roots development in the suburbs.
- # competitive sporting standards: these are seen as important by the general community which can be bluffed into thinking that it, the community, is being provided for on a long term basis by the provision of top level facilities for athletes who have already reached the top. In this way it is also easy to make these facilities a focus of community pride and attention, obscuring the fact that relatively very few people ever use them.

The cumulative effect of planning by trickle down process whether in the public or commercial arena is an increase in passive behaviour, and a growing disparity between chances of access to recreational facilities. For the price of the Adelaide Aquatic Centre for instance, four or five indoor heated suburban swim centres could have been built, thus increasing the chances of access to warm water all year round, and encouraging more swimming in all its forms. For the price of an Jubilee Point Marina (ignoring at this stage the ecological implications of the proposal), a number of ramps and small boat shelters could have been built. Where there are locational problems the 'big is beautiful' concept also compounds the matter of access and equity ⁽¹⁰⁾. The net effect of the trickle down process is the development of spectatorism, and the channelling of a considerable amount of public money into a few pockets ⁽¹¹⁾. The building of international

facilities instead of suburban ones inevitably means that people are encouraged to watch rather than play. Meanwhile, the perennial cry from government is that money is tight and facilities for all will come as and when finances (12) allow . Government rhetoric is to encourage people to participate; government action promotes spectatorism.

The criticism here is not of international events and facilities in their own right, but being held or built instead of, rather than as well as, the community facilities and events. It should not be an either/or process, especially since most of the seed finance, sometimes in very considerable amounts comes from taxpayers pockets in the first place, most of whom do not get a say in where that money goes. Priorities are distorted and conflict uneasily with other actions and statements made by the state and federal governments. The emphasis, both in finances and effort, into the development of the Australian Institute of Sport is a good example of this. And the avowed intention of seeking the Commonwealth Games for Adelaide in 1998 will not result in more indoor heated pools in this State in the suburbs and country towns where they are needed. Most of the money needed for such a venture as the Games will have to go on central facilities and the international tourism such an event generates. The very reason for seeking such events is tourism directed, and has nothing whatever to do with community recreation needs, although the publicity surrounding the events will

try to give the lie to this.

In countries where grass-roots development has taken place the emphasis has been (for a variety of reasons) on access for as many people as is possible at the community level, sometimes in surroundings which by any standards are fairly basic. There is genuine local participation and less overt encouragement to be spectators. This is not to say that the grass roots approach is not used as cultural manipulation because quite obviously it is, but it is at least possible that there is less reliance on being entertained and more emphasis on participation. Australian commentators have been making the distinction for years, but government policies do not reflect this. But to go back to the example of the Sports Institute, there might well have been more cultural mileage (even with the limited aims of Olympic Golds) by spending the same amount of money on such things as mobile coaching clinics for, and stimulating participation by, juniors who show talent, than in building facilities in an isolated centre (Canberra) for athletes who have already arrived at the top. These discussions generally do not get a thorough enough airing because of the interests of immediate decision making within the political arena.

Equity.

The fact that such philosophies are not properly discussed, and that provision at any level is fragmented, discontinuous, and reactive in nature means that provision is also very uneven. Equity is mentioned fairly regularly in all the welfare/human services areas in Australia, without, in many cases, actually defining what is meant by equity or the lack thereof ⁽¹³⁾. In this context equity refers to social justice or fairness, for which a general discussion can be found in many texts on social policy and welfare ⁽¹⁴⁾, and which is the basis for discussion on recreation services by Cushman & Hamilton-Smith (1980). Equity is easy to operationalise in essential services, but in those services where the power of provision is permissive rather than mandatory, the concept becomes much more difficult. There are also dangers that it can be used within the political arena to shape, manipulate and control; conformity can be deliberately or unconsciously enforced in the guise of equity. Le Grand examines the strategy of equality implicit in all welfare states and breaks it down into five main areas....

equality of expenditure
 equality of final income
 equality of use
 equality of cost
 equality of outcome (1982 :14).

It may be easier to examine equity for recreation services

by rephrasing these into a series of questions, such as...

- * Whether public provision needs to be available to all, (as opposed to leaving it to market forces)?
- * Whether it is the TYPE of provision which should be equitable, and if not how different can it be and still be equitable?
- * Whether it is possible to provide the same level of opportunity across a whole population and still end up with inequitable provision?
- * If public provision is available to all might this then mean that... a) the better-off are being subsidized by the less well-off, and... b) non-users are subsidizing the users?
- * Can it be inferred that there is a state which can be called 'recreational deprivation', and can it be measured?

These questions will now be addressed.

In the recreation area the greatest impacts on the general public are made by the State government and the local council. It is decisions made by these institutions, particularly the latter, which do most to shape the opportunities for recreation of all kinds for the general public. One of the criticisms which could be levelled against these agencies is their lack of discrimination between the services which could safely be left to the market economy, and those services which are uneconomic and therefore unlikely ever to be serviced, in whole or in part, by the private sector. In consequence we find councils competing directly against private sector interests in the provision of such things as squash courts, indoor cricket stadia, fitness gyms, and so on. The public service should be

there to meliorate the level of service to the whole community by levelling off the inequalities produced in a capitalist society; it is not there to compete against the private sector. Where agencies should be operating are in those areas where private sector interests will never be involved because of the high costs, such as parks and gardens, libraries, theatres, and swimming pools. Where land &/or high capital investment is coupled with high operating costs such as swimming pools it is unrealistic to expect market forces to operate as in the majority of cases such services can never be profitable, or at best only marginally so ⁽¹⁵⁾. Where the provision of such services is also coupled with public expectation of low direct costs to the user this is underscored more heavily; the points regarding costs are discussed later. For these services therefore, provision can only be made through public agencies, which means the provision of swimming facilities to service the population, bearing in mind the point that swimming, in one or other of its forms, is one of the most popular of all away from home physical activities. What has happened in practice is that nearly all governments, because of unthinking allegiance to 'freedom of choice' and 'provision for all' ideas, have not put any limits of recreation provision in the public domain. That there has to be limits is only now becoming apparent since the spectrum of recreational opportunity

is almost endless, but that awakening has been forced on government by financial stringencies, and has not been accompanied, as yet, by rational policy.

There is also the problem of opportunity suitability where an agency provides uniform but inappropriate facilities/opportunities. Should it provide for each community on an individual basis, and if so does this become discrimination in one form or another? This problem has been demonstrated in some, especially northern, English inner city areas. An effort to provide recreation facilities has followed the format of sports centres (wet and dry), parks and gardens etc, along the lines of what is routinely provided elsewhere. However, such facilities are being used mainly by middle class imports to the area and not necessarily by the locals. In such circumstances are these non-participants 'cannots' or 'will nots'? Is their non-attendance because they

- a) are not interested in what has been provided,
- b) are not interested in publicly provided opportunities of any kind,
- c) lack confidence or skills to use the facility,
- d) cannot afford the fees/clothing/ etc?

Do any of these absolve the agency from further responsibility for provision? If, to consider further this particular example, the agency then provides for the regional working class interests of, say, pigeons, pubs, dogs and bingo, does this then become a lower order of provision and can it then be called discrimination?

Swimming has fairly universal appeal and is less likely to lead to such problems as some other areas, but even so the type of pool provision and its style of management may also lead to incompatibility between provider and community.
 (16)
 The problem is not restricted to pools either .
 Sophisticated regional facilities like theatres, art galleries and libraries may be of limited use to a community which wants a local community hall, mechanics shed,
 (17)
 and a dog track .

Whether it is possible to provide the same level of opportunity across a whole population, and still end up with inequitable provision, depends entirely on how equity is measured, a particularly difficult problem when dealing with non-essentials. The welfare sector is full of examples of services begun and judgments made with the best possible motives but foundering through the unforeseen and
 (18)
 unintended consequences of that social action . Very frequently the long term effects have been to further disadvantage those it was intended to help, while assisting
 (19)
 those least in need .

'Cross national data on fiscal benefits are hard to come by, but if Britain is any guide, what is involved here is not some marginal phenomenon but a form of income maintenance for the affluent on a lavish scale'
 (Mishra 1981:109)

It appears that whichever way equity is measured there are problems with this notion. If equity is measured

by inputs there will be differences between, on the macro scale, the level of finance a local council can put up against a matching grant, and, on a micro scale, personal payments which may bear little relevance to the use of a facility or the ability to pay. Where equity is concerned with outcomes in some way the problem is how to measure it, for example by numbers of facilities, or by throughput per facility, or by type of facility? In using this approach there is a danger that this becomes tautological and that planners fall into the 'more of the same' trap which effectively disadvantages those who do not themselves use a facility but are required to increasingly subsidize others who do. And whichever of the outcomes are used as a measure of equity there will be severe anomalies in provision and usage as indicated by Mishra.

At least part of the problem with the above is the fact that much working class recreation has been provided from motives other than that of recreation. It has been assumed that providing recreation will keep the masses quiet and off the streets (Heeley 1986). It is an argument for provision which crops up regularly in texts describing the development of services in recreation, with arguments which closely parallel those for the development earlier of physical education in schools, and, earlier still, the development of compulsory education itself. The moral streak has always been strong in recreation

provision and still finds proponents of working class (and more latterly unemployed) recreation provision in terms of reducing anti social behaviour (Hargreaves 1985). Active recreation is seen, in ways which cannot be defined, as being 'character building', something which takes on the outward and visible form of everything which was supposed to be the innate and invisible 'good' about national service or Outward Bound.....

'..where they rescue sheep from strange predicaments and in doing so are reckoned to be spending their leisure usefully' (20).

Along with this there is a naive belief that more recreation equals less vandalism, but as Henry & Bra^mham (1986) point out, there is no evidence for this at all. It is yet another example of supposing that recreation provision will cure all the ills of society, most of which were not caused by the lack of public recreation, and will not be cured by the provision of it. It is important that the recreation profession, pushing well meaning but misguided barrows, does not make claims for recreation planning which cannot be realised.

Even if public provision can be made available to all, the fact that it will be used variously by many, and not at all by some, means that an entrenched system of inequalities is being followed. In many services this situation is tolerated on two major grounds,

- (i) that every one benefits at least to some degree by such things as roads, street lighting, defence of the realm and property, even though it is not possible to collect money from the users; and
- (ii) in services such as water, electricity, and gas, users are levied more or less directly in proportion to the demands they make.

Recreation does not fall into either of these categories, being non-essential yet financed largely from property rates and taxes even though it is a human/social service. It means that all are forced to pay for a service many will never use, and for activities which are inappropriate for some. For instance, swimming pools are a very expensive capital investment and can add considerably to the rates burden through the servicing of that investment. Yet over and above that the operating costs are so high that users are frequently being subsidized per visit by well over a dollar, thus adding further to the unwitting support non-users are giving users of the facility. This would not matter so much if the users always included the least well off sections of our community, but the fact remains that the most active sections in recreation terms are usually the middle class, precisely those who might be expected to pay for themselves. There may be some support for non-users subsidizing users on the grounds that playgrounds, parks and pools are generally thought to be 'a good thing' for the community. But where such provision is to the exclusion of other sections of the community (such as an

oval taken over for the exclusive use of a football or cricket club which is paying only nominal rates for the use of public land and its maintenance), then public wealth is being shared very unequally indeed.

If one assumes that inequalities of wealth can be at least partially redressed via public spending on goods and services, including recreation, then clearly the level and type of facility provision and services rendered need to be considered very carefully. One way of achieving a redistribution of wealth would be to make recreation provision mandatory rather than permissive, with a clearly developed strategy for positive discrimination to redress the balance. One problem here is that measures of positive discrimination in other areas have not been notable for their success, and locating potential recipients of positive discrimination strategies has often been a woeful failure since they do not always live in neatly designated zones. If such measures have failed in more important and essential areas such as income maintenance, education and housing, then it becomes all but impossible in areas such as recreation. Another problem is looking at recreation alone when disadvantage may be caused by factors other than recreation and is also relative to other measures of wealth and advantage. There is at least an arguable case for suggesting that low income non-participants would be far better off economically if there were no recreation services at all draining their

rates and taxes, and that the expense of positive discrimination in providing recreation services is the last thing they can stand.

Is it possible to infer from this that equity is a serious issue in Australian recreation, and that there is a state of affairs which could be called recreational deprivation? In the UK and Europe deprivation/disadvantage usually refers to inner city problems. Material decay, poor or non-existent facilities, low quality housing, large scale long term unemployment, inadequate family structures, all contribute to depressing long term poverty. In circumstances such as these the provision for recreation is a minor part in a problem which almost appears to be beyond solving. Even when recreation facilities are provided there is evidence that in some cases at least the main beneficiaries are from outside the problem area.

In the Australian context, with one or two exceptions, the location of similar social problems is to be found on the outskirts of major cities (such as the western suburbs of Sydney), or isolated single industry towns (such as Whyalla in SA). Such regions display extensive suburban areas where the supporting industries contract or disappear, retrenching workers and leaving them far from other employment opportunities, a situation exacerbated by the sprawl of most Australian cities compared to the compactness of their

British and European counter-parts. The problems are also emphasized by the fact that as outlying land is relatively cheap the Housing Commissions of the different states have found it cheaper to provide low cost housing in such areas, thus perpetuating a dumping ground for families with similar problems. The size and shape of Australian cities is planned around the use of the private car, and for families in outlying areas, two cars may be a necessity of life rather than a luxury since public transport is often very poor. At these population densities the recreation policies of 'big is beautiful' become even more irrelevant as access is entirely dependent on transportation over large distances. For disadvantaged families a facility 3 km away is an irrelevance. In cases such as these equity can only be defined in terms of useful outcomes, can people reach and experience that opportunity? Equity in terms of input (x facilities per 000 population for instance) has no relevance to the discussion. As Walker has put it,

'The way benefits are delivered has an important bearing on access to them' (1984:156).

The current practice in Australia of providing relatively few large scale multi-pool complexes instead of more but smaller pools is a good example of inequalities being created through poor access. Multi-pool complexes are more cost-effective in terms of management and capital investment, but there can obviously be fewer of them, and, therefore,

reduced access and use by many communities; efficiency does not automatically ensure equity and in recreation terms is often the opposite of effectiveness. Where standards of provision on a per thousand population are adhered to such policies will result in those people who are living in lower density areas having further to travel. In the Australian context this generally means people in the outer suburbs and urban fringe. If facilities are not where people already are, or where they go, such as schools and shopping centres, then only the mobile, knowledgeable, financial and confident can attend.

There are a number of social indicators which are commonly used to identify possible disadvantage, such as...

- # incomplete families,
- # low or supplemented incomes,
- # housing stress or overcrowding,
- # poor school attendance,
- # poor school performance,
- # inability to speak English,
- # lack of mobility,
- # unemployment.

Where two or more of these indicators are present it is assumed that there will be a measure of deprivation.

Social indicators which point to potential problems with accessing and participating in a range of recreational experiences may include...

- # housing overcrowding, especially in a high density or high rise environment,
- # poor school attendance and performance, especially illiteracy,

- # low level of psycho-motor skills,
- # poor self image,
- # single parenting of young children,
- # poor health,
- # lack of mobility
- # long term unemployment
- # care of dependent aged, chronically sick or
handicapped family members.

None of these indicators alone means deprivation, but where two or more occur together there is good reason to suspect that recreation opportunities may be unacceptably circumscribed, and that special measures may be called for to reduce the perceived disadvantage. However, it could also be argued that the most deprived person of all in recreation terms is the compulsive workaholic.

The problem of recreational disadvantage as a concept is that it is entirely relative, and viewed largely from a class perspective. Such a perspective sees people who play the horses and bingo, and sit around drinking and listening to music as wasting time, whereas those who play bridge or a church organ, eat out and go to concerts are engaged in 'constructive' activities (Sherman 1986:81). Whether the former group are 'deprived' in any way is entirely debatable, but that is the assumption that is often made. There is also an inherent contradiction between the idea that lack of participation in publicly provided facilities indicates deprivation while at the same time also deploring the growth of mass culture through the electronic media. What is inherently 'good' or 'right' about one and

'bad' or 'boring' about the other is not made clear; such decisions are simply a reflection of value judgments or a fear about other peoples' free time.

In another sense the disparities in wealth and recreational technology make today's disadvantaged more deprived than in previous generations. Firstly, there are far more 'techtoys' available through the market place, and the level and degree of consumption is very heavy, so that those who would like to but cannot match this purchasing power are severely disadvantaged in market economy terms. Secondly, and more importantly, due to the medium of television the level of consumption is very conspicuous, making those who are in the bottom economic bracket very aware of their status. Previous depression periods in most of the western world have involved the majority of persons in those nations; when most go without, and hardship is seen to be shared, it may lose some of its cutting edge. In this decade the unemployed constitute an underclass with the gap between their lifestyles and those who are earning steadily widening and seen quite clearly to be widening, thus increasing the degree of perceived disadvantage unequally shared. So far the amount of social turbulence caused by this is relatively small. However, this is likely to increase and it may well be that in a few years time the most valued part of a recreation service will be the provision of a secure environment within which people

can recreate in safety. This is already true to some extent, but could come to colour the whole perspective of urban public recreation as a refuge from the slings and arrows of an unfriendly world, suburb or home.

Having said all this, the writer is not convinced that the concept of recreation 'deprivation' is particularly useful as it stands, and is certainly too fraught with problems to be used as a major policy plank in the provision of recreation services. It is too soft and relative a term. Everyone can say that he/she could/would do x/y if only he/she had more time/money/skill/were not writing a PhD thesis on recreation planning. In the general sense there appears to be relative disadvantage rather than absolute deprivation, and where this occurs it is due to many social factors of which recreation is the least concern. This should not prevent recreation professionals from trying to reduce the inequalities which do exist, even if they cannot be removed. However, we need to take note of the fact that, regardless of economic and social circumstances, some people, (probably many people) are recreationally 'lazy', and it is their perfect right and freedom to be so if they choose. Inasmuch as the discussion about 'freedom of choice' has any merit at all, the choice of whether to participate or not is absolutely fundamental, something often overlooked by many in the recreation profession. And the desire by politicians to

enforce conformity in people in the name of equity is to be avoided at all costs.

In recent decades the issue of privatisation has become increasingly important since it has instant ramifications for provision via the public domain. It is recognised that since the advent of Mrs Thatcher the term 'privatisation' has become highly politicised especially in an economic sense, but it has been difficult to find another term which makes the distinction between the PROCESS and the status quo, and given the common usage of the term it is now important that the process is clearly differentiated from the other meaning of privatisation. To differentiate between these meanings the writer will henceforth use the term 'personalisation' to indicate the movement alluded to above (21) .

To clarify a little further, there is a distinction in recreation for instance, between home based recreation activities (such as gardening, reading, DIY etc) and the MOVEMENT of recreation activities (such as film going and swimming) which once were only available to the public as group based public activities but which are now available in the home for private consumption as videos and backyard pools. Personalisation refers to the desire for and the participation in recreation activities within the home base which are or were normally provided by public agencies. It

therefore concerns the need for, and acquisition of, recreational tools and furniture, changed household lifestyles and images, and the reactions of household members to the outside community and to each other. It is more than a process of substitution since it is largely the result of the general commodification of leisure and has enormous financial, social and commercial implications (22).

In the context of the discussion on equity this trend towards the personalisation of recreation is important since there is no doubt that for a large percentage of people the home is their major leisure site. This generalised movement which has been described by Rojek as having four major components, viz....

'privatisation', individuation, commercialisation, and pacification (1985:chap 1).

The important effect of 'privatisation' is the greatly increased capital investment needed by individuals in purchasing their equipment, - buying a backyard pool for \$1000-\$15,000 for instance, instead of paying the \$0.80 for a visit to the public pool. Individuation deals with the process of removing oneself from the collective or mass produced aspects of modern urban living by shutting out the need to acknowledge other people or crowds; hence the need to preserve and increase one's personal space, avoiding eye and voice contact by retreating behind a Walkman or a newspaper while commuting, having one's own

bedroom to escape from the family, or using a TV or a backyard pool to avoid going to a cinema or public pool. It is a removal from the collective and interactive experience to a more personal and isolated one, and one which could carry great social and psychological dangers to those ill equipped for self reliance, and equal implications for society in general, leading us towards 'the wired society' discussed at length by the futurists (23) .

The commercialization aspect should need no discussion as it is obvious that leisure is now big business. It is the commercialisation process which exacerbates the unequal access of people to recreation generally, and which public provision should be working to ameliorate. The manipulative aspects of commercialization are often overlooked by the general public and sometimes underestimated by politicians and the public service alike.

The pacification trend described by Rojek is both more controversial and less germane to the aspects under discussion here except insofar as it impinges on social control through recreation which has been discussed earlier.

The trends described above appear to indicate that left to the market place, recreation behaviour would become more and more personalised, commercialised, and resource dependent. The implications of this with regard to swimming pools is discussed later. Those individuals who cannot compete in the skills, finances, and resources stakes would

therefore miss out, falling into the recreation deprivation category discussed in the equity section above. It is indeed difficult to avoid the equity issue since the above trends rest entirely on the ability to consume, which in turn rests upon security and employment. Since unemployment seems to be here to stay and will probably increase both numerically and in its impact on society, it therefore becomes necessary to regard recreation provision through the public domain as highly desirable. The form which it may take remains open to a good deal of uncertainty and conjecture, however, because of the problems discussed earlier.

Accountability.

One of the problems facing the providers of public services is the call for greater accountability in the use of public money and resources. Where non-essential services are concerned and uneven provision already exists, such a move is bound to lead to greater inequalities. There is no doubt that there is a need to look at greater accountability in publicly provided recreation services, but not necessarily along the usual lines of reduction of services and/or user pays. One of the methods used by those local councils who are concerned at mounting costs and growing deficits, has been in a reduction of services by closing facilities earlier, opening later, and cutting out some programmes altogether. Another model employed is the establishment of a user-pays principle. This may mean two

quite different things in the literature, the notion that participants should pay towards their use of publicly provided services, and the rather different notion that participants should bear the full costs of their use of such services. Both notions are receiving considerable attention in local government circles and both have immediate ramifications when viewed in the total context of social policy and welfare.

In an ideal market economy world, everyone would be able to pay their full economic cost of consuming a service, exactly as is done in the commercial world, where if you consume you pay, and if you cannot pay you do not consume. This clearly places all those who cannot afford to consume but would like to in the deprived or disadvantaged category and renders the scheme inequitable as a social service. In an ideal socialist world, there would be no entrance fees at all and people would use services as they wished. The provision and running costs would be subsumed within the public purse. However, this approach puts all those who cannot or will not participate in the position of subsidizing those who do, many of whom are well able to pay their way and may more easily bear the financial burdens of rates and taxes as a proportion of their incomes. Clearly, both systems bring their own forms of inequity which need balancing in some way.

The situation in recreation is clouded to some extent by the extreme variability of the service, with some aspects functioning well under a user pays scheme because of the nature of the experience being sought, whereas others can never become viable. Pools, libraries and theatres generally fall into the latter category. Obviously, a blanket policy by a council will not cover all contingencies. At the other end of the argument there is no doubt that many of the fees and charges levied by councils bear little or no resemblance to the actual cost of the service being offered; this practice has been so widespread and longstanding that in the public mind low direct costs to users have come to be expected as rights, completely disregarding the high indirect costs to all which must be the natural outcome of such a policy ⁽²⁴⁾. This returns us to the question of equity again, and also, the purpose of the public domain in social policy.

There are a number of inherent contradictions in expecting a public service to be cost effective. It may be cost-effective and efficient in some services to centralise and have those who need them come to the source for assistance. This practice has failed in many other services and is a total failure in recreation. Efficiency in this sense is then probably the opposite of cost-effective, by decentralizing, going to the people and therefore maximizing access and participation. This is an

expensive way of providing a service, but this is the only way take-up will be maximized. Also questionable is the attitude, found increasingly in local councils, that recreation services should be financially viable. It is one thing to cut and contain deficits as much as possible, but it is quite a different matter to require a recreation department to run a balanced budget. Roads and garbage collection do not, and are not expected to make a profit; their expenses are written off as part of the service to the community, and are what rates and charges are levied annually to supply. It seems to show a lack of understanding to require of public recreation provision that it should be commercially viable, when the reason for its existence in the first place was that such a service could not be supplied by the commercial sector because it was unprofitable.

Along the same lines this writer views with some disquiet the growth of 'managerialism' in the recreation industry at the expense of policy development and planning strategies. One example of this is in the recreation courses at tertiary level. As part of the development drive towards professionalism, driven in part by the link with tourism and commercial recreation, there is a growing emphasis on management training which rarely seems to link up with policy development in the public domain. Where managerial expertise leans too heavily towards efficiency then issues

of equity and effectiveness are likely to be disregarded. In a publicly provided service this has serious implications.

Conclusion.

An attempt has been made in this chapter to highlight the policy issues which direct and influence the public provision of recreation services. Social policy is about the allocation and use of public resources in society and for a variable and non-essential service such as recreation this poses particular problems. Shortcomings in policy formulation at all levels have been discussed and the inadequacy of the linkages between policy and planning strategies have been addressed. Australia is a capitalist society increasingly (and uneasily) moving into a welfare economy; the isolation of recreation from other welfare sectors, and the problem of equity in provision of recreation services have been inadequately tackled at any level of government. In an unequal society such as ours in the eighties the provision of recreation services can either help to lessen the inequalities or make the divisions even greater. At the same time, too much government intervention and paternalism has its dangers, and the lessening of self-reliance and increase in dependency on government services brings its own long term problems.

Footnotes and References.

1. In this the discussion in George & Wilding on the definition of 'needs' is useful, in that it establishes its relativity which is affected by prevailing standards in society. What some people define as 'needs' may be luxury to others. The writers also contrast the populist and expert approaches and the differences between them.
George V., Ideology and Social Welfare, (p132)
Wilding P., Routledge & Kegan Paul. London, 1976.
2. Parry & Coalter (1982:229).
3. Frith 1983;251 as quoted by Rojek (1985:109).
4. Dept SRT Towards the Development of a Commonwealth Policy on Recreation(1985:11).
5. S.A. Dept Recreation and Sport (1985:13).
6. It is interesting that the debate on education in Australia has reached the stage of querying whether public education may end up as merely a safety net for those who cannot afford to pay for private education.
Australian p3 7/1/87. Article by David Hirst, quoting the president of the Australian Teachers Federation.
7. Support for public sector involvement comes from outside too, Blair Badcock calling the failure to acknowledge the important multiplier effect of public sector involvement as 'misguided....in the face of the long term structural shift to a services based economy'. McLoughlin & Huxley (1986:324).
8. Bryant G., The Role of State and Local Government in Recreation.
Paper delivered at the QLD/ACHPER Conference Bardon, Brisbane.
August 1978.

and see also...

Leisure, Recreation and the Role of Government in the 1980's and beyond.
Discussion paper prepared for the Hon Keith Wilson MLA, Minister for Sport and Recreation, WA, Dec 1983.

Recommendation 3 was.....

"That a Ministry for Leisure Services be created which embraces all primary recreation responsibilities such as the arts, sport, tourism, recreation, parks and natural resource management". But note the journalistic responses to this recommendation in the Weekend Australian by Peter Terry 25/2/84 and Buzz Kennedy 3/3/84.

and see also .. The Liberal Party Policy Statement for the SA 1985 election campaign.

9. In the writer's experience this problem is a global one in which corporate management styles have not really exerted a great deal of change. Inter-sectional interests/specialities/rivalries can be just as exclusive as inter-departmental ones.
10. The Boondall Entertainment Centre is an excellent example of this; located as far east as is possible in Brisbane, and well beyond the airport, it is the opposite side of the city to most of the residential development. Once the novelty factor has worn off, (and Torvill and Dean cease appearing), it may become irrelevant to most Brisbanites because it is so far away. There is no doubt that the eastern suburbs needed recreation facilities, but these suburbs needed facilities on their scale and in their image, not simply to serve the whole city for functions that many of the locals will not be able to afford to attend.
11. The Adelaide Grand Prix millions, for instance, were spent so that 30 males, not one of whom was local, could perform in front of millions of television viewers, most of whom were not South Australians either.
12. ALP Policy document on Sport and Recreation, "Australia on the Move" 1984 p 23.
13. The Participation and Equity Program is a classic case, where, in spite of the fact that both terms are ideologically specific, neither term has been satisfactorily defined, and where there seems to be a great danger of mistaking difference for inequity.

14. See for instance.....
 George & Wilding (op cit 1976, especially chap 6),
 and Walker (1984), and for similar writings within
 the Australian context see Troy (1981a & b).
 For a specific and topical government directive in
 the area see the S.A. Government paper called
 Social Justice Strategy - August 1987, and the various
 departmental initiatives which are beginning to flow
 from this.
15. There are useful exceptions to this in Melbourne where
 a large number of commercial pools are catering for
 important sections of the community. The writer made
 recommendations to the then Minister of Youth Sport
 and Recreation regarding their use, Methven (1979:
 Section 7), indicating that with relatively small
 amounts of money, many of these pools could be upgraded
 to meet the needs of the elderly, the infirm, disabled,
 the rehabilitation market, and so on, all areas not
 adequately covered in the colder waters of public pools.
 However the Minister, even though representing a
 Liberal government, was not impressed with the idea
 of putting money into commercial enterprises, with the
 result that these pools remain for the most part
 inaccessible to the groups who most need them. This is
 in spite of the declared interest of many of the pool
 owners who genuinely would like to do more for such
 groups.
 In Adelaide there are a few pools serving similar
 needs such as Barton Fitness Centre, and the Northern
 Rehabilitation Centre at Elizabeth.
16. The Parks Community Centre in Adelaide has an excellent
 and sophisticated little theatre in the round as part
 of its performing arts complex in this large school/
 community centre. While it is excellent in many ways
 it is highly doubtful whether the increased performing
 vulnerability of acting 'in the round' appeals to many
 residents in what is a high ethnic, non english
 speaking and unemployed population. The design did
 not match either of the stated market groups it was
 supposed to serve, of.... a) the school, and b) the
 local community. Good management and many alterations
 have helped remove some of the worst mistakes of
 unsuitable provision here.
17. With reference to the Parks again, in surveys of needs
 prior to the Community Centre being built (#), the over-
 whelming response from local students was for, in
 order.... swimming pool,
 skating,
 theatre for films,

gymnasium,
 dance hall,
 motor mechanics centre,
 snooker and billiards,
 cheap food,
 sound proof rooms,(for teenage music)
 putt putt,
 fun parlour,
 landscaping,
 horseriding,
 No police station, but adequate
 internal security.

Taken from Table 4.2 from Community Participation. A Report from the Dept of Community Welfare, Sa. Undated but late 1974. Other tables give similar responses from other sections in the community.

What they actually got (as well as a rebuilt school which was desperately needed) was..

indoor/outdoor swimmingpools,
 sports hall,
 squash courts,
 roller skating track,
 cafe,
 2 theatres(one for films, one as above)
 creche,
 cellar for teenagers,
 legal aid centre,
 library,
 computer centre,
 arts/crafts/music centres.

Generally speaking the 'working class' wishes were not initially provided, and have been added later by management which has endlessly adapted and modified to make the centre suitable for its clientele.

18. The unintended effects of rental housing policies are good examples of this, where efforts to ensure security and living standards for tenants have reduced and changed the market availability of rental housing in such a way that tenants have been severely disadvantaged.
19. Beside Mishra (1981) a general discussion on the mismatch between theory and practice in welfare policies can be found in many texts such as, amongst others,....
 Le Grand (1982), Lineberry (1977).

20. Bushell T., Leisure and Recreation in Britain Today. A Communist View. (p6) Morning Star Correspondent. Paper produced by the National Youth Affairs of the Communist Party. UK. Undated, circa 1975/6
21. It is recognised that this is yet another ghastly piece of jargon but there are few alternatives. 'Domestication' is a possibility but carries connotations of the taming of the recreation experience which is inappropriate, and also the restriction of the movement to the home, which may not be the case. The other alternative may be customising, which is as abhorrent as the other terms.
22. see Clarke & Critcher especially Chapter 4, 1985.
23. See for instance....
Jones B (1982), Sherman (1986), Toffler (1980), MacIntosh (1986).
24. In the Australian context the writer who has done most to clarify the problems of pricing for leisure services is
Marriott K., The Pricing of Leisure Services
Leisure Management, Vol 6/2 Feb 86.
pp36-38, and various seminar papers.

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Chapter Six.

A Review of Planning and Design of Swimming Pools.

Introduction.

The previous five chapters have discussed the development, achievements, and shortcomings of recreation planning in Australia. The methodologies espoused by the leaders in the field are generally not those used by the councils and government agencies whose actions seem frequently to be directed by little more than opportunism. The lack of guiding policies is particularly important in areas where large scale capital investment, high operation and debt servicing costs, and a range of technical expertise are so essential. Having outlined the situation in recreation planning generally, and identified some of the problem areas, it is now appropriate to apply them to a particular field, using a case study approach. In order to do this the next three chapters look at swimming pools in various contexts, and the activities which occur in them, by analysing provision and usage in both the public and private domain.

This chapter surveys the literature on pools and highlights the important issues regarding pool planning, design and management. The following chapter analyses the activities which occur in a pool and discusses the requirements of each activity. Chapters Eight and Nine look more specifically at the local scene and have special reference to Adelaide

and Melbourne, studying pools in both the public and the private domain. The problems and outcomes of policy and planning insufficiency which were outlined earlier will be highlighted in their practical manifestations within the case study.

There has been criticism in the recent past that planners have been too concerned with the provision of facilities, as opposed to the provision of opportunities and experiences for recreation. There is some merit in this argument, especially as it refers to single agencies such as local councils or state departments. However, it is very difficult to discuss the provision for any swimming activities without reference to the facilities in which these can occur. In these circumstances the writer does not feel any compunction about concentrating on such facilities, especially since they are among the most complex and expensive items of provision on the recreation spectrum, private or public.

One of the common complaints heard in recreation planning is that.. "there is no information on that", such a statement justifying the repetition of mistakes seen around the country. Since recreation planning generally is very much a growing area the complaint may have some justification, but so far as swimming facilities are concerned the situation is more one of overload than lack of information. In both categories however, there is a

distinct lack of Australian material; reliance on overseas expertise is still very heavy in most areas of recreation planning in this country⁽¹⁾. A bibliography is included as Appendix B which gives some indication of the amount of material existing. It is prefaced by a search methodology (Appendix A) which other readers may find useful if they wish to add to it in the future. For the purposes of clarity, all references cited in this chapter will be found in the Swimming Pool Bibliography (Appendix B), and not the general bibliography.

Where possible an attempt has been made to include in the bibliography every substantial Australian source, with a reasonable selection from the relevant overseas sources of Britain, USA, New Zealand, Canada and Europe. Obviously many other countries have swimming pools, but in many cases these are often huge enterprises built with the tourist dollar in mind, or, as in the case with Japan, under considerations which are generally not relevant to Australia. Also, in the main, the English language material on such complexes is limited to architectural reviews, which may give useful information on the technical side of construction but rarely touch on the more important issues of why it was built, who for, and how it is financed and managed.

Appendix B lists what is considered to be a reasonable selection of materials which includes most of the readily

available sources without exhausting any of them. Just listing all the IAKS and Sports Council sources would be a daunting task, so a selection only is presented here. Given the difficulties mentioned in the methodology section of Appendix A it will be appreciated that no bibliography is likely to be all-inclusive; all that is claimed for this one is that it has tried to be as representative as possible in content and origin.

Information regarding swimming pools has been grouped roughly into eight major areas:-

- technical
- design
- planning
- usage
- management
- health and safety
- disabled
- backyard.

It is impossible to produce rigid categories for discussion as the terms are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature, and are in any case fairly arbitrarily applied. The point at which one category ends and another begins is always debatable; it is also obvious that the concerns of one area impinge directly on others. However, it is hoped that a rough breakdown under these categories may assist both the writer and reader concentrate attention on the major issues.

For the purposes of this discussion the terms have been defined as follows:-

- # Technical..... refers to innovations or specialised equipment used in the construction, operation, or maintenance of a swimming pool complex;
- # Design.....refers to architectural concerns of construction, operation and maintenance of swimming pools;
- # Planning.....refers to considerations of funding, allocation and distribution of swimming pools, as well as with discussions on provision and usage;
- # Usage.....refers to analysis of swimming pool user patterns;
- # Management.....refers to how and for whom the facility is operated, and includes financial considerations of operation and maintenance;
- # Health & Safety.....refers mainly to matters affecting water quality and general hygiene;
- # Disabled.....refers to those aspects of design, planning and management relevant to the use of, access to, and need for, swimming pools for the disabled.

A deliberate decision was made to ignore the highly defined and prolific areas of competitive swimming, teaching and coaching, physical education and school use, except where elements of these are relevant to public pool use, planning and management. It was not thought necessary, for instance, to spend a great deal of time on the requirements for competitive swimming in its various forms, since these (2) can be acquired from FINA , and are not in themselves in any way remarkable. Whether these requirements are always used sensibly is another matter discussed later on.

Technical Aspects.

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This is a vast area, probably the most prolific of the eight categories listed. There are a number of reasons why this might be so, not least of which is the fact that it can be broken down into discrete items lending themselves easily to journal articles or small monographs, most of which can readily find a publisher. Equally, as an area of interest it has probably been recognised the longest. The provision of swimming pools was originally a response to public health and hygiene problems at the end of the last century ⁽³⁾; the provision of places for laundry and personal cleanliness was seen as one answer to the squalor and subsequent indifferent health of the working class, in Australia as well as overseas. The provision of adequate water systems was of growing importance at this time, and a substantial amount of engineering skill and public money was spent to this end. Increased understanding of what was required for fresh water to be suitable for swimming has therefore been an important part of the operation of swimming pools and a continuing public health concern. All western countries have strict rules and regulations regarding water quality, and those standards, and the means by which they are achieved and maintained are ⁽⁴⁾ discussed in great detail. These regulations become especially important when water is heated as the maintenance of water quality standards becomes more difficult. Skills needed for the adequate treatment of water in public pools

have been greatly stressed by pool operators ⁽⁵⁾, as this is seen as adding to their professional status. It could be argued that this stress on technical skills may have been to their long term disadvantage (Methven 1979 and Agricola 1981), a point which will be taken up later on.

A substantial body of technical expertise also exists on the heating of pools, with a strong emphasis lately on costs; hence the major paper of the IAKS conference in Cologne in 1979 was entitled "Sports Facilities: Not Victims of the Energy Crisis" ⁽⁶⁾. The degree to which heating is considered vital is climate dependent, so it is not surprising that North America, Europe and the UK have a great interest in this area, with concentrated attention given to it since the 1974 oil crisis. For indoor pools heating is required in five major areas, viz... warm air and ventilation, warm pool water, space heating systems, domestic water, and special purposes such as saunas/spas. The general emphasis on controlled heating not only concerns costs but also the need to control ventilation properly in order to cut down on humidity and prevent corrosion and fungal problems ⁽⁷⁾. Great emphasis has been laid on the use of heat exchange pumps as major energy conservation measures (Sports Council TUS 1981 vi Schmidt 1975, and Hausman 1979 see 6), although some writers have sounded a warning against the high initial costs of construction and installation (Bobel 1974).

In Australia the use of solar energy to heat the many outdoor pools of this country has attracted the attention of many writers (Czarnecki 1978 & 81, Francey & Golding 1980, Morrison & Donnelly 1980, and Johnson 1982 amongst others). Although it is generally assumed that most solar energy plants are capital intensive, at least one author has written on how to build one yourself to extend the summer season (Pade 1983). Other energy conservation techniques to receive widespread attention have been the use of varying kinds of pool covers. These range from the bubble blanket common on many backyard pools, to the totally enveloping membrane structures or concertina frames used to make an outdoor pool a year round facility. The number of such examples is limited in Australia, and research on such materials is likewise limited to one or two units located within university engineering departments. Given the Australian climate, it is surprising that more architectural/engineering attention has not been paid to such adaptive structures for general use in this country, quite apart from their use over swimming pools. Lightweight structures have their limitations, not least of which are their appalling acoustics, but their versatility and relative cheapness can provide a valuable extension of use for a facility (see Finne 1973, Picker & Sedlak 1979, and Thorogood 1982 for example).

Other kinds of lightweight and/or moveable roofs have

been experimented with in West Germany, and particularly in France as a result of the Milles Piscines competition (Idelberger 1979), but have not found much favour elsewhere, largely because of the suspected high maintenance costs and possible short life span of the roofs in question ⁽⁸⁾. For smaller pools the development of transparent cladding has proved popular, especially with small school pools, but they often suffer from significant environmental problems which make them unsuitable for a public facility without substantial modification and expensive ventilation additions, which then make them expensive compared with other light-weight structures ⁽⁹⁾. A number of Australian public pools have been built with removeable sides, the Collingswood, Dandenong, and Ascot Vale pools in Melbourne are examples which allow patrons the use of grassed areas during summer and which helps with through-ventilation during hot weather. This appears to be a cheaper alternative where site factors allow such a development. The issues of technical development of energy use in pools for ventilation, water heating and conservation, and water quality are dealt with at length and in detail in the TUS Handbook Volume 1 (1981), and the IAKS Internorm part D, with regular updates from both sources.

Lightweight membranes can be of two major types, air supported or frame supported, and there are a few examples of both types in Australia. The latter are most favoured because they conform more easily to existing building

standards. Air domes, used during winter months, have been considered by some authorities to be risky and to require expensive air lock additions and ancillary ventilation systems in case of material or generator failure. Since the air pressure in such buildings needs to be higher than that outside some authorities have considered that possible vandalism to the fabric poses an unacceptable risk to the public without such additions (10).

Although it is taking a long time for wave pools to be introduced in Australia they have been well established overseas now for well over ten years. In southern USA and Asia the general trend has been towards large scale outdoor facilities which allow for actual surfing to take place, whereas, for fairly obvious climatic reasons, wave pools in Europe and the UK have been indoors, tend to be smaller, and are geared towards general play and body surfing. Overall, public acceptance of wave pools has been overwhelming, although at least one writer appears to suggest that this may be relatively short lived (Perrin 1981:49). There are a number of different methods of wave making, depending on the type of water required, and these have been outlined by Boës (1983 a & b). In spite of the obvious attractions of wave pools, and the fact that Boës, an inventor of two of the six systems, has established an engineering business in this country, Australia has been slow to see the tourist potential in this area. There are literally dozens of wave pools in operation around the world,

some in very large tourist concerns designed for the international tourist dollar, other much smaller pools are catering initially for local recreation needs, though since these frequently also attract people from further afield the dividing line between tourism and recreation becomes rather indeterminate.

One somewhat surprising omission from technical developments in swimming pools is the lack of attention paid by coaches and teachers to swimming flumes and underwater jets. The latter have frequently been employed with spa pools, and marketed on a health and relaxation basis (Luger 1975). Swimming "against the tide" does not seem to be employed as far as training is concerned (analogous perhaps to sand dune running in athletics), or as a fitness testing mechanism (similar to the use of a treadmill or stationary bike). Flygt of Sweden markets a 'swimming treadmill', but apart from use in a few hydrotherapy tanks, resistance swimming appears to be out of favour as a training or testing mechanism. While the old fashioned water jets may well have created an unacceptable turbulence, thus affecting a swimmers' balance and style, today's technology should easily be able to cope with a water speed set to desired rates for training or rehabilitation purposes.

Other technical features include pools with moveable bulkheads and floors, especially suitable when competitive

pools are also used for other purposes. These are also seen at special pools such as the Gertrude A. Barber centre in Pennsylvania⁽¹¹⁾, or at Centres of Excellence such as the Sporthochschule in Cologne (Perrin 1981:85). There are a small number of moveable bulkheads in operation in Australia but it is not thought that there are any adjustable floors, although their use would be particularly appropriate in centres where vastly different user groups were being accommodated and different depths of water were thus needed (see Table 7.1 in the next chapter).

Design Aspects.

The division between the technical and design categories is an arbitrary one made for convenience, so there is much overlapping concern. The writer has tried to make a distinction by referring to those matters which involve the functionality of the whole complex rather than the technical operation of isolated pieces of equipment.

In general there have been marked advances in pool design over the last twenty years, advances which reflect social and economic concerns about recreation as much as advances in technical expertise. There appears to be little in the mid 1980's which is really new, most of the technical advances alluded to in the earlier section have been around for a decade at least. The differences are that the experimental stages are now well past, and government expertise is now bent

towards incorporating them in the cheapest way possible at the ordinary level of public and municipal pools.

Although over 70 'design' sources are included in the bibliography, this barely scratches the surface. Some of the sources are architectural reviews of particular complexes and can be found sprinkled through most journals of architecture (12). Rather more useful are the detailed articles from those journals specializing in sports facilities, notably the German journals abstracted by IAKS, especially Sportstättenbau und Baderanlagen (Sports Centres and Swimming Pools) also known as SB, from Cologne; there are similar journals from Hanover and Oberstdorf. Their coverage is comprehensive, and translations can usually be obtained if (13) the articles are not already available in English. European and British facilities are generally well covered from these sources, and indeed, any architect, engineer, or recreation official interested in sports and recreation facilities could easily plan an entire itinerary for a visit to Europe from material published through IAKS.

General design information from Australian sources is sparse and of varying standard. Y.S.R./Thompson (1979) and Davies (1981) remain the most useful sources in this country (14) though both have some limitations. Other publications are disappointingly superficial as well as sometimes being (15) extraordinarily difficult to obtain. Both the above

have the virtue of being cheap and readily available to all who need them.

In spite of the availability of technical advances referred to earlier, the design of most Australian pools remains pedestrian in outlook and uncertain in objectives. Why this should be so in a country which prides itself on sport in general and swimming in particular is not entirely clear, but at least one of the reasons is that Australia has not given much institutional attention to sport and recreation until the mid seventies, when it suddenly became fashionable. The development of recreation in Australia was outlined in Chapter Three with the practical problems stemming from that earlier era of development including the fact that anyone was considered capable of building sports facilities and so such matters were generally left to the local authority engineer or the public works department. Such people were responsible for many more (important) things than sports facilities, and within their professional lifetimes were unlikely to be involved in more than two or three at most, hardly a basis on which to build any kind of expertise. It is therefore not surprising that not only can the same design faults be seen around the country repeated time after time, but the designs copied were traditional and almost entirely without imagination or innovation. A refreshing change to this is seen at the state aquatic centres in most States, and the Adelaide Aquatic Centre is

a particularly good example.

Some of the common design errors found in all countries with swimming pools include:-

fenestration/glare
acoustics
ventilation/corrosion
storage
egress from water
maintenance problems
inappropriate finishes or plant.

It is worth discussing each of these briefly to outline the problem. A recurring fault with indoor heated pools is with adequate lighting which is commensurate with the kind of facility being provided. Often entire walls have been glazed to allow for natural lighting, an effect of immediacy with one's surroundings, and to cut down on the costs of artificial lighting. The consequence of wall glazing is to produce an unacceptable glare across the surface of the water, which is both tiring and dangerous, since it is impossible for supervisors to see through this glare at what is going on under the surface (16). If the glazing also happens to face into the setting sun (as occurs at Nunawading Pool in Melbourne), then not even swimmers can see what they are doing. The problem of glare is one which has been written about extensively (17), but is often not given adequate attention by architects until it is too late for anything other than remedial measures. So far as recreation officers are concerned a basic rule of thumb here is to remember that overhead sources need to be greater than those coming in from

the side, and that bland and diffuse light (whether natural or artificial) is generally more acceptable than hard light. This is especially true if there is a diving component in the facility.

Acoustic engineering appears to have been given a very low priority as acoustics in the vast majority of indoor pools are very poor. Most design manuals give it fairly derisory treatment while still acknowledging that it is a problem.....

"[The] combination of water, tile, metal, glass and masonry presents a difficult acoustical problem for the design profession" Hunsaker (1984:32).

Such mention as is given usually relates to the effect on neighbouring areas Davies (1981:83). While this should be considered, it is more important to work towards producing an internal environment in which every childish shriek does not reverberate for minutes around the inside of the shell, which makes for a very tiring work environment and a real source of physical discomfort to persons with good hearing. Additionally, other persons with hearing impairments will not be encouraged to attend the facility if disorientation or temporary deafness is the result. This may reduce a potential market source, particularly at a time when the population is ageing generally, so is not to be regarded lightly.

Good ventilation in an indoor facility is vital; a well ventilated facility will prevent fungal growth on damp surfaces, and corrosion of materials, as well as providing for the general comfort of clients. Where ventilation is inadequate swimmers may feel chilled on leaving the water and/or suffer eye or nasal irritation. Adequate ventilation is a matter of correct temperature (generally 2 or 3 degrees Celsius above water temp) and proper throughput or air turnover, coupled with a correct balance of recycled and fresh air. Given the different peaks and troughs of usage, and variations of climate and weather, the system should have sufficient flexibility to respond to different circumstances.

Inadequate storage and 'spare space' is perhaps the most common problem of any sports facility, and swimming pools are no exception to the rule. There are three factors which make up the adequacy or otherwise of storage space, these are volume, location and access. Unless all three are considered then it is likely that staff will have problems in handling equipment. The volume of space is self evident, but its location and access are equally important if that space is to be used properly. Location suitability may well dictate several discrete storage areas according to their service functions; each must be secure, each may need vehicular or at least wheeled access, and each will need doorways and access paths large enough to take the largest

pieces of equipment. Pools will routinely handle chemicals for water treatment and other chemicals for cleaning purposes, both of which are dangerous, and need secure, well ventilated and separate storage space. Pools will also on occasion have large pieces of other equipment, for instance folding bleachers, chairs and tables, or a trampoline. These also need careful consideration or their dimensions can render their use impossible. Skilled managerial input at the design stage is regarded as essential if the common problems of inadequate storage are to be overcome.

Another problem which occurs far too often is that of inadequate and unsuitable egress from a pool, especially important where the traditional rectangular pool has a pediment or parapet around the water. Most design articles treat this matter lightly and rarely specify why attention should be given to this matter, though Davies (1982:49) gives some detail. Too many pools rely on the traditional and old fashioned ladders which contain at most three or four rungs, necessitating a high pull up of total body weight onto a narrow and uncomfortable base (a rung). If pool designers are realistic and genuine about attracting a wider population to their facility then the elderly, the infirm, the obese, and the tired must be able to see that they can get out of the pool easily and unaided. Vertical ladders should be dispensed with altogether; if necessary vertical inset steps could be used, but starting much lower than normal in the

water for people to take their body weight more easily. Properly adjusted and firm handrails also need to be provided. It would be far more desirable where possible for steps to be set back into the concourse with a rail on one side. This allows for anyone, disabled or otherwise, to gain easy access to and egress from the water. Whatever method is used it should not of course protrude into the water where it is a hazard to swimmers. A wet deck is easier to get out of than a pool with a pediment, but other considerations may make the former undesirable. However, shallow resting ledges or swimouts may be possible in some pools at intervals down the sides, and the Canadian publication "Facility Fundamentals" provides some interesting ideas on this, (1977 see sections 3 & 4).

Inappropriate finishes. Very often an attempt is made to save money by cutting back on the standards of fixtures and fittings, and by not giving sufficient attention on how the facility is to be maintained. Good quality finishes are also vital, being of sturdier make, less likely to break down, and less likely to be vandalised as a result. To save money by not ensuring, for instance, that the pool has a non-slip finish may ultimately dissuade a sizeable number of adults from attending the pool; and shower fittings which can be broken will be broken, accidentally or otherwise, and the more often this happens the less likely they are to be replaced. An associated problem is the frequent lack of

attention given to the function of operations and maintenance, at the design stage. Once again managerial input is vital here. Lighting or ventilation problems which cannot be reached are unlikely to be tackled without a pool shutdown, which is an expensive option. Short term economies usually result in costing more in the long run and a useful adage is that of a Melbourne engineer....

"If maintenance can READILY be done, it is more likely to be done PROPERLY" Powick (1978:5).
[emphasis added]

All-weather and all purpose facilities overlap both planning and design categories. Given the climate of many northern hemisphere countries it is hardly surprising that they have given considerable attention to all-weather facilities of one kind or another. Some are pools where the roof can concertina or retract (Knappke 1974, Idelberger 1974), while others are indoor/outdoor complexes of which there are very many in Germany especially (18). With the climatic range experienced in many parts of Australia it is surprising that there are not more indoor/outdoor complexes than there are, (the Harold Holt Pool in Melbourne and the Warringah Aquatic Centre in Sydney are two such examples, neither of which is on the same scale as many of the German ones). The development of the indoor/outdoor complex in Europe has often been in conjunction with renovation and refurbishing of old complexes, making them acceptable to

today's public (Hoffmeyer 1984), and some of these complexes
 (19)
 have been on a grand scale . Smaller pool complexes
 have aimed at being as adaptable as possible (Stormer 1976),
 with use of adjustable floors in order to accommodate user
 groups with different requirements. An added problem here
 is that of ensuring that water depth readings are accurate
 (20)
 and easily recognisable by every user .

Overall it is probably fair to say that much of the
 overseas design literature is mainly concerned with descrip-
 tions of pool complexes. Some of these complexes are
 (21)
 designed for competitive swimming as at Neuss Hafenstrasse ,
 and others primarily for water play and recreational swimming
 (22)
 as at Peiting and Kelsterbach . It is worth noting
 in passing that both kinds are considered valid public
 provision, a point which will taken up later in the section
 on planning. Leisure pools aim to get away from the rectan-
 gular design of the traditional pool, but in Germany at
 least even the traditional pools have additions such as
 underwater lighting, adjustable floors and so on to allow
 for as wide a usage pattern as possible.

Planning Aspects.

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This section refers to the broader considerations
 regarding the allocation, distribution and type of facilities,
 their users, and the matters of finance and economic respon-

sibility for what is an expensive item of recreational and sporting equipment. It is not proposed to take this section in great detail since the following chapters will do that. The main issues will be highlighted with major sources identified.

Although mass surveys of leisure activities are now more or less out of favour, most of these have shown swimming as an activity to be high on the popularity stakes (23) in most western nations, Australia being no exception. Statistically most such surveys should be treated with caution since few have defined the term swimming, and confusion over both term and venue could lead to misleading conclusions. Generally the assumption is that "swimming" relates to the use of publicly provided pools, though whether all survey respondents have shared that assumption is debatable.

While most of the macro surveys of peoples' activities are couched in terms of leisure and recreation, many national policy documents are written in terms of sport, covering a spectrum of activities and purposes which vary from country to country, but which are generally designed to serve the needs of elite sportspeople more than to serve the needs of the general community. As was noted in the previous two chapters, in this country the latter function is left to the bottom tier of government, being nearer to the 'grass-

roots' community demand, and generally Federal government has dismissed this function as an afterthought, to be... "pursued as and when resources permit" (24). In this regard Australia lags significantly behind other countries in that there is no clearly stated national policy on the provision of recreation facilities, including swimming pools, or, more importantly, on the measurement and encouragement of participation. (25) Unlike the policies of the Sports Council UK (26), and those of other European countries, which unambiguously set out to provide x number of facilities in a certain time frame AND encourage more participation, (usually by targetting certain population groups), Australia appears content to make vague motherhood statements and assume that active encouragement of facility provision is the same as (27) upgrading the Australian Institute of Sport in Canberra .

Most State governments in Australia have now carried out comprehensive planning studies on swimming pools (see Sharp 1977, Methven 1979, and S.A. 1980), and a great many councils have done studies on their swimming facilities, or the need for them. This interest stems from two apparently opposite concerns, that of falling attendances and rising deficits, and the perceived need to respond to 'demand' for facilities. The falling attendances and rising deficits are noted in most Australian studies, and include detailed breakdowns in the three State studies mentioned

above. The traditional reasons for provision of swimming pools (Veal 1979:7), have also meant paradoxically that councils have often not thought out why they should provide swimming facilities but have merely done so because of movements elsewhere, status having been one common reason (28). The problems of assessing demand, both in general recreation terms and for swimming in particular have been written about fairly extensively (29).

At local government level in Australia the general need for swimming pools has been a vaguely defined presumption that each area should have its own 'Olympic' pool (Hunt 1982), with a kind of intuitive feeling that such provision is necessary for Australia to win gold medals and keep the youth of the area off the streets. Of course, such reasons do not appear in council minutes regarding these decisions, indeed in the writers' research experience no reasons of any kind usually accompany the recommendation to have a pool. What discussion is recorded at such times is along the lines of .."it seemed a good idea at the time". Also the main rationale was for the provision of a facility by councils, not the provision of a recreation service or opportunity, and few councils ever related that provision to a precise understanding of the activities that might occur therein. Not surprisingly, decisions made with a rationale as superficial as that were rarely costed, designed, or planned properly, and most are now running at very high deficits.

At the policy making level there has been some concern with setting and meeting standards of provision, especially overseas. Although the use of standards is debatable on many grounds (see Chapter Two for a full discussion) and in any case tend to be tautological since they are often based on participation rates (Veal 1982:9), it is difficult to see how one can talk about policy objectives and measure deficiencies in provision without recourse, at least in part, to something like standards. Certainly the Internorm standards of West Germany, the Sports Council Guidelines, and the policies of other countries such as Poland, Canada, Holland and France are based on deliberate attempts to regularize both the provision of facilities and the ability to deliver them. Without such guidelines planning would be subject to every political and economic vagary and quickly lose its way. In Australia, the use of standards is considered by recreation planning theorists to be old fashioned, misleading, and politically unacceptable, although in now totally disregarding them it may be that Australian planners have gone too far, and certainly many local councils still use standards in some way. The S.A. Swimming Pool study was notable in the sense that it made comments and recommendations on provision without once apparently basing them on any quantifiable evidence or measuring stick (S.A.1980:78). Likewise Martin & Prior (1981:9) give a

series of measurements with no explanation as to how they have been reached.

Other factors which need to be considered when setting levels of provision are access, catchment areas, and marketability, (see Sports Council (1978), which are fully discussed later. These factors become even more important when the use of standards is difficult or inappropriate such as for leisure pools, which, by definition, do not conform to recognisable shapes and have many other features associated with them (Schmidt 1981, Sports Council 1979, and Jaskulak 1983:46). Some very large leisure pools have been built, Herringthorpe, Swindon, and Rhyl being among the best known, but it is stressed that such pools are not instead of the traditional but as well as (Sargent 1975:20). In the new town of Milton Keynes in the UK the decision was made to provide a leisure pool in the leisure centre, specifically designed for water recreation, while in nearby Stantonbury a traditional pool was built as part of a school complex, but available for and heavily used by the community as well. Leisure pools which do not incorporate 'regular' features in them are suitable only where other pools are already available, (30) or where the tourist dollar is the objective, and as is seen by the very large complexes in Djarkarta, Singapore, and the USA. The most impressive complexes are those that incorporate leisure and traditional pools in the one centre, as can be found in a number of countries such as Germany,

Hong Kong, Canada, Japan and Singapore, often as part of New Towns or suburban developments. This approach does away with the either/or problem and allows for great marketing and management flexibility. The ground space needed for such centres is very expensive however, and thus they are less frequently seen in inner city redevelopment where space is at a premium and costs are enormous.

The problem of costs is one which has received close attention everywhere. There has been a belated recognition of the fact that on-going expenditure may eventually total a good deal more than the capital cost of the facility (Scottish Sports Council 1979:33). Where this has occurred in conjunction with falling attendances as it has with many of the Australian outdoor unheated pools there has been much soul searching on the part of State governments and local councils. Northern hemisphere countries appear to have a more rational view of this, by placing swimming as a pivotal part of the entire recreation spectrum, not viewing pools as discrete entities, (see Internorm Part C, IAKS 1977, and Weber 1975), and by ensuring that there are plenty of other attractions as part of the complex (Roskam 1975). The Scottish Sports Council report states quite clearly,

"There are considerable advantages to be gained in terms of cost effectiveness in the provision of wet and dry centres rather than separate sports centres and swimming pools" (1979:139).

The difficulties associated with considering pools alone has

been raised before (see the Issues Approach in Chapter Two) but the integrated approach to recreation planning has been slow in coming to Australia and single issue planning still continues.

Accessibility of facilities is an aspect which has received widespread attention, especially in the UK through the researches of the Sports Council (see for instance Cowling, Fitzjohn & Tungatt 1983). It has also received more attention in the Australian context over recent years, at least partly as spin-offs from the studies done into regional shopping centres, urban service provision generally, and some tourism development projects. Accessibility of recreational facilities includes factors such as location, demographics, transportation patterns, and land availability. In some studies these aspects have been dealt with exhaustively (Hillman & Whalley 1977, and Scottish Sports Council 1979), but in many cases, and especially when the study is a local one, they have dealt with an analysis of catchments only (Turner 1982). Yet other studies have gone for complicated modelling techniques (Goodchild & Booth 1980), the value of which remain a little obscure to the general recreation planner, and in any case rely on so many assumptions that their general applicability may be severely limited.

Although users of swimming pools are a minority among the population it appears that the vast majority of people are prepared to allow for the provision of pools as a public good, especially for children (Scottish Sports Council 1979:170). There was less agreement on how such facilities should be funded and the extent to which users should bear the costs. There is considerable ignorance about the costs of recreational facilities generally, so it is hardly surprising that many comments made by the public reflect unrealistic ideas on establishment and operating costs, and the degree to which users are generally subsidized by the whole community (Methven 1980 & 82).

Usage.

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It follows from this that detailed knowledge of user patterns and profiles is essential when planning for recreational facilities. These are important both for assessing demand for new facilities (Veal 1979), and also when setting and adjusting management strategies (Luke 1976). Surveys have been done at a local level (Gwent 1975, and Watkins et al., 1974), at State or regional level (Methven 1979, and Sharp 1977), or at national level (Collins 1977, and Scottish Sports Council 1979). The aspects surveyed in such studies generally cover such things as age/sex of participants, particular population groups such as school use, distance/time travelled, travel origin, reasons for attending, and so on. On the whole there is substantial

agreement in study results regardless of the place of survey, the main differences appearing to occur between the types of pools surveyed. For obvious reasons non-users of pools are less readily surveyed, although the Scottish Sports Council study is an interesting exception. What the user studies rarely do is relate user profiles to an analysis of the pool design and activities pursued. This is partly because of management shortcomings and partly the limited understanding of 'swimming' as a generic term for many different activities.

Management Aspects.

It was noted briefly in Chapter Three that the management of swimming pools had not been without its problems. Generally speaking, managers of public swimming facilities were seen, and saw themselves, as pool technicians with a supervisory capacity, working in a climate of accepted budget deficits. This is a view which has been slow to change in Australia although it has moved considerably over the last few years as budgetary constraints bite harder. The trend however is common to most western countries, and is not restricted to swimming pools only.

Under the circumstances it is not surprising that most of the writers on management relate to the economics of provision, servicing and operation of swimming pools (see Goesmann et al., 1974, Neuberger 1984, and Wardlaw 1983).

Articles in later years stress that pools should be viewed as an essential service for all ages and physical conditions, and should be provided for and managed as a public good, and with similar policy guidelines as for the provision of roads and other public goods (Graves 1982, and Wardlaw 1983). Others take the opposite tack, stressing the cost-benefit approach with strict analysis of programmes in an effort to trim costs wherever possible (Casey 1980). Improved managerial status and training is also stressed as a means to that end (Agricola 1981, IAKS 1982, Methven 1979 & 1982).

More aggressive marketing strategies are suggested (Balan 1982), with a clear understanding needed of activity potential and profiles so that all segments of the market are tapped. Several authors write about the need to view swimming facilities as a total recreation experience (Schilling 1980), with opportunities for water play and use of the water to full advantage (Tower 1982, Krieger 1978), and of course the whole thrust of leisure pool provision is geared towards this objective (Sports Council Study 19, 1979).

It is appropriate here to mention specifically the development of waterplay, although it has implications also for planning and design. The development of water-play equipment includes water slides of various kinds; the water flumes, especially those of fibreglass, have proliferated over Australia in the last seven years or so, and proved very

popular. Those in the vanguard were real money spinners for their owners and operators; those coming a little later may prove to be a financial disappointment, and there is evidence of some already in receivership. The slides have been promoted as fun equipment, especially for outdoor pools (Y.S.R. 1981), and have often been associated with other equipment of a similar type. They provide a 'thrills and spills' activity (Bebbington 1981), which has attracted the public and also the accidents (Radford & Baggoley 1983), though these have not yet apparently reached unacceptable levels. However, State authorities, concerned at some of the accidents occurring through poor workmanship, supervision or inappropriate design have instigated guidelines and standards to cut down on accidents (31). Other design developments in water parks refer to the fun use of water, through fountains, sprayguns, hoses, caves and waterfalls, - an outdoor development of the indoor leisure pool (see Shedlock 1983, Bray 1982, Ward 1980). Other writers have stressed that even the traditional, rectangular pools can be fun places with the addition of inflatables, hoses, rings etc and a relaxed management style which encourages their use at appropriate times (Lowe 1982).

A good deal of information is available from the Sports Council (32) on joint provision and dual use of recreation facilities between schools and the community as a means of cutting costs and making the best possible use of all

available facilities. The problems inherent in such arrangements are also well documented and certainly not limited to the use of swimming pools. Some actual case studies of South Australian examples are beginning to appear (Knowles 1984), outlining the problems local councils may have in working up management structures with state government bureaucracy on one hand and the general public on the other.

There is little detailed information available on how planning and design deficiencies contribute to managerial problems (Spirig 1973, and Mittelstaedt 1977), which is surprising given that such problems occur far too often yet should be the easiest to prevent. Likewise there are relatively few examples of really detailed analyses of user groups; such analyses as do exist tend to be of attendance figures only (Thompson 1977, and Thompson & Bowman 1978). These show how popular a given facility is at any one time, but are generally of limited use because the records are too coarse to see how they relate to managerial strategies (Scottish Sports Council 1979).

In the Australian context there has been a marked change over the last few years, assisted partially by a change from the Swimming Pool Superintendents Association to the Australian Institute of Swimming and Recreation Centre Managers illustrating the growing concern with falling attendances, and the need to change from pool supervision

to a broader view of facility management and marketing in order to stem decline. There is a realisation that nowadays pools need to do rather more than just throw open their gates and wait for the public to come flooding in. Different kinds of management agreements are being tried and discussed (Stubing 1985, Davies 1981, YSR/Thompson 1981), and it is likely that there will be considerable experimentation with managerial styles and agreements in the next few years. There has also been considerable discussion on the level of fees and charges for the use of swimming pools (Virtanen 1978 Rookwood 1978), and recreation generally (Marriott 1983). Some councils charge quite highly and others make no charge at all, but overall there is a growing feeling that the user should bear more of the financial burden instead of the public subsidy growing yearly. The need to clarify agency objectives is stressed so that promotion and marketing can take place in a realistic atmosphere (Goodman 1983, and Scottish Sports Council 1979). However, advice on necessary changes to provision and managerial strategies is not always appreciated by local councils and state governments which have to weigh up the political as well as the rational pros and cons, and whose managerial freedoms may be circumscribed by situations beyond their control (33).

Health & Safety.

These are closely related to aspects of management, especially to the technical competence of staff in maintaining

water quality. There appear to be two or three major concerns which need to be mentioned here. One is that of maintaining water quality and the quite proper need to protect public health from infection carried by water. Such concerns have historically been seen as very important by all persons involved in pool provision and operation, and is the reason why pool personnel are often located within the engineering or health departments of local councils rather than in a recreation or leisure services department. The output of literature on this topic remains at a generally high level, but also peaks after outbreaks of infections such as amoebic meningitis, on which there are dozens of articles alone (Galbraith 1980). Since these are highly technical biochemical and medical matters it is not proposed to deal with them here.

Another aspect referring to public safety includes regulating use, taking care with design aspects, and policing public behaviour. Swimming pool managers are greatly concerned with all these aspects for obvious reasons. In an increasingly litigation conscious world all recreation personnel and councils generally now view the problem of legal liability very seriously indeed, especially with the size of awards now being made by the courts (34). Public safety is implicit in much of the design, planning and management material already mentioned, and need not be repeated again here.

The third aspect is that of public safety through educating the public to become 'watersafe' and to behave sensibly in and around water. Most countries have policies on teaching children to swim and this is implemented in a number of ways, usually linked to the physical education programme of the country. In Australia there are agencies with the State departments of sport and recreation and/or with the physical education branch to implement such programmes and to hold regular seminars on water safety (35). The implications of this attitude of government agencies should be reflected in the planning strategies adopted for the provision of swimming facilities. The apparent lack of coherence between these two factors is something which is discussed in later chapters.

Provision for the Disabled.

Over the last ten years or so most governments have enacted legislation which requires architects and planners to consider the needs of the disabled. Up until then consideration of their needs generally fell into the 'wishlist architecture' category, and was rarely carried through into practical design. All this now has changed with the publication of specific volumes relating to design of recreational facilities which allows for use by everyone and not just the able-bodied. This movement co-incided with the shift of the disabled from isolation to integration and which stemmed

in part from the development of high profile paraplegic sports from Stoke Mandeville in the UK (John 1980). As public knowledge of disabled athletes grew so did the acceptance that their requirements were as legitimate as those of the so called normal population.

An invaluable start to the literature in this area came in the sixties from the seminal work by Goldsmith (3rd Ed 1976) on designing for the disabled, followed in 1971 by Walter who concentrated on disabled access to recreation facilities in particular. These days most general texts on recreation planning contain specific reference to the needs of the disabled by highlighting their main concerns and by referring to appropriate standards and legislation (Davies 1981:22,49, Sports Council Handbook 1981:16-18,62-3). Such treatment is often somewhat cursory and refers mainly to basic points such as provision of suitable toilet facilities, access to the facility and to the water etc. More detailed architectural guidance can be found in ACROD (1977), and the appropriate Australian Standards publications, and in the form of guidance for planners and community leaders by ADAIR (36) (1979) and the Canadian recreation publications .

Generally speaking the new leisure pools are generally better suited to disabled use than are the older pools, but it is also noted that other forms of disability such as visual problems may present difficulty with variable depth

and orientation in a leisure pool. Sasse (1975), and Perrin (1981) note that the tradition of providing brine and spa pools has long been incorporated into the provision of European aquatic facilities, thus providing components which can also be used for rehabilitative and therapeutic purposes as well as recreational ones, and by the able-bodied as well as the disabled. The popularity of these components indicate that these are successful money spinners as well as being useful to the general population.

Programming and management to facilitate disabled use has not received much attention, and though designers of horse training pools appear to be well aware of the benefits to horses (Irwin & Howell 1980) the same reasoning does not appear to be applied by pool managers generally. Given the ageing population and the current fitness boom, the provision of warm water pools especially for non-weight bearing exercise should be properly promoted and not limited to disabled persons only. The provision of warm water and suitable access and facilities is a combination found too rarely in Australian pools. Melbourne is probably better off than most other centres in this regard, largely because of climatic influences in the building of pools. In other areas too many pools remain unheated and/or with poor access or facilities. Lack of knowledge, both by associated professionals as well as by the general public is also a major problem, though recently the SA Health Commission

released an excellent booklet called "Publicly Accessible Hydrotherapy and Swimming Pools in Adelaide" (1984), which goes part way towards directing disabled clientele to the right facilities by setting out the necessary information on every pool in Adelaide. In Victoria the Dept of Youth Sport and Recreation also has a general Directory of Indoor Sport and Recreation Facilities (1981) which has a swimming centres section, though this is not directed towards disability.

Swimming by disabled persons is increasing rapidly, and it is also being used by medical and para-medical professionals who are referring people with minor problems such a back strain to swimming centres for non-weight bearing exercise. In appropriate pools and with proper marketing and management such a group could be a substantial revenue raiser for pool operators. However, lack of suitable facilities remains a real problem, especially in some areas. John (1980) makes the point that provision of adequate facilities for the use of the disabled is relatively easy in large centres, since they are aspects which good design ought to cope with anyway. It is more difficult to decide what is reasonable provision for the disabled at the small local centre, and in the conversion of older buildings, since too much compromise may mean great expense and a community finishing up with a building which suits no-one.

Many agencies and organisations, such as the Rheumatism and Arthritis, Multiple Sclerosis, and Spastic Societies, some hospitals and rehabilitation centres, and some special schools, now have their own swimming pools. Many of these pools are equipped to deal with the severely disabled, but are not necessarily appropriate for ordinary swimming because of rails, ramps and other protrusions into the water. They do however provide a valuable service to their clients who might otherwise not get to a pool for a variety of reasons ⁽³⁷⁾. A further problem is that many agencies with suitable pools have not got the staff to deal with anything other than in-patient usage, or have their pools located so deep within their premises that usage is severely limited. The move by some larger hospitals, notably Prince Henry and the Royal North Shore in Sydney, to offer their services, through qualified rehabilitation and recreation staff and good facilities, for use to appropriate groups and individuals in the community is an excellent example which more agencies should try to follow.

Backyard Pools.

The literature on this is extremely sparse. The growth of backyard pools has been blamed for the rapidly falling attendances at public pools for some years (Watkins et al., 1976, S.A. Pool Study 1980, Turner 1982), although hard evidence for this is scanty. It was an attempt to clarify

this point which prompted the writer to conduct her own study in 1980. This was done as a follow-up to the obvious gap in knowledge which became apparent during the public pools project in Melbourne the previous year.

Most of the other information which exists concerns health aspects of backyard pools and the lamentable state of some of them through public ignorance or apathy (Gunst 1979, Lewis 1981). Other concerns relate to security, especially with regard to child deaths, and the need for adequate fencing around backyard pools (Australian Standards Reports CS/11 1977 and CS/19 1979, Langley 1983). Much of the rest of the material relates to trade information on best type of pool (CHOICE 1980, CASPA annually, and of course Consumer Affairs Bureaux Reports). Popular magazines and newspaper reporting also provide a little information, often in the form of advice to consumers (Smith 1980), or comparative building statistics in various States (Pillmeyer 1984).

Conclusion.

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In this chapter an attempt has been made to clarify the main points of interest and focus attention on the major contributors in this area. The nature of planning, building and running swimming pools remains a complex task. Technical innovations have been utilised only slowly in this country although they may be common practice elsewhere, and basic mistakes are still being made. Clearly there is no lack of

information, the problem is rather information overload and the process of identifying the contributions of value and disseminating that information to those who need it. In an isolated country such as Australia the need for continual literature/information searching is acute to avoid unnecessary duplication of effort and to avoid being left behind.

Technological advances in information storage and retrieval will undoubtedly help, as would an organised programme of reciprocal purchasing between Australian States and selected areas overseas. Both such developments would assist future researchers in the area and, perhaps more importantly, help the practitioners in the fields of planning, architecture and recreation in their service to the general community.

Footnotes and References

1. We have relied for too long on Canadian, American and British sources, and it is time we developed a recognisably Australian contribution, which sensibly builds on what others have done but moulds it into an Australian context. It is hoped that this thesis is a small step in that direction.
2. FINA Federation Internationale de Natation
Amateur.
Laws and Rules Governing Swimming, Diving,
Water-polo, and Synchronised Swimming.
Latest Edition.
3. For example, of the 118 pool complexes listed in Lancashire in the 1973 North West Advisory Group Report, 56 of them were built between 1851-1913 as baths, and in Australia, the recently refurbished Melbourne City Baths were originally installed as a

health service and converted to swimming baths when people swam in the open drainage pools at the rear of the laundry.

4. See for instance, Herschman (1976), Rottendorf (1977), Sports Council TUS Handbook Vol 1, IAKS Recommendations and Rules, and professional associations such as AISRCM.
5. See regular conference papers of groups such as the then Swimming Pool Superintendents Association (SPSA) now the Australian Institute of Swimming and Recreation Centre Managers (AISRCM) and the Baths Managers journal in the UK for evidence of this concern.
6. Papers delivered at the open session on the Occasion of the 6th International Convention on "Construction of Sports Facilities and Swimming Pools", Cologne, October 1979. Translation available courtesy Alberta Culture Translation Service, and Alberta Recreation and Parks.
7. See for instance TRADA-UK 1975. Timber in Swimming Pool Hall Construction. Timber research and Development Association. UK 1975.
8. See TUS Sports Data Sheet No 12, Sept 1983 for discussion on this.
9. Professor Borland, (1980) quoted a number of lightweight fabric costs which appear to make the cladding system about 4 times the expense of the other 2 systems he used:-

Span Systems (cladding)	\$233/M2
Air Support Systems	\$ 60/m2
Ritelite	\$ 25/m2 (materials only)

On the other hand a number of small UK pools have used Span systems to enclose their pools, and have often got 6 months of use out of them without additional heating systems, which is very useful in the English climate.
10. In fact it is generally understood that patrons would have 20-30 minutes to escape from a damaged dome before it collapsed, and even then the damage would have to be catastrophic.
11. The Gertrude A. Barber Centre, Pennsylvania, is a major diagnostic, therapeutic, educational, and training centre for the handicapped with a floor which will rise to deck level to enable handicapped persons to roll their chairs on and then float free as the floor is lowered.

12. See for instance
Architects Journal UK Vol 158/28 pp 80-95, 11/7/85
 for an architects Building Study on Bletchley
 Leisure Centre;
Architecture Australia 69/11, 1980 pp49-53, article
 by Jackson, D. on Collingswood Pool;
 The Architects Journal UK in particular carries
 frequent articles sports facilities.
13. This is where the Australian lack of translation and
 interpretive services becomes so obvious. Occasionally
 the German translations which are supplied produce
 some rather quaint and unclear meanings, and there are
 also the occasional mistakes which could be very
 misleading, but such problems are rare.
14. This manual was prepared by G.Thompson in the Department
 of Youth, Sport and Recreation in Victoria. Although he
 was writing as a public servant, and therefore the manual
 should be anonymous, amongst many recreation people it
 is often referred to as the Thompson manual. To avoid
 confusion the writer has used the additional identifier
 here.
15. With regard to Martin & Prior (1981), it took 3 months
 of persistent nagging to obtain a copy of this report
 through the inter-library loan system because of
 library &/or officer inefficiency at the Canberra end,
 even though the authors were still working with that
 Canberra department. Being 'only' an academic, this
 was no more than an irritation. Had I been requesting
 the report in order to advise a local authority or
 architect, the delay would have been intolerable. It
 begs the question regarding the purpose of the Common-
 wealth Department of Housing and Construction if it is
 not to disseminate such information to those in the
 community doing the work.
16. For a graphic demonstration of the consequences of floor
 to ceiling glazing it is useful to look at the photos
 in the Hallenbaden section of the book by Fabian, D.
 (1970 pp93-244).
17. For discussion of this design error see, amongst others:-
 Hunsaker (1984:33)
 Neuberger (1984:87)
 Canada (1977:section 9)
 Hitchin (1979:74)
 T.U.S. Handbook Vol 1 (1981:125/6)

18. See for instance accounts of pool complexes at Delmenhorst (Sportstättenbau u. Bäderanl., Köln 17/14, 1983, pp246-255); Bad Pyrmont (Bauverwaltung, Hanover, 47/11, 1974, pp472-477); which are listed under IAKS in Appendix B.
19. See IAKS Monchengladbach Central Baths, which opened in January 1975 at a cost of DM16m, (approx \$A8-10m). These Baths also managed to combine two technical innovations which had been previously considered incompatible, a deck level pool and a wave pool, see Perrin (1981:62).
20. See IAKS. Requirements for Hydraulic Pool Floors. Arch. Badewes., Oberstdorf 28 (1975), 11, pp546-547.
21. See IAKS. "The Municipal Baths of Neuss-Haffenstrasse", (1982).
22. See IAKS "The Outdoor Wave Pool in Peiting", (1978), and "The Leisure Pool of the Kelsterbach Sports and Leisure Centre" (1982).
23. See ABS. General Social Survey "Leisure Activities Away from Home" May 1975:23, and S.A. Dept of Recreation & Sport "Leisure Activities Survey" Summary Report July 1985:14.
24. ALP Policy Statement on Sport and Recreation 1984. 'Australia on the Move'. P23.
25. Sports Council UK Policy Document, 'Sport in the Community, The Next 10 Years'. Sports Council London, 1982.
26. For instance, France had the Thousand Pools Campaign; for discussion of this see Alexandre (1975), and France, The Monitor Public Works and Buildings : the Red and White Book, 1971. Germany had The Golden Plan, and see Abelbeck (1975) for discussion of this.
27. In the 1982/3 budget 42.6% of the Federal Sport and Recreation budget went to the Australian Institute of Sport, and in 1983/4 the percentage was 50.7%. Over and above this there was a heavy emphasis on capital works for international facilities in the States, - very little went towards community level projects and services.

28. See chapter on Aspects of Recreation Planning page 7, Methven (1979) for a discussion on this situation in Victoria.
29. See Maw (1974), Frost (1971), Settle (1977), Sports Council (1978) among others.
30. See IAKS articles:-
Wellenberg Indoor & Outdoor Pool at Oberammergau Bauwelt, Berlin, 67 (1976) 31, pp960-963.
Artificial Wave Pool in Ruhpolding/Upper Bavaria, a Milestone on the Road towards Ideal Pools for Recreation and Tourists. Arch.Badewes., Oberstdorf 28 (1975), 8, pp364-365.
and see also Perrin (1981:59) for discussion of Herranlb Thermal Baths, Black Forest, W.Germany.
31. See for instance:
Victoria, Dept of Labour and Industry, (1982);
S.A. Health Commission, (July 1984)
New Zealand, A.C.A. (1983).
32. See for instance:
East Midlands Sports Council, A Guide to the Management of Jointly Provided Sports Facilities, (1971);
North Yorkshire and Humberside Sports Council, Optimum Use of Swimming Facilities;
South West Sports Council, Dual Provision, (1975);
Eastern Sports Council, Joint Provision of Sports Facilities, Bedford, (1976);
Sports Council : Provision for Swimming, London 1978.
Sports Council Research Working Papers, 5, 9, 15.
33. In a case study involving Salisbury City Council swimming facilities in 1982, it was apparent that many possible rationalisations in the management structure and strategies of the pools were difficult if not impossible because the Dept of Education had such heavy use of the pool, under circumstances which could only be considered as a free ride at council expense.
34. For instance in the case of Jamieson v Warringah Shire Council in 1979, the plaintiff was awarded \$983,000 for severe injuries received when she dived into the Pittwater Beach Baths.

35. See for instance:
New Zealand International Aquatics Congress put on
jointly by the N.Z. Councils for Recreation and Sport,
and Water Safety, (1979);
NSW Water Safety Symposium of 1977;
Richter (1982).
36. See Canada: Facility Fundamentals: Swimming Pools (1977);
"" Getting it Built - Accessible, (1983).
37. Such reasons include accessibility, need for 1:1
assistance, and/or a hoist, high water temperatures,
special changing space and assistance; incontinence
of clients can also be a problem.

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Chapter Seven.

Activity Profile.

Introduction.

The previous chapter showed that there are many aspects to the provision of facilities for swimming which are vital to their safe and efficient operation and maintenance. An equally vital aspect relates to the ability of the facilities to provide the services and experiences being sought by the users, an aspect which in part relates to managerial strategies and in part to an understanding of the activities for which the facility is being provided.

It often happens that planners, architects, and engineers are required to design or build a facility for a use they do not properly understand or have never themselves experienced. This can be rectified by comprehensive briefing, and where facilities for specific uses are concerned this may be sufficient. Where sports and recreational buildings are concerned however this approach has been demonstrably insufficient in many cases, at least partly due to lack of knowledge regarding the sports and recreational activities themselves and partly due to a poor briefing process. Where the designers are actual participants in the activity they may understand it for what it really is, but clearly they cannot be participants in every activity and in any case may not have systematised what inside

knowledge they do have. Most designers of recreation facilities make no claim to have specific knowledge of recreation as an area of expertise, or the special requirements of particular activities. The value of a proper briefing process therefore cannot be overestimated.

One of the recurring problems in recreation/leisure literature generally, and recreation planning in particular, is terminology. As recreation is something universally familiar, so everyone considers themselves experts; the terminology which is banded around freely in normal life and language is often not subjected to careful scrutiny. In recreation the name given for some activities is often a generic term which covers many different activities, the participants in which feel they require quite separate consideration. The lack of clarity regarding what is covered by such generic terms extends further than the technical side of design, construction and maintenance of a facility, important though these may be, but also includes the factors surrounding the location, priority and distribution of those facilities, and the management strategies to be adopted. It is an unfortunate fact that this lack of clarity is also found in many recreation professionals who take activity names at face value and do not properly understand the requirements of the constituent groups.

An Activity Profile.

The term "activity profile" has been used by the writer for a number of years as a planning aid. So far as it is known the term has been used elsewhere only by Garrard (1979/80) in his series of papers from a survey of activities in State Recreation Areas in NSW (1). In these papers the term has been used in a slightly different context and is not directly comparable. One or two other writers have used the concept without developing it as a research tool and systematising the knowledge gained from it. (2) Dixon has written a useful paper on sailing and the water-space requirements of the different boat classes but was not writing from a planner's angle and stopped short at the shoreline. She dealt thoroughly with the demands for space on the water of the various boat classes but failed to take into account the equally important landspace requirements, ancillary facilities, and management strategies which make sailing an environmentally sound as well as pleasureable activity rather than one which becomes perhaps hazardous and unacceptable because of insufficient consideration of all its aspects.

Systematic approaches have been developed by the U.K. Sports Council, both at Regional and Central level. Without ever using the term "Activity Profile" a number of their planning documents come very close to the concept without quite systematising the knowledge thus gained in a way which

would help newcomers to the planning scene. At the regional level of planning the Recreation and Sport Councils have made an effort to 'get behind the name' where activities are concerned in order to understand their requirements⁽³⁾. In the United States, Seymour Gold, in a critical discussion of the state of the recreation planning art, lists a number of concepts which need to be worked through. He talks about the need for an approach to recreation planning which combines the best of the functional and behavioural methods, producing a "more humanistic view of the leisure services in cities" (1980:52). His combined approach lists the concepts to be employed, and although it is possible to take issue with the details of some of the factors listed, as an overall approach it represents another step towards understanding people and their recreation behaviour.

The use of generic terms to identify groups of activities is a convenient one, but quite ignores the fact that they attract different groups of people who are seeking their own experiences and require distinct facilities which may not easily be shared (at least at the same time), and which may conflict with one another in a number of ways. As was mentioned briefly in the previous chapter, much of the Australian recreation planning literature is based on "needs" and "demand" surveys, purporting to tell researchers what is needed/demanded in their areas. Quite apart from the debatable value of such surveys, they

are usually conducted in such broad terms that it is impossible to tell what the respondents meant by 'boating', 'sailing', 'swimming' or 'camping' etc, and since such surveys do not carry definitions of terms the ambiguity is compounded on both sides. For some aspects of research this may be no more than an unfortunate muddle, but where planning decisions are being made it can lead to very expensive misunderstandings, and the generation of much needless conflict and controversy.

Where "swimming" is concerned this leads to much confusion. Although "swimming" is frequently listed high on respondents list of activities in many community surveys it is often impossible to tell whether respondents are referring to pool or sea swimming, and, if the former, what is meant by "swimming". Since questionnaires are rarely framed in such a way that such discrimination is possible, the entire exercise becomes dangerously misleading in planning terms.

In order to apply an activity profile to swimming it may be useful first to explore the concept a little further. To plan for any activity on the basis of one undifferentiated term can lead to a good deal of confusion since that term will, in all probability, mean quite different things to different people. It is therefore essential that planners understand "what's in a name", and react accordingly. It

becomes necessary to break each activity down to its constituent parts and ensure that each is thoroughly understood. This is best done by systematically collecting information on the various sub-activities and carefully comparing them for points of co-occurrence and conflict. Questions which planners for an OUTDOOR activity (such as camping) might ask themselves when studying the problem could include the following:-

- (1) Each activity has a relationship with a natural resource and site in a special way,
i.e. is it resource dependent,
site specific,
site preferred.
- (2) Is it climate specific or preferred?
- (3) What hazards are there to... the participant,
the spectator,
other users of the area.
- (4) What impact does the activity have.....
on the environment,
on the site,
to other users of the resource/site,
to residents of the area.
- (5) What time and space parameters are involved in the activity, and how do these change if/when the activity becomes competitive.
- (6) What equipment/facilities are.....
mandatory, (because of legislation)
essential,
desirable.
- (7) How do these change when the activity becomes competitive?
- (8) How unique is the activity....(on what scale).
- (9) How does the activity change if/when it becomes part of a tourist package. Does commercial involvement require more or less time, space, equipment, people,

safety measures etc, and how does this change the environmental and social impacts.

- (10) How does increased sophistication affect the activity and its requirements. What new forms may it take?
- (11) What threshold and operating costs are involved in the activity, (both for the participant and the agency), and are these likely to change if/when there is an energy crunch.
- (12) What conflicts of interest are there from other users of the site, and how can these be resolved.
- (13) Where are the constriction points which affect capacity and enjoyment.
- (14) Should access be improved, and if so who else is this going to affect.
- (15) What sort of people are involved in the activity and where do they come from. Are they gregarious or are they seekers of solitude.
- (16) How do they travel and how can their modes of transport be accommodated.
- (17) Do they bring with them spectators, children, dogs, litter, noise etc, and how can these be coped with.
- (18) What secondary activities do they generate.
- (19) What services do they generate.
- (20) How much internal organizational structure is there and what control does it exert.
- (21) What are the existing roles and responsibilities of government towards this activity, and are changes of any kind needed.
- (22) What land tenure/management problems need to be addressed.

In asking questions such as these it becomes possible to separate out the various strands which make up a group of activities bearing the same name, making it obvious where they diverge and need separate consideration. The questions

are by no means inclusive, there are many others which could be asked, and some of those given are not relevant for some activities. Taken as a line of investigation however, they begin to produce some valuable information to the planner and manager. For instance, the development of a recreation activity into a sport has many ramifications, not least to the planner. There are obvious implications such as the rules and regulations under which the competition actually takes place, and these are often strictly defined by external authorities.

Less obvious are those competitive activities which attract participants, and participation patterns, which may be very different from those of its recreation counterpart, even though it may go by the same name. Such activities also require quite different ancillary provisions. The simple matter of carparking is one such aspect; when planning for a boat harbour or marina for recreational sailing it is normal to provide approximately 1.5 car parking spaces per recreational boat, since...a) they rarely all go out together, and b) the sailors tend to come in family or peer groups .

(5)

But once that facility starts providing for the racing fraternity precisely the opposite is true... viz..a) they DO all go out together, and b) they carry crew members, numbers of which vary from 2 to about 16 according to the class of boat, and such crew members tend to be young men who come to the marina in their own cars and therefore

require separate parking space. It is in situations like this where bland assumptions about sailing as 'an' activity can lead to all kinds of expensive planning mistakes.

In the URBAN planning situation it is necessary to focus sharply on user behaviour and expectations and their activity outcomes, since these are largely shaped by facility design and managerial strategies. The questions and checklist outlined earlier will need to be adapted and specified to avoid 'grey' areas. Where "swimming" is the term under consideration, the kinds of questions to which answers are required include:-

- (1) What do people do in the water which is loosely classed as swimming?
- (2) What age groups are involved?
- (3) What numbers of people are involved?
- (4) To what extent is their involvement predictable, regular, and frequent?
- (5) Do they come singly or in groups?
- (6) What kind of water do they require?
- (7) Do they need exclusive waterspace?
- (8) What equipment and facilities are required?
- (9) How do these activities change when they become competitive?
- (10) Does that activity generate other activities and needs for ancillary facilities?
- (11) How do participants travel, how far, and by what mode of transport?

(12) What internal organizations are involved in the activities?

(13) What impact does the activity have.....
 on the environment,
 on the site,
 on other users,
 on residents of the area?

From information generated by such questions it is possible to outline relatively easily the necessary implications for.....

 planning
 design
 and management

so that activity outcomes match the activity expectations of all groups of participants. Swimming is an interesting example since there can be very few other facilities of such size and expense built with such imprecise needs and uses, with such vague ideas of serving both sport and recreation, and with such poorly articulated managerial (see 6) strategies .

So far as the recreation planning literature on swimming is concerned most treatment looks at either user groups as attendance figures, or usage patterns in terms of seasonal/diurnal fluctuations, or as a response to or support of 'demand' studies of various kinds. Such studies have amassed valuable information on usage patterns over the years, particularly as they exhibit a marked similarity (7) of results both over time and across cultural boundaries . Their essential weakness is that they are simply reporting the status quo and are therefore not necessarily trying to

understand the varieties of activity hidden under the single generic term of swimming, or making the best possible use of quantitative information on the activity. For this managers must be held partly responsible; they usually collect gross figures on attendance but rarely in such a form that they can be related to the various sub-activities, or in such a way that the figures can be used to plot future strategies. If a pool has a weekly attendance of 1000 for instance, it helps to know who they are, and where they come from, and what they have come to do. It is equally important to know whether they represent 1000 separate bodies through the turnstiles, or whether they are the same 100 people coming ten times each. Such information is very rarely collected but is essential if proper planning and management is to take place, and it also needs to be collected on a regular basis and not just as a once off survey.

The Scottish Sports Council report (1979:64) lists six factors which determine the type of user pattern, viz.. location, management, design, costs, medium of participation, & trends in sport, but then goes on to discuss in detail only the usual socio-economic factors such as age, sex, occupational groupings of those who attend. In terms of profiling the activities which go on in a swimming pool YSR/⁽⁸⁾ Thompson is by far the most useful, drawing out much interesting information on most of the sub-activities; the

drawback here is that it is not packaged in a way which makes particularly easy reading for the uninitiated, which in this case refers mainly to local authority and State government personnel in public works and buildings departments.

The following is a attempt to clarify the profiles of the various sub-activities which go on in a swimming pool. In answer to the question 'what do people do in the water', a list of possible sub-activities includes the following:-

- aquarobics
- board diving
- canoe polo/training
- # competitive swimming
- # fitness swimming
- health related swimming
- # learn to swim
- lifesaving
- # recreational swimming
- scuba
- synchronised swimming
- underwater hockey
- water games
- water polo.

Rather than describe each one at length which is unnecessary here, a precis of the 4 starred activities is given, followed by a tabulated presentation of all the activities. It is hoped in this way to high-light the differences in an attempt to underline their planning, design, and managerial requirements. The starred items have been chosen to high-light different usage patterns and requirements, and are not intended to represent priority in any way.

Competitive Swimming.

This is a well organised and publicised sport and there is a danger that it assumes greater importance than overall numbers may warrant. It is also, as with many other sports, highly responsive to international TV coverage, a fact that often plays a large part in decision and policy making. In spite of this, there is no doubt that many competitive swimmers still have great difficulty in finding suitable waterspace for their requirements. There are two parts to this problem, ..a) the actual venue for competition, and...b) the training venues. As a general public concern more attention is paid to (a), whereas probably (b) is more important. A central facility such as a State Aquatics Centre is not usually the answer to (b) since these facilities must be located where they are easily accessible.

A large number of competitors are youngsters with other obligations they cannot avoid, such as school and homework. This limits the times at which they can train. Early mornings are generally no problem since only serious swimmers are interested in using the water from 5 - 8am. The after-school hours are a popular general public time however, and these and the early evening hours may see considerable conflict over water space allocations, especially during hot weather. Clubs are forced to meet later on at night, which for the young school age swimmer

is highly undesirable given the early morning work-out and the heavy school programme of the majority.

For competitive purposes exclusive waterspace is required, traditionally in swimming pools of 25 or 50m length ⁽⁹⁾, and top level swimming needs a minimum depth of 1.8m, which generally precludes recreational or primary education swimming use. Training space is not so demanding, so long as it is in 25 or 50m lengths and deep enough for tumble turns, but space must be reserved for that purpose only, whether it is in lanes only or the entire pool.

Competitive swimming is essentially a club or group activity, tightly controlled by coaches and swimming federations, and all activity goes on in squads which meet regularly and frequently. Participants usually make a commitment to swim with/for a particular coach or club, therefore they may travel considerable distances to the pool of their choice. Young participants usually rely on their parents for transport, so carparking is needed, often at unsociable hours for nearby residents who may object to the slamming of car doors every morning at 5 am. Suitable venues for year round training are few and far between especially in Adelaide, and public pools often have competing user groups.

There are an increasing number of veteran clubs which cater for the over 35 year age group. This is becoming a major interest group which is likely to continue growing. As a group they are less constrained by external influences and have more control over their lifestyles, so the problem of conflict with other users is unlikely to be quite so acute.

Fitness Swimming.

This is itself something of a generic term, ranging from those who plough up and down a pool as fast as they can to those who simply bob up and down. Ability varies enormously and so does the commitment, and the reasons for participating are also very varied, so that the fitness swimming category spills over into aquarobics-type exercise and health related swimming. Dividing lines between these groups are not always easy to make, and the descriptions given below are therefore somewhat arbitrary.

Fitness swimmers are a uncounted minority who are particularly affected by management policies at pools. There is a growing group of persons, such as ex life-savers, scuba divers, footballers, and health fanatics, who wish to swim for fitness to support their other activity or to maintain personal fitness after they have left the competitive arena. There is also a growing number of people unconnected with a previous sport who swim for general

fitness and wellbeing reasons. These are all regular users of a pool who wish to swim a specified number of lengths, or kilometres, a specified number of times per week. These people are generally not part of a swimming club, and wish to fit in their swimming with their work schedule and other commitments.

While some fitness swimmers have sessions organised by the clubs in which they play their other sport, the vast majority participate as individuals or small groups of like-minded people. They may therefore not be as easily programmed as some other groups, but on the other hand are likely to be regular and frequent users if encouraged with lane space and convenient time slots.

Aquarobics on the other hand, is a form of fitness swimming with a definite appeal to women and older adults, and the activity usually occurs as a group functioning with a leader, and music is often needed as a prop to the exercise session.

The lap swimmers are generally unconcerned about depth so long as the water is deep enough for tumble turns, while the aquarobics group require some water shallow enough to stand and exercise in as well as an area deep enough to tread water. The former group requires lengths of 25 or 50m, the latter groups are less demanding. The most suitable times for the former group are early mornings, lunch times or

after work, whereas the popular times for the latter group are during the day or lunch times. As community awareness in aspects of health and fitness continues to grow, and this is coupled with a realisation that for many people jogging is perhaps not suitable for them for a number of reasons, it is likely that fitness swimming in one of its many forms will become more popular. Few pool managers have attempted to tap this particular market segment in any determined way. It is only a matter of time before a form of fitness swimming Corporate Cup becomes established, and this will require a more structured response by pool managers.

Recreational swimming.

It is known from many surveys that the majority of pool visits are for recreational swimming. Water play is particularly attractive to children, and, generally speaking, any pool will do for this purpose. In very hot weather outdoor pools are a major attraction, but for the rest of the year an indoor heated pool is necessary. The leisure pools with their Mediterranean style decor and micro climate make very acceptable pleasure areas for most people. Not all recreation swimmers are children, and not everyone who attends wants to swim. Many adults enjoy water recreation as much as children, and for many teenagers the pool is a good place to meet their peers. Adults may use a pool area for a variety of reasons, as a social meeting place, sunbathing areas, barbecue centre and so on. These needs are most apparent in areas of high-

density accommodation, and especially for areas containing high-rise apartment buildings. These days open parks may not be a safe place for sunbathing, and pleasantly landscaped swimming pool enclosures may become surrogate garden areas for many people in hot weather (eg., Prahran in Melbourne). Similarly, the provision of barbecue and picnic areas (eg., Nunawading in Melbourne) may attract family groups for a longer period than usual even though only the children may actually swim.

Much recreational swimming is not swimming at all but rather water play. The participants stand in, jump/dive into, swim under and float on water, and because of this a recreational pool needs to include shallow water of variable depth to suit different ages and activities, and deep water to accommodate in safety the bombing/diving activities so popular with most recreational swimmers. These are precisely the activities so often banned by managers in many pools.

Pool-side play and lounging is equally important whether in the sun or in an artificial 'Mediterranean' climate, so ancillary facilities for pleasure and leisure make an added attraction. The need to allow playing aids such as rings, hoses, water monsters, caves, waterfalls and the like is only just becoming apparent in Australia even though they have been accepted in British and European pools for years. Such a need places demands on managerial flexibility and adaptive-

ness and requires small scale equipment purchases, and therefore budgetting and maintenance needs to be taken into account.

The importance of providing deep water is stressed; many of our so called 'Olympic' pools have a maximum depth of 1.6 - 2m, which severely limits the pools' use. A pool for recreation purposes with no deep water, boards, slides or other equipment is no different from a backyard pool and therefore unlikely to attract users for whom the public pool is merely an expensive duplication of what they already have at home.

The other main point about recreational swimming is that it is essentially local. Unless a pool has attractions significantly out of the ordinary, most people will only travel within about 15 minutes of their homes to go for a swim, and the evidence for this 'localness' is overwhelming (10) and universal. In the country such times and distances are much greater of course, but urban Australians exhibit the same localness as their British and European counterparts when it comes to recreational swimming. This activity is unpredictable, subject to the vagaries of weather and influences from home, competing interests, peer groups pressures, and the general shift towards the privatization (personalisation) of pleasure. For outdoor pools with few extras it is therefore not surprising that it represents a declining market and one which has called into question the

whole idea of swimming pool provision by local authorities. The section regarding catchments in Chapter Two is especially pertinent here.

Learn to swim.

School groups are one of the most important categories of pool users; not only does school use represent a substantial proportion of revenue for many pools, it also utilizes a considerable amount of pool time. The requirements of this category of use are complex, and include shallow water for teaching swimming to primary school age groups, and deeper water for the development of lifesaving and survival skills necessary for real water competence. There is also a need for warm water especially for teaching young children and beginners, for whom the very act of getting cold prevents any learning from taking place. In Adelaide the lack of indoor heated pools has led to a situation in which instruction is traditionally crammed into those few weeks at the end of one year and the beginning of the next, with most children getting no more than 10 x half hour periods in any one summer. The place of swimming in the education programme is also not necessarily given the place it deserves and there are frequently expressed conflicting opinions over its value. Parents either seem to be concerned that their children are not being taught to swim properly, or that they are wasting their time with 'frills' instead of the three R's. Schools are often reluctant to

spend large amounts of time and money on a programme because of the costs and organisation required even though most individual teachers recognise the educational value of swimming.

School users also require local provision as no school system can afford substantial amounts of travel time cutting into a crowded timetable. The other problem with school use of public pools is that of transport costs which are usually significantly higher than entry costs to the pool. There is evidence from studies undertaken that transport costs are a major reason for drop-outs from a swim programme, both for individual pupils and for whole schools .
(11)

School groups have user implications with large numbers of people using certain facilities at any one time, leading to peaks and troughs over a day, a highly seasonal programme, conflicting demands for teaching space and carnival time, and requirements for teaching groups with huge ability variations. In South Australia, the very system of organising school programmes leads directly to complications. In this State one agency, the Department of Education, appoints senior swimming instructors to organize the programme at local pools. In practice this means that one agency is programming the use of another agency's facility, without having any responsibility for that facility in political or economic terms, or any formal input to the management structure. For most daily sessions bookings are therefore made by non local authority

personnel, and if, as has happened at a number of pools, the booking procedure is inefficiently carried out, the pool may be left idle for hours at a time with no generated income. Other States appear to handle the problem rather more efficiently, with the pool manager or a permanently employed physical education or other teacher being the main booking agency. For a more detailed discussion of this problem see Methven (1982) both volumes.

As a result of these thumbnail sketches of four of the activity areas, it now becomes possible to look at Table 7:1 overleaf to study the trends listed therein, drawing out some of the main implications for planning, design and management, and seeing how closely they are interlinked.

Notes on Table 7.1.

- [1] Age Profile. This is self explanatory. While most activities have a participation potential right across the age spectrum, in practice most activities display an age bias.
- [2] Numbers/Times. An attempt is made here to quantify participants in Adelaide. Even the best estimates need to be treated with caution and it is best to treat them as relative numbers rather than fixed categories. Times refer to the most usually desired time of participation.
- [3] Group/Demand. In this category the various sub-activities are given a descriptor which refers to the likelihood of people participating as individuals, within groups, or in tightly controlled squads. The demand for this is then rated in three ways, regularity, predictability, and frequency. Knowledge of these are all essential for management.

Table 7: 1a PROFILE OF ACTIVITIES IN A SWIMMING POOL

	Competitive Swimming		Fitness Swimming		Life Saving	Recreational Swimming	Learn to Swim		Synchronised Swimming	Health	
	Indiv.	Training	Laps	Aqua Robotics			Children	Adults		Indiv.	Special
1. AGE PROFILE	Very young sport with vast majority of participants of school age 6-18 Veteran comp. on the increase.		Mainly Adults Men Women		Late Primary to age 65 mainly teenage	Wide Range Higher % of children	Mainly school age, potential adult group of some size	Children to young adults almost exclusively female	Usually adult often older adults	Special schools and comm.	
2. NUMBERS	2,000 registered members - about half swim year round. AUSISWIM 500 (over 25 yrs.) 5-8am daily 4-7pm		Growing		45,000 when learn to swim campaign is indicated. Otherwise 500 participants Early am	Potentially very large.	Potentially all school age chdn and many comm. groups.	Growing slowly small as yet 30 members 15 - 30	Growing	Day time	
3. GROUP DEMAND	CLUB Predictable Regular Infrequent	SQUAD V. pred. V. Reg. 2xdaily	SOLO Small Peer Groups Pred. Regular	Classes	Yes Squads Regular predictable frequent	Peer & Family Groups Unpredictable & Irregular Climate & weather depend.	Run in classes Predictable Regular but Seasonal, frequent, timetabled.	Team	Indiv. Usually not very predictable a regular, but this may change as nos. grow.	Usually Groups	
4. WATERSPACE EXCLUSIVITY	25m or 50 m with min. depth 1.8m Temp. approx 24°	25m50m ANY LAPS WATER	ANY LAPS WATER	ideal depth approx. 2.7m	Any space will do but Edge Shallow Deep Temp 26/7 Ideal	Suitable depth for age group Edges needed.	2-3m depth needed, 20m wide, warm water	suitable depths for different ages and conditions, edge space needed	usually not needed	Yes	
5. EQUIPMENT & FACILITY	Lane Ropes Spectator Seating Space for stretching exercises furniture weights e.g. P.A. Tables etc.	Lane Rope Gyn Equipment Desirable	Land Space	small aids e.g. flotation rope, brick etc. warm water desirable	thrills & spills facilities Concourse with floating fun aids, caves/w'falls, slides hoses, etc. General Water Play	float, aids, fun equipment deck for adult groups space changing facilities	U-water music lights underwater if possible	warm water needed temp 27 - 32° according to condition of users	floats, easy access, disabled access to pool		
6. ANCILLARY SECONDARY ACTIVITIES	Officials Space for coach admin Catering ability	Club/coach space Gyn. Social Activities likely to be part of team	Gym Music - Small Equip.	Picnic, socializing facilities sunbathing space Other activities deck games etc.	change space for large groups socializing afterwards v. imp. cafe area	spectator seating land space for training purposes	sauna spa useful social facilities such as cafe	spacious change rooms and toilets with full disabled access needed			
7. TRAVEL MODE DISTANCE	Mainly car usually parents	Usually car self	mainly self mobile younger chdn.	car, bike, walk if very close	school bus	self	mainly car usually parents	self	bus group		
8. COMPETITIVE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION	Yes highly structured controlled by Final & Aust. S.F. structured	deter- mined by age and ability grouping very struc- tured	no no usually run by pool staff or lesser	no but gales run as PR exercise None	can lead to intra & inter school comps, teachers/coaches Dept. of Ed. & RLSS	yes	club coach - paid coach may work with several groups	no			
9. OTHER	influenced heavily by T.V. coverage of international events, Veteran swimming e.g. WH on the increase	likely to grow substantial as fitness boom moves away from Juggling	limited mainly to summer months, lack of I/II water space I/II Parks N. Adelaide Reynella	has the potential to grow if transport costs can be solved, and if more classes are held,			Special Education and physiotherapists are involved in this area				

TABLE 7:1b PROFILE OF ACTIVITIES IN A SWIMMING POOL

	Water Polo	Board Diving	Scuba Diving	Underwater Hockey	Canoe C/polo Training	Water Games
1. AGE PROFILE		6-18	14 yrs up Mainly young adults	10-55 but mainly 18-40	14-50 mainly young adults	Mainly children
2. NUMBERS	Growing 260 members 18-35 yrs range	Small 100 members	Pool use limited to classes of learners	Up to 200 registered players	30 regular players (5 women) -6 teams-	Variable
TIMES	Evenings		Evenings Weekends	Evenings		Holiday day times mainly
3. GROUP	Team	Indiv.	Group	Team Groups	Team Groups	Group
DEMAND	Regular Predictable Frequent	Regular Predictable Frequent	Regular Predictable May be frequent	Regular Predictable about twice weekly	Regular Predictable Weekly	Irregular Unpredictable Infrequent
4. WATERSPACE	Max 25x30m min. depth 1.8m	For 10m board need Area 4.5m depth	Min depth 2m preferred 5m	Ideally as for comp. swim	Olympic size Need for heated water	Depends on activity
EXCLUSIVITY	Yes	Yes	Preferred	Yes	Yes	Yes
5. EQUIPMENT & FACILITY	Goals Balls Water temp 24° High roof & well set back	Boards at correct hts If outside should be sheltered from wind	Lots of equip, so edge space needed	Training space needed for fin swim Incompatible with other users	Canoe bats	Lots of small equipment, fly- ing fox, bars, tyras, etc Changing space
6. ANCILLARY	Spectator seating	Surface stirrer	Classroom or at least black- board & space to lecture	Fins/mask etc	Goals	Deckspace
SECONDARY ACTIVITIES	Social facilities	Spectator seating Judges seating				Kiosk
7. TRAVEL - WITH	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE
DISTANCE	Self car	Self car	Self	Self car	Self	Self & by parents
	Self					Peers
	To suitable pool	To suitable pool	To suitable pool	To available pool	To available pool	Local pool
8. COMPETITIVE	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No
INTERNAL ORGANIZATION	SAANPA	SA Diving Assoc.	FAUI/PADI BSAC	AUF	SA Canoe Polo Com. of SACA	Possibly local Rec. officers or teacher, perhaps pool staff

- [4] Waterspace/Exclusivity. This refers to the amount of water needed to carry on the sub-activity, and also whether exclusive use of that water is essential or highly desirable.
- [5] Equipment/Facilities. Some sub-activities need no equipment at all while others need a considerable amount. Some activities require special facilities which only the management can provide, while other activities provide all their own gear.
- [6] Ancillary/Secondary Activities. This refers to the generation of secondary requirements, for officials, coaches, spectators etc, and other activities with which they may be involved. Social activities are important here, but are not the only ones in this category.
- [7] Travel Mode/With/Distance. This refers to the mode of transport used to the facility, who they travel with, and the distance or time involved in the travel.
- [8] Competitive/Internal Organisation. Some activities are tightly controlled from within, others have no internal control at all. Usually this applies to either activities which are competitive or which have safety/legislative requirements to their practice, such as SCUBA.
- [9] Other. This refers to any other factor which is considered important to the proper provision and smooth management of an activity.

The Planning Implications from Table 7.1.

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- (i) It is obvious that the 'localness' of a pool situation has a major influence on its use for recreational swimming, school use, fitness swimming, water games, and general training.
- (ii) Children in particular need a pool close by to be able to get to it without assistance, as parents and schools are unlikely to travel far in time or distance unless there are extraordinary circumstances. Schools and local authority programmes depend on the pool being nearby. Adults are generally more mobile but often lack time, so for regular training purposes they too

need a local pool. So a pool needs to be located either where people are or where they normally go.

- (iii) Another location problem is that the factors which make an site ideal for a hot weekend day at the pool, i.e. a pleasant parkland setting, may make the pool an undesirable place for most other times (12). Parents are obviously unwilling to let their children go unescorted to such places during evenings or winter months, however nice the pool may be inside. Since many user groups are made up of children and the teenage/young adult age groups, pools which expect to have a fully programmed usage pattern need to be placed in highly visible and well trafficked locations.
- (iv) If there are spectator events, and those which naturally attract adults, then the provision of car parking space needs careful attention. Door slamming late at night from competitions, and early morning from swim training groups, is a real source of annoyance to nearby residents, so that screening of car parking is essential.
- (v) Two other matters need to be touched on here, viz.. other facilities and backyard pools. The vast majority of pools in Australia are free-standing facilities which have been planned and managed without any reference to other facilities in their areas. This is obviously wasteful of resources, both human and physical. In Canada, Britain and Europe the overwhelming evidence is that multi-purpose facilities, or wet/dry combination sports centres are less unprofitable, more versatile, and more popular, providing a significant community focus in a way that a single purpose local pool cannot possibly match. The point about backyard pools needs to be made too, in that a public facility should not be planned without reference to the private and commercial facilities in the area. The fact that this has frequently occurred is one of the reasons why so many pools are losing money, and especially losing their recreational swimming clientele.

Design factors.

- (1) One of the more difficult design requirements is that of depth. Most competitive activities require a working depth of 1.8 to 2 metres, with lifesaving requiring deeper water to make it a worthwhile exercise, and synchronised swimming, board and scuba diving requiring deeper water still.

On the other hand, learn to swim, aquarobics, health and recreational swimming all require variable depths with a good deal of shallow water, and without which these activities cannot occur. Deep water is an expensive option and so is not to be provided without due consideration, but without it some activities obviously cannot take place. There are problems therefore in catering to a wide variety of needs in a single pool, and this is where such technical developments such as an adjustable floor, discussed in Chapter Six, are so useful.

- (ii) Many activities require edge space, (such as aquarobics, recreational and health swimming, and learn to swim), others simply need ends to start and turn on (competitive and fitness swimming), or to act as boundaries (such as canoe and water polo). For others again the type of edge space and its design will determine whether or not they can use the facility. Some pool designs make entry and exit almost impossible for disabled or elderly people (such as Salisbury SACAE), whereas others are excellent (such as Dandanong in Melbourne).
- (iii) Some activities need plenty of deck space, such as training squads, aquarobics, water polo, and recreational swimming. Where major competitive events are to take place there must also be room for officials, and provision for some spectator seating. Some activities also have quite a bit of equipment, such as learn to swim, canoeing or scuba diving; deck space for participants and their equipment is essential from the safety point of view. Deck space also needs to be non slip; wet concrete or tiles are extremely dangerous (eg Parks Community Centre and most concrete pools). Good non-slip finishes should be used (eg Adelaide Aquatic Centre and Elizabeth Aquadome), but are often difficult and time consuming to clean.
- (iv) Some activities need precisely measured waterspace, where others do not. Most would prefer warm water, but the warmth required varies from about 23 C for training competitive swimmers, to 32 C for very young or severely disabled swimmers, so there is another incompatibility there. Most activities would claim they need exclusive water-space and the hazardous nature of some activities to other users, (eg water and canoe polo, board diving) means this must be strictly enforced. Other activities can only be done in calm water, again demanding exclusivity, such as synchronised swimming, learn to swim and severely disabled swimming.

All these factors lead to either design compromise, which may result in not suiting any one group ideally, or the ideal provision which is an expensive option and one which the public as a whole is probably not prepared to sustain. In actual fact very few decisions have been made on the basis of the requirements listed above for these activities simply because most local pools have been provided on the basis of local whim and the duplication of what other councils are seen to have. Little co-ordination of pool provision was ever made at State or regional level, as the studies by the writer (1978), Sharpe (1977), and S.A. (1979) have shown, and the object of those exercises was to change this situation. Apart from State Aquatic and Commonwealth Games Centres, and a few very recent recreational centres, little if any thought has ever been given to the purposes the pools are supposed to be serving, and their relevance to specific needs and other facilities in the area.

Managerial factors.

- (i) With reference again to Table 7:1 it is clear that the different activity groups put a number of demands on managerial staff. Firstly, although many activities are essentially group oriented, there are significant activities which are not, and programming for these is difficult, especially if they are also unpredictable as is recreational swimming. Where group attendance is predictable, regular and frequent, management is much easier; but where non-group activities have been frequent, regular, but less predictable, management has sometimes been unhelpful, as happens with fitness swimming in some pools. It is quite possible, and in fact happens frequently, that a dozen or so children can monopolise the entire water space with recreational

swimming, to the detriment of other users, and in particular lap swimmers.

(ii) The tradition of casual swimming has been accepted for many years, perhaps uncritically, but always on the basis of its perceived benefits. The conditions which obtained when this tradition began have changed radically, and it may now be time to alter the priorities of use operating at some pools in order to adjust to the contemporary demands of the swimming public. Any other sports facility is used mainly for purposeful activity; it would be unthinkable for a sports hall to be monopolised by children playing their own games when others wished to use it for basketball or badminton, and yet this attitude of casual use first persists for swimming facilities often to the exclusion of any purposeful activity such as fitness swimming. Simple space zoning by means of lane ropes would ensure that both swimmers and children could enjoy their activities without being a danger or impediment to each other. Such laning, however, needs to be clearly understood by all concerned and may need to be policed, at least at the outset. Managerial policies need to be clearly articulated so that the thoughtlessness and subtle forms of water hooliganism often experienced by adults, both swimmers and non-swimmers, is not tolerated. It is highly likely that an increased awareness of health and fitness in the community will gradually increase the numbers wishing to swim lengths, and it is in the general interest of all that they be given the opportunity to do so. Generally speaking managers are becoming aware of this and are making increasing efforts to accommodate this sector.

(iii) A quite different managerial problem relates to the turn-around times of some groups, such as health, disabled, older swimmers, and primary school children, which can slow down the programming turnover. Much of this problem could have been obviated if changing facilities had been properly designed at the outset, but where these cannot be changed or adapted managers have to look at their programmes very carefully to ensure as smooth a turn-round as possible. It is their job to acquaint local council planners/engineers with these problems since frequently such people have no idea of what goes on at a pool. Poor changing facilities have implications for programming but also create managerial problems of a different kind. Changing facilities which are a pleasure to use (eg Dandanong) are likely to attract repeat users whereas those with dark and dirty changing facilities (eg Clayton in Melbourne) will not.

- (iv) Another managerial implication of these quite disparate activities is that they all have different social expectations, few of which are ever met in Australian swimming pools. No recreation facility should be without a social focus, but in most cases all that is ever available, when it is open, is a small and squalid kiosk selling ersatz liquid in plastic cups (eg Para Hills S.C.). In these days of microwave and other domestic appliances, a few minor changes and some proper managerial planning could allow for users and spectators to socialise together, spending their money at the same time (eg Salisbury S.C.). For instance, for parents of competitive swimmers a light breakfast of good quality coffee and hot croissants, plus available morning papers, in comfortable surroundings could do much to lessen the bleakness of those cold early morning sessions. The same kind of treatment would be an added attraction to adult swimmers coming in at different times of the day, and there is no need to limit this only to swimmers; allow people to come in off the street, and then charge them for drinks and eats once they are in. Most pools are clinical unfriendly places with no attractions whatsoever apart from the water (13). They should be places to meet and enjoy company and for watching other people in action, rather than places just to go and get wet and cold (14). Any recreation facility now being planned in Australia must give equal consideration to the provision of social foci because, quite apart from their social importance to the community, they can also be money spinners. In a world where there is increasing privatisation of recreational opportunities, it is important that the recreation industry creates public places where it is safe and pleasant to be, as a way of attracting back the general public and interesting those who are on the fringes of social recreation and sport. This is, of course, also very much a planning problem, but managerial responses could do much to change the present situation in many cases without huge capital investment of new plant and equipment.
- (v) Supervision of pool users is directly shaped by the design of the pool. A multi-pool complex spread over several acres is a supervisors nightmare, since at least one person per pool is required, plus, on busy days, someone patrolling the grounds (eg., Keilor). Pools with in-built blind spots, especially in T or L shapes (eg., LaTrobe and Dandanong) can also be dangerous. Leisure pools with bizarre designs such as the outdoor pool at the Parks Community Centre is even worse since it need four or five attendants simply to see all the various nooks and crannies built into the different levels. Designers who

let their imaginations run riot without consultation with management pose enormous operating problems later on (eg., The Parks outdoor pool).

It becomes obvious, as a result of detailed examination of the kind of factors listed above, that "capacity", in the sense often used in many text books, becomes so elastic as to be virtually meaningless. There can be no such thing as A Capacity of a swimming pool unless it is linked to specific activities in a precise context. The capacity of an 8 lane 'Olympic' pool may vary from 8 swimmers, (if a competition is in progress), to several hundreds, (if recreational swimming in a heatwave is taking place). Those figures and the contexts in which they occur will shape expectations of both users and staff; a pool which is unbearably crowded all the time will provoke a good deal of user discontent, but crowding during a heatwave will generally be tolerated because of the context in which it occurs. Equally, such figures given above take no account of the number of other people in the complex such as spectators, who will normally be in inverse proportions to the number of people in the water. The concept of capacity has to be linked to specific activities and times, and can only be useful to planners, designers and managers if viewed in that light.

Conclusion.

This chapter has attempted to outline the problems which may occur if activities are not properly identified. Recreation planners and managers must be very clear about the nature of the activities for which they are providing. Face value acceptance of generic terms as a planning base are no longer appropriate, and public expectations are now sophisticated enough to demand a more professional response from those involved. Undifferentiated assumptions about providing 'a pool' for 'swimmers' indicates a lack of knowledge both about facilities and the activities which occur in them, and unless these are resolved there is likely to be increasing conflict and dissatisfaction from users whose expectations are not being properly met. The resulting alienation of potential users may far outweigh the benefits to the few who manage to accommodate themselves to what has been provided. Over and above the users' point of view, the implications for management are immense, frequently making a difficult position almost untenable because of conflicting and unresolvable requirements of different user groups, something which should have been worked out at the planning and design stages.

It is suggested in this chapter that such a situation can be largely avoided if the concept of an activity profile, or a similar measure, is adopted. The basic questions which

the planners should be starting from include 'why are we providing this', 'who are we providing this for' and 'what use are they going to make of it'. Some checklists have been given to start this process of identification, clarification and differentiation off, so that the profile of an activity can be drawn up. A matrix of a number of activities associated with swimming pools has been compiled, from which the important aspects of things like design incompatibility can be quickly indentified, and acceptable solutions can be worked out. Managerial strategies need to be adopted which are in line with the planning and design criteria and the recreation opportunities identified above. If any one of those three are out of line with the other two the situation is likely to result in compromise management, an indifferent facility, user dissatisfaction with the experience gained and disillusionment with the providing authority.

Footnotes and References.

1. Garrard, I. An Activity Profile.
 - No 1. Bushwalkers and Trail Hikers.
 - No 2. Canoeing and Rowing.
 - No 3. Fishing. Boat and Shore.
 - No 4. Powerboating.
 - No 5. Waterski-ing.
 - No 6. Surfing and Sunbaking.
 - No 7. Sailing.
 - No 8. Picnicking and Barbecueing.
 - No 9. Swimming.

No 10. Sightseeing; Walking and Scenic Driving.

No 11. Caving and Abseiling.

Office of Crown Lands, NSW. 1982.

These profiles were gathered by surveying 15 State parks in NSW in 1979/80. Some 4,500 vehicles were sampled and 71% of the self completed questionnaires were returned. Information sought included the determination of market areas, recreation preferences, activities undertaken and park attractions.

2. Dixon G. Resource Capability Analysis for Water Based Recreation: The Example of Sailing.
Unpublished paper Geography Dept. Monash University 1979.

3. S.W.Spts Council. A Regional Strategy for Sport and Recreation in South West England.
1st Edition January 1975.
2nd Edition September 1976.
South Western Sports Council. UK.

The second edition is a greatly enlarged and more thoughtful publication, not only carrying more activities, but also more information on each; it demonstrated for instance that the differences between coarse, game, and sea angling are real and require separate treatment. However, there is still a problem with basic conceptualization since in many activities, (e.g. swimming), reference is made to jargon words like 'capacity' and 'standards', without any discussion of such things as user group differences.

In more recent times Martin Elson has done an excellent Activity Profile on motor sports in the UK, see Elson, M.

Providing for Motor Sports, from Usage to Reality.

Sports Council Study 28, 1988, UK.

4. The planning requirements for lightweight camping by backpackers on the one hand are going to be rather different from those for whom camping means taking everything including the kitchen sink to a beach site for the month of January, complete with caravan, boats, tents, bikes, BBQ, TV and 2 or more cars. Alternatively more tourist oriented sites complete with lavish en-suite provision, recreation programmes and equipment are equally removed from backpacking, yet all these experiences may loosely be called "camping".
5. Adie, D. Marinas. See Chapter 5 in particular on General Design Principles.
Architectural Press, London, 1975.

6. This state of affairs does not appear to have markedly improved in some areas. Mt Gambier, one of the most southerly towns in S.A., has recently completed a \$1.55m outdoor heated pool, (8 lanes, 50m long, depth 1-1.8m). Also, learners and wading pools, a kiosk, and amenity rooms were provided. Heating has been chosen to utilise the wood waste from the main industry of the area, using a specially imported Swedish boiler. The wisdom of an outdoor heated pool in such a climatic location has to be questioned. More fundamentally however, the Council still had not formulated a management policy, or estimated running costs even at the time the pool was being built. The possible deficit was thought likely to be between \$30,000 and \$40,000 p.a., but, according to the Deputy Town Clerk at the time, those matters would be worked out once the pool was running.
The problems associated with its design and management caused the Department of Recreation and Sport to withdraw from the project. (pers com D.Horne DRS Early 1986).
7. See for instance, in the Swimming Pool Bibliography :- Collins (1977), Sports Council (1978), Scottish Sports Council (1979), YRS/Thompson (1979), Sharp (1977).
8. YSR/Thompson *ibid* Section A
9. See FINA regulations, Perrin (1981:155), Thompson *ibid*.
10. See information listed in 7 above, and information in the Planning Aspects of the previous chapter.
11. See Methven (1979 & 82), & S.A. Swimming Pool Study (1979).
12. There are a number of such examples in most State metropolitan areas.
13. Most outdoor unheated suburban pools are examples of this, but Keilor in Melbourne is perhaps one of the bleakest and windiest.
14. Because it was refurbished rather than built from scratch the Adelaide Aquatic Centre is poor for this. The social area is located out of sight of the pools in a cold and draughty area, and is certainly not conducive to prolonged socialising.

Chapter Eight.

Swimming Pools in the Public and Private Domain.

Introduction.

In Chapter Six the extensive literature available on swimming pools was surveyed, and the main factors in their safe and efficient operation were studied. This was followed up with a careful scrutiny of the activities which take place in pools. This chapter looks at swimming pools as a recreation facility, both in the public domain and also within the household. At the risk of repeating what has gone before, swimming is one of the most popular of all recreation past-times; playing in or on water has always had a major attraction for children of all ages, and the ability to swim, or at least survive in water, is a necessary adjunct to many of our popular and important recreation activities such as canoeing, scuba diving, and sailing. The popularity of swimming is by no means peculiar to Australia, but has particular significance to us given the Australian climate and the fact that we are a nation of coast huggers and therefore beach goers. Safety and survival, as well as familiarity are important.

The provision of public swimming facilities has always been the preserve of local councils, with or without help from a variety of state government sources. A discussion of state and local policies towards this end has already occurred in earlier chapters. The vast majority of pools used by the public

are provided by local councils, but they can also be provided by schools, tertiary institutions, and commercial establishments which specialise in learn to swim programmes. Provision of pools may also be augmented by other agencies such as the police, armed services, medical and paramedical centres, holiday resorts, and occasionally industrial firms and, overseas at least, major hotels (Campbell 1988). This chapter focusses on the providers and their effect on the overall provision for swimming before turning to the topic of backyard pools.

School Pools.

There are approximately 46 state school pools in the
(1)
Adelaide metropolitan region , as well as a number of pools
at independent schools. The state schools with pools are
mainly primary schools, and their pools are generally outdoor,
unheated and small (average size approximately 12 - 15m long),
and relatively shallow (between 0.5-1.5M deep). Such a size
and depth limits a pools' attractiveness for anything other
than the learn to swim programmes for which they were
(2)
designed . In metropolitan Melbourne, independent schools
generally possess pools which are larger, heated, and often
(3)
indoor . A comparable listing in Adelaide does not appear
to exist, but it is assumed that the same differences also
occur in this city.

School pools, both in Adelaide and Melbourne, are reasonably numerous, but it cannot be assumed that these pools are a community resource for a number of reasons:-

- (i) As stated before, the pools may often be small and shallow.
- (ii) They may be inappropriately located for community access.
- (iii) They are often not provided with suitable showers or toilet facilities, or, alternatively, the location and access of these is such that they provide a security risk to the school, as they lead into other facilities.
- (iv) Supervision of such pools for community use is a difficult problem, with the Education Department or school council quite properly refusing to take responsibility for use other than that of schools.
- (v) The pool plants are frequently of a size and age which will not cope with vastly increased usage.
- (vi) The larger pools, mainly in independent schools, have been built through school building trusts and funds, representing hard work over many years by parents, teachers, and old scholars. They are often, therefore, reluctant to open their pools to community use. Where community use does take place it is generally to controlled group use (eg a scout group, local club or nearby school); only rarely is it for community use of a general or casual nature.

Very few school pools have been planned and designed with dual use in mind, so aspects such as location, access, security, and cleaning remain a problem. Even where joint provision/dual use has been planned⁽⁴⁾, experience from elsewhere such as the UK indicates that these matters may remain problematic, and that it is essential that the whole management strategy and structure is worked out carefully beforehand on an individual case by case basis.

Commercial Pools.

Metropolitan Melbourne is well endowed with commercially owned and operated pools. In 1979, with a population of 2.6 million people there were 55 such pools, or approximately one pool per 47,500 persons. These pools are found basically in suburbs of higher density population or those with a substantial proportion of young families of relatively high socio-economic standard. Areas which appear to be lacking in commercial ventures are those of very low density and suburbs of low socio-economic status.

In Adelaide there is no definitive listing, but from the 1988 Yellow Pages and the 1980 Swimming Pool Study of South Australia in 1980 it seems that roughly 13 pools of this category exist, representing a provision rate of about 77,000 persons per pool. Why the provision of commercial facilities in Adelaide should be half that of Melbourne is not immediately obvious, especially since Melbourne is also better endowed with public pool provision. Perhaps climate has something to do with it, encouraging the provision of year round pools to counter the cooler and less predictable summers in Melbourne. It is also less easy to get to a good swimming beach in Melbourne than it is in Adelaide, though since recreational swimming is not the issue here this connection is a little tenuous.

In both cities commercial pools fall into two main categories; those that are primarily, often solely, a swim training and teaching

establishment, with their entire raison d'être based on classes of children and sometimes adults. The second group includes those that are a fitness or health centre with a good sized pool attached in which classes are run on a regular basis. The dividing line between these two categories is not always clear. There is a third category which needs to be mentioned but has not been included in the above figures, which is that of fitness gyms or squash centres with a plunge-type pool often in association with spa or sauna.

Commercial pools cater for two distinct markets which, for the most part, dovetail quite neatly. The first is the commercial operation of teaching swimming to groups in the community, notably children, but also to adults, mothers and babies, and, where facilities permit, to disabled groups. As a result of their teaching programmes they often run training squads of their youngsters who 'graduate' into competitive swimming. The second is the schools programme in which the pool may be handed over to the education department, to appropriately qualified staff, or to schools for their own programmes. Since the commercial viability of such centres is always tight, profitability rests on throughput, and therefore there is usually no period in the day which is open to the public for casual swimming. Where this does occur it is usually only in a lunch break when there are few (if any) staff available for supervision. Commercial viability is generally in inverse proportion to the amount of casual

swimming available at a centre. The popularity of commercial pools rests on two apparently contrary factors; one is that of convenience, which is especially important for schools, and also for some other users. The other factor is reputation. Many people will travel considerable distances to use facilities which appeal specifically to them, or which have a big name swimmer or top level coach with a good reputation. This is where the establishment of catchment areas becomes difficult. Unlike most recreational swimming catchments, where proximity is the key, the use of particular commercial facilities depends largely on the reason for attending. Participants may often travel past more convenient locations to go to the pool of their choice, thus providing examples of the anomalies always found in catchment studies. No comparable information exists in Adelaide, but in Melbourne it was found that the size of the catchments varied enormously, with some patrons travelling considerable distances and past other possible locations to participate in certain facilities (Methven 1979:8.3).

Commercial facilities, especially those with water heated to a higher temperature than normal, are a good learning medium for children, older adults, and disabled persons. The latter two categories however, are not generally economic since their rate of throughput and ability to pay on a commercial basis may be limited. Commercial pools provide a valuable service, but they are not a community resource in the accepted sense since so many people are excluded. Where suitable public facilities do not

exist it may be possible for local councils or state government agencies to subsidise such groups under certain circumstances, or to enter into special leasing arrangements to maximise access without detriment to the operators. Suggestions along these lines have not been well received to date ⁽⁵⁾, and there are many bureaucratic constraints to hurdle before such possibilities can become practical reality. The relatively small number of such pools in Adelaide make this of lesser importance than in Melbourne, where their contribution is very substantial.

The reluctance of local councils in either city to enter into management agreements with commercial concerns where the facilities warrant wider use is most unfortunate, although one that has been attempted in Sandringham, Melbourne, has been a less than total success.

A practice which is worth noting is that of some commercial facilities running "therapy" courses, or including in their adult classes people who have been referred by medical or para-medical personnel for such things as joint or back problems. There are relatively few pools available for rehabilitative work in Adelaide and commercial facilities with their warm water make good alternatives. The problem here is lack of qualified staff to supervise and assist such people ⁽⁶⁾.

Other Agencies.

Other agencies may also have pools, such as rehabilitation centres and hospitals, police academies, the armed services, and large industrial complexes. In some cases access is negotiable

by organised groups and only rarely by the casual user, location may render them difficult to use, and sometimes bureaucratic stubbornness means that excellent pools remain idle for much of the time (7). Some industrial pools are heavily used by groups and casual users as well as by workers, and the Tupperware pool in Knox (Melbourne) is a good example of this.

Public Pools.

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It is not proposed to spend a great deal of time in discussing public provision since this information is widely known and not particularly controversial. Certain aspects do need to be highlighted and these are...

- # operating economics;
- # design;
- # location;
- # usage profiles.

The economics of operation.

Most public pools are operating at a deficit, the size of which varies according to the standard and age of its facilities, competing interests, the kind of summer recently experienced, management strategies, and so on. Deficit funding has been accepted as the norm until recently as part of the price of providing a public good, but over the last few years many council attitudes have changed as the deficit soared (in line with costs generally), funds became harder to get, and many of the 'sacred cows' of council and public spending generally are scrutinised more closely. It is this change in attitudes, coupled with soaring costs over the last few years, which has stimulated

debate and concern about the provision of public pools.

Table 8.1 Examples of Operating Deficits.
Year 1976/77, Melbourne. (Methven 1979:5.2)

Pool Type	Attendance	Income \$	Expend \$	Operating Deficit \$	Subsidy per user c.
a) I/H 25m	66,200	25,566	58,638	33,066	50c
b) I/H 50m	118,000	4,273	87,049	82,776	70c
c) I/H 50 + O/H L	469,480	121,696	132,262	10,566	2c
d) I/H 33 + L	133,731	84,848	192,442	107,594	80c
e) I/O I/H 25m + O 50,L,D.	173,948	72,791	133,589	60,798	35c
f) I/O I/H 25m + O 50,L,D.	256,871	50,913	104,959	54,046	21c
g) O/U 50m,L,D.	78,226	15,816	49,546	33,730	43c
h) O/U 50m,L,D.	61,661	12,539	52,856	40,317	65c

[I/H = indoor heated, O/U outdoor unheated, and I/O is a complex with both indoor and outdoor pools].

Apart from pool (b) where there were no normal entrance charges, most pools at this time were charging in the region of 30-50 cents per adult, 20-30 cents for children, and 10-20 cents for school use.

Clearly there was scope for making charges more realistic, and also more flexible, thus attracting different kinds of groups. Pool (b) was forced into abandoning its no-charge policy after a while in view of its mounting deficit. Pool (d) was the central Melbourne Baths before renovations, and incurred the costs and non-typical attendance patterns found with old pools in central business districts. On the basis of the above information it seems that the indoor/outdoor pool complex gives best value for money, allowing flexibility in programming, ability to respond to climatic changes and still remain viable, and a variable setting.

In the equivalent South Australian Study (1980) covering the same period, the data were not presented in the same way, making direct comparison a risky business. However, the average stated subsidy per user was 28 cents, and the average operating deficit was \$40,270 (1980:53) so the general picture given was much the same as that found in Melbourne. More detailed figures are available for two Adelaide pools from the local council area of Salisbury:-

Table 8.2 Budget Deficit and Subsidy per User, 1974-82, Salisbury Swimming Centre. 50m L.T. O/H.

Year	Attendance	Income \$	Expenditure \$	Deficit \$	Subsidy per User
74/5	100,949	10,042	35,893	25,852	25c
75/6	83,152	24,313	51,781	27,469	33c
76/7	55,629	25,299	71,032	45,733	82c
77/8	63,558	29,431	81,197	51,766	81c
78/9	60,486	36,902	106,213	69,311	114c
79/80	53,497	40,456	90,400	49,945	93c
80/1	79,102	53,968	116,400	62,432	78c
81/2	69,443	54,007	140,400	86,393	124c
Para Hills Swimming Centre (4 x lane 50, O/U)					
74/5	47,612	7,706	22,177	14,471	30c
75/6	37,401	8,617	33,450	24,833	66c
76/7	32,131	9,076	42,200	33,125	103c
77/8	29,407	10,765	44,407	33,642	114c
78/9	23,889	12,029	64,733	52,705	220c
79/80	19,365	11,436	65,100	53,664	277c
80/1	28,613	17,338	64,500	48,162	168c
81/2	24,497	15,388	71,500	51,112	229c

(Methven 1982 Voll:59)

In the case of the Para Hills pool above, there can be little justification for keeping such a venue open because of the very high subsidy to each user, especially bearing in mind that the pool has a poor design, is cold, and serves comparatively few people. The argument for and against its closure, stemming

from the writers' recommendations in 1982 that it be closed became fairly heated. The point at which something can be declared unviable depends on a political rationale rather than a planning one, resting on the vocal nature of that particular community rather than absolute numbers per se. In the event the pool has only been closed since the 1987/8 season.

In all cases it has to be remembered that all the figures cited above are only the results of the data provided by the councils to the respective researchers, and are known to be 'rubbery' because of idiosyncratic council accounting procedures, an inherited problem which was outlined in earlier chapters and which situation still exists to a certain extent today. More importantly, the figures given above generally do not contain figures for major renovation or plant maintenance, and certainly do not contain debt servicing charges. In the decade since these figures were collected it is known that entrance charges have risen somewhat, attendance figures have fallen, very considerably at outdoor unheated pools, and most expenditure lines such as wages and salaries have risen dramatically. Interest rates, and therefore debt servicing charges have risen likewise. Under these circumstances it is not surprising that councils are viewing the operation of their pools with concern.

Despite the evidence given above showing the general upward drift of deficits and expenses, it is still not unusual to find that councils do not closely itemise each budget line, match

their managerial expertise to the needs of the area with a good programming base, or require a detailed attendance and accounting analysis at regular intervals. Where this does happen, and pool management is given necessary support, then the operating deficit can be brought down to manageable levels and can be justifiable in terms of the numbers using the facility. In exceptional cases pools may even run at an operating profit .⁽⁸⁾

Design.

The vast majority of swimming pools around Australia are freestanding and have no other facilities attached to them, apart from, in a few cases, water slides and play equipment. Very few are like the Ascot Vale Leisure Centre in Melbourne, with gym and squash courts attached, or the large scale leisure centres of the UK and Europe. This puts Australian pools at a disadvantage immediately as they therefore do not occupy a central place in the minds of the general public as the place to recreate locally. Not only that, but many of the pools are bleak, windy, and chilly places, with little shade, shelter or warmth to be found, with large open spaces between each component, and with very basic equipment and design. They were built on the premise that Australia enjoyed a permanent heatwave and people would always wish to cool off. The reality is different; in southern states the summer gives a comfortable swimming season of perhaps three months, less in some years, and people now have many other ways of cooling off, being both

more mobile and able to get to the beach, and with more home comforts such as air conditioning. Given these circumstances there is precious little reason to go to a public pool except in exceptional climatic conditions or as organised groups for training, teaching or fitness requirements.

Location and Distribution.

In June 1978, of the 59 metropolitan Melbourne local councils, only 5 councils did not have a council swimming pool ; a number of councils had two pools under their control, and several had three. Very few LGA's did not also have commercial, school or special purpose pools somewhere in their area. Only Chelsea, Port Melbourne, and South Melbourne did not have a pool of any kind in their areas.

In Adelaide the proportion of local councils with pools is much lower, only 44 per cent (14/32) owning pools, as opposed to Melbourne (90%). Of the pool owning councils in Adelaide only two have two pools and none have three. The reasons for the discrepancy between Adelaide and Melbourne perhaps relate to the effect of size on urban development policies, and the different perceptions of the local government roles, Victoria coming much earlier to the human services area than most other states. Which of the respective attitudes towards pool provision is regarded as more rational depends on the prevailing philosophy of provision, but the discrepancy is certainly marked, as was also demonstrated on the section in Chapter 2 on standards.

It leaves Adelaide seriously underprovided, especially compared with the standards of provision in the UK and Europe.

Figure 1, overleaf, indicates the location of public pools and those tertiary institution pools which are also available for casual community use. The map shows quite clearly there are large differences between the north and south of the city in pool provision. These differences are even more marked when the relative populations and their geographical dispersions are considered.

Table 8.3 Population and Square Kilometres of the Statistical Subdivisions in the Adelaide Statistical Division. 1986 Census.

	ASD	Northern	Eastern	Western	Southern
Population	977,721	288,398	210,057	208,393	270,873
Kms 2	1924	678	331	154	761
0 - 4 yrs	67,227	24,691	11,002	11,847	19,689
5 - 9 yrs	64,317	22,965	10,752	11,104	19,496
10-14 yrs	73,243	25,327	13,246	13,152	21,518
15-19 yrs	83,849	26,722	17,962	17,639	21,526
Total U19	288,636	99,705	52,962	53,742	82,229

Whether a formal standards approach is used or not, on the basis of the table above and the distribution of public pools as shown in Figure 1, there is a marked unevenness in access to public facilities within the Adelaide metropolitan area. This unevenness is even more marked when the quality of that provision is taken into account; for instance the only indoor heated public pools are in the north west (the Parks), the far north (Elizabeth Aquadome), and North Adelaide (the Adelaide Aquatic Centre). Given the age breakdown in the above table, it seems that over

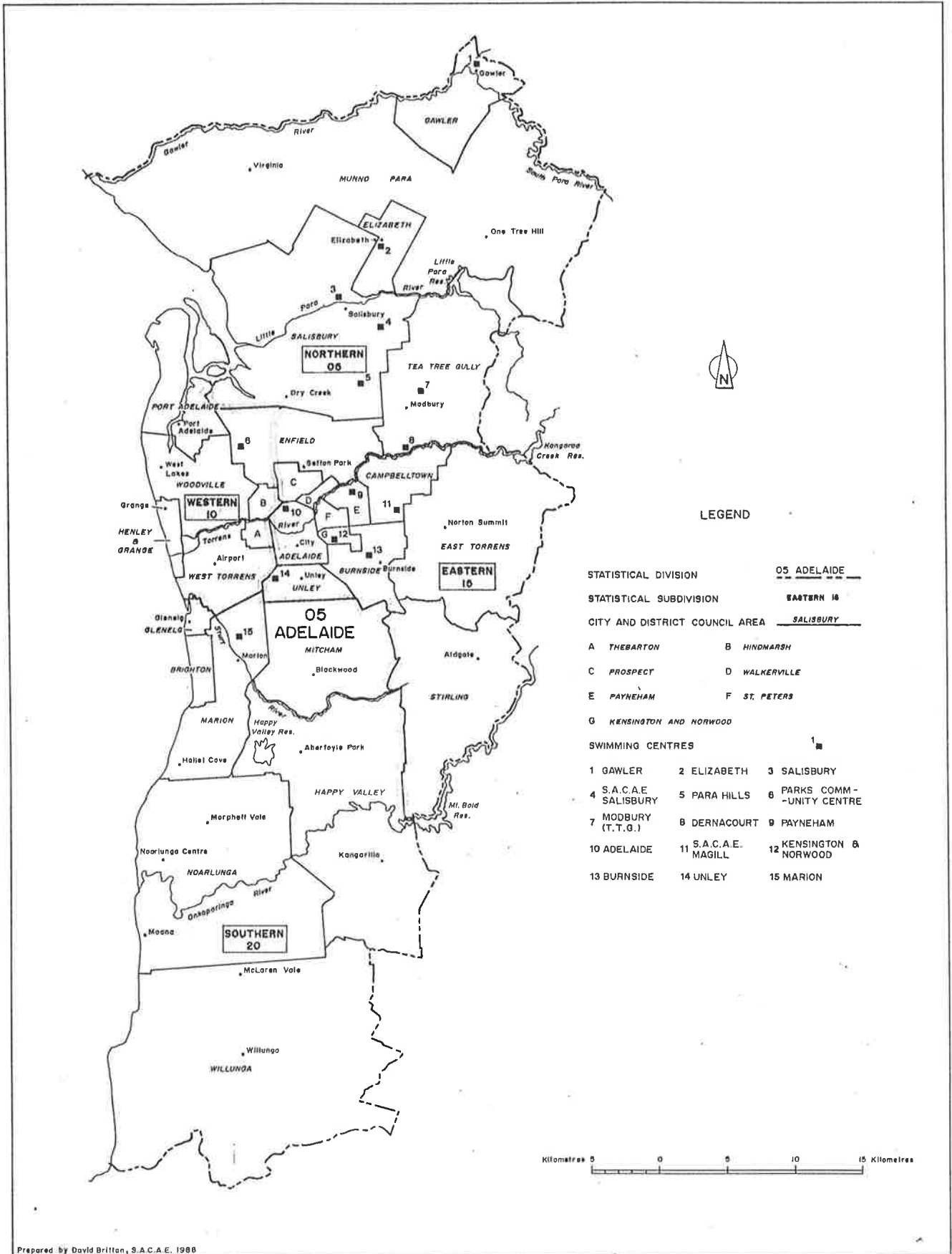


FIGURE 1: Location of Public Pools in the Adelaide Metropolitan Area

a quarter of Adelaides' young people who live in the southern suburbs are denied access to a pool, apart from that at Marion, which is in the extreme north of the Sub-Division. The much heralded but slow to appear Noarlunga Leisure Pool will help slightly, but reflects the inadequate 'big is beautiful' syndrome, which does little to maximise access to something in a very large area such as the southern suburbs.

This differential access is an excellent example of the problem described by Badcock in Unfairly Structured Cities (1984:263). It has been exacerbated by the urban sprawl of Adelaide, the lack of consolidation and amenity planning, and by the deliberate pursuit of large central facilities (eg Adelaide Aquatic Centre) for purposes other than recreation, and at the expense of small suburban centres giving easy community access. In the sense that many families have been forced by land prices and their lack of purchasing power to move to the outskirts of the city, they are then doubly disadvantaged by government actions which encourage centralism and considerable inequalities in access (see earlier discussion in Chapter 5). The avowed intention of the Adelaide Aquatic Centre of now building an adjoining \$3 million leisure pool is a further insult to residents of the southern suburbs who have great difficulty in reaching any kind of pool at all.

Usage Profiles.

Usage profiles can be subdivided into attendance patterns and catchment studies. For the latter, the concept of which has already been discussed in earlier chapters, information been gathered on Salisbury Council Pools as a result of research in backyard pools and is discussed later in this chapter under the heading of Backyard Pool Ownership and Public Pool Usage.

Very few pools have ever been subjected to a serious analysis of attendance patterns because it is an expensive thing to do properly. Very few pools can therefore give a breakdown beyond the normal age/concession groups, school attendances, and numbers of club groups. Some pools do not record even that level of analysis. Without a comprehensive and ongoing analysis of trends, management and planning are working in a vacuum. In spite of the lack of comprehensive data it is possible to illustrate some general and disturbing trends in attendance patterns.

The general attendance pattern for outdoor pools in the southern states have fallen over the last two decades, especially for pools which are also unheated. Examples of these are given on the next two pages:-

Table 8.4 Attendances for Selected Pools in Melbourne
over the Years 1967/8 - 1976/7.

Melbourne	1967/8	1972/3	1976/7	10 yr change
Preston (o/u)	169,639	96,438	58,714	-65%
Reservoir (o/u)	185,790	114,461	61,991	-67%
Springvale (o/u)	175,355	109,894	67,655	-61%
Camberwell Nth (o/u)	228,348	74,471	78,228	-65%
Camberwell Sth (o/u)	148,568	68,390	56,326	-62%
Moorabbin Nth (o/u)	109,833	72,882	49,374	-55%
Prahran (o/u)	140,052	94,246	60,649	-57%
Footscray (i-o/h)	N/A	65,596	101,126	+35%
Harold Holt Pool (i-o/h)	N/A	363,766	308,107	-15%

Table 8.5 Examples of Attendances at Swimming Pools in the Northern and Eastern Suburbs of Adelaide. (10a). (Figures given in 000's).

Year	Burnside		Payneham		Tea Tree Gully		
	O/H		O/H		Modbury	Dernancourt	
	50m,L,T,		50m, L,T,		50m,L,T.	50m,L	
	Attd	Pop	Attd	Pop	Attd	Attd	Pop
74/5	s154.4	*39.3	n/a	*17.5	123.6	n/a	*36.7
75/6	s151.6		#123.3		104.4	n/a	
76/7	s157.1	39.6	112.8	18.1	99	31.9	57
77/8	s142.7		132.1		96.8	33.2	
78/9	s162.6		155		114.4	40.9	
9/80	s139.5		125.9		97	33.9	
80/1	n/a		129.7		102.2	n/a	
81/2	n/a	37.5	116.5	16.5	93.5	n/a	67.2
82/3	n/a		108.5		123.6	18.3	
83/4	n/a		98.9		^ 97.2	21.1	
84/5	148.5		123.9		103.7	21.7	
85/6	130.2	~37.7	96.8	~16.2	# 96.8	15.2	~77.8

Year	Salisbury		Elizabeth		
	Salisbury Sw. Centre	Para Hills Sw Centre	Swimming Centre	(now I/H)	
	O/H	O/U	O/H	50m,L,D,T,	
	50m,L,	50m,			
	Attd	Attd	Pop	Attd	Pop
74/5	100.9	47.6	*56.2	s105.3	*33.3
75/6	83.1	37.4		s105.9	
76/7	#55.6	32.1	79.2	s146.2	34.4
77/8	63.5	29.4		s125.6	
78/9	60.4	23.8		s130.7	
79/0	53.4	19.3		s117.8	
80/1	79.1	28.6		n/a	
81/2	69.4	24.4	86.4	n/a	32.6
82/3	59.0	19.2		n/a	
83/4	78.8	20.5		80.4	
84/5	113.0	23.0		48.9	
85/6	81.6	15.5	~98.5	42	~31.8

(N.B. Figures from Kensington & Norwood were unobtainable from the council.)

Key: 50m,L,T,D,= 50metre, Learners, Toddlers, Diving pools;
 Attd = attendance figures recorded for that season;
 Pop = population in the local government authority;
 s = SA Swimming Pool Study, p 28; (see 10b)
 # = pool heated; ^ = waterslide added;
 * = 1971 census figures;
 ~ = Dept of Environment and Planning, Dec 1985 p 23.
 Projection of Pop. by Age & Sex for LGA's in the Adelaide Statistical Area, 1981-2001.

It is difficult to explain these figures. They are obviously at least partly affected by weather, 1978/9 apparently being a 'good' year and 1985/6 a 'bad' year in terms of weather influencing attendances. However, not all attendance figures can be explained by the weather, as one pool may record an upward curve at the same time as a neighbouring pool has a poor year. Some of the changes in attendance are due to factors such as Education Department usage which tends to vary significantly and unpredictably. Certainly two basic trends can be observed; attendances are generally erratic at all pools, and they are also declining overall, though the rate of decline varies considerably.

Table 8.6 Rate of Attendance Decline for Above Pools between 1974/5 and 1985/6.

LGA	% Change
Burnside	- 15.6
K & Norwood	N/A
Payneham	- 21.4 (from 1975/6)
TTG Modbury	- 21.6
TTG Dernancourt	- 52.3 (from 1976/7)
Salisbury S C	- 19.1
Salisbury PHSC	- 67.4
Elizabeth	- 60.1

Multi pool and heated complexes seem to fare rather better than others on the whole, though the effect seems to be disappointingly marginal. The catastrophic decline at Elizabeth can be explained at least partly by the renovations which took approximately two years to complete. The expense and poor publicity incurred over this may take some overcoming, even when the pool is properly reopened. The other two pools with large declines are small and unheated and have little to offer the public.

If the attendance figures are linked with LGA population figures (see below), the decline becomes even more pronounced, but there are also some interesting anomalies.

Table 8.7. Population Changes in some Adelaide LGA's, 1971-1981. (Recorded in 000's).

LGA	Total 1971	Yrs 0-21	Total 1981	Yrs 0-20
Burnside	39.3	12.7	37.5	9.6
Payneham	17.5	6.1	16.5	4.2
Tea Tree Gully	36.7	16.7	67.2	26.3
Salisbury	56.2	21.0	86.4	34.9
Elizabeth	33.3	16.4	32.6	12.5
Kensington & Norwood	11.0	3.5	8.9	1.8

Payneham and Burnside are located in established areas, with populations which are both declining in numbers and ageing in profile, yet their fall in attendances is considerably less than in Tea Tree Gully and Salisbury which have rapidly increasing populations, particularly of young people. Conventional wisdom says that the clientele of a public pool is composed mainly of young people, but this may need modification in the light of the above.

At least part of the general decline is due to the widespread reliance on recreational swimming to make up the numbers. As has been explained earlier, most pools had their existence predicated on the need, rarely tested by formal research, for recreational swimming. While this may have been the case in the fifties and sixties it has long ceased to be valid, and pools with inadequate programming and poor facilities have simply ceased to be relevant to today's needs. Personal mobility and a greatly widened choice of alternative activities and

venues allows patrons to avoid the poorly designed or managed facility, and so attendance has dropped. Since it has already been shown that recreational swimming is unpredictable, irregular and infrequent, the operation of expensive facilities for this kind of market is extremely risky. There are market segments out in the community for the properly designed and managed facility and they relate to the concerns of the nineteen eighties, - those of community health and fitness, an ageing population, and a population increasingly involved in sophisticated water related recreational activities.

As part of that attendance package, school use is a very important aspect of attendance profiles generally. While general attendance patterns have fallen over the years, especially for outdoor unheated pools (O/U), school attendances have often risen and have thus assumed vital importance in the economics of pool use. At five O/U pools in the Melbourne metropolitan area in 1976, the percentage of school use varied from 15 to 38 per cent of all users, with the average percentage being 16 per cent ⁽¹¹⁾. At indoor heated pools (I/H) during the same period of the months of June and July (in the old 3 term year), the average use by school was 34 per cent, ranging from 10-68 per cent of all users. These figures; even without further details, and the obvious variations between pools, indicate that schools attendance is an extremely important component of an attendance profile. There are not only marked variations between pools and between years, but also in monthly attendances,

which make management and planning very difficult. The table below is a closer analysis of a pool in Adelaide, situated in the northern suburbs, an area of sharply rising population; as an example it is felt to be fairly typical of most pools of its type.

Table 8:8 An Analysis of Monthly Attendance Figures over an Eight Year Period, 1974/5 - 1981/2 (12).
Salisbury Swimming Centre. (in 000's).

Year		Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apl	May
74/5	GP	2.1	8.9	11.4	21.8	19.4	2.3	-	-
	S	-	10.9	4.7	-	11.6	7.6	-	-
	T	2.1	19.9	16.2	21.8	31.0	9.8	-	-
75/6	GP	1.1	15.8	17.1	14.9	13.5	5.2	-	-
	S	-	6.3	1.5	-	2.4	5.3	-	-
	T	1.1	22.1	18.6	14.9	15.9	10.6	-	-
76/7 #	GP	-	5.8	10.9	18.3	8.2	1.2	.005	-
	S	-	3.4	2.0	-	2.9	2.9	-	-
	T	-	9.2	12.9	18.3	11.1	4.1	.005	-
77/8	GP	2.5	5.2	11.5	14.6	7.5	3.1	.015	-
	S	-	3.8	4.9	2.0	1.9	2.2	4.2	-
	T	2.5	9.0	16.4	16.6	9.4	5.3	4.2	-
78/9	GP	.004	4.8	6.9	23.7	7.4	.8	.055	-
	S	-	3.2	3.8	3.1	1.6	4.9	.012	-
	T	.004	8.0	10.8	26.8	9.0	5.7	.067	-
79/80	GP	1.9	6.4	8.2	12.6	7.8	1.5	.6	.03
	S	3.2	3.1	1.3	-	5.2	.5	.1	.05
	T	5.1	9.6	9.5	12.6	13.0	2.0	.7	.08
80/81	GP	1.8	9.6	9.7	19.6	7.2	.5	.55	.02
	S	2.5	.6	13.2	5.7	.8	3.2	3.6	-
	T	4.3	10.3	22.9	25.4	8.0	3.7	4.1	.02
81/82	GP	2.1	3.1	4.6	19.2	4.5	2.4	.5	-
	S	.008	11.8	8.9	-	.8	7.9	3.1	-
	T	2.1	14.9	13.5	19.2	5.3	10.3	3.6	-

[# pool was heated during this year.]

[GP = general public; S = schools; T = total attendance.]

The wide variations in attendance patterns are normal unless there is very close supervision of schools attendances and management strategies to overcome this. The monthly pattern (13) is supported by evidence from Victoria which found that the monthly profile for school attendance in O/U pools was...

November:	schools	provide	15 - 25	per cent	of	all	users,
December:	"	"	20 - 35	per cent	"	"	"
January:	none,	but	learn	to	swim	programmes	are
							usually
							heavy,
February:	schools	provide	30 - 40	per cent	of	all	users,
March:	"	"	approx	75	per cent	"	"

The importance of school use to a public pool cannot therefore be underestimated. As the water cools down at the end of the summer the schools participation becomes increasingly important as other clients drop off.

Generally speaking schools cannot afford to exercise much choice in where they swim because of the need to cut travel costs and time to a minimum. Although teachers would prefer warmer water, especially for the junior primary age group, if the nearest pools are outdoor and unheated then that is usually where they have to go. Even so, there is evidence that the financial costs of mounting swimming programmes have become such that individual schools or pupils have to drop out when parents cannot meet the travels costs involved (Methven 1979 & 1982).

The major problem concerning school use of public pools is their extreme variability in attendance patterns as shown in the above tables. This is partly caused by the way bookings and the Learn-to-Swim teaching programme is organised. In

South Australia in particular this has caused problems at some pools where the organiser, who is the head swimming teacher and is paid by the Department of Education, through incompetence or laziness has not fully booked out the pool during the school blocks, thus leaving it empty with loss of income during those periods. Unless pool managers can control all aspects of the management of their pools then it is impossible to make them viable.

Summary of Public Pools.

Given the information above, and that of the previous two chapters, it is obvious that the planning, design and operation of public pools is fraught with considerable problems. Public pools will always be an expensive exercise for the providing agency and few will ever make a profit. Not only are there major capital works involved in their provision, which inevitably incur large debt servicing charges, but they are expensive to operate, requiring considerable investment in labour and maintenance to ensure public health and safety. Because of this there will never be total reliance on the commercial sector to provide these facilities. Where commercial pools exist they will be on a relatively small scale, 25m pools or less, and catering for an assured market, therefore serving only part of the swimming fraternity. Activities such as recreational swimming, water polo, diving and scuba training, where the throughput is

irregular, unpredictable or low in numbers would therefore miss out.

For the reasons outlined in Chapter Three the traditional provision of public swimming pools often occurred with generally ill conceived and poorly thought out design and management strategies, and on flimsy planning evidence. Poor designs were endlessly copied around the country, management was rarely matched with design, and social changes over the last two decades have wrought their own problems. The resulting long term deficits from such ill planned facilities will cost the community more in the long run than their initial capital expense.

Over and above all this is the fact that we now have direct political and bureaucratic interest in recreation provision and a public which is better educated and has much higher community expectations regarding that provision. The public is no longer prepared to put up with poorly run and designed facilities and their interests have moved on to a more sophisticated level, so attendances have generally declined.

There is no reason why public pools do not still have a place, as the leisure/recreation interest of the eighties concerns much which is water based, but they will need to be of a standard which appeals to todays community by catering to their direct needs. Otherwise public pools will remain

an expensive duplication of what many people already have at home, the backyard pool.

Introduction to Backyard Pools.

It is normal for public pool managers to blame their falling attendances on the backyard pool and this is a plausible reason, but it is one without any real proof. The backyard pool is part of the personalisation process of the recreation spectrum discussed in Chapter Five, and is a very good illustration of the process involved. For the purposes of this chapter, backyard pools are defined as those pools large enough to require a filtration system and which are permanently located within a private yard or garden.

In Australia the increase in pools has been apparent since the late sixties, a decade, it should be noted, when there was almost full employment, housing (and suburbia) was increasing very rapidly, and local councils built many outdoor, unheated "olympic" public swimming pools. For a while these pools were popular and crowded spots during summer, offering as they did a cool focus in hot weather to young people, especially in an otherwise empty and often treeless suburb, and because of their success more of the same were built. As suburbia began to acquire other foci, and barren housing estates turned into homes with second cars, air conditioning, gardens, trees, patios, and outdoor living areas, it was only a short step from there to the aquisition of a backyard pool. There was

therefore not the same need to find a public pool in which to cool off after work or school, so there were fewer spontaneous recreation visits to public swimming pools.

The lack of research on backyard pools became obvious when the writer was engaged in the strategy plan for public pools in Melbourne in 1978/9. The only serious research available at that time was as a result of study into private garden use and design, and did not refer to the provision of public facilities at all ⁽¹⁴⁾. A series of suburban studies in the mid 1970's was also done by Watkins et al., (1974 & 75), giving ownership of pools in certain areas, but the term was not defined and could have meant anything. As a result of this parlous state of affairs the writer proposed a major study into the use and spread of backyard pools in Melbourne as an indication of recreation personalisation and its effects on public provision. A pilot study involving the local government area of the City of Knox was carried out as Knox was itself interested in pool provision at the time and saw advantages in being used as a guinea pig in the research. ⁽¹⁵⁾ The pilot study was carried out in 1979/80, but the writer left the Department of Youth Sport and Recreation and moved interstate before the full scale study could be undertaken. Subsequent ministerial and government changes have meant alterations in priorities and the full study has never been taken up by other researchers in the Department.

Most of the literature concerning backyard pools refers to building and maintenance, and much of it is trade or media based in origin, coming from interest groupings within the pool building industry, or from chemical, accessories, and maintenance firms. (16) Many of these have trade journals and national or state exhibitions. Their products have been competitively marketed, aggressively so from some firms, and in Australia at least this has led to some consumer problems. Other information refers mainly to the proper use of chemicals and water quality control, a matter which has exercised the energies of both State and Local Government Health Inspectors (17), especially after the amoebic meningitis scare a few years back. Other public health problems have included offensive smell or noise from pools, and, in very bad cases, the breeding of mosquitos from stagnant water.

Consumer Problems involving Backyard Pools.

The consumer problems mentioned earlier can be serious. Backyard pools are expensive projects, costing anything up to about \$15,000, and the industry was not well regulated until recently. It has been investigated in both Victoria and South Australia, with both States showing remarkably similar patterns although those in Victoria peaked a little earlier. In Victoria the Consumer Affairs Bureau records all complaints made to it and an investigative officer attempts to hear both sides of the matter, referring it on if this is appropriate. For some consumers however, the mere act of

talking to an impartial mediator is sufficient to calm tempers and resolve the situation. If the complaint is found to be warranted then the officer will approach the firm involved and try to resolve the situation by putting a little informal, or, if necessary, formal pressure on the company concerned. If this fails to settle the dispute the complainant can take the matter to the Small Claims Tribunal for a nominal fee. In the table below the 'complaints' refer to the initial investigation, and the 'claims' refer to those formally taken to the SCT.

Table 8.9 Analysis of Consumer Complaints and Claims in Victoria Referring to Backyard Pools.

	74/5	75/6	76/7	77/8	78/9
Complaints	5	78	86	67	70
Claims	?	13	13	29	15

[Sources Victorian Consumer Affairs Bureau Annual Reports].

The figures given above should be treated with a little caution since not only can they be said to reflect the state of the backyard industry but also reflect increasing public knowledge of the CAB and its work, and therefore the growing likelihood of consumers taking matters to the Bureau if they feel it is warranted. However, insofar as these figures reflect the state of the industry they appear to back up the statements of the CAB spokesman and the Victorian Swimming Pool Association that the standard of work is improving and that the fringe operators may have come and gone. In the mid seventies the state of the industry was such that two years running the Department of Consumer Affairs gave over

two pages of its annual reports, (ending 6/75 and 6/76), to the backyard pool industry.

"Complaints, from (sic) at least 30 different pool companies, are depressingly similar. Delays, broken promises, work not completed, poor workmanship, cost increases, failure of pool parts, poor after installation, but mainly delays".
(para 18.2, p59. Report ending 30/6/75).

In South Australia the pattern is repeated in almost identical fashion a few years later. The Consumer Affairs Division operates in much the same way as the Victorian CAB, with the emphasis on conciliation through negotiation rather than through arbitration. If this cannot be achieved then matters are referred to the Builders Licensing Board, and, if necessary, to a Small Claims Court. However in this case the upper limit of \$1000 for the SCC means that most backyard pool matters would need to be referred through a solicitor to an ordinary court. The effect of this is that statistics on court referrals for pools are extremely difficult to find, and probably fewer such matters get that far anyway because of the daunting aspect (and cost) of going to court. The establishment of the Tribunal as part of the conciliation process in South Australia should make it easier for consumers to pursue such problems. An analysis of the complaints about backyard pools over the years 1978-84 is given overleaf.

Table 8.10 Backyard Pools Complaints. Analysis for South Australia.
[Section 5(e), Appendix 2 Annual Reports, pages as indicated].

	C.I/G	FG.I/G	A/G	Other	Total	Equipment
Dec 1978:22	12	18	7	27	64	-
Dec 1979:19	18	7	1	32	58	-
Dec 1980:41	19	18	2	33	72	-
June 1981:41 #	28	16	3	19	66	-
June 1982:48	29	22	3	15	69	39
June 1983:68	49	22	8	16	95	46
June 1984:44	40	18	8	14	80	43

(# =6 month period).

(C.I/G refers to concrete in-ground pool, FG.I/G refers to fibreglass in-ground pool. A/G is above ground).

In both States the profile is similar; increasing numbers of consumer complaints culminating in special reports and/or the naming of specific companies by the Commissioner for Consumer Affairs. This usually results in a tightening up of the industry, the weeding out of unfair practices and shoddy workmanship, and the gradual establishment of an industry association prepared to wield a little industrial muscle to improve performances, all of which of course safeguards the good operators. A lengthy report to the Minister of Consumer Affairs in June of 1983 (18) described the unacceptable situation in South Australia, certain companies and operators were named, and the SPASA heavily criticised. The Commissioner noted a considerable improvement in the situation in the following year, and especially the performance of SPASA.

In both States most consumer problems are with in-ground pools (I/G), which is not surprising since they are the most expensive and have to be built or installed by contractors.

Most above ground pools (A/G) are of the Do-It-Yourself (DIY) variety and though there may be problems in erecting them these generally refer to an underestimation of site preparation required and lack of care and attention to detail. Problems with I/G pools refer to poor materials, garden damage, broken pipes, trees and drains, leaks in the tank, cheap finishes, and incomplete work, all things which can be very costly to put right. Serious as these consumer problems are it would be wrong to make too much of the complaints levelled against the industry, since for every recorded complaint there are dozens of satisfied consumers getting many hours of pleasure from their pools (19). However, it was also found in Knox that there are a number of consumers whose problems are not taken as far as Consumer Affairs for a number of reasons. One of the more obvious facts from a study of the CAB files⁴ in Victoria was that the majority of complaints were filed by professional people or those for whom education and occupation gave them some facility with the written word. It may be argued that such people are the most likely to have a backyard pool and there is some weight to this point of view. It disregards though that section of the population who are in high risk or highly skilled occupations whose income is easily the equal of professional people, but who rarely feel equal to putting things on paper in an official way. It also disregards the ethnic groups who may be ignorant of the existence of

Consumer Affairs or whose English is quite unequal to the task of speaking to officialdom.

This point has been laboured a little since it is felt that consumer experiences may colour peoples' perceptions of their pools as a recreational acquisition. A backyard pool is not a cheap option either to purchase or to maintain, and the service side of private provision has a lot to do with the satisfaction gained from the purchase and the use made of it. An unexpected and interesting feature of the Salisbury study was the discovery of a large category of past owners of backyard pools, 131/930 or 14 per cent of all respondents. Since the number of past-owners of backyard pools may therefore be considerable, and there are some real horror-stories of consumer problems in the building of pools, it is not unreasonable to assume there may be a link between these two facts. In any event, it would appear that there is a two way process going on here. Where the attempt to personalize recreation proves unsatisfactory, people can and do reverse the process, moving back to group based and public facilities. The general recreation literature has tended to infer that the personalisation of leisure is an irreversible process, but in this case at least it does not appear to be so.

Numbers of Backyard Pools in Australia and South Australia.

 It is very difficult to get precise numbers of backyard pools, and most figures 'quoted in official surveys should be regarded with caution. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) has conducted two nationwide Energy Surveys of Households in 1980 and 1983 which included 'swimming pools' (# ABS Cat no 8212.0).

Their figures are as follows....

Table 8.11 Numbers of Swimming Pools estimated from the National Energy Surveys of 1980 and 1983.

	November 1980		June 1983	
NSW	142,500	8.4%	198,600	11.2%
NSW Households	1,676,700		1,762,200	
VIC	102,000	8.1%	117,100	9%
Vic Households	1,249,000		1,293,900	
QLD	55,900	7.7%	75,500	9.6%
Qld Households	722,500		780,500	
WA	45,300	10.9%	51,300	11.7%
WA Households	412,800		435,600	
TAS	5,000	3.7%	6,000	4.3%
TAS Households	133,400		138,000	
NT	4,200	13.9%	5,300	15.9%
NT Households	30,100		33,300	
ACT	4,900	7 %	5,400	7.2%
ACT Households	69,700		74,000	
SA	29,800	6.7%	32,800	7.0%
SA Households	443,000		463,500	
Total Pools	389,400	8.2%	492,000	9.8%
Total Households	4,737,300		4,981,100	

[The Definition of a 'swimming pool' appears to include I/G and A/G pools, with exclusive household use, and excluding spas and hot tubs (20).]

(i) There are no climatic surprises in this table; Tasmania is far below the national average, and WA and NSW and especially the Northern Territory, are well above.

(ii) All States have gained in numbers with the biggest percentage increase being in the NT. The biggest in real terms is NSW with a gain of 56,100, a curious comparison with the figures given below by CASPA.

(iii) All figures given by ABS are substantially down on those given by CASPA below.

Table 8.12 I/G and A/G pools in Mainland Australia as estimated in annual reports of CASPA dated June 1978 and June 1985. (21).

1978. STATE	I/G	%	A/G	%	All	%
NSW	125,000	32	260,000	68	385,000	44
VIC	36,000	19	156,000	81	192,000	22
QLD	28,000	20	110,000	80	138,000	16
WA	22,000	21	81,000	79	103,000	12
SA	23,000	43	30,000	57	53,000	6
Total	234,000	27	637,000	73	871,000	
1985						
NSW	127,000	35	235,000	65	362,000	33
VIC	51,000	20	200,000	80	251,000	23
QLS	114,000	43	150,000	57	264,000	24
WA	47,500	39	75,000	61	122,500	11
ACT	4,000	38	6,600	62	10,600	1
SA	38,500	51	37,000	49	75,500	7
Total	382,000	35	703,600	65	1,085,600	

(i) The first thing that needs to be said is that all these figures are only estimates, and the CASPA figures in particular are suspiciously rounded. There is apparently no easy way of keeping accurate figures from the trade as there is no mandatory licensing required by either vendors or buyers (22).

(ii) A second factor is that not all pools sold by the trade end up in the backgardens of homes. Some are sold to hotels and motels, caravan parks, institutions, and clubs, or are used as receiving tanks for water slides at other venues.

(iii) In all States in-ground pools have become more important over the seven year period mentioned above, both in percentage terms and in real numbers, whereas above ground pools appear to have waned slightly in comparison. Only in South Australia are there apparently more I/G than A/G pools, but as a general rule the ratio appears to have moved from 1:4 in 1978 to 1:3 in 1985.

(iv) There has been a significant increase in pools of both kinds in Qld, and a quite significant increase in SA. Victoria and WA have exhibited moderate increases but NSW has an unexplained decrease in numbers over the same period.

(v) The type of I/G pool varies from State to State according to the strengths of the resident industries. According to the SPASA spokesman in Qld, Victoria and ACT about 95 per cent are concrete, in SA and NSW about 75 per cent are concrete, and in WA about 75 per cent are fibreglass (23).

Table 8.13 Number of Persons per Pool in 1978 and 1985 in Mainland Australian States. (in '000s)

STATE	1978			1985		
	Population	Pools	persons per pl	Population	Pools	persons per pl
NSW	5,053.8	385	13.1	5,504.9	362	14.8
VIC	3,863.8	192	20.1	4,141.2	251	16.0
QLD	2,172	138	15.7	2,567.2	264	9.3
WA	1,227	103	11.9	1,421.6	122.5	11.1
ACT	218	N/A		258.8	10.6	22.3
SA	1,296.2	53	24.4	1,367.5	75	17.8
Total	13,831.7	871	15.8	15,851.8	1,085.6	13.6

(i) The growth of backyard pools is demonstrated with the above table indicating that although the population has increased, backyard pools have increased at a faster rate. In all States except NSW there were fewer persons to a pool in 1985 than there were in 1978.

(ii) In NSW the increase in population coupled with the apparent decrease in pools means that there are almost two persons more per pool than in 1978. It still remains relatively well provided for compared with other States, as anyone who has recently flown over Sydney will testify.

(iii) South Australia is not particularly well off for backyard pools, especially compared with WA and Qld.

Table 8.14 Percentage of Dwellings with Pools by States in Mainland Australia.

State	Dwellings	Pools	%	Dwellings	Pools	%
	1976	1978		1981	1985	
NSW	1,499,001	385,000	25.6	1,669,596	362,000	21.6
VIC	1,126,304	192,000	17	1,243,453	251,000	20.1
QLD	602,426	138,000	22.9	703,964	264,000	37.5
WA	339,105	103,000	30.3	405,999	122,500	30.1
ACT	57,132	N/A		68,740	10,600	15.4
SA	392,253	53,000	13.5	433,841	75,000	17.2
Total	3,966,221	871,000	21.9	4,525,593	1,085,600	23.9

(i) The figures must be regarded with caution since they refer to different years. Numbers of Dwellings refer to figures compiled in the 1976 and 1981 censuses. They do not match the years for which the pools are given. The numbers of dwellings have been taken from the Australian Year Book of 1985:404-5.

(ii) Private dwellings were classified by the census collector as a separate house, semi-detached house, row or terrace house, medium density housing, caravan/houseboat, or house attached to shops etc. It did not refer to hotel, motels, caravan parks, educational, health, religious, defence or penal establishments, etc many of which may well have a small pool in their grounds.

(iii) With these caveats in mind it is still interesting to see the apparent rate of provision per dwelling. In percentage terms there is no shift in WA, a slight shift in VIC and SA, a slight loss in NSW and a substantial increase in Qld. If those figures are to be believed over one third of all occupied dwellings in that State have backyard pools, compared with South Australia's one sixth of all dwellings.

An ABS survey on "Use of Water Appliances by Households in South Australia in November 1982 (Cat No 8709.4) gave State figures as follows:

Table 8.15 Number of Households with Swimming Pools in the Adelaide Statistical Division, and S.A.

	Number	%
ASD Pools	31,750	11.2
ASD Households	283,250	
Rest of SA Pools	4,500	3.6
Rest Households	123,700	
<hr/>		
Total SA Pools	36,250	8.9
Total Households	406,950	
<hr/>		

No printed definition was given of swimming pools but it may be assumed to be similar to that given above. However, the lack of a definition may be a real drawback when considering country pools especially.

It can be seen from the above tables that figures relating to backyard pools are extremely vague, even on a statewide basis. The variability between the various sets of figures relate in part to the fact that many are the result of extrapolations from sample surveys which is always dangerous, or from trade figures which do not relate to those sold to householders. If figures for statewide numbers are vague, a regional breakdown within a metropolitan statistical division becomes even more speculative. Gross figures collected from rather small surveys, eg the ABS survey 8709.4 (see table above) which collected information on 5000 private dwellings (approx 1 per cent of SA's Population), are unlikely to be statistically valid below the level of Statistical Sub-Division for instance, and regional differences may not be apparent.

(24)

In at least one major report not only have figures been used very casually, but inferences have been made with regard to

percentages of households with pools in individual local government areas, inferences which at best are highly speculative and which the ABS staff are very dubious about making with their own figures (25). The Swimming Pool and Spa Association of SA could not put figures on regional differences in Adelaide, although SPASA suggested that until the recession in about 1982, the Salisbury and Elizabeth area exhibited very strong growth. More recently the SE suburbs of Adelaide are the strongest sales area. Currently sales are in the region of 1500 a year throughout the State, with about 500 spa units also being sold a year.

Regardless of the finer details there is sufficient evidence here to support the contention that backyard pools are now numerous enough to have a significant impact on recreation both in the home and at publicly provided facilities.

Research into Backyard Pools.

The research by the writer into backyard pool usage needs some explanation. The Knox study (1979/80) has already been mentioned and another study was done in the City of Salisbury (SA) in 1982, but for different purposes and therefore along rather different lines, so they are not strictly comparable. However, both included a study of backyard pools as part of the general study.

The Knox study included:-

- (i) identification of backyard pools;
- (ii) questionnaire on recreation patterns to LGA residents;

- (iii) a trade questionnaire to all pool operators listed in the Yellow Pages within the Melbourne metropolitan area;
- (iv) discussion with consumer affairs officers;
- (v) discussion with local government officers with interests in backyard pools;
- (vi) in-depth interviews with families in the Knox area; these were selected for two reasons.....
 - a) they had backyard pools and were living very close to a public pool;
 - b) they had just applied for building permission to build a backyard pool. This was to be part of a before and after study, though due to the writer's move interstate the 'after' stage never took place.
- (vii) a survey on council pool use. This was done by Knox officers just prior to the study, and because of this, and the fact that it was handled rather casually, survey details were not used in the study.

The Salisbury study was done in 1982 to review the operations of the existing public pools in that local government area, and to examine the trend in backyard pools in Salisbury with respect to the demographic development of this outer northern suburb and the management of the recreation facilities of that council. It had a number of components which included.....

- (i) a user survey of the northern suburbs public pools;
- (ii) a household survey of Salisbury LGA residents; (see Appendix C)
- (iii) lengthy discussions with pool personnel and committees of management
- (iv) identification of backyard pools within the Salisbury LGA.

It therefore had several components which were very similar to the Knox study.

Locating and counting backyard pools remains a tedious and timeconsuming business. Official estimates of pools may be very inaccurate because intending owners may not notify the authorities, and some local councils do not keep records

of permit applications anyway, at least in a form which identifies backyard pools as such. In the event Knox and Salisbury both kept records but it was still thought that a head count using aerial photographs was the surest method. Most metropolitan areas have a complete photographic coverage flown every two years, and the most recent ones were purchased. There was a problem with the ones covering Knox as for some reason the photographic cover areas were flown at different heights, which meant that there was a strip down the middle of Knox where stereoscopic vision was unobtainable. The Salisbury coverage, flown in 1981, was excellent. Colour photos, which would have made the task considerably easier, were not available for Knox in 1979 and too expensive for the very large area of Salisbury in 1982.

Although this is a painstaking way of counting pools it was considered at the time as being reasonably foolproof as identification skills rapidly improved. Using stereoscopes it is possible to identify such pools quite easily, to discriminate between in-ground and above-ground pools, and even those with covers on them. Inevitably some pools are missed; those shaded by trees are impossible to see, but it is thought that on balance that these are compensated by other things being wrongly identified as pools, shiny caravan roofs being easy to mistake for water by the inexperienced viewer. Pools located using the stereoscope were transferred

to relevant cadastral maps on a 1:10,000 scale which was considered ideal for suburban location.

Figure 2 indicates the general spread of backyard pools in the Salisbury Council Area, but before discussing that it is worth taking a few lines to paint a broad brush picture of the area as there are a number of factors which make planning particularly difficult. Firstly its geographical spread is comparatively large, over 160 square kilometres. It is also an awkwardly fragmented area, being divided up into segments by Parafield Airport (26) and The Levels, The Defence Research Establishment, a creek (Little Para River), and major NE/SW arterial roads and a railway. Interspersed with this are pockets of light and heavy engineering, railyards, market gardens and holding paddocks. Geographically therefore, many areas within Salisbury Council Area feel remote from each other and from the location of the council offices, which exacerbates the feeling of fragmentation and the "them and us" attitude towards Council (Methven 1982, Vol.1, Chap 4).

There are extreme social differences as well, residential development varying from very expensive on the one hand to run-down private rental on the other, with a full range of owner occupied and Housing Trust housing in between. There are also extensive tracts of small-holdings in the area. There are families living in extreme poverty and those who, by any scale or measure, are in very comfortable circumstances.

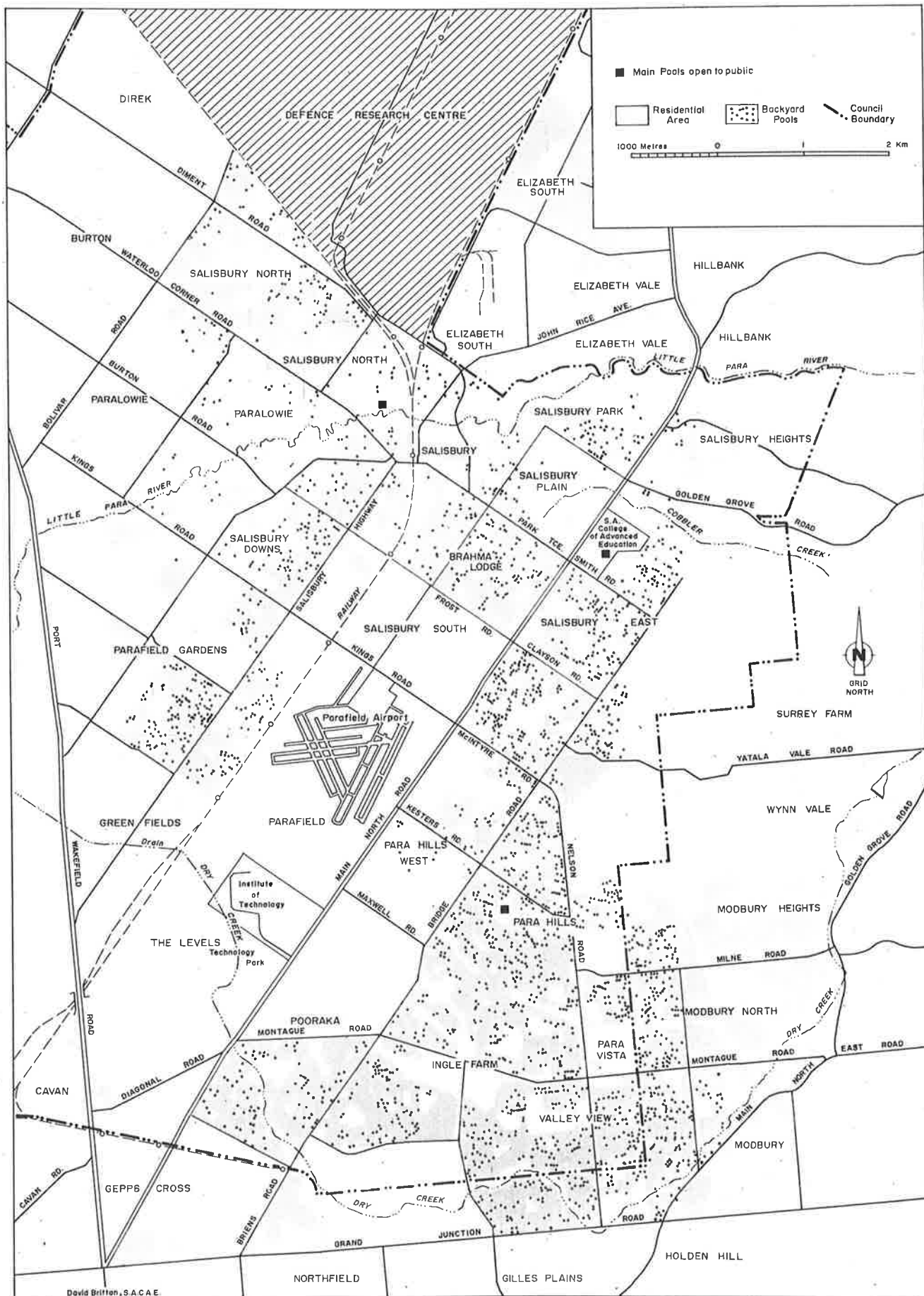


FIGURE 2. Location & Distribution of Backyard Pools in the Salisbury Local Government Area.

There is a comparatively large number of "problem" families and a higher than average number of unemployed in the area, as Salisbury and Elizabeth were built around the white goods and car manufacturing industries, both of which have fallen on very hard times in recent years.

Distribution and Numbers of Local Backyard Pools.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of backyard pools in the Salisbury Council area which were identified from the aerial photographs. They show their relative numbers between the different areas of Salisbury and also their relationship with the public pools of the area. There are two small commercial pools within the council boundaries but these have been excluded on account of their size.

Figure 2 shows the heaviest concentration of backyard pools in the south of the area. This has been the longest developed of the urban area, and it is also poorly served by public pools, the Para Hills Swimming Centre being an odd shape, small and cold, (it has since been closed). Because it was limited in its usefulness, and because residents were too far from the major pool in Salisbury North, many homeowners have obviously decided to acquire their own pools, and some of these are in very close proximity to the public pool (27). There is another large swimming centre in Modbury, (in the Tea Tree Gully LGA) on the east side of the North East Road and Golden Grove Road junction, but this is too far away to be easily accessible because of the steep

escarpment which runs roughly along the boundary of the two council areas, and which acts as both a physical and a perceptual barrier to easy access.

An area which has far fewer backyard pools is the Salisbury North/Paralowie section where the main swimming centre is located. This is a major Housing Trust development and a large number of low income families here are unlikely to be able to afford a backyard pool. Further extensive private and Housing Trust development in the area will increase the numbers of people likely to use the Salisbury Swimming Centre. Up until now its location to the north of the creek and the busy Salisbury Interchange Centre has made access difficult for people from the southern areas.

The areas in the middle, that is, Brahma Lodge, Salisbury East and Salisbury Park are closest to the SACAE pool. This has its attractions because of diving boards and deep water, but is only open to the public for restricted hours so that it has only limited use for the casual swimmer. This being so, and with residents of those areas unlikely to let young children cycle through what is a very heavily used and congested area of Salisbury to reach the Salisbury Swimming Centre, it is perhaps not surprising that these areas also have a high number of backyard pools. It should be noted too that the whole Salisbury/Elizabeth area tends to have summer temperatures noticeably hotter than Adelaide as it is flat

(28)

terrain and well away from the sea .

The above information came from the aerial photographs survey, but when other methods were employed there was considerable variation in the figures reached, indicating the difficulty of obtaining firm data even on a micro basis.

Table 8.16 Estimated Numbers of Backyard Pools in the Salisbury LGA 1982.

(i) Building Permit Applications	1,465
(ii) From aerial photograph count	2,292
(iii) From Household Survey	approx:1,767

Points relating to the above figures are given below:-

(i) Building Permits: Many householders do not apply for building permission, either through ignorance or cussedness. Council officers in many LGA's are frequently unaware of pools unless brought to light in the course of other work. The above number is therefore likely to be understated.

(ii) The aerial photograph count could well have been inflated by over-enthusiastic identification, but on the other hand the photographs were 12 months old at the time of use. It is thought that these factors have probably cancelled each other out.

(iii) The results of the 10 per cent sample of Salisbury households produced 179/930 or 19 per cent of respondents with background pools. This figure may have been considerably inflated by the bias of respondents to the questionnaire which was about recreation generally and swimming in particular (29). In the Knox pilot study the ownership rate appeared to be approximately 15 per cent, of which the majority were A/G of quite moderate size.

Backyard Pool Ownership and Public Pool Usage.

Three surveys have tried to ascertain what linkage there is between ownership of a backyard pool and use of a public one. Two of these were part of the Household Surveys of Knox

and Salisbury, and will be referred to as such, the other was a survey of four northern suburbs public pools in the Salisbury and Elizabeth areas, and will be referred to as the Public Pool Users survey.

The Public Pool Users survey questioned every 10th person who left the pools over a weekend in March 1982 (30), and refers to recreational swimming only. The respondents numbered 380 and were distributed as follows..

Table 8.17 Pools of Origin in Northern Suburbs Survey, March '82.

Salisbury College Pool	67
Para Hills Swimming Centre	66
Salisbury Swimming Centre	113
Elizabeth Swimming Centre	133
(one unaccounted for)	1
	380

Table 8.18 Public Pool Survey Respondents with a Backyard Pool

No Answer	3	
Yes	53	13.9%
No	324	85.2%
	380	

The clear indication here is that those with a backyard pool are not generally attending a public facility. This was clearly reinforced in responses from the Salisbury householders survey.

Household Survey respondents were also asked where they went to swim and why. For pools in the Salisbury area or near vicinity the results were as follows:-

Table 8.19 Reasons and Venues chosen for Swimming.

P o o l s	R e a s o n s				
	Nearest	Best	Only	Heated	Other
Salisbury S.C.	145	25	19	7	18
Para Hills S.C.	81	2	7	-	5
Elizabeth S.C.	1	18	1	0	13
Tea Tree Gully	38	26	3	-	8

(i) The vast majority of decisions appear to be made on the basis of proximity; if a pool is close it is that one which people tend to use.

(ii) Some residents make a decision to travel to what is considered 'best' facilities. As Elizabeth has a diving pool it would be an attraction to patrons from other council areas. Tea Tree Gully did not have that attraction but was running many programmes and it is possible that this was the 'best' reason. 'Other' reasons concerned friends going, where clubs and other facilities were, visiting relatives etc,.

(iii) Para Hills Swimming Centre is such that proximity would be the only reason for use, as shown up by the above statistics as it is unheated, very narrow, and unsuitable for anything except water-play and learn to swim.

Respondents were also asked how long it took them to travel to the pool of their choice, and what mode of transport was used. This is a notoriously difficult question to evaluate since the perception of time taken to do something which is semi-automatic is likely to be very distorted.

Table 8.20 Travel Time and Travel Modes to Council Pool.

Travel Time			Travel Mode			
		%			%	
< 10 m	minutes	319	65	Foot	79	16
11- 20	minutes	126	26	Bike	9	
21 - 30	m	34	7	M.Bike	3	
31 - 45	m	8		Car	358	72
46 - 60	m	3		Bus	45	9
> 1 Hr		1		Train	4	

Reasonable proximity appears to be a major factor, with very few people prepared to travel for longer than 20

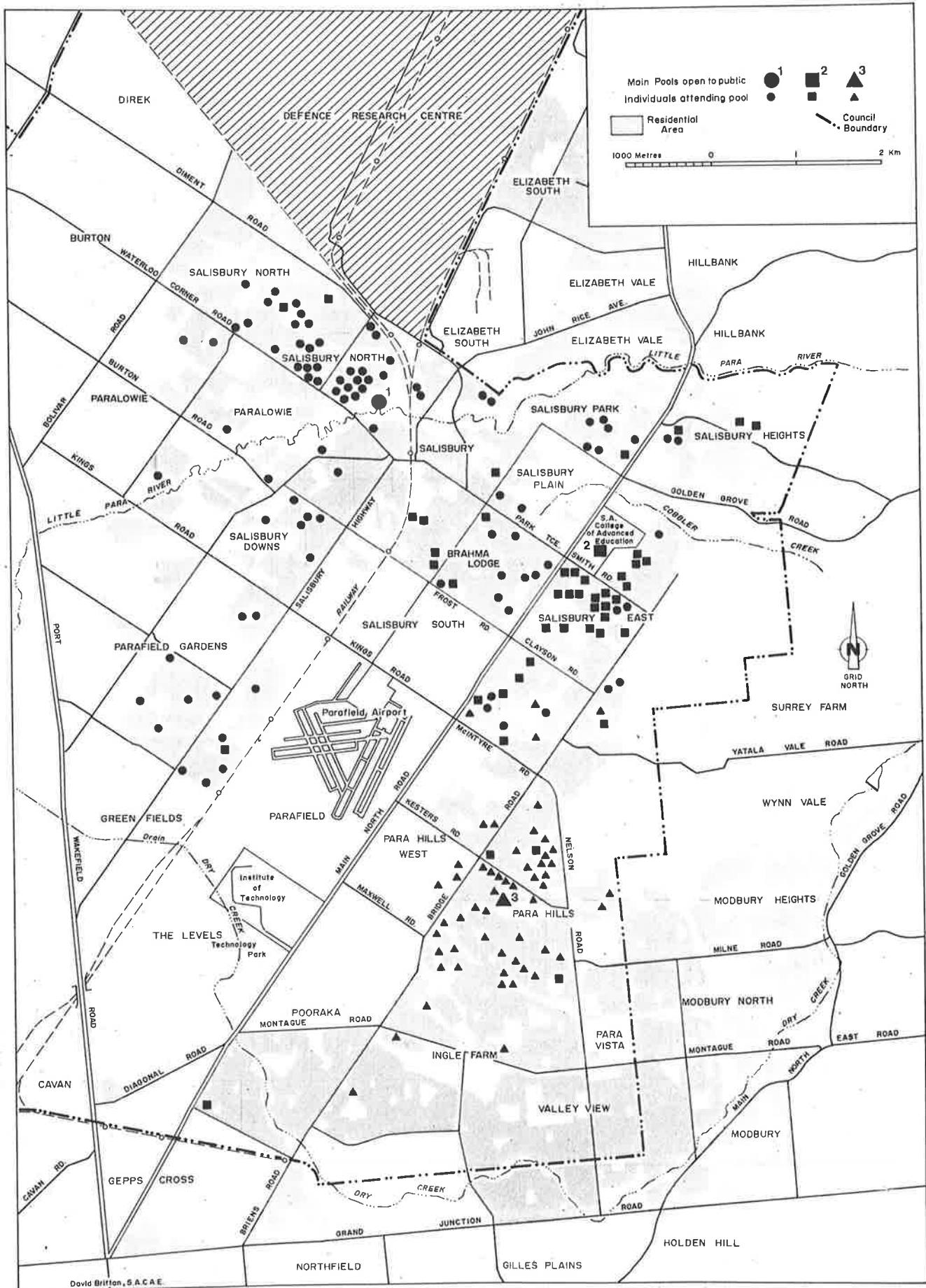


FIGURE 3. Catchments for Recreational Swimming for Three Pools in the Salisbury Local Government Area.

minutes regardless of their travel mode. This follows the general pattern which has been reported in the earlier chapters. The 'localness' factor was frequently underlined by comments made by respondents indicating such things as pools need to be close to be usable, and... reasons for purchase of own pool was that council pool was too far away.

The extreme 'localness' of catchment areas for recreational swimming in particular was demonstrated during the weekend Pool Users survey, with the results as shown in Figure 3. It shows the way catchments are skewed by the way urban residential development takes place, and by the location of a facility. Figure 3 also shows the inevitable anomalies, with people travelling past one facility to use another. However, it needs to be mentioned that distance to facilities cannot always be the deciding factor, as backyard pools are often located in gardens very close to, or even abutting, public pool grounds. It also shows that for larger pools and those with special attractions such as the Salisbury SC and the SACAE Salisbury pools that people are prepared to travel further compared with small and unattractive pools.

Reasons why Respondents Visited Public Pools.

Given these anomalies in recreational behaviour it is interesting to see whether there are differences in

attendance patterns from the different backyard pool status groups in the Salisbury Household survey.

Table 8.21 Council Pool Attendance by Backyard Pool Status, Salisbury Household Survey.

Count Row % Col %	Attendance at Council Pools					Row Total	
	Weekly	Fort nightly	Rarely	Never	N/A		
P o o l l e r s	Never	41	36	246	283	14	620
	Owned	6.6	5.8	39.7	45.6	2	-
		73.2	73.5	63.4	66.9	-	66.7
S t a t u s	Present	2	4	84	88	-	178
	Owners	1.1	2.2	47.2	49.4	-	-
		3.6	8.2	21.6	20.6	-	19.1
u s	Past	13	9	58	51	-	131
	Owners	9.9	6.9	44.3	38.9	-	-
		23.2	18.4	14.9	12.1	-	14.1
Column Total	56	49	388	423	-	930	
	6.0	5.3	41.7	45.5	-	-	

From this table it can be demonstrated that, although the total numbers are small in each category, there does appear to be a difference between the Non Owners and those who Presently Own a backyard pool in their attendance rates at council pools. Of the Present Owners only 3.3 per cent (N=6/178) could be called regular attenders at a public pool, the vast majority (31) (96.6%) rarely if ever attending. Past Owners appear to exhibit a drift back to public pools and in fact more of them proportionately attend regularly than either of the other groups.

Of Present Pool Owners who ever used a council pool

the most common reason was for lessons only, and with 9.5 per cent (N=17/178) was cited more than twice as often as any other reason. This infers compulsory attendance for a fixed time block and then no further attendance after that block is completed. From the managers' point of view it probably also infers entry at a reduced rate. Lessons were the more common reason for the other two backyard pool status groups but the discrepancies there between that reason and others was not nearly so marked. The general indication here is that people are willing to go to public pools for particular programmes but not for general and recreational use.

In the Public Pool Users survey the 53 respondents who answered in the affirmative in Table 8.18 gave varied reasons for attending such as..

Table 8.22 Reasons for Attending a Public Pool

Because the public pool is bigger	14	26.4%
Because the public pool is deeper	12	22.6%
Because of friends coming	7	13.2%
Because home pool is broken/dirty	12	22.6%
Other Reasons	8	

	53	

It should be remembered that these respondents were already participating in recreational swimming, unlike the household survey respondents. It would appear from the above answers though that the mere possession of a pool at home does not necessarily mean it is useable.

The search for deep water is of interest, especially as many local councils try to cut both capital and operating costs by providing pools which have a maximum depth of about six feet. By doing this it would seem possible that they are also cutting out a significant number of recreation swimmers for whom this is a real attraction. Most respondents who mentioned deeper water were at the Salisbury College and Elizabeth Pools, both of which have a diving facility.

In the Salisbury Household Survey the general response indicated that Present Owners of pools were very reluctant to visit public pools compared with other groups. All respondents were asked whether they went to a council or commercial pool to swim.

Table 8.23 Swimming Destinations and Frequency of Visits.

	Council		Commercial	
Weekly	56	6%	46	5%
Fortnightly	49	5%	2	
Rarely	388	42%	122	13%
Never	423	45%	630	68%
N/A	14	2%	130	14%

- (i) Clearly, the tendency here is that if people use a commercial pool at all, they go regularly and frequently. Most of those going to commercial pools went for lessons.
- (ii) The pattern is more even in council pools, but there is still a very large percentage of people who never attend. Regular attenders appear to be a very small proportion of the total population.

Respondents were also asked why they did not attend public pools. Ironically in view of falling attendances, the biggest single reason given for not attending was

'crowding'. Other reasons cited were distance from home, cold water, and no shade, and there was little or no difference between the three groups of backyard pool respondents in this. A very common response, again from all three groups, concerned public behaviour and its regulation at council pools. This was difficult to categorise statistically since it was given in different ways, often as a footnote to other comments rather than as a 'proper' response, but it is clearly perceived as being a problem by many people .

(32)

On the evidence submitted here there does appear to be some truth in the pools managers' statements of backyard pools being one of the main reasons for falling attendances at public pools. It is also worth remembering however that a large proportion of people, (approximately 57%) are simply not interested in water at all, and rarely if ever use any sort of pool, whether private or public.

Backyard Pools and Recreation Lifestyle.

As part of the household survey residents in Salisbury were asked to say whether or not they had a number of recreation items. The reason for doing this was to see if pool owners demonstrated lifestyles which were different from other respondents.

Table 8.24 Ownership of Recreation Items by Pool Status

Items	Col		Present Row		Past Row		Never Row	
	All	%	Owners	%	Owners	%	Owned	%
Caravan	110	12	38	35	23	21	49	45
Tent	304	33	69	23	45	15	190	63
Trail Bike	62	7	14	23	12	19	35	57
4 WD	23	2	1	4	5	22	17	74
Waterskis	41	4	10	24	6	15	25	61
Snowskis	12	1	3	25	3	25	6	50
Scuba Gear	31	3	2	6	7	27	22	71
Canoe	28	3	9	32	8	29	11	39
Sail boat	9	-	5	56	2	22	2	22
Powerboat	72	8	17	24	12	17	43	60
Surfboard	61	7	16	26	11	18	34	58
Fishing	479	52	100	21	84	18	294	61
Horse	29	3	4	14	7	24	18	62
Shack	26	3	7	27	5	19	14	54
Backyard pl	179	19	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	930		179	19	131	14	620	66

There are some limitations with this list in that the recreation items are all outdoors and thus will have coloured some responses.

However, there are still some interesting points..

(i) Overall Past and Present respondents owning other recreation equipment seems to be higher than their numbers alone would have indicated.

(ii) A surprising number of Present Owners have caravans or holiday shacks indicating perhaps that they still like to get away from their pool for holidays.

(iii) It does not seem as though pool owners have invested in a pool to the exclusion of everything else, or that the Never Owned category are particularly well endowed with other items of recreation equipment. It was rather expected that much clearer patterns of ownership would emerge from this question, which has not been the case here.

Family Structure and the Ownership of Pools.

It was thought that the kind of family structure might have a relation with pool ownership status.

Table 8.25 Household Composition by Pool Ownership Status in Salisbury.

	count row % col %	P o o l S t a t u s			
		Present Owners	Past Owners	Never Owned	All
H o u s e h o l d	adult(s) only	32 11 18	36 13 27	219 76 35	287 - 30
	adult(s) + 1 chdn	35 19 19	29 16 22	119 65 19	183 - 20
	adult(s) + 2 chdn	75 24 42	38 12 29	202 64 33	315 - 34
C o m p o s i t i o n	adult(s) + 3 chdn	25 25 14	18 18 14	57 57 9	100 - 11
	adult(s) + 4 or more chdn	9 28 5	7 22 5	16 50 3	32 - 3
	No answer	3	3	7	13
Totals		179	131	620	930

(i) Although 'adults only' households make up nearly one third of the total, few such households have ever been owners of backyard pools.

(ii) In the category of 'adults with 2 children' the rate of Present Ownership is highest and so, interestingly, is that of the Past Owners.

(iii) The Past Owners group is surprisingly high in all categories with children.

(iv) The Never Owned are never less than 50% regardless of family structure, but only in the 'adults only' group are they higher than would be expected on a percentage basis, and with large families they are under-represented.

(v) The table as a whole did not throw up the clear patterns which might have been expected. So it is reasonable from here to go on and ask why people acquire and dispose of different kinds of pools in their gardens.

Reasons for Purchase and Removal of Backyard Pools.

 In the Salisbury survey Present Pool owners were asked why they bought a pool, and were given a list of possible reasons and asked to rank them in order of priority. The options were:-

As a PLAY facility for the children
 To improve the VALUE of your home
 To TEACH the children how to swim
 To save PETROL on trips to the sea
 To eliminate the HASSLES of weekend driving
 Because the NEIGHBOURS had one
 To ENTERTAIN your/childrens' friends
 Because there are NO PUBLIC POOLS nearby
 Because the local pool is UNSATISFACTORY
 Other reasons (please specify)

This question caused respondents a few 'headaches'. Some left it out altogether, some could only give the first three or four options, some knew which reasons came first and last but could not order the middle rank, and yet others changed their minds so often the results were unreadable.

Table 8.26 Reasons for Installing a Pool.

Priorities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	All
Play	89	21	15	5	5	4	4	0	6	149
Value	3	11	15	12	14	21	17	22	15	130
Teach	20	55	15	21	9	7	3	4	8	142
Petrol	11	16	15	24	26	22	9	7	8	138
Hassles	10	12	22	30	27	13	9	4	10	137
Neighbours	0	2	1	0	4	6	14	16	46	89
Entertain	7	18	40	23	23	15	6	5	6	143
No Public Pls	2	9	6	12	8	18	27	27	23	132
Unsatisfactory	0	3	7	4	11	12	26	28	28	119
Other	15	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	21	51

The installation of a play facility for the children is clearly the most popular reason, along with lesser reasons such as teaching them to swim, and cutting down on weekend driving. In the middle of the range entertaining and increasing the home value were also fairly popular. Reasons pertaining to public pools were cited less often. The 'neighbours' option was clearly unpopular, but it is a fact that when counting pools from the air they can very frequently be seen in batches of three or four along a road. Perhaps it is not easy to admit to, even in a questionnaire .

(33)

The reasons given in the 'other' category were interesting and very varied, but overall three stood out . One was lack of access to a public pool, (not at all the same thing as proximity); the usual explanation here was "we are not on a bus route and only have one car". The other two reasons related to perceived conditions at a public pool; one was concern over people urinating (or worse) into a public pool, and the other was the "loutish" behaviour of certain groups of patrons at public pools. Both reasons were expressed

forcefully and sometimes colourfully, leaving no doubt that they regarded both as thoroughly unsocial behaviour. The latter comment came up several times in a number of places, not only from people with backyard pools but from a cross section of all respondents.

Although lack of proximity and poor access may be valid reasons for not attending a public pool they are certainly not valid reasons for all purchases of backyard pools. Some areas show backyard pools very close to public pools whereas in other areas this is less evident. Using the aerial photographs as illustrations (see back pocket), it is clear there are considerable differences. All these photos were taken in mid-February 1985 and show the immediate areas surrounding selected public pools in the northern and eastern suburbs of Adelaide.

Swimming Centres	Details of each photograph.
Salisbury S C. [Survey 3220/094]	The public pool is located in a reserve to the north of a small creek and the main shopping area. Backyard pools are not particularly numerous in this area but can be clearly seen on the north and south within about 250m of the public pool.
Para Hills SC. [3220/059]	The nearest pools here are within 100m of the public pool. This is an area where there are still a large number of young families.
Tea Tree Gully SC. [3217/186]	Although the public pool is cut off from immediate residential development by an arterial road, reserve and newly built retirement village, within about 500m in three directions there are a number of backyard pools of varying sizes. This is a family area, with many people establishing their first homes.

Payneham SC.
[3220/104]

The public pools is surrounded by reserves, council offices, institutions, and nursing homes. Although there are one or two pools within walking distance there are relatively few in this area as as befits older suburb inhabited mainly by older residents on smaller blocks.

Burnside SC.
[3220/050]

The public pool is situated in the middle of a reserve in an older area of slightly smaller blocks. Very few appear to have backyard pools within walking distance, and there are not many located within a 1 km radius.

One interesting fact here is seen to the SE which is the Hills Face Zone. Building is much more recent here and it can be surmized that families moving into this area have children as a number of them have backyard pools. However we are also entering a high fire risk area, indeed the scars of Ash Wednesday are still visible in this photo. An important secondary consideration for having a pool in such an area is as a fire tank in emergencies. This is where reasons for acquisition, and definitions as to what constitutes a backyard pool become a little confused (34).

It would seem from this evidence that it is the newer areas which have a higher incidence of backyard pools, and that distance from a public pool may not be a particularly significant reason for acquisition of a backyard pool, and other factors must obviously play a part in the decision to purchase one. The newer areas have a younger population and a larger percentage of young people, and readers are referred back to Tables 8.5, 8.6, and 8.7 to confirm this. It will also be remembered that Burnside and Payneham had slightly less marked attendance declines than other pools, significantly so when the other areas growing populations were taken into account. All this would

appear to add weight to the argument that backyard pools are taking the clientele away from the public pool.

Children and Safety.

Given the importance of childrens' use as a reason for installing backyard pools it is useful to see what ages these children are and how safe they may be in water.

Table 8.27 Pool Ownership by Age of Oldest Child.

%	Present Owners	Past Owners	Never Owned
0-4 yrs	6	8	14
5-9 yrs	15	15	18
10-14yrs	38	18	16
15-18yrs	18	25	11
19yrs	15	22	13
Others	8	14	28

It would seem from this table that the trend is against having a backyard pool while the children are very young, but as they get to a more responsible age it is seen in a more favourable light by parents. It should be noted that the ages cited refer to the oldest child of the family; due to the increase in data which would have been generated no attempt was made in the survey to obtain ages for all children in the family.

So far as the length of season is concerned the vast majority of users said they swam over a period of 3 to 4 months, depending on the summer. Not surprisingly children were by far the heaviest users of pools but 41 per cent of Present Pool owners said that both adults of the family swam several times a week in warm weather which was more than expected. Equally

however, there were many families whose adults hardly ever used the pool.

As well as the children of the household swimming regularly, the backyard pool also seems to be a focus for all their friends; 11 per cent of households said their children had friends in every day, 30 per cent had them several times a week, and 22 per cent said they had them in during weekends. Some respondents seemed to regret this, adding that their children always seemed to have large numbers of friends in, to the detriment of their own peace and quiet. Conversely, most respondents were very happy to see this, remarking that one of the reasons for having a backyard pool was "to keep the kids at home so I can see who they're with and what they're up to". That sentiment, expressed in different ways, surfaced a number of times in the questionnaire.

Safety of children is a subjective thing and the statistical data given here are open to much criticism. However, there are far too many child deaths in backyard pools, and it was hoped that just asking about the issue might stimulate further parental concern. One question related to the children being considered 'watersafe', (undefined), in an effort to gauge parental reaction to this.

Table 8.28 Parental Judgment whether Children are Watersafe.

Yes	No	Not Sure	Some Are	No Chdn	N/A	All
334	203	26	84	135	113	930

The danger here lies with those families for whom some children are 'watersafe' and others not, and, even more dangerous, those families who do not know. In any case it must be noted that this refers to parental confidence which may not reflect reality at all. Using a rather more concrete measure of watersafety, only 37 children from all respondent families had obtained their Bronze Medallion in Lifesaving.

Types of Pools and their Accessories.

Dimensions	N	%	Makes	N	%
<9 metres	94	53	Concrete	32	18
9 - 12 m	47	26	Fibreglass	21	11
12 - 15m	18	10	Vinyl	126	70
16 - 20m	9	5			
> 20m	1			179	
Don't Know	10				
	179				
			Accessories.		
In Ground	71	40	Gas Heating	3	
Above Ground	108	60	Solar Heating	2	
			Covers	63	
			Spas	3	
	179		Enclosure	1	

In spite of the beautiful pools which appear in magazines such as Homes and Gardens, it seems that most purchases of backyard pools are fairly basic. Data here indicate that the vast majority of pools are vinyl, small to moderate in size, basically above ground, and with very few extras of any kind. This appears to contradict the general trend indicated in the CASPA figures given in Table 8.12. A similar profile was also found in Knox a few years before, but there the percentage having water heaters of some kind

was a little higher. There is a reasonable similarity in socio-economic terms between Knox and Salisbury. Higher socio-economic areas would certainly have a higher ratio of more expensive pools as judged by personal observation in a number of major cities.

Indoor Pools. It is quite possible that there are a few indoor or fully enclosed pools which are not, of course, identifiable from aerial photographs. A number were discovered in Melbourne, usually via Real Estate agency notices. This has not been followed up in Adelaide, but in Melbourne it was found that local councils were often unaware of their existence. Most of these pools were relatively small but expensive, with good finishes and attention given to heating and ventilation. In most cases the reasons for indoor pools were medical, concerning matters like chronic back or joint problems, and, in one case, a severely disabled child who loved swimming. It could be assumed that similar reasons exist in Adelaide, and, with far fewer alternative venues available, the need for enclosed or indoor home pools is probably greater.

Costs.

Since the acquisition of a backyard pool is such an expensive investment it is reasonable to assume that owners have a good idea of how much the investment has cost them, especially since this is one of the few pieces of recreation

equipment which cannot be leased or borrowed for home use.

Table 8.30 Cost of Acquisition of Backyard Pools to Present Owners.

1982 \$	Households
<1000	91
1-3000	29
3-6000	22
6-9000	7
Not Built by Owner	25
Don't Know	1
N/A	4
	179

(NB. The 1982 questionnaire may reflect still earlier price range).

Most Salisbury owners appear to have gone for the middle or lower end of the range, a fact borne out by the responses on size and make; 53 per cent have pools of less than 9m in diameter, 60 per cent are above ground, and 70 per cent are made of vinyl.

Table 8.31 Costs of Maintenance

\$p.a.	Households
< 100	53
1-500	106
5-999	4
> 1000	2
DK	9
N/A	5
	179

Although it must be remembered that we are dealing with costs as they were perceived in 1982, it is still hard to take seriously those who said they spent less than \$100 p.a. on maintenance. Anyone spending less than that a year must either be buying very little in the way of chemicals, or

simply not accounting for electricity costs in the running of their filtration plants, a factor which is often quite substantial. The concern over inadequate care of pools as a public health matter has been noted earlier. The costs incurred in the higher brackets indicate that the operating costs of a pool are not to be disregarded when purchase is being considered.

Satisfaction Gained From Pools.

Present pool Owners were asked whether this was their first or last pool and whether they considered the satisfaction gained from the purchase of the pool to be worth the costs: 132/179 said this was the first pool they had ever owned, and 42/179 said it would be the last they had, with a further 65 respondents saying they were not sure yet. As the average length of pool ownership in Salisbury in 1982 was only four years, it would appear that the enthusiasm for having a pool wanes fairly rapidly with some families, who do not realise until too late how much work is involved in maintenance. Some families of course inherit their pool with the house, which subsumes the cost of purchase within the mortgage and is less of a deliberate commitment; it is likely in these circumstances that such families, if they are new to this particular 'toy', are less aware of problems and costs since they are less likely to have talked to pool industry personnel to find out about their acquisition.

Past Owners of Backyard Pools.

Of the 930 respondent households, 131 or 14 per cent were Past Pool Owners, a very much higher number than anticipated and one which perhaps underlines some of the problems outlined earlier. Not surprisingly most of the pools which have been disposed of are Above Ground (117/131), and of relatively small dimensions, as 81/131 were of less than 9m in length or diameter. Some owners became disenchanted very quickly and disposed of their pools after only one summer of use (19/131), but most (114/131), had done so within a six year ownership period.

It was thought there might be a demonstrable difference in whether they kept their pool between those who inherited a pool with their house and those who made a commitment to purchase one. However, there does not appear to be any difference in the first instance in the rates of acquisition between the different pool status groups.

Table 8.32 Rates of Pool Inheritance.

Pool Status	Purchase		Inherit		All
Present Owners	153	86%	25	14%	178
Past Owners	107	84%	21	16%	128

Why did people dispose of their backyard pools? In keeping with the comments made regarding Table 8.31, the overwhelming reason for disposing of pools was to do with maintenance. Comments appended to the responses indicated

that owners found it to be a difficult and time consuming job as well as too expensive to maintain their pools properly. Costs included those of chemicals and water, but again electricity seems to have been overlooked.

Table 8.33 Reasons for Pool Disposal

Costs &/or labour of maintenance	46%
Children	25%
Had to move house	2%
Other reasons	25%
N/A	2%

The reason "children" needs some explanation, especially since in some cases the comments of respondents indicated that the reasons for pool disposal were identical with those of other respondents' reasons for buying one. Having young children is clearly perceived as a danger by some people and a reason for buying by others. The same contradictions were also apparent with grandchildren; some respondents were keeping the pool for their grandchildren, others disposed of the pool because of them. A response here was "my children are too old, and their children are too young and a pool is too dangerous", which indicated the concern some older people felt about having a pool if their grandchildren were around. Recent tragedies in Adelaide indicate that this fear is not unfounded.

Obviously it is rather more difficult to get rid of a pool if it is made of concrete, and some of these were filled in or broken up. Others have been put to other uses such

as sunken vegetable or rose gardens or breeding tanks for fish, or as a rainwater tank off the house roof to be used for watering purposes during the summer. Yet others are simply not in use, as presumably they are beyond the means of the respondents to either use or remove. Most of the A/G pools were dismantled, (some still kept for 'future use'), and others disposed of by selling, giving away or dumping. Approximately 68 per cent of Past Owners had them at their present addresses and some had inherited them at their present addresses.

Conclusion.

Although drawing a profile of backyard pool owners is a risky business from the proceeds of just two suburban surveys, there appears to be enough data and sufficient congruence between the survey findings to draw some conclusions. While a backyard pool may not bring unalloyed joy to all owners, it is nevertheless a recreation focus of considerable importance in the lives of a great many families in this country. It appears from these surveys that pool ownership tends to reduce attendance at publicly provided pools, except those visits for specific programmes. It seems to be apparent from this research, and from systematic observation in Brisbane, Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide, that most pools are of the 'splash and paddle' variety, and are used almost exclusively for recreational purposes such as water play, sunbathing, cooling off and entertaining .

They are not big enough for most of the purposeful uses of swimming pools; for accomplished swimmers they are too small to be very useful, and they are rarely deeper than 6' 6" so are therefore not deep enough for scuba, synchronised swimming, or diving. The implications here are that public pools must market themselves by specific programming which attracts people for reasons other than recreational swimming, and through design and other attractions which are different from those in backyard pools. Providing expensive duplications of what people have at home is no longer acceptable.....

"..services that are going to be successful in attracting people out of their homes will have to more and more consciously offer, in addition to the basic services, an experience which cannot be duplicated in the home" (36).

The intensity and enjoyment from home pool use, both by adults and children, could, if properly harnessed, also lead to increased council pool use if pools were designed and marketed to take advantage of this enthusiasm.

It seems probable that the present economic climate will have an impact on the rate of growth of backyard pools and may also increase the number of Past Owners, as more people find the running expenses too much for their constrained budgets. A scenario of declining affluence might therefore see a return to public facilities by families who no longer have a private pool to play in. However, an alternative response might equally well have families deciding that with their constrained budgets they may keep, (or obtain),

a private pool, spending their weekends and holidays at home rather than in transport and fees to a variety of venues. It is also quite possible that the degree to which economic hardship in some households may induce or reduce recreational personalisation may hinge more on the perceived social unease accompanying material constraints rather than on the financial constraints themselves. The success or otherwise of public facilities may thus depend largely on the degree to which they can provide a secure environment, especially for women and children. The matter of conflict management and adequate policing of recreational behaviour is unfortunately something that becomes more relevant year by year as parks and wildlife personnel have found, and managerial skills and strategies for appropriate management of different expectations will play an important part in this.

Footnotes and References.

1. S.A. Swimming Pool Study of South Australia.
Appendix 1. p 91. 1980.
Dept Recreation & Sport. South Australia.
2. In the country school pools are often larger since they are catering for the general community as well as school use, and indeed, may have been built by the community itself in the first place.
3. Methven S. School Swimming Programmes and the Provision of Pools. Working Paper 11, pp10,11.
Dept of Youth Sport & Recreation, Vic. 1978a.
4. Such as Watsonia High School, Melbourne.

5. A memo along these lines was rejected as undesirable by the then Minister of Youth Sport and Recreation in Victoria in 1978.
6. The advances made over the last five years or so in ensuring that suitably qualified people take aerobics or fitness classes on land has not yet been properly established for their equivalent in water.
7. The Police Academy pool at Waverley in Melbourne is a good example of this.
8. The Adelaide Aquatic Centre presented these audited figures for the year 1987/88..

	Income	Expenditure
Pool	792,673	802,896
Kiosk	304,608	279,877

Total	1,097,281	1,082,773
Operating profit =	\$14,508	

This is interesting in that it is understood that other state aquatic centres around the country are running at a considerable loss. A central location and good programming make the difference perhaps.

9. Methven S. Pool Information by Municipality.
Working Paper 20. 1978b.
Dept Youth Sport & Recreation, Victoria.
- 10a. The difficulties of obtaining reliable attendance figures from public pools indicate the rather casual way these are treated by many local councils. Data are not filed systematically, if they are kept at all, and are often impossible to access by anyone other than the pool manager. Since he may be away on leave for most of the winter (in lieu of huge overtime worked through the summer), this means that no one in council can answer straightforward queries for months at a time. This is clearly not true of all councils; most of the larger ones with a Community Services division or an efficient recreation officer such as Salisbury, Tea Tree Gully, Payneham, could provide instant and accurate records. In other cases figures supplied have been unuseable because of obvious inaccuracies or inconsistencies in the methods of recording.
- 10b. A further problem existed in that there appeared to be several typographical errors in the SA Swimming Pool Study, thus making use of that particular table fairly risky.

11. Methven op cit 1978a, p3 table 1.
12. Methven Salisbury Swimming Pool Study. 1982:36.
13. Methven op cit 1978a, page 3.
14. Halkett, I.P.B. The Use and Design of Recreational Gardens.
Unpublished PhD Thesis. ANU Canberra 1975.
and The Recreational Use of Private Gardens.
 J of Leisure Research. 1978 Vol 10/1 ppl3-20.
15. Methven, S. Backyard Pools Study. Knox Pilot Study.
Dept of Youth Sport & Recreation,
Vic 1980.
16. See for instance....
National Swimming Pool Institute (NSPI) of USA
Canadian Swimming Pool Association (CANSPA),
Swimming Pool Association of Victoria (Aust)
Swimming Pool and Spa Association of S.A. (SPASA),
Council of Australasian Swimming Pools Associations (CASPA),
Some have their own trade journals, such as Pool Industry Canada.
17. See for instance Gunst (1979), and Lewis (1982) in the
Swimming Pool Bibliography.
18. Noblett, M., Consumer Problems with the Building of
 In-Ground Swimming Pools.
Report to the Minister for Consumer Affairs
by the Commissioner, 30/6/83.
19. It is not possible to give ratios of satisfaction or
dissatisfaction since these would be guesswork and quite
unprovable. But results of both household surveys and
the household interviews in Knox indicated that most
households were 'happy' with their pools.
20. No printed definition was included in the report, but
explanations were given by an ABS spokesman in Canberra,
12/2/86.
ABS also published figures on pools with no filter, but
these have not been included here as they are not considered
to be a proper swimming pool.
21. Figures supplied from CASPA reports of those years.
22. When the trade survey was done in Melbourne as part of the
Knox study it became obvious that a large number of firms
making A/G pools were either unwilling or unable to make
anything other than guesstimates of annual productions.

Sales in these cases were often subsumed under other products, and further clouded by the sales of spare parts such as liners.

23. pers com Phil McCarram, SPASA representative.
24. SA South Australian Swimming Pool Study
 Recreation & Sport Division, Nov 1980 p 67
This refers to an unreferenced ABS survey which is thought to be the Domestic Energy Survey in South Australia, April 1979, ABS Catalogue Number 8207.4.
25. pers com Roger Mablesen, Adelaide ABS spokesman, 17/2/86.
26. Parafield is the Adelaide equivalent of Archerfield in Brisbane, Bankstown in Sydney, and Moorabbin in Melbourne.
27. Ingle Farm residents have been agitating for years for a heated pool in their area, see Earle 1975 & Methven 1982.
28. In this regard Salisbury is to Adelaide as Ipswich is to Brisbane and Liverpool is to Sydney.
29. There were a number of logistical problems with this household survey. A 10% sample seems very large but was chosen deliberately to try to include a fair proportion of all the very extensive and fragmented areas which make up the City of Salisbury LGA, which has unusually large differences in socio-economic backgrounds.
30. This survey was part of the recreation study for the Salisbury LGA. The weekend in question, March 6/7 1982, was not hot by Adelaide standards, with temperatures between 24-28 degrees. As a result not as many people used the pools as had been hoped. Every 10th person over the age of 7 was asked a series of questions, covering home suburb, sex, age, travel mode and time, length of stay, visitation rates, and backyard pools.
31. A similar percentage was demonstrated for Knox in 1979/80, with 90% rarely if ever attending.
32. This is probably most unfair on pool managers who have to walk a very fine line between allowing reasonable fun and games and disallowing dangerous and disturbing horseplay.

33. Although this question was asked differently in the Knox survey, 49% of those respondents (N=71/144) gave their main reason as "having somewhere to cool off during the hot weather", which, given Melbourne's climate, seems a somewhat inadequate reason for spending several thousand dollars, especially as very few of these pools had heating systems of any kind. However, 40% (N=58/144) listed the pool as a play facility for the children as their main reason, which supports the Salisbury results.
34. The writers' property is in the Hills and is a good case in point. A second 20,000 gallon rainwater tank is actually a fire tank connected with a petrol driven pump to a roof sprinkler system, but, in the meantime it has also been fitted with a filtration system and is doubling as a somewhat unorthodox pool. Such an arrangement, which is not uncommon in the country, would not fall into any of the ABS or CASPA definitions.
35. The writer knows of several examples in Qld where swim teaching goes on in backyard pools on a more or less formal basis, with small groups or individual children being taught by a neighbour or teacher in their own pools. This does not appear to happen so frequently in southern States.
36. Darton D., The Leisured Society.
Leisure Forecasts 1986 from the Henley Centre.
Leisure Management, 6/1, January 1986.

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Chapter Nine.

Rational Recreation Revisited.

Introduction.

This thesis has attempted to meet two basic objectives. The first one has been to examine the nature of recreation planning and its relationship with Australian society, and to discover what policies have determined the shape of current practice in this country. The second one has been to use a single type of facility, that of a swimming pool as a means of study which is relevant to all kinds of provision, (public, commercial and private), and to examine the policies of provision for swimming.

To meet these objectives the thesis has been divided roughly into two major sections. Following the general introduction, the first chapter explored the social factors which should be considered by all planners, (whether for recreation or otherwise), and the general volatility of society in the nineteen eighties. An outline of recreation planning methodologies followed this, indicating the present methods used and the academic developments of this new field. Chapter Three gave a brief description of the growth of recreation as a human service "profession" in Australia over the last fifteen years or so, and the problems which it has faced and is still facing. Some attention is paid to the provision of facilities generally over that period, and the uneasy partnership with sports development.

Chapters Four and Five looked at the politics of recreation provision, and the paucity of coherent policy making in Australia to cope with and direct the development of this area. The lack of a theoretical context in which this development could take place is discussed, as is the inadequate attention being given to the personalisation of recreation. A further complicating factor is the fragmented nature of government in Australia which has particular impact in the human services area generally and recreation in particular.

The second section of the thesis looked more at recreation activities and their facilities. A framework for analysing such activities is developed for planners with an activity profile on "swimming" and the extremely varied activities which occur in swimming pools. Attention is then directed to these facilities, in particular detailing current developments in the provision, design, and management of pools, most of which have occurred overseas. With few exceptions, and despite our supposed eminence in world competitive swimming, when it comes to the state of the art, Australia is a long way behind the leaders in the provision and development of these facilities. A chapter on the use of public and backyard pools follows, with a case study of the Northern suburbs of Adelaide. The case study looked at why people acquire, and dispose of, expensive options such as backyard pools, and how this impinges on the provision of public pools.

The next few pages review the major findings and points of discussion from each section, before attempting to develop a cohesive approach to policy formulation and planning for the recreation field, with a worked through example as a possible discussion model for future researchers and planners.

Recreation Planning.

Some of the social parameters which impact on recreation planning were explored in Chapter One. Many of them have a shaping effect both on individuals and on society as a whole. The fact that the dominant culture in Australia is western, white, developed and educated immediately predisposes it in certain recreational directions. That we are also blessed with plenty of space and an 'outdoor' climate also has an immense impact. But the individual factors of health, age, wealth, education, employment and housing also mean that individuals display great variations in their leisure lifestyles, and their expectations. Such expectations mean that treating groups of people as "blocks" is inappropriate in an area which demonstrates individuality above all else. Equally however, this very individuality causes problems when attempting to provide a public recreation service since the country cannot, and should not try to, service every individual and his/her expectations. Such a problem is exacerbated by the rapidity of social change in Australia in the last two decades. It is now apparent to all that the supposed

stabilities of society in the 50's and 60's were an aberration, and that we need now to predicate our social service provision on increasing change, costs, instability, and "social turbulence".

Recreation planning is a relatively recent arrival to the human services area, and it is inevitable that many years, if not decades, will be needed before it acquires sufficiently refined techniques to enable it to serve a genuinely useful function in the community. At the present time it is caught in the uneasy position of being paid lip service without having either the expertise or the resources to match the expectations that such lip-service raises. In many cases the profession has tended to operate via the established conventional myths, many of which have not stood the test of close scrutiny and use in Australian society. The manner and reasons with which the recreation profession was put together in Australia in the early seventies is not untypical of the way other professions have also been formed, but its growth and maturation have coincided with a time of severely diminished opportunities and resources, and this continues to have an impact on what can be achieved today.

There has also been an over-emphasis, and this is by no means peculiar to Australia, on endless academic definitions of leisure and recreation, which include an emphasis on

freedom of choice as a major criterion. This undue and undeserved emphasis ignores the fact that views of leisure and recreation are essentially ideological, and that freedom of choice occurs only within carefully prescribed limits. Patterns of behaviour falling outside those limits are seen as unacceptable in some way, and the space in which this often occurs, typically commons areas such as urban parks and streets, are policed regularly and thoroughly. Limitations are also heavily gender stereotyped and middle class in image, thus promoting some types of recreation culture as acceptable while others are seen as less so. This is common practice everywhere although some societies embrace the notion of leisure as a shaper of society more openly than others. One of the limiting problems associated with recreation planning is that methodologies or approaches have been developed without any reference to the social/political system in which they are to be applied. Most writers appear to assume that such planning occurs in a political vacuum and the omission of this consideration is one of the reasons why recreation policies are weak and ill-conceived.

In capitalist society there are two major ways of manipulating
(1)
the way leisure takes place . One is through the capitalization of leisure opportunities as increasingly the commercial provision for leisure lifestyles is big business.

Table 9.1 Average Weekly Household Expenditure on
Commodities and Services, Australia, 1984.

Broad Expenditure Groups	\$	%
Food & non-alcoholic beverages	71.22	19.68
Transport	59.00	16.31
Current housing costs (selected dwelling)	46.46	12.84
Recreation	43.13	11.92 (2)
Household furnishings & equipment	27.69	7.65
Misc commodities and services	25.93	7.17
Clothing and footwear	23.46	6.48
Household services & operations	15.70	4.34
Medical care & health expenses	14.07	3.89
Alcoholic beverages	12.30	3.40
Fuel and power	10.56	2.92
Personal care	6.60	1.83
Tobacco	5.73	1.58
	<hr/>	
Total	361.84	100.00
	<hr/>	

Taken from the ABS Household Expenditure Survey, Australia
Summary of Results, p 8. (Cat No 6530.0).

Recreation is one of the big four spenders according to this table and if the recreational items in all the other categories are added up it makes a very substantial section of the economy. Martin and Mason (1979 & 1982) make similar claims for the UK. In the present economic climate it also means that such provision is largely directed through very few hands. Beer, holiday resorts, and clothing for recreation are three good but very different examples of this. Again, this has
(3)
been well documented in the UK. On the other side of the coin it should be remembered that many jobs are created by the leisure industry, and although many of them are part-time, low-waged, and low-skilled, they are still an important part of the economy. The high profits go into relatively few coffers however, and some of those are located overseas.

One of the many problem areas in the Australian leisure industry is the lack of associated research from other disciplines, and the lack of basic research into the economics of Australian leisure is a case in point. There is no readily available Australian work such as that by Gratton and Taylor (1985) for instance which would give a springboard to research in that area for this country. This lack is seen as especially important because of the current value given to tourism development here and the associated danger of it "highjacking" the recreation industry. Partly this is the result of the somewhat "gung-ho" approach by State governments in particular towards tourism at the expense of environment, existing cultures and communities, access to common resources and so on, and giving 'fast track approvals' without community consultation.

Another need for carefully documented leisure research in the economics area concerns the retail sector. The increasing alliance in Canada and Britain between retailing and leisure provision (4) will presumably be taken up in Australia in due course, since Arndale and Westfield are international companies. When this happens choice in leisure may appear to be maximised but there is a danger that it may actually be increasingly concentrated into what is commercially viable. Minority interests will only be catered for if they are suitably up-market and therefore viable in one form or another. With

both these projects the poorest segment of the population will be left behind or will fall into a welfare or publicly provided basket.

A second way in which leisure has been manipulated in western societies is the progressive institutionalisation of leisure into government concerns and responsibilities. Patronage has moved from its reliance last century on wealthy philanthropists to professionals who see themselves as 'experts' with skills to define society's needs and the means with which these are to be met⁽⁵⁾. This has coincided with the shift from laissez-faire capitalism to welfare capitalism and the concerns with structural long term unemployment. In line with other measures of cradle-to-grave services the public increasingly has expectations of recreation provision which include entertainment, education and baby-sitting functions. The continual raising of community expectations regarding the public domain is in line with Jones' notion of the 'revolution of rising entitlements', which in due course leads to the lessening of self-reliance and a growing dependence on government provision⁽⁶⁾. These expectations also include a regulatory role, with managers of urban centres, national parks and forests spending more time and effort on policing behaviour in public spaces.

The recreation profession has had problems such as this thrust upon it while it is too young a profession to do other

than work at definitions, professional status, and survival in a welfare economy under siege. Unlike the arts, especially the community arts fraternity, the recreation profession has not yet developed a radical critique, at least in Australia, which could give it an operational raison d'être. As a result, policies, both official and unofficial, remain unformed and ill conceived, and in practice are often piecemeal and discontinuous. At the same time, however, politicians, bemused by the speed of change which they can neither control nor understand, see recreation as one means of controlling society, at least that segment which appears to pose most threats to property, law and order. It is not yet apparent that Australian recreationists have woken up to one of the roles prescribed for them in the eighties and nineties, that of legitimating one of the social safety nets of government.

The contradictions inherent in the lack of clearly defined and logical policies become particularly apparent at the managerial level.

"The big challenge to leisure managers is to be wholly professional, to run complexes and activities to make them as viable as possible, to demonstrate that when leisure is well packaged, well marketed and vigorously sold it need not be a hand-held amenity" (7).

This conflicts directly with the general thrust of public recreation provision as welfarism, in both ideological terms and practical possibilities. Planners and policy makers frequently seem unaware of these contradictions, though

managers themselves, caught in the middle, are often acutely sensitive to the incompatibilities of their conflicting roles. Quite clearly, it is difficult for recreation provision to be a social service AND a commercial proposition at the same time. An instance which encapsulates many of the problems of service provision is that of the Parks Community Centre used as an example previously in this thesis. The recreation section of the Parks which includes the sports and theatres complexes was supposed to service the local community and the high school. It is now also expected by its political masters to be as commercial as possible. Any two of these roles are difficult to achieve, all three are impossible. Such incompatibilities come from changing policies and managerial requirements in mid-stream, and trying to graft new requirements onto old designs which were anyway poorly thought out and inappropriate for the area they were supposed to serve. In consequence of these new requirements the Parks can only become 'viable' by attracting high numbers of people to the kinds of events not necessarily appropriate for the needs of the surrounding catchment, thus often excluding those whom it was originally intended to serve, especially where the use of the theatres complex is concerned. This incompatibility of expectations is not an unusual state of affairs in the recreation scene.

In the chapter on planning methodologies it was shown that the methods used most commonly by practitioners were precisely the ones discarded by the theoreticians as being

outdated, arbitrary, and ineffectual. The standards approach is still commonly used in Australia, as is that apparent contradiction in terms, ad hoc planning, but in an increasing number of cases participatory planning is being used, in spite of the problems it raises with pressure groups, public interests, accountability, and time. The point is made, however, that the methods used should reflect the requirements of the policies which are directing the planning actions in the first place, rather than being chosen simply on the basis of which methods planners feel comfortable in using. The lack of any formal and systematic evaluation of processes and outcomes at any level means that change will occur only very slowly.

Swimming and Swimming Pools.

It is a mistake to read too much into the changes in one group of activities and the kind of facilities which they use. Swimming, and swimming pools, make up only one small segment of the recreation spectrum. However, because the use of pools is so varied, spilling into sport and tourism at one end and into private homes at the other, and because of the high cost of provision and maintenance of these facilities, it makes an interesting area of study. It is not necessarily typical of all recreation planning, although common lines could be drawn with the provision of open space, libraries, entertainment centres, and theatres, all of which face a similar range of problems in provision and maintenance.

It was demonstrated that swimming actually includes a number of different activities, some of which require different planning criteria, design and technology, and management strategies. In practice these differences are frequently ignored until compromises are forced upon managers in the running of their facilities. A technique of profiling an activity in order to outline different requirements was developed in Chapter Seven. Problems of location and access were also discussed as these are vital to all recreation facilities; pools need to be visible, accessible in all conditions, and inviting places to use, but it is often the case in Australia that they are none of these things. This is partly because they have been built as stand-alone summer time facilities, which is an appalling waste of capital investment and valuable resources that should be put to better use. Under the circumstances described above it is hardly surprising that, as alternative suburban options for recreation increase, recreational swimming in public pools has declined quite substantially. Since most public pools were planned with recreational swimming in mind, and are not designed, located or managed for other types of uses, their income has dropped significantly. This income decline has also coincided with a rapid increase in the wage and salary costs of all local government employees, so the net result is that most pools lose substantial sums of money each year, resulting in users being subsidized often by \$2 or more per visit.

Private and Publicly Provided Recreation.

Recreational use of the home has been steadily increasing over the last few decades. Reasons for this include rising disposable incomes, larger houses, smaller families, and a market place turning to leisure as a consumer sector of increasing importance. These points, plus the technological advances which allow recreational tools and furniture to be more readily and cheaply available, has displayed itself in the rapid growth of the backyard pool industry. One of the results of this is that the need to use publicly provided pools for recreational swimming has been reduced, although there is some evidence to suggest that having a backyard pool might increase the demand for other more formal activities in public and commercial pools, notably 'learn to swim' programmes.

The personalisation of leisure has many implications for society as a whole, quite apart from the concerns of recreation planners in particular. This retreat to personal castles comes at a time of increasingly brittle family structures; the collapse of so many families has played a major part in the making of new households. It therefore appears to be coinciding with increased market pressure on families to consume more and more in the way of recreational tools and furniture, at a time when there is a rapid escalation in the number of families who cannot cope with any extra financial pressures.

How many families with serious debt problems have been those who have spent unrealistically on leisure/recreation is not known but would make a revealing study. Aspects of these problems make another very good reason for taking the economics of leisure in Australia very seriously. Another implication in all this is that those people who are left in the public market place may be those whose financial incompetence or misfortune sets them apart from the mainstream of society. The fact that the 'mainstream' is narrowing and the poor becoming more numerous makes the problem more acute, especially since the gulf between the groups is seen by both to be widening rapidly.

This brings us back to the discussion as to whether publicly provided recreation is a welfare responsibility or not; clearly if it is, and providers assume the residual or safety net approach, the recreation profession may quickly end up with the distressed end of society, performing a kind of missionary social work, while everyone else uses commercially provided facilities or buys for home use. The only publicly provided facilities used by the majority in this scenario are those relatively large scale, high cost venues for top level sport or arts performances, with the vast majority of the users being in a purely passive role. On the other hand, if recreation is to be provided for all, and patterns of participation continue roughly as they are,

then society is providing expensive facilities for people who are quite capable of paying all or part of their way, and who are, in effect, being subsidised in their recreation by the non-participant poor. The matters of equity, effectiveness and efficiency are crucial in service provision within a welfare state, but without clearly designed policies and strategies and unambiguous definitions and measurements of acceptability they remain confusing and sometimes contradictory.

The lack of a policy structure on a national or state basis becomes very obvious here as there is nothing to guide planners towards a rationale for provision. The basic questions with which we started, both fifteen years ago when Australian recreation had its genesis, and at the beginning of this thesis, remain unanswered by the politicians and bureaucrats who are in charge of charting the course of recreation service development in this country. Do we need public recreation provision, if so why? Is recreation to be considered a general public good or an arm of welfare; if the latter, how are the targetted populations to be reached, and if the former, how is recreation to be provided to the community at large? Should recreation be provided on a break-even basis, (in other words to pay its own way), or as a deficit spending item such as roads, lighting, social work or police? What kinds of leisure/recreation are to be provided under any of these criteria, and to whom? Are we working towards mitigating some of the growing imbalances

in society or will recreation end up by enlarging them?

What kind of society are we planning for? On what grounds

is it justifiable in the present (or any) economic climate

to channel public money into the pursuit of private pleasure?

None of these fundamental questions are being addressed at

national or state level, nor, for the most part, are they even

(8)
being asked . Generally speaking, at both a macro and micro

level, when decisions are being taken on whether to provide

neighbourhood centres, squash courts, community arts centres

or swimming pools, the rationale tends to be whether other

councils have them, whether there are subsidies/grants/loans

available, or whether they adhere to a standard of

provision. There is no clear understanding of which level

of government should be involved in what type of provision,

if any, neither is there any clear accounting at any level

for the funds which are spent.

Where do we go from here?

From the study of policies and practices in this thesis it has become apparent that one of the main weaknesses of recreation planning is its fragmentation and lack of linkages or coherence. In the former case, stated policies, where they exist at all, operate in a vacuum and bear little relationship with what actually happens in practice, and there are few if any points of contact with other agencies. Linkages, both horizontal and vertical, appear to be generally non-existent. At the micro level we see planning decisions taken which are

not compatible with the design and managerial strategies adopted. Examples include many individual sports/recreation facilities (9) around the country . At the macro level we see policies for reaching the elderly, while the main financial effort goes towards jogging and corporate fitness, and State governments indicating their keenness to get maximum participation from the public but putting all their money on Grand Designs which do just the opposite. At least part of this continuing state of affairs is that governments rarely take these actions for the reasons of their apparent outcomes, they are nearly always for other reasons such as business, tourism, and political gain. Justification for recreation comes much later, if at all. An added point here is that very few, if any, of these actions are ever subjected to independent evaluation. Outcomes are rarely matched against policies, or strategies against plans; each stage of the provision process appears to occur in isolation.

A further weakness is the lack of political clout that recreation has (10) , and that in the structure of recreation provision in Australian society the operational and executive action tends to occur at the financially poorest and politically weakest end of the spectrum, that of local councils. Relatively few councils have the financial or planning powers to address any of the above problems adequately, and given the size and entrenched structure of most Australian local councils it is unlikely that this will alter substantially.

This indicates perhaps that rather than State departments being in centralised enclaves waiting for funding requests to come in from outside, there is a need for the expertise to go out and be actively involved in liaising at local government level. Some States already do this to a greater extent than South Australia, but in all cases it could be taken much further and used more effectively. There is no future in espousing an holistic view of leisure and recreation if the government support structures remain as isolated specialisms in departments with little link with others such as housing, education, environment and planning. Given this kind of argument, there is a good case for considering the disestablishment of the Department of Recreation and the redistribution of its forces and expertise into areas which might further the holistic approach.

There is also a good case for asking whether the Federal Government needs to be involved in recreation planning, or whether it is yet another example in the long list of duplicated functions between the various levels that so bedevil our over-governed country. There are good arguments for saying that this is one of the areas that could be left entirely to other levels and that there is no reason for a Federal Department to be involved. There are problems with this in that there is some need for co-ordination between States and therefore a requirement for an independent leader. There is probably nothing here though that could not be handled by a competently

run Sport and Recreation Ministers Council (SRMC) on a rotational basis between States. Whether inter-state jealousies could be overcome sufficiently for this to occur is another matter. Certainly to date the achievements of the Federal Department have not been stunning, as indifferent Directories and disasters such as the Sydney Games have shown. Apart from the distribution of monies to States and other agencies it is difficult to point up any major achievements which could not have been completed just as effectively at the State level.

However, there is a need for Federal involvement in areas such as the co-ordination of national research, and the collection/dissemination of information/literature on a truly international basis. This kind of service can only be undertaken effectively at the national level because of the agencies involved, such as the ABS and the National Library, and the co-ordination of information from international sources. These are precisely the areas which have been emphasised (11) as important in every report to the government so far, but which have only received half-hearted support at best from Canberra because they are relatively expensive functions to undertake and there is no political mileage to be gained from them.

We need to decide which level of government should be responsible for formulating what kind of policy and for providing which kinds of services in recreation, so that the ambiguities

and mismatches outlined in the previous few paragraphs can be eliminated. The limitations of government involvement and the importance of allowing for the whole spectrum of recreation provision must be recognised, so that the public domain can be linked to the commercial sector and with allied areas such as health, tourism and retailing where appropriate (12). Government cannot do it all and should not try to, but it must identify the areas where only it can operate effectively and make sure that they are covered.

As well as the structural clarification however, it is important that we radically rethink both the policies for recreation development, and the philosophies and politics of using them in current Australian society. This is not necessarily to go as far as the revolutionary tools espoused by van Moorst (13), but we need to at least acknowledge that we can no longer afford to rest our case for recreation development on woolly altruisms like freedom of choice and quality of life. The time has come to take a rational, pragmatic view of public recreation provision by deliberately linking it to mainstream government policies. We need to become far more politically aware, not only for our own salvation in a world of diminishing public wealth, but also to use it as one means of redressing some of the imbalances and inequities found in post-industrial society.

It has been fashionable to deride the rational recreation movement which took place in the late 19th century, but it is felt that perhaps we need to go back to that notion of usefulness to society in a way which can present recreation and leisure as both preventive and curative of some of our present problems. Care has to be taken that the heavy 19th century overtones of morality, class domination, labour discipline and civilising powers are removed, but equally there is much in the provision for leisure which can be deliberately harnessed for the betterment of society. The point is, what does betterment mean, and for whom? No single philosophy can, or should, reach every individual. Uniformity is not the outcome sought here, but rather the idea that recreation/leisure will need to complement and cohere with other spheres of provision, and not simply co-exist alongside them in a separate compartment of life.

The need here is for a philosophy which embraces the notion that public recreation is a public good and, therefore, regardless of which side of the political spectrum one comes from, government intervention can be justified if policies are developed and actions taken which even up the opportunities for recreation in the general community. That is, leave to the other sectors that which they do best, and operate through clear objectives to develop lifestyle opportunities in the policy areas and/or communities where public action is needed.

There is nothing startling in this; it does need, however, a vision of the future and an idea of the kind of society we
(14)
would like to see by the turn of the century .

In the development of relevant policies the following caveats need to be borne in mind...

- * that leisure lifestyles are voluntarily chosen within the social and environmental parameters that individuals find themselves, therefore flexibility and variation are essential components of any policies developed.
- * that the public purse is not bottomless and resources are finite. Clear political articulation about, and public understanding of, financial limitations to public provision must be developed; this includes operations and management spheres and does not stop at the planning stage. In particular, public debate needs to address the issue of user subsidy, since at the moment the present major beneficiaries are those most able to pay their way.
- * that not all leisure takes place via the public domain, and in terms of lessening dependency and increasing self-reliance and choice, it is important that policies are developed which allow for alternatives.
- * that policies developed for the recreation/leisure area must be integrated with policies for other human service areas and not separated from them, and there needs to be clear identification of vertical and horizontal linkages in the development and implementation of those policies.
- * that open-ended policies on recreation provision are recognised as being invalid because they are simply too broad to have any meaning, but that combined with other service areas such as community health, tourism, education and housing etc., it can make a genuine contribution.

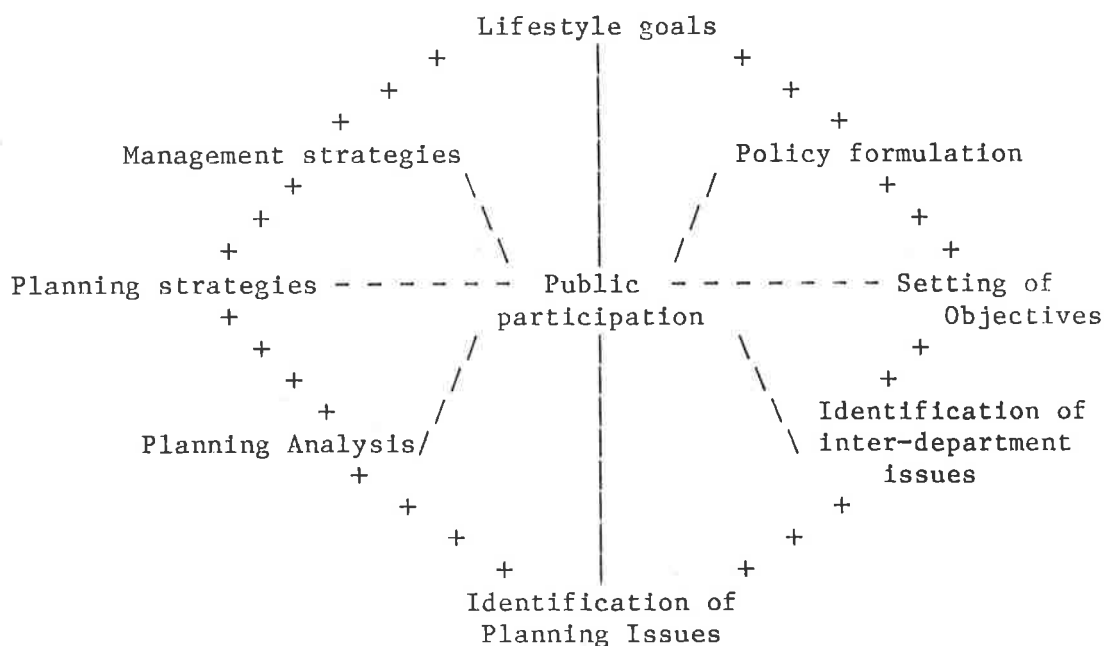
Any long term policies which are developed need to include the following considerations, viz....

- * the kind of society we wish to see by the year (say) 2010;
- * how we think we are going to get from here to there;
- * the mechanisms we employ to facilitate those changes;
- * identification of who will be the winners and losers;
- * can we afford the above, and, alternatively...
can we afford NOT to do the above.

In this way it may be possible to develop leisure policies which genuinely integrate lifestyle and cultural management by setting expectations and attainable objectives within policies of government and market interventions, which are acceptable to the public. From the broad leisure and lifestyle policies it becomes possible to develop planning strategies from recreation, education, health and welfare which are comprehensive, co-ordinated, and coherent. Not to do this leaves recreation as directionless as we have been up till now.

An attempt has been made in Figure 9.1 to develop a model which shows a logical flow through the various stages to actual outcomes and management strategies. It does this with the other associated areas of service provision in order to achieve coherence and co-ordination.

Figure 9.1 A model for planning in the human services area.



The twin needs of rationality and co-ordination with other areas could lead to recreation being incorporated into a broader area. The model proposed here is developed initially on the macro scale of state and federal government level; the first version looks at community health or primary health care through a wellness rather than an illness perspective. In this way a well argued case can be made for recreation facilities, programmes and services which would otherwise be difficult to justify. The model is developed later on a micro scale, looking at a local government issue. In both cases it is essential that it is treated as a cycle which is endlessly recurring, and not as a single linear path with an end point, which is how so much planning is envisaged. At each stage of the process there is multi-disciplinary and multi-

departmental input, with individual agencies working in tandem with the general theme, and towards commonly identified and agreed upon objectives. At all stages too there is public input in a variety of forms.

In putting forward such a perspective it is necessary to state the given assumptions from which the perspective grows. These assumptions are...

- an adverse trade cycle
- a falling standard of living
- continuing long term unemployment
- a smaller taxation base
- an ageing population
- growing welfare demands
- large scale preventable illness
- growing health care costs
- growing polarisation of society
- social turbulence.

Therefore what evolves from that rather depressing list are the following situation statements.....

- * that the time for vague promises and grandiose statements about leisure and recreation are past,
- * that Australia can no longer afford a free loading recreation service,
- * that there is no point in holistic views of leisure unless such views can be operationalised,
- * that unless we can find a sound economic rationale FOR its provision, community recreation will continue to be edged off the political agenda,
- * that there is therefore a need to return to some form of rational recreation.

Given the above assumptions, the model might therefore be developed along the following lines....

Stage I. A LIFESTYLE GOAL to aim for in Australian Society.

A Lifestyle goal might be.....

An improvement in the general health of the community,
with special attention given to at-risk populations,
leading to increased individual awareness of, and
responsibility for, wellness in oneself.

```

+++++
+ Definition of Goals. GOLD 1980:213 +
+ A goal is an orientation. It provides the community with +
+ a direction. In this sense a goal is an ideal and should +
+ be expressed in abstract terms. It is a value to be +
+ sought, not an object to be measured or achieved. +
+++++

```

Stage II. The development of policies for wellness in Australian society, which will include...

- * input from and co-ordination with areas such as
 - health,
 - education,
 - housing,
 - sport,
 - recreation;
- * a clear economic rationale for pursuing this as a desirable objective (15);
- * clearly stated short, medium, and long term objectives;
- * funding, political commitment and continuity, with evaluation and monitoring procedures clearly laid out for each stage.

```

+++++
+ Definition of POLICY and PLANNING. +
+ POLICY is the statement of intent, the aims of a +
+ particular agency of government; PLANNING is the +
+ designation of outcomes in line with the policy +
+ statements, and the organisation of change(s) needed +
+ to achieve those outcomes. +
+++++

```

Stage III. The SETTING of OBJECTIVES would include.....

- * better health in the general community,
- * lessening of drug, alcohol and tobacco dependence,
- * better management of chronic conditions,

- * increased level of fitness in the community,
- * improved understanding of nutrition and personal health care,
- * removal of preventable illness/trauma, especially for children and the elderly,
- * identification of at-risk populations,
- * increased participation in active forms of recreation.

```

+++++
+ Definition of Objectives          GOLD 1980:213      +
+ An objective is an end or point to be reached. It is +
+ capable of attainment and measurement.              +
+++++

```

Stage IV. RECREATION ISSUES which need to be addressed might include the following.....

- * corporate safety and fitness,
- * total ban on tobacco and alcohol advertising and sponsorship,
- * daily P/E, with particular emphasis on the relevance of daily exercise at primary and senior secondary levels,
- * better equipped schools and shared community use of those facilities and resources,
- * sharing facilities and programmes with other agencies such as industry, armed forces, police, trade unions etc:
- * low cost programmes of fun and exercise of many different kinds available at local level,
- * low cost clinics for personal health and fitness monitoring,
- * public education programmes and development for...
 - leisure education,
 - lifestyle management
 - health
 - nutrition
 - parenting,
- * professional development programmes for all the above plus allied professionals already working in the field,

* qualifications for leaders/instructors. The need to protect the general public from ill-considered advice and activity is paramount here.

* regular high quality publicity regarding the need to maintain personal well being.

Stage V. PLANNING ANALYSIS FOR RECREATION and associated areas will include the following aspects....

* identification of shared resources and co-operative inputs,

* analysis of demographic data,

* identification of needy areas, such as...
new housing estates,
inner city locations,
rural towns,
geographical areas of high unemployment;

* identification of at-risk population groups such as.....
the elderly,
young families,
children and teenagers,
the disabled,
homeless,
unemployed;

* identification of preventive health care measures such as....
education programmes,
self testing techniques,
one stop community health care clinics,
shop front information resources;

* identification of specific areas of recreation concerns which are shared with other professionals, such as....
rehabilitative recreation,
reduction of obesity,
lowering of blood pressure,
nutrition,
benefits of exercise and fitness,
benefits of absorbing leisure interests
and activities;

* survey of population/community needs and expectations,

* survey of spatial distribution of available resources, and their impediments to access and use,

* design suitability.

- * usage rates and patterns of facilities and programmes,
- * identification of non-users,
- * managerial strategies,
- * identification of market sector input and potential,
- * analysis of suitable recreation activities.

+
 +
 + for example focussing on the elderly
 using an explosion chart
 +
 +

+++++

```

+ An analysis of suitable opportunities for the elderly      +
+ would need to identify the following elements....        +
+ * they can accommodate any ability level,                +
+ * they are low cost,                                       +
+ * they are social in nature,                               +
+ * they are fun,                                           +
+ * they increase functional mobility/flexibility,          +
+ * they provide sufficient demands on the cardiovascular   +
+ system to provide benefits such as..                      +
+   * increased fitness,                                     +
+   * reduction of blood pressure,                           +
+   * improvement in circulation,                             +
+   * weight control or reduction,                           +
+   * sense of well being,                                   +
+ * they are non-weight bearing, or non-damaging            +
+ to the muscular-skeletal system,                           +
+ * they provide a sense of achievement.                     +
  
```

+++++ v +++++

```

+ v +
+ v +
+ These requirements lead to physical +
+ activities such as...              +
+ v +
  
```

+++++ v +++++

```

+
+ dancing,
+   aerobics,
+     walking,
+       cycling,
+         some sports,
+           canoeing,
+             swimming,
+               other water activities.
  
```

+++++

Stage VI. PLANNING STRATEGIES for RECREATION which result from these deliberations may be classified in three ways....

programmes
services
facilities.

These make up part of the demand/supply equation of providing recreation opportunities and experiences. These can be shaped in a number of ways, to cater for the groups under discussion.

[In this example we stay with the elderly.]

Programmes.

Suitable programmes such as the following might be included..

- # aerobics....with additional emphasis on very low level starting programmes, and particular care given to the types of exercise and their duration;
- # dancing.....many forms of dance appeal to older people, which vary from formal ballroom dance through to old-time, and from Scottish and/or Bush dancing to the Keep Fit end of the spectrum such as Medau and the League of Health & Beauty;
- # walking.....historical, nature, special interest, general knowledge, farm walks etc;
- # weight watchers programmes;
- # sport.....sports such as veteran competitions of many sports, perhaps with adapted rules, as well as social sports such as tennis or badminton, and not forgetting sports less physical such as croquet, bowls, outdoor chess and so on;
- # swimming...in this category could come learn to swim, aquarobics, water exercise, games, walking in water & hydrotherapy for the less mobile and chronic sufferers of arthritis and rheumatism, as well as general swimming for fitness, and veteran competition for those who are interested.

In all cases the essential elements are that it should be held in pleasant surroundings, be run by qualified and sensitive leaders, and above all should be FUN. None of the above will necessarily increase longevity, but will certainly help to improve the level of functional mobility and reduce the morbidity stage, which, in the words of the Better Health Commission...

"means a prolonged productive life and a compression of the unproductive period" Vol 2/36.

The case for exercise is overwhelming and needs no reiteration (16) here , but the way in which it needs to be facilitated requires some care if it to reach the maximum number of people SRT (1987). It also requires the co-operative effort of areas such as health, recreation, and education if it is to be effected properly.

Services.

The services which will need to be provided for this to occur include....

- # information..unless a person knows a programme is on he/she will not attend;
- # child care...to allow people to attend their programmes irrespective of whether they are looking after children;
- # crisis & short term relief care.. to allow people to have dependent relatives cared for while they attend programmes;
- # qualified instructors, leaders and health care workers;
- # low cost personal health care (which for the elderly in particular includes foot care services) and fitness testing services (which include regular monitoring of blood pressure and joint mobility);

transportation in appropriate cases, eg community bus, buddy driver or car pooling schemes.

Facilities.

Recreation facilities which are needed to allow for the kinds of programmes and services listed above will include...

- Parks and gardens,
- walking and jogging tracks, well away from main traffic routes,
- walking trails through city, suburbs, and near Hills areas,
- recreation/leisure centres,
- community health clinics,
- swimming pools,
- fitness gymnasias,
- dance halls of a variety of kinds,
- meeting and activity rooms which are secluded from the eyes of the passing public.

Many of these are already in existence through school and tertiary education buildings, commercial facilities, and other organisations. Much better use could be made of most of them, particularly if they were planned and designed properly in the first instance. Others are in very short supply, such as indoor heated swimming pools. Not all of them need to be provided via the public domain, though when it comes to expensive facilities such as pools, it is unlikely that the majority of them can be provided any other way.

All these stages of the model need to have inbuilt monitoring and evaluation mechanisms which are used to the full. All need to be prioritised so that other things do not get put in the way and the essential linkages then lost.

Stage VI. Consideration of management strategies would include the following....

- * the need for attractive marketing packages;
- * deliberate aiming for targetted populations rather than a general shotgun approach;
- * prioritising certain programmes/facilities for certain needs;
- * structured policy on subsidization, - who pays for what, and for whom;
- * the need for qualified staff;
- * the need for managerial staff who are aware of the part they play in the articulation of the whole policy;
- * soundly based programmes, with educational spin-offs.

Discussion of the macro model.

----- < PTO
 Checks and balances must allow for adequate rethinking when and where this becomes necessary. The desirability of public involvement at each stage also needs to be stressed. In a model as suggested above this may obviously take a number of forms, democratic involvement in the political system in the beginning stages, through to direct involvement at the strategic end of the model.

It is believed that a model such as this one can also be applied satisfactorily at the micro level (viz local government) as well as the macro level. In both cases it moves from the general to the specific, tries to develop from a general view of the 'world' to the specifics of what is actually needed, while developing the horizontal and

It is difficult to specify conditions which might be considered necessary for the development of the model, as opposed to those simply considered desirable, since much would depend on the source of the impetus for change. Above all things, there must be a willingness to consider change in institutional responsibilities and to consult at all levels. Without a spirit of co-operation, especially at political and management levels, little of substance is likely to be achieved. The other necessary precondition is that of longer lead times and a willingness to adopt policies that go beyond the financial year or the life of a government. Length of vision is sometimes more important than breadth of vision.

All this being so it is unlikely that recreation would ever see any direct financial benefit from any supposed re-direction of funds from the medical areas identified earlier. It is more likely that any re-direction that took place would be within the confines of the Health Department. In this case, a large part of the model posited earlier would need to be subsumed under health care and not recreation at all. This may well dismay the recreation purists, but if this moves public perception of health from the ability to run marathons and take part in high level sport to one of basic wellness for the community then that may not be a bad thing.

It is suggested that the concepts of holism and rationality in terms of policy making can be integrated into a macro strategy such as the above. This gives recreation provision a tangible and appropriate peg on which to hang its hat, without the accusation of spending large sums of money in a tight economic climate on the pursuit of private behaviour. This is important as the amounts of money involved are, by any standards, very large indeed. It has been estimated that cardiovascular disease alone costs Australia \$1,700m per annum, and, with an ageing population, could increase to around (18) \$2,482m p.a. by the year 2000. The same sources suggest that if we all participate in appropriate physical activity, costs could be reduced by roughly one third. The following

recommendation was made to Government...

"Commonwealth and State Governments should adopt policies and practices that encourage the adoption of regular and sufficiently vigorous physical activity by increasing numbers of the adult population. These policies should include programmes directed to work organisations, health and life insurance agencies, and individuals and their families" (p21).

The Better Health Commission had a similar emphasis in its more recent and detailed submission to the Minister for Health Dr Blewett, quoting for 1984 costs of \$1500-2000m to Australia for cardiovascular disease alone (19). The BHC stresses physical inactivity as one of the five factors of greatest preventive importance for cardiovascular disease (20). It is therefore not surprising that BHC emphasised the need for a co-operative approach through many different departments and agencies, (see Vol 1 p 6), and a series of strategies to promote regular physical activity, (see Vol 2 pp62-64).

Although the direct funding base for recreation is likely to be sharply reduced over the next few years, it is argued here that if the concept of wellness was adopted the swing from curative to preventive health would free up tens of millions of dollars, at least some of which could be directed into recreation to fund some of the ideas presented in the model above. The political difficulties of making such a switch should not be minimised however, and include...

* The apparent reduction in funding to the traditional and high status areas of medicine, coupled with an increase in funding to the community health and paramedic

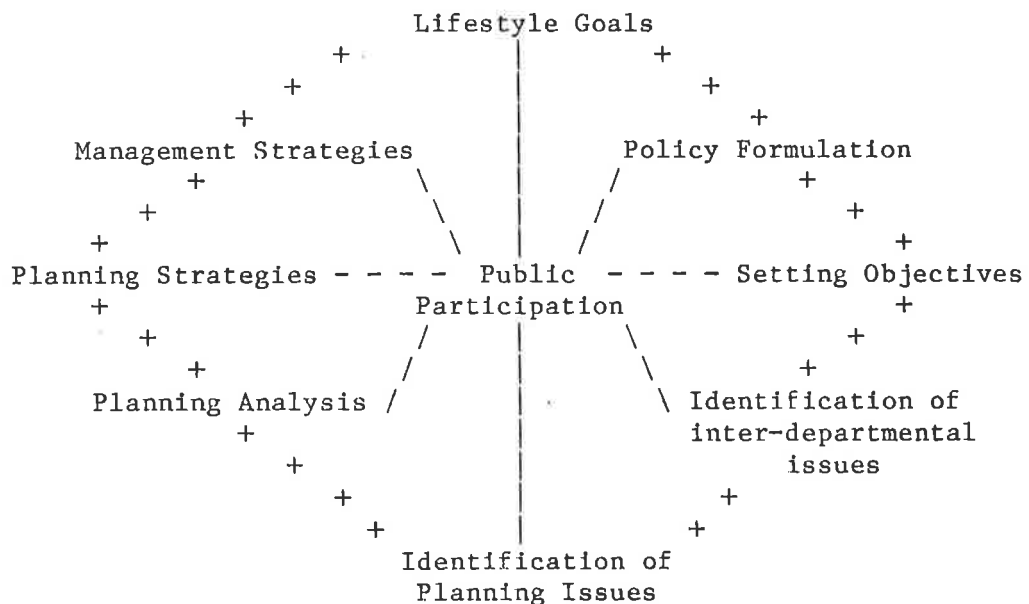
side of medicine. The political enormity of attempting that switch in the face of doctors lobby groups alone makes the adoption of the model somewhat dubious.

- * The success of that would mean a total rethink of all health and medical policies, which are at present all geared towards increasing the number and type of treatments for people, and encouraging a sickness attitude to health rather than a wellness attitude. Doctors in particular would find such an attitude shift in the public difficult to accept.
- * The inevitable interim period would appear to penalise the medical sector long before any benefits to the community become apparent. Lengthy lead times such as this are extremely difficult to sustain politically.
- * There appears to be a groundswell of opinion developing that perhaps we need to rethink some of our medical priorities in this area, and that scarce medical funds and resources might be better used. The problems associated with this area are immense. But even a minor switch could free millions of dollars, some of which could be directed towards a wellness policy aimed at preventing people becoming sick in the first place.
- * The very real difficulties on ethical grounds as to who gets expensive medical treatment and who does not. Who decides which patients warrant kidney machines, new hearts, expensive drugs for AIDS, complicated surgery, and so on? Who decides how and if life should be prolonged? The fact that these decisions have to be faced anyway is besides the point; a reduction in research and terminal treatment funding would raise the debate to an entirely new level.
- * The problems associated with continual self abuse of various kinds are the most difficult to deal with. Associated programmes for reducing drug, alcohol, and tobacco dependence must be attacked at the same time. It is thought that these can be addressed at least in part by the redirection of funds into a total leisure and health education package which is directed especially towards the young and the at-risk groups.

The essential element contained in the above argument is that recreation provision for the community has to be considered as an integral part of community provision and not as a discrete area. The country cannot afford it, and

philosophically it cannot be sustained. We need to be able to argue a better use for recreation than freedom of choice and quality of life, and we need to be able to argue it on solid social criteria and rational economic grounds. To do this we will have to demonstrate that funding can be made available and that coherent strategies can be produced which can be made to work. We cannot exist as a separate part of life, and may have to accept the concomitant loss of professional identity if we are to ensure the long term funding needed.

At a micro level a policy may be developed along the following lines.



Stage I. A lifestyle goal may be.....
 A reduction in the isolation of individuals
 in urban communities, by encouraging
 participation in community life.

Stage II The development of policies for the above which will include..

input from, and co-ordination with, as a genuinely inter-sectoral approach the following groups,....

health,
 education,
 community and welfare services,
 recreation,
 voluntary agencies,
 local business,
 major employer groups,
 local council officers, and
 elected members.

a clear economic rationale for pursuing the reduction of isolation as a desirable objective,

clear, unambiguous and bi-partisan, support for funding, with monitoring and evaluation procedures clearly laid out.

Stage III The setting of objectives, which will include..

identification of at risk populations,

identification of relevant actors from the groups listed above,

identification of the perceived needs of the community by means of intensive and ongoing consultation, surveys, and monitoring of existing services and facilities.

Stage IV Within the many objectives recreation could be singled out within an explosion chart along the following lines....

exploration of the potential for shared facilities and services such as..

schools,
 tertiary institutions,
 armed forces,
 industrial and
 commercial enterprise.

exploration of data co-ordination to identify high-risk groups,

identification of voluntary agencies and the exploration of co-ordinating their outreach activities,

- # raising of recreation awareness with other agencies such as housing, social work, social security, CES, crisis centres, debt, counselling centres etc,
- # education campaign for lifestyle enrichment.

- Stage V Planning analysis for recreation will include...
- # identification of all facilities/services/programmes in the area,
 - # identification of those which can be shared between agencies,
 - # analysis of demographic data to identify..
 - the elderly living alone,
 - ethnic minorities,
 - disabled,
 - isolated women with young children,
 - unemployed young people,
 - aboriginals,
 - single parents.
 - # analysis of poor or inappropriate housing,
 - # detailed analysis of usage patterns for existing facilities and services,
 - # research on the recreation needs of the area, particularly for the above groups,
 - # research on the enabling services which allow the above to take place.

- Stage VI The outcomes of the above analysis will inform and direct planning strategies on the following areas.....
- # planning, development and management of shared facilities, services and programmes such as....
 - shared health & recreation centres,
 - shared school & recreation centres,
 - increased child care,
 - development of community transport, buddy driver and car pool systems,
 - community houses and neighbourhood help schemes,
 - # programmes for targetted populations as well as integrated programmes,

- # information services to ensure that these are known, available and accessible,
- # development of school programmes to include non-school clientele, so that adult learning is not set apart from mainstream activities.

Stage VII Management here is essential; the sharing of school facilities alone is a huge management task which needs to be approached with great sensitivity.

There will need to be...

- # more qualified personnel of all kinds, willing to cross professional barriers, AND have them crossed by others (which is rather harder to accept),
- # the development of community input and leadership on a large scale, utilising the expertise that exists and which is absolutely essential to breaking down the barriers in a community and maximising its potential.

It should be obvious to the reader that many of these stages will run concurrently, and require different lead times. In such a model the onus for recreation provision is not laid upon a narrow specialism but is subsumed and incorporated with all facets of community life and in different areas of community provision.

The need, above all, is for integration at all levels. There is a growing realization that the inter-agency and inter-sectoral approach is essential, but unfortunately professional empires remain very clearly defined. The need to encourage flexibility and responsiveness by altering the methods of funding human services has already been recognised (21). In particular such reports recommend greater co-ordination arrangements between programmes and a need to develop approaches and

co-operative needs-based planning as essential. One way of achieving this is to operate via a multi-agency model such as that posited above; this links in an on-going way the processes of policy, planning and management as a coherent cycle, and not as discrete and fragmented pieces of action having no linkage with one another or the community they are supposed to be serving.

Conclusion.

It has been suggested in this thesis that much remains to be done to develop recreation planning to a point where it can carry equal weight and meaning with other sections of the human services. It is also suggested that Australia can no longer afford the luxury of an expensive service without clear cut objectives and a well articulated economic rationale. We can no longer go on providing costly facilities and services because 'they seemed like a good idea at the time', or because of vague feelings that 'they improve the quality of life'. The results of this approach have been illustrated earlier with expensive facilities which can be used only for half the year, or which rapidly go out of fashion, or which are inappropriately designed for the purposes to which they are being put. We have to come to grips with political realities, and to work out where recreation provision stands in the spectrum of capitalist welfare policies. We also have to produce sound social and economic reasons why public recreation provision is required in Australia today, and, in doing so,

make it an integral part of other service provision such as urban development, health and education. Unless we do that recreation provision will be increasingly cut back in the public domain to those few large scale complexes and functions in which few participate and many are entertained, while the community as a whole is progressively disenfranchised from recreation facilities except those provided on a commercial basis. Quite apart from the increased polarisation of Australian society which would result, there would also be a rapid escalation in passivity, health related problems and boredom, none of which we can afford as a country.

It is necessary therefore to develop policies for human services which provide for needs in a coherent and co-ordinated way, and which have clear political and social bases for action. Recreation planning should, therefore, cease to function as an isolated specialism and, even more importantly, cease to be the sole responsibility of any single group of professionals. Recreation planning should become an area of concern which is incorporated into an holistic approach to human services provision. In that way we may still be able to afford the programmes, facilities, and services discussed, but their planning and provision will occur on a rational basis and for specified reasons and not as a result of an isolated whim, unrelated to any other part of society and social provision.

Recommendations for Further Research.

In the Australian context more research is needed in almost every sphere of the recreation/leisure scene, and there is no shortage of topics on which more information is urgently required. As a result of this thesis there are a number of broad areas, both technical and theoretical, which have surfaced as being particularly in need of urgent attention. These are listed below, in no particular order of priority, in the hope that other Australian researchers, post-graduate students, or interested institutions may view these as worthy of their attention in the near future.

- # Examination of recreation provision using a variety of approaches to develop sound methodological tools and the contexts in which they can be confidently used by others.
- # Examination of the way in which leisure and recreation is (and has been) shaped in Australia by different political and ideological concerns.
- # The history of leisure and recreation in Australia.
- # Development of research into the economics of Australian leisure.
- # Development of research into recreation spending patterns of households, with particular emphasis on low income families.
- # Examination of the relationship between tourism development and recreation provision, both in a macro sense and in particular communities.
- # Examination of the relationship between the development of retailing and recreation provision.

- # Examination of the personalisation of leisure, and its affects on recreation patterns and the use of public facilities.
- # Public recreation provision and equity.
- # The apparent move from participation to entertainment as a reason for public provision and whether this has any affect on general patterns of recreation and lifestyle.
- # The development of a greater understanding of the way in which factors such as age, income, occupation and so on may act as predictors of recreation behaviour.
- # An investigation into the structure and type of homes in Australia, and how they relate to family lifestyle and recreation patterns and opportunities. An historial study into this is long overdue.
- # A study of the recreational skills and experiences of those generations who were recipients of primary school 'drill' in lieu of physical education, and also those who unwillingly endured 'sports afternoons' in secondary school. (See footnote 3 chapter 3).

Footnotes and References.

1. This in no way ignores the important impact of mass media as a major socialization process. This process occurs through both the capitalisation of leisure and the institutionalisation of the leisure profession, though it is especially impressive as an arm of the former.
2. The Recreation category of the Housing Expenditure Survey included...
 - TV and other AV Equipment,
 - Books, Newspapers, Magazines, etc,
 - Other Recreation Equipment,
 - Gambling,
 - Entertainment & Recreational Services,
 - Animal Expenses,
 - Holidays etc.
 See footnote 5 in Chapter One for the detailed breakdown.

3. Clarke J. The Devil Makes Work. Leisure in
Critcher C. Capitalist Britain.
Macmillan, UK 1985.
esp Chapter 4 'We sell everything; the mixed economy
of leisure'.
4. See for instance the recent editions of the Leisure
Management Journal for examples and discussion of this.
5. It also includes, inter alia, the increasing amounts of
legislation which control how, where and when activities
may be pursued, and, some would say, the systematic
reduction of personal risk taking and excitement in many
activities as a result.
6. Jones M.A. The Australian Welfare State.
Allen & Unwin, Sydney, 1983 p 81.
see also Le Grand (1982) p 11 for a similar point of view.
7. The Financing of Sport in the UK. Sports Council
Document, 1983, London. Quoted in D.Colbeck,
Baths Service and Recreation Management. Vol 43/3 p 73.
8. At the so called Futures Conference held in Adelaide by
the Dept of Recreation and Sport on March 4 1987 the only
future most of the delegates were interested in was the
size of their next grant. The structure and leadership
of the one day seminar provided no basis on which to do
anything else.
9. The Dandenong Swimming Centre in Victoria is a good
example, designed as an excellent, fast, 50m indoor
heated pool, but run initially as a recreation pool
only, to the point of forbidding its use to local
clubs for training. The resulting public outcry and
the spectre of plunging income rapidly forced the council
to reconsider its view. Had they really thought it
through then an exciting and innovative leisure pool
might have been built in the first place.
10. Price P. A Radical Approach to Recreation and
Leisure.
Inst of Baths & Recreation Management. 54th
Conference, Llandudno, 1984, pp121-139.
11. See information contained in Chapter Three and Appendix A.

12. There are areas in the commercial sector where a little government assistance could result in a major service to the general community. Government assistance could be in the form of subsidy, shared expenses, one-off grants, tax relief, 'imaginative accounting', all of which could turn marginal enterprises into going concerns at a much cheaper rate than providing it entirely from government sources.
13. van Moorst H. Radical Strategies in Leisure and Welfare.
O.P. No 6. Humanities Department.
Footscray Institute of Technology,
Melbourne. Jan 1982.
14. It is also not necessarily synonymous with large scale resort development or bids for international games which seem to have more to do with land speculation or political kudos than the interests of the Australian community at large.
15. see
Ballarat CAE. The Benefits of Participation in Regular Physical Exercise.
Authors Roberts A.D. et al. Paper presented to RMC of Australia. Undated by circa late 1983.
and
Better Health Commission. Looking Forward to Better Health.
Canberra. AGPS. 1986.
16. However, the cautionary note sounded by the UK Sports Council is worth repeating here...
" the scientific evidence for the belief that exercise, sport and dance will make us fitter and healthier is incomplete.
We do not know how fit we need to be for any chosen lifestyle nor do we know how much exercise produces how much fitness and prevents how much disease". p 189 #19.13.
McIntosh P. The Impact of Sport for All Policy. 1966 -1984.
Charlton V. Sports Council Study 26. London June 1985.
17. The caricature of Sir Humphrey Appleby is by no means overdrawn in real life, though often a good deal more subtle.
18. Ballarat CAE. op cit pp(i) and 13 ff.
19. Better Health Commission. op cit Vol 1 p 115.

20. BHC op cit Vol 2, pp18-26.

21. BHC op cit Vol 1, recommendations
pp vii - xi.

The summary of "The Hard Facts" on p vii reads very much like the criticism into Australian recreation development in this thesis.

See also..

The new Social Health Strategy and the discussion paper on Primary Health Care, (Health Commission S.A. 1988), which are important steps in this direction, as is the Healthy Cities Project of the Federal Government. Various initiatives like these represent a significant shift towards a wellness model and has great implications for community development in Australia.

Interestingly though, recreation and leisure do not rate a mention in the Health Commission booklets, in spite of apparent attention being given to lifestyle factors implicit in the model, which must raise doubts about how well the approach is understood by the bureaucrats concerned. The other disappointment is the old problem of lack of linkage between these different initiatives.

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Appendix A.

Review of Literature on Swimming Pools.

Introduction.

A systematic review of the literature on swimming pools has proved to be surprisingly difficult to accomplish. Generally speaking a vast amount of time has been spent proving that a good deal of the useful material on pools is not easily available, and although computer use in literature searches is supposed to be of assistance to the researcher, the databases accessible through this technology have severe limitations at the present time, at least so far as recreation planning is concerned. Due to the problems encountered it has been thought useful to overview the methodology used in some detail, in the hope that future researchers in the area will be able to save some time and effort.

Methodology.

Any review of literature is selective and the biases here need to be clearly stated. Apart from some very rudimentary German the writer is monolingual, thus restricting the literature coverage to that in English. This is particularly unfortunate since much of the best technical material is German in origin, and a great deal of it may never reach the translation and interpretation stage. For general reasons of accessibility and compatibility the search has concentrated particularly on Australian sources, with as much English language and

European material as possible. The time frame has generally been limited to 1975 onwards, though in some cases review of exceptional literature has gone further back to about about 1972. The writer has been working and teaching in the area of recreation planning for some years, and at several stages has been closely involved with the planning, design and management of public swimming pools. A fairly detailed personal bibliography has therefore been amassed over the last seven or eight years, giving a good basis for the evaluation of further and more systematic searches. It was confidently expected that more material would be revealed by both manual and computer methods.

Thesaurus.

A wide ranging thesaurus of terms was used in an attempt to net all available sources. These included:-

swimming and pool(s)
 swimming baths and centres
 natatorium (a)
 public
 backyard
 aquatic
 planning
 provision
 indoor
 outdoor
 leisure
 management
 construction
 building
 law

with most terms used in conjunction with the first one.

An early problem was the gradual realisation regarding the number of different ways in which the word 'pool' could be

used. As an example, in a list provided through the Leisure, Recreation and Tourism Abstracts (LRTA) from CAB, out of a list of 160 sources which used the word, only 39 had any relevance to swimming pools, the others relating to such things as genes, insects, chemicals, water and drainage, populations of all kinds, car pooling, resources generally, and so on.

Computer Searches.

 With the assistance of South Australian College of Advanced Education (SACAE) library staff a number of computer searches were mounted. These have included:-

CAB (Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux) [D]
 Union List of Higher Degree Theses in Australian Universities
 Dissertation Abstracts [D]
 Australian Leisure Index
 APAIS (Australian Public Affairs Information Service)
 ERIC [D]
 ANB Australian National Bibliography
 ABN Australian Bibliographic Network
 ACI
 Magazine Index [D]
 National Newspaper Index [D]
 Newsearch [D]
 SIRC Sport Information Resource Centre
 NB.[D] indicates via the Dialog system.

A number of factors emerged from these searches which have implications for all recreation researchers. These are listed

below:-

- (1) The Australian holdings are extremely limited and we are a long way behind some of our overseas counterparts.
- (2) The Australian computer files such as the Australian Leisure Index date from 1982 onwards and are therefore restricted in what they can tell the enquirer.
- (3) Computer held bibliographies in any country are relatively new and therefore going back before about 1975 is a chancy business.

- (4) Compatibility between systems is only just being achieved, and although the price is coming down, access to some overseas holdings is difficult and sometimes expensive, especially for someone outside the education system.
- (5) Most important of all in the present context is that it appears from this experience that much of the substantive material is not being entered into a computer file in the first place, so that reliance on this system alone will leave huge gaps in knowledge.
- (6) It further appears that the main sources of information not reaching the computer files are those from government agencies. This does not seem to be the result of unnecessary secrecy since they are available freely from manually compiled bibliographies. In theory at least, all State Department Librarians should submit all original publications received by them for central bibliographic control to ACHPIRST (see below), but in practice it is understood that most are having difficulty in convincing their departmental heads of the need for this (1). It is, however, a problem which needs to be addressed most carefully in a country like Australia with so many government agencies within such a large, fragmented system.

To summarize the computer links therefore, it has been time consuming, it would be fairly expensive for someone outside the education system, and has so many notable omissions that its present usefulness is highly questionable. Doubtless these are problems which will be overcome in the reasonably near future, but for now at least the old fashioned methods of searching seem to be the best.

General Methodology and Sources of Information.

 These can be divided into the following categories:-

1. regular abstracting and bibliographic services;
2. trade and industrial sources;
3. professional sources;
4. academic holdings, theses and papers;
5. government agencies;
6. journals and magazines;

Some examples from each category will now be discussed further.

Abstracting and Bibliographic Agencies.

C.A.B. Leisure, Recreation and Tourism Abstracts (LRTA).

This system has been in operation for about 8 years, and is now jointly sponsored by the World Leisure and Recreation Association and the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux UK. Documentation centres exist in 25 countries including Australia which is a regular contributor. The LRTA can be searched online and manually. The major areas covered include:- the philosophy, policies, planning, management, and sociology of--- leisure, recreation and tourism, natural resources, recreation activities and their facilities, culture and entertainment, home and neighbourhood activities.

In general terms it is an invaluable aid in keeping up with the recreation literature and the quarterly bulletins of abstracts make interesting reading in their own right. For the purposes of this particular project however, it cannot be said that LRTA was very useful. Of the 39/160 findings in the online search referred to earlier, only half a dozen or so had not already been picked up from other sources.

IAKS. Sports and Leisure Centres, Bibliographical Documentation of the International Working Group for the Construction of Sports Premises. IAKS is based in Cologne. The journal comes out four times a year but

appears to be both late and irregular in reaching Australia. However, it is extremely useful in content, with sections in each journal devoted to abstracting articles on :-- sports and leisure facilities, open air facilities, sports halls, public baths, combined facilities, and ancillary facilities. Articles listed are available from the Cologne library. The drawback is that few of the articles abstracted are written in English in their original form, although translations can be obtained. Also available from IAKS are 'Worksheets for Planners' which contain basic design and engineering data on sports facilities, presented in such a form that language is irrelevant. It is not known whether on-line searching is possible from Australia.

Trade and Industrial Sources.

Useful sources here include the builders of swimming pools, makers of pool equipment, and associated sources such as Chambers of Commerce, and Consumer Affairs departments. Associations such as the Australian Institute of Swimming Pool and Recreation Centre Managers (AISRCM) may also be useful sources.

Professional Sources.

In recent years considerable disquiet has been voiced by academics and professionals working in recreation over the problems of finding and accessing material known to exist

in their area but difficult to reach. This is particularly acute with Australian material because in a fledgling industry so little of it exists compared to overseas sources. Towards the end of the seventies a proposal was made regarding an Australian information and retrieval system under the acronym of AUSIRC, which had severe shortcomings, at least from the standpoint of the recreation planner.

There were two main problems immediately obvious to recreation professionals. One was that AUSIRC seemed to be basically concerned with sport and physical recreation, (indeed AUSIRC stood for Australian Sport Information Resource Centre), to the exclusion of leisure, recreation and tourism. It should be remembered in mitigation that this proposal came before the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport got under way. The other major problem was its serious bias towards North American literature and sports culture. AUSIRC was to be an offshoot of SIRC Canada, which was itself severely criticised by Sharma (1981:29) on a number of grounds (2).

After a number of years with much discussion by the Standing Committee on Recreation (SCOR) and the Recreation Ministers Council (RMC), a project was mounted through the Northern Territory Government in 1980, and the report by Sharma (1981) was the first systematic attempt to research

the area. Out of that report, and a great deal of further work by Footscray Institute of Technology, notably by Alan Bundy, came a proposal called the Australian Clearing House for Publications in Recreation, Sport and Tourism. ACHPIRST commenced operation in 1982 with the main aim of improving national and international awareness of Australian publications in recreation, sport and tourism.

Funding inadequacies and uncertainties about its continued existence have dogged the operation of ACHPIRST since its conception, but due to the support given to it by Footscray Institute of Technology (FIT) and perseverance by staff involved it is now in operation with both hardcopy and on-line systems. It is, perhaps, too soon to fairly evaluate ACHPIRST, although unless the present derisory government support is substantially increased the whole idea may come to a premature end (3). There have been rumblings in government circles for some time regarding the present system, although at the same time no one, neither politician nor bureaucrat, seems to be prepared to put money and manpower into making it work. There is, of course, no political mileage to be made from a long term and relatively low profile information system. In this regard a recent development by the June 1984 SRMC (Sport and Recreation Ministers Council) appears ominous with their following recommendation.....

"Within the context of consideration of ACHPIRST's submission for funds, Council further resolved to request the Commonwealth in consultation with the States and Territories to undertake a full review of the information needs of sport and recreation in Australia and to examine how these needs are currently being met (including the role of ACHPIRST) with a view to its providing a report on possible future directions to the next SRMC meeting".

(SRMC meeting 29/6/84)

The House of Representatives Standing Committee on Expenditure received several submissions in 1983 regarding the state of the art on information retrieval and dissemination in Australia and appeared to accept the spirit and intent with which the submissions, both verbal and written, were made. So it was extremely disappointing to read the relevant paragraphs in the final report and to see that they were bland and pallid and did not in any way grasp the importance to Australia of such an essential function (4). Notwithstanding the comments of the Federal Minister for Sport and Recreation to the contrary (5), it may well be that funding for ACHPIRST is withdrawn altogether. Any such information system retained is likely to be in the up-market area of elite sport, a supposition underlined by the continued emphasis on the provision of international standard facilities (6). Such a priority is unlikely to cover the nebulous and sensitive areas of recreation and leisure, putting us even further behind other western countries who are taking such services much more seriously. This is in spite of repeated submissions from academics and researchers who, since the early seventies, have been asserting that

an information and retrieval system was of vital importance
(7)
to Australia . It is also despite the fact that community
facilities are a major cost factor at the State and Local
Government levels. The cynical may say that it is precisely
because the costs are borne at that level and not by Federal
Government that nothing has been done.

Sport & Recreation Information Group.

In the UK a new association has been formed recently to
represent the interests of people involved with sport and
recreation. An inaugural meeting was held early in 1984
to form the Sport and Recreation Information Group (SPRIG),
whose main aims were: _

- "a) to encourage bibliographic control of the literature
and co-operative exploitation of resources;
- b) the dissemination of information to users in the
field;
- c) to improve awareness and knowledge of sport and
recreation in the information process".

(ACHPIRST newsletter 9.Oct 1984).

No Australian representative was at that inaugural meeting,
although three Australians have indicated their interest in
SPRIG. Two of them represent Commonwealth sporting interests
and the other is from a State department of Youth Sport and
Recreation. A genuine recreation representative is obviously
needed here.

A number of practical projects have been mooted which
include "the development of a bibliographic database", and
" a directory of members listing interests, current projects,

special interest and services".

The latter should pull together some useful information which will save other researchers vast amounts of time going over old ground. One of the specific interest areas of note is a pressure group for the collection and translation of foreign language material and general international developments. A group such as this could be of particular value to isolated and mainly monolingual Australian researchers.

Academic holdings, theses, and papers.

Within the Australian context these are necessarily limited. There are in this country only six institutions offering a degree in recreation studies, and not all of these concentrate on the planning and design areas. Outside this group, some universities, colleges and institutes of technology impinge on recreation studies through other disciplines such as geography, sociology, architecture, town and country planning, health, and engineering etc., but their involvement may be limited to that of perhaps one or two staff members' personal interests, rather than a large scale teaching commitment. Because of this there are only a relative handful of academics in the Australian system with substantial holdings in their own particular interest areas. An associated problem is that the present crop of recreation academics are the first generation in Australia which means that they themselves

have only their own resources to draw on, and with the heavy teaching load that many of them carry, research of any kind is very constrained. It has been something of a surprise though that there are so few theses in the area of recreation planning generally and of swimming pools in particular. This is of course less true in England, and less so again in North America, but in Australia they are very few in number. Of those that do exist many seem to be exercises in statistical elegance and of such stupefying boredom that they have no relevance or usefulness to the recreation practitioner whatsoever. There are a number of reasons for this, not the least of which is the reluctance of academia generally to become too immersed in practical and real world problems. It remains surprising, however, that so few theses concerned with facility design and construction have appeared, as that would seem to provide a ready outlet for engineering and architectural students and their creative talents. In this regard the comments made by a number of architectural libraries to A. Bundy in the course of his research are of particular interest. (8) There appears to be a real need for bibliographic research and control to help the architectural profession as well as those in recreation, but it seems no agency has the expertise plus the financial and political clout to satisfy this need.

A further problem with academic writings of all kinds is the difficulty with which they can be accessed by people outside the system. Heavy theses, or microfiche reproductions, neither of which can generally be taken outside a library precinct, and articles written in obscure and expensive journals, are not the way to reach an audience of practitioners working at the pit-face. So far at least, academics in the recreation field are not helping the profession nearly as much as they should be, though the faults are perhaps more to do with the system than the people involved.

Government Agencies.

In all Australian States there is a department of Recreation (often with Youth or Sport in its title as well). All of these departments have a library of some kind, one or two of them being quite substantial. They are valuable repositories of locally produced papers, monographs, and conference proceedings which would otherwise be lost without trace. It is doubtful whether any systematic collection of these resources has ever been made, although most of the libraries concerned publish a regular accessions list. It is not known to what extent these holdings are finding their way into the ACHPIRST system to be published on Leisureline. So far as personal experience can determine, the librarians in charge of departmental libraries are efficient and knowledgeable, often being far more aware of available

literature than the officers they are supposed to be serving. All libraries are constrained financially however, and few systematic purchasing forays are attempted; their efforts would be far more rewarding if proper co-ordination around the country could be achieved, and if local authorities ensured that everything produced at their level was deposited with the local state library, as far too often valuable material goes unread and unknown outside its immediate area.

A further comment is the lack of material known and held by officers within their State Government departments, a criticism not levelled solely at Departments of Recreation. It often appears that anything not in a government file is ignored on principle, and the sometimes appalling ignorance and complacency regarding what goes on elsewhere is quite depressing. There may be a couple of reasons for this. One is that these days most public servants are housed in open plan offices which give neither the room nor the security for amassing a personal library. Secondly, the system frowns on genuine creativity and the initiative of going 'outside' to search for new information. It is a credit to many officers that they in fact continue to do so in spite of the lethargy of the system in which they work. Officers are also often working under conditions which militate against them; research is increasingly let externally or to specially hired contract research staff,

who will then take away their personal libraries with them when they leave. Such an approach may be considered more economic by department managers, but it often means that the background information on which recommendations and decisions have been made do not become easily understood or accessible to the permanent staff who must build on that research. The problem is one which has also been touched on by Veal (1984) in the U.K. writing in the
(9)
Local Government context .

Government and Quasi-government Agencies Outside the

Recreation System.

There are two worthy of note here, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), the Australian Government Publications and the relevant State Government Publishing Offices. All these sources are valuable to the researcher though often a good deal of effort needs to be made to find out what resources these agencies have, especially those from interstate. The big limitation of the latter agencies is lack of co-ordination and co-operation. While most States have well planned Information Centres staffed by efficient and helpful personnel they are only of use if the searcher is actually in that State. It appears to be almost impossible to find out what other states are publishing on a detailed and regular basis which is an extraordinary and ludicrous state of affairs in this day and age. It should be remembered too that Government

Publishing Services of all kinds and in all countries only carry what any department wishes to release. This means that controversial or politically unacceptable papers are never listed, making it difficult for an outsider to gain access to them or even to know that another point of view may exist. The lack of on-line bibliographic service from the AGPS has already been mentioned.

On the whole, the GPS holdings in this exercise were not very useful, except to demonstrate that the listings are selective; a manual search back to 1975 revealed very few sources, and nothing which was not already known from elsewhere. Alternatively, the writer has in her possession several useful articles which were never officially listed. The generally small scale operation of local authorities in this country has prevented any systematic collection of information. In spite of the fact that local government is the main provider of recreation facilities and programmes, there exists no national system to collect and circulate information and to locate expertise, and even within States such co-operation is extremely patchy. The lack of information and co-ordination at the local level is not restricted to recreation; indeed, identical criticism was made of the general planning scene at the local level back in the mid-seventies .

Irregular Holdings.

As a result of bureaucratic activity some small but useful bibliographies appear from time to time, reflecting an officer's work in a particular area. Consultants and academics also often prepare bibliographies as a result of special projects. Indeed they are often engaged specifically for that task, since most public servants have neither the time nor ability to do extensive literature searches. On occasion this work is geared towards the collection of material in a coherent form in an area which has not been done for some time, but more often they come as useful spin-offs from projects undertaken with other objectives in mind. The Department of Recreation and Sport in South Australia has produced one such bibliography which includes 26 monographs and books on swimming pools, dating from 1972. This is a good starting point for anyone researching in this area .

(11)

Two other sources of government publications are worthy of mention here, one Canadian and one British. In Canada the national department of Recreation Canada plays a useful role in publishing papers on recreation planning, and several Canadian provincial governments are also very active in this regard, in particular Ontario and Alberta. Output from these sources is usually practical, commonsense information in publications designed to help the community make informed decisions on the best possible ideas and designs for the job in hand. It is is unfortunate that

Australian States do not appear to have reciprocal agreements with their Canadian counterparts so that a regular exchange of ideas and publications could take place.

In the UK the Sports Council is the major distributor of expertise on recreation planning and design and this generally occurs through two channels. The Technical Unit for Sport (TUS) has produced a steady stream of reports and studies to help the planner and designer. These vary from the evaluation of social aspects of provision to the hard data of construction and design. One of the most notable achievements of the TUS has been its output of technical and architectural help, free of charge, to other agencies building swimming pools, skating rinks, indoor and outdoor sports and recreation facilities of all kinds. Publications here of note are the Handbooks of Sports and Recreational Building Design (4 volumes).

The other channel is the work done by the Regional Recreation and Sports Councils of which five or six are especially prolific in their publications. While overall the output is variable in quality and there tends to be some duplication of effort between the various regions, the planning, design, and evaluation work by the councils adds up to quite an impressive body of information available to the local researcher. Many of the Sports Council publications are available through various Australian State libraries of

Recreation and Sport, but it is not thought that any systematic listing of Sports Council material is available in this country.

Journals and Magazines.

The latter group are easy to deal with being composed mainly of consumer-type publications such as "Choice", and "Home and Garden". So far as swimming pools are concerned they carry the occasionally useful article on backyard pools and pool maintenance, but generally and perhaps unsurprisingly deal with the topic from a journalistic point of view. Online searches made through Newsearch and Magazine Index etc produced some titles which looked interesting but which contained little of substance.

Serious journals are more difficult to deal with. So far as is known there is no useful list of recreation/sport/leisure periodicals which is in any way relevant to the Australian scene. Not only is the general topic a new one, but it is so diverse and interdisciplinary in nature that no exclusive bibliographic control seems to exist. A second problem is that so expensive has journals acquisition become and so space hungry their shelving, that many libraries are having to cut back their serials subscription each year. A further complication is, as Sharma has pointed out, that the progressive reduction in "half-life" on research articles, coupled with the increasing proliferation of interdisciplinary subjects

such as recreation, makes the choice of serials held in a library a very chancy business (12) . Co-operation of libraries within any one State should ensure that as many journals as possible as held, but in practice this does not seem to occur, with duplication of some holdings and great gaps in other areas. The range of disciplines within which recreation planning may occur is shown at the end, and reference is made to the difficulties posed by this problem below.

Conclusion.

It is worth highlighting a major literature searching problem for recreation planning which is well known to those working in the area but is often not fully appreciated by those outside. Recreation does not have a clearly defined "home" in any library system. Being necessarily interdisciplinary in nature, ranging from the fringe of the so called hard sciences right across the soft sciences and into the arts, and being something of a latecomer to the academic scene, it is possible to find recreation material in almost any area of a library. Librarians clearly have difficulty in classifying recreation material as it is often located in the most inappropriate sections. Libraries are in any case idiosyncratic, but this difficulty in classifying material has added a number of problems to the usual ones. One such problem is that the often rewarding, though admittedly unscientific method of shelf-dredging is

not very useful when searching for recreation material.

The other is that similar materials may be located in different places in different libraries. Indeed, the same book may be located in quite separate places within a single institution's branch libraries, something which can add considerable time and frustration to that which is normal for library searching. It is highly probable that many of the problems referred to earlier regarding online and manual literature searching have their roots in this one factor. It makes the development of cross referencing via the computer even more essential.

Finally, the need for co-ordination of information storage and retrieval is paramount. The situation where different levels of government, and different geographical areas such as States, cannot interact with each other indicates an appalling waste of time and money. In a country of such large spaces and small population numbers it is essential that co-ordination of information systems, reciprocal and systematic acquisition programmes, and the dissemination of that knowledge takes place on a regular and reliable basis. The technology exists, it appears that the political will and bureaucratic vision is lacking.

Footnotes and References.

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N.T. Dept of Community Development.
Darwin.1981

3. ACHPIRST Newsletter No 9. page 8.October 1984.
Achfirst budget 1985

Estimated total income	\$24,160
Donations SRMC & SCORS	\$16,500
Expected income from Publications	5,060
Income from LeisureLine	2,000
Estimated total expenditure	\$59,320
(excluding overhead costs).	

- It is obvious that such a low profile operation rests heavily on the good offices of other institutions, and is not expected to be involved in such essential but expensive items as systematic purchasing, interpreting and translating services, or bibliographic control.

4. McLeay Report The Way we P(1)ay. p 71.Paragraph 3.98.
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7. See for example :
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Some English Language Serials Relevant to Recreation

 Planning, which are available in Australia.

AAHPERD Research Quarterly^c
 AJHPER
 Australian Bureau of Statistics
 American Society of Civil Engineers:Urban Planning & Development
 Architecture Australia.
 Architectural Review
 Association of Pacific Coast Geographers
 Association of American Geographers, Annals
 Australian Geographical Studies
 Australian Geographer
 Australian Institute of Urban Studies
 Australian Parks
 Australian Journal of Social Sciences
 Australian Transport Research, Forum Papers
 Australian Journal of Ecology
 Baths Science
 Canadian Association for Health PE and Recreation

Canadian Geographer
Coastal Zone Management Journal
CSIRO Land Research
CSIRO Land Use Series
Ecos
Ecology Journals generally
Environment and Planning
Environment & Planning D. Society and Space
Environment and Behaviour
Geographical Magazine
Habitat Australia.(ACF Journal)
Inventory of Water Resources Research in Australia
International Journal of Urban and Regional Research
International Journal of Environmental Studies
International Review of Sports Sociology
Journal of the Institute of Leisure and Amenity Management
Journal of Leisurability
Journal of Leisure Research
Journal of Sport Philosophy
Journal of Regional Science
Landscape
Leisure Studies
Leisure Sciences
Leisure Management
Leisurelines
Leisure Industries Review
Modern Boating
Nature and Resources
Occasional Papers in Recreation Planning
Parks and Recreation (UK) (now ILAM)
Parks and Recreation (USA)
Politics and Power
Recreation Australia
Recreation Studies in New Zealand
Recreation Canada
Recreation Management
Regional Science Association Papers
Regional Studies Journal
Rural Research
Royal Australian Planning Institute Journal (RAPIJ)
Social Research
Sociology journals generally
Social Studies
Social and Economic Planning Science
South Australian Statistical Register & Yearbook
South Australian Parks and Conservation
Scottish Geographical Magazine
Sport and Recreation /Sport and Leisure
Swimming Pool Review
Transactions (Institute of British Geographers)
Transportation research journals
Trends. (USA)

The Planner. J of the RTPI
Urban Planning and Development
Urban Studies
Underwater journals etc

Bibliographic and Abstracting Serials.

- Australian and State Government Publications Bulletins
- Australian Public Affairs Information Service
- Australian Leisure Index
- Australian Leisure Bibliography
- Australian Municipal Information System
- Australian National Bibliography
- Bibliography of Urban Studies in Australia
- Bibliography of Research in Social Sciences in Australia
- British National Bibliography
- Current Geographical Publications
- Geo Abstracts of Social Geography and Cartography
- Geo Abstracts of Regional and Community Planning
- HMSO publications list
- IAKS
- LeisureLine
- Leisure, Recreation & Tourism Abstracts (LRTA)
- SB Sportstättenbau u. Bäderanlagen.
- Sports Documentation Monthly Bulletin
- Sports and Leisure Centres
- Sport and Recreation Index
- Sociology of Leisure and Sport Abstracts
- Serials in Australian Libraries,- Social Sciences and Humanities
- Public Affairs Information Service
- Publications of the ABS
- Oregon Collection
- Urban & Regional Planning Information System.

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+   Completion Date   December 1987.   +
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Appendix B.

SWIMMING POOL BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Legend: In order to indicate the main content bias of each item the following descriptors have been attached:-

Des.....Design
 Plan.....Planning
 Dis.....Disabled
 Tech.....Technical
 Man.....Management
 BYard.....Backyard.

For definitions of the terms used please refer to Appendix A.

- AAHPER
[Des/Plan] Planning Facilities for Athletics, Physical Education and Recreation.
American Alliance for Health, Physical Education & Recreation. Chicago. 1979.
- AAHPER
[Dis/Des] Making Physical Education & Recreation Facilities Accessible to All: Planning, Designing, Adapting.
American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Washington. 1977.
- ACROD
[Disabled] Design for Access and Mobility.
Australian Council for the Rehabilitation of the Disabled/ Dept of Tourism & Recreation. 1977.
- A.G.A.
[Tech] Approved Requirements for Swimming Pool Heating.
Australian Gas Association. 1976.
ISBN 0858520729
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[Tech] The Pool with the Moveable Bottom. American School & University, 50,2,pp38-39, 1977.
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Parks & Recreation 21/4 April 1986, pp51-53.
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Appendix C

Attached is a copy of the letter to householders and a questionnaire which was used for the Household Survey as discussed in Chapter 8. This part of the project included a 10% random sample of all households chosen by the Council Computer Operator in the Salisbury Council.

For further details see

METHVEN S. Summary Pools Consultancy
 Vol. 2 Chapter 1.

Corporation of the City of Salisbury



Municipal Office: James Street, Salisbury
 Postal Address: P.O. Box 8, Salisbury 5108
 Telephone: 258 6633

Your Reference:
 In reply please quote:
 Telephone:

Dr. C.W. McMenamy, B.G.S., MSc.I.E., MSc.B.A., Ph.D., A.F.A.I.M.
 City Manager/Acting Town Clerk

APRIL, 1982.

All communications to be addressed to the City Manager/Acting Town Clerk

Dear Householder,

Salisbury City Council is conducting a survey into the use of public swimming pools in the area, and you have been chosen in a random sample of households to help in this process.

The Council is collecting information on the use of public pools in order to help it plan for future recreational opportunities in the Salisbury area. As a ratepayer of course this affects you, and as I am sure you will appreciate, the usefulness of such a survey is totally dependent on the co-operation of all the participants. I ask you therefore to ensure that your responses are as accurate as you can make them.

It is possible that you may regard some of the questions as an invasion of privacy. Please understand that we are only interested in numbers and trends, and not in single households. Total confidentiality will be ensured and under no circumstances will individual questionnaires be made available to the Council.

The questionnaires are being delivered over the Anzac weekend period, and will be collected approximately a fortnight later, during the week of May 10 - 15th. If you have completed the questionnaire you may just leave it in the envelope provided in a prominent but safe place. If you need help however, the survey collectors are trained student helpers from the Salisbury College Campus and will be able to assist you with the questionnaire if necessary. The collectors will be clearly identifiable by a badge and will also have their I.D. cards with them. If you need further information please feel free to ring me on the number provided below.

The questionnaire appears long but there is only a maximum of 2 sections which apply to you. Everyone should answer Section 1 on general information and public pool use, and, if applicable to you, either Section 2 or 3 on backyard pools. The information thus gathered will have an important impact on future provision for swimming in the Council area.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours faithfully,

S. Methven, Tel. 258 3000
 Consultant. Ext. 313 (Work)

Frank Wyatt, Tel. 258 6633
 Manager Community Services. Ext. 371 (Work)

BACKYARD POOL STUDYQuestionnaire S/2

All respondents - please answer Section A.

If you currently have a backyard pool please answer all questions in Sections A and B of this questionnaire.

If you once had a pool but now no longer have one please complete Sections A and C.

N.B. For the purposes of this study a backyard pool is defined as one which is large enough to require a filtration system.

How to answer the Questionnaire

Most questions are simple and require only one figure to be placed in a box.

Some questions require multiple answers, such as those depending on the number of adults in the household.

e.g. Question 1

Please indicate the ages of the adults in the household by placing relevant age group number in the box for each adult.

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) 18-19 years: | (2) 20-29 years: | (3) 30-39 years |
| (4) 40-49 years: | (5) 50-59 years: | (6) 60 years and over |

e.g.

Head of Household - you aged 37

Adult B - your wife aged 34

Adult C - your father-in-law aged 69

Adult D

N.B. Please refer to children over 18 as adults.

A GENERAL SECTION: FOR ALL RESPONDENTS

1. Which of the examples below most closely matches the composition of your household?

- (1) Adult(s) only
- (2) Adult(s) and one child
- (3) Adult(s) and two children
- (4) Adult(s) and three children
- (5) Adult(s) and four or more children

9

2. Please indicate the ages of the adults in the household by placing the relevant age group number in box for each adult.

- (1) 18 - 19 years
- (2) 20 - 29 years
- (3) 30 - 39 years
- (4) 40 - 49 years
- (5) 50 - 59 years
- (6) 60 years and over

Head of household 10
Adult B 11
Adult C 12
Adult D 13

3. What is the age of the oldest child?

- (1) Under 5 years
- (2) 5 - 9 years
- (3) 10 - 14 years
- (4) 15 - 18 years
- (5) Over 18 years
- (6) I do not have any children

14

4. How long have you lived at this address?

- (1) Less than 1 year
- (2) 1 - 4 years
- (3) 5 - 10 years
- (4) Over 10 years

15

5. Is your house fully air-conditioned?

- (1) Yes
- (2) No
- (3) Partially

16

6. What means of transport does your household have available?

Cars

- (1) One Car
- (2) Two cars
- (3) Three or more cars 17
- (4) No cars

Motor cycles

- (1) One motor cycle
- (2) Two motor cycles
- (3) Three or more motor cycles 18
- (4) No motor cycles

Bicycles

- (1) One bike
- (2) Two bikes
- (3) Three or more bikes
- (4) No bikes 19

7. What is the present occupational status of the adults in your household?

- (1) Working full time
- (2) Working part time Head of Household 20
- (3) Housewife
- (4) Unemployed and seeking work Adult B 21
- (5) Unemployed and not seeking work Adult C 22
- (6) Student
- (7) Retired
- (8) Recipient of disability or other pension Adult D 23

8. Which occupational group most closely matches the work each adult does?

- (1) Administration
- (2) Clerical Head of Household 24
- (3) Primary Producer
- (4) Professional or Teaching Adult B 25
- (5) Retailing
- (6) Semi and unskilled Adult C 26
- (7) Service worker
- (8) Skilled worker Adult D 27
- (9) Transportation

9. What is the approximate total household income for the year?

- (1) Under \$9,000
- (2) Between \$ 9,000 - \$11,999
- (3) Between \$12,000 - \$14,999
- (4) Between \$15,000 - \$17,999
- (5) Between \$18,000 - \$21,000
- (6) Over \$21,000 28

12.c. Do they go there mainly

- (1) As part of a school group
- (2) For swim training for fitness or competition
- (3) To meet with friends
- (4) As part of a club
- (5) For casual swimming
- (6) Other reasons, please specify 41

12.d. How long does it take to get to this pool from home?

approx. _____ minutes 42
(Please fill in)

12.e. What means of transport normally used? 43

12.f. If you do not go to a council pool is it because

- (1) it is too far away
- (2) it is too crowded
- (3) it is too cold
- (4) there is no shade
- (5) Other reasons - please specify. 44

13.a. Do members of your household attend a commercial pool? (A Commercial pool is one not owned by the Council but is run as a business venture).

- (1) At least once a week
- (2) Roughly once a fortnight
- (3) Only rarely
- (4) Never 45

13.b. If members of your household do go to a commercial pool which one do they go to _____ and why do they go there?

(please fill in) 46

- (1) because it is nearest
 - (2) because it is the best in the area
 - (3) because it is the only one available
 - (4) because it gives "learn to swim" lessons
 - (5) because it is indoor and heated
 - (6) other reasons please specify
- 47

13.c. If they attend a commercial pool, do they go there

- (1) As part of a school group
- (2) To learn to swim
- (3) As a swimming club
- (4) For casual swimming
- (5) Other reasons, please specify 48

13.d. How long does it take to get from this pool from home?

approx _____ minutes
(please fill in)

49

13.e. What means of transport is normally used?

50

14. Do you consider all your children to be "water-safe"?

- (1) Yes
- (2) No
- (3) Not sure
- (4) Some are
- (5) I do not have any children

51

15. Have members of your household acquired, at any time, a Bronze Medallion award for life-saving? Please answer (1) for yes or (2) for no, or (3) not sure, in each appropriate square

Head of household	<input type="checkbox"/> 52	Child A	<input type="checkbox"/> 56
Adult B	<input type="checkbox"/> 53	Child B	<input type="checkbox"/> 57
Adult C	<input type="checkbox"/> 54	Child C	<input type="checkbox"/> 58
Adult D	<input type="checkbox"/> 55	Child D	<input type="checkbox"/> 59

16. How have your children been taught to swim?

- (1) At school
- (2) At a learn-to-swim programme
- (3) At a commercial pool learn to swim programme
- (4) By you at the beach or in a pool
- (5) Elsewhere - please specify
- (6) They have not been taught to swim
- (7) I do not have any children

60

17. Who do you think should bear the main financial burden of financing public swimming pools?

- (1) Local Government only
- (2) State Government only
- (3) Shared between them
- (4) Shared with private enterprise
- (5) I don't know
- (6) User pays market price
- (7) Other possibilities - please specify

61

18. Which kind of public pool(s) would you like to see in your area? Please indicate a (1) for yes, (2) for no, or (3) for not sure beside each possibility.

- | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| indoor heated | <input type="checkbox"/> 62 | 25 m pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 66 |
| outdoor heated | <input type="checkbox"/> 63 | diving pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 67 |
| outdoor unheated | <input type="checkbox"/> 64 | learners pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 68 |
| 50 m (olympic) pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 65 | therapy pool (extra warm water) | <input type="checkbox"/> 69 |
| leisure (fun) pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 70 | | |

								2
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---

Office Coding Only

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

19. What other items of recreational equipment do you have? Please answer (1) Yes, or (2) No, to each of the items listed below.

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------|
| Caravan | <input type="checkbox"/> 9 | Canoe | <input type="checkbox"/> 17 |
| Tent | <input type="checkbox"/> 10 | Sailing Boat | <input type="checkbox"/> 18 |
| Trail Bike | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 | Power Boat | <input type="checkbox"/> 19 |
| Four-wheel-drive vehicle | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 | Surfboard | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 |
| Water skis | <input type="checkbox"/> 13 | Fishing gear | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 |
| Snow skis | <input type="checkbox"/> 14 | Horse | <input type="checkbox"/> 22 |
| Wetbike and/or jet ski | <input type="checkbox"/> 15 | Holiday house | <input type="checkbox"/> 23 |
| Scuba gear | <input type="checkbox"/> 16 | Backyard pool | <input type="checkbox"/> 24 |

SECTION B PRESENT BACKYARD POOL OWNERS

If you have a pool at present, please answer the following section.

20. How long have you had this pool?

- (1) this summer only
- (2) for two years
- (3) for 3 years
- (4) 4 - 6 years
- (5) longer than 6 years

25

21. Was the pool already there when you moved into the house?

- (1) Yes
- (2) No

26

22. What are the approximate dimensions of the pool?

- (1) diameter/length less than 9 metres
- (2) " " 9 - 12 m
- (3) " " 12 - 15 m
- (4) " " 15 - 20 m
- (5) " " more than 20 metres

27

23. Is the pool basically

- (1) above ground
- (2) in-ground

28

24. Is it made mainly of:

- (1) concrete
- (2) fibreglass
- (3) vinyl lined
- (4) other - please specify

29

25. Do you have the following pool accessories? Please answer with a (1) - Yes, or (2) - No to each accessory listed below.

Gas pool heater

30

Solar pool heater

31

Oil pool heater

32

Electric pool heater

33

Pool cover/solar blanket

34

Spa pool

35

Enclosure making an indoor pool

36

26. Including the accessories listed in Question 25, roughly how much did the pool cost you to build/install?
- (1) Less than \$1,000
 - (2) \$1,000 - \$3,000
 - (3) \$3,000 - \$6,000
 - (4) \$6,000 - \$9,000
 - (5) Over \$9,000
 - (6) I did not build/install the pool
 - (7) I don't know
- 37

27. Roughly how much do you consider it costs per year to maintain your pool properly?
- (1) Less than \$100
 - (2) \$100 to \$499
 - (3) \$500 to \$999
 - (4) More than \$1,000
 - (5) I don't know
- 38

28. Is this the first backyard pool you have ever had?
- (1) Yes
 - (2) No
- 39

29. Is this the last backyard pool you will ever have?
- (1) Yes
 - (2) No
 - (3) Don't know
- 40

30. On balance, do you feel that the pleasure you have had from the pool has been worth its cost?
- (1) Yes
 - (2) No
 - (3) Not sure
- 41

31. Which company built/installed your pool?
- _____
- 42

32. Were you satisfied with the standard of work? If not please say why.
- _____
- _____
- _____
- 43
- 44
- 45

33. Please number, in order of priority, your reasons for installing a pool. 1 being most important and 10 least important.

Your List

- | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| As a play facility for children | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 46 |
| To improve the value of your home | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 47 |
| To teach the children how to swim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 48 |
| To save petrol on trips to the sea | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 49 |
| To eliminate the hassles of weekend driving | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 50 |
| Because the neighbours had one | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 51 |
| To entertain your friends/your childrens friends | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 52 |
| Because there are no public pools nearby | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 53 |
| Because the local pool is unsatisfactory | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 54 |
| Other reasons - please specify | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> 55 |

34. In the summer how often do the children use the pool?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (1) Every day | |
| (2) Several times a week | |
| (3) Mainly at weekends | |
| (4) Less than once a week | |
| (5) I do not have any children | <input type="checkbox"/> 56 |

35. How often do your children play with friends in the pool?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (1) Every day | |
| (2) Several times a week | |
| (3) Mainly at weekends | |
| (4) Less than once a week | |
| (5) I do not have any children | <input type="checkbox"/> 57 |

36. How often do the adults in your household use the pool?

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| (1) Every day | Head of Household | <input type="checkbox"/> 58 |
| (2) Several times a week | Adult B | <input type="checkbox"/> 59 |
| (3) Mainly weekends | Adult C | <input type="checkbox"/> 60 |
| (4) Less than once a week | Adult D | <input type="checkbox"/> 61 |
| (5) Very rarely | | |

37. How often do you entertain relatives/friends in the garden with the pool as a main attraction?

- (1) Weekly
- (2) Fortnightly
- (3) Roughly once a month
- (4) Very rarely
- (5) Never

62

38. Roughly, how long is your season of use during an average year?

- (1) 6 - 8 weeks
- (2) Up to 3 months
- (3) Up to 4 months
- (4) About 6 months
- (5) Throughout the year
- (6) Don't know

63

SECTION C - For one-time Owners of Pools

If you once owned a backyard pool but now no longer do so please answer the questions in this section.

39. What were the approximate dimensions of the pool?

- (1) diameter/length less than 9 metres
- (2) " " 9 - 12 m
- (3) " " 12 - 15 m
- (4) " " 15 - 20 m
- (5) " " more than 20 metres
- (6) I cannot remember

64

40. Was the pool basically

- (1) above ground
- (2) in-ground
- (3) don't know

65

41. Was it made mainly of:

- (1) concrete
- (2) fibreglass
- (3) vinyl lined
- (4) other
- (5) don't know

66

42. How long did you have this pool?

- (1) One summer only
- (2) For 2 years
- (3) For 3 years
- (4) 4 - 6 years
- (5) Over 6 years
- (6) I cannot remember.

67

43. Did you own the pool at your present address:

- (1) Yes
- (2) No

68

44. Did you inherit the pool when you moved into the house?

- (1) Yes
- (2) No

69

45. Why did you decide to get rid of the pool?

- (1) children grew up
- (2) waste of money
- (3) maintenance problems
- (4) other, please specify

70

46. What did you do with the pool when you got rid of it?

- (1) dismantle and sell
- (2) dismantle and dispose
- (3) fill in
- (4) break up
- (5) it is still there but is not in use
- (6) other, please specify

71

Last question

If you wish to comment on backyard pools, public pools, or even on the questionnaire, please do so in the space provided below.

Thank you for your co-operation.
S. METHVEN.

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 No 7. Sailing.
 No 8. Picnicking & Barbequeing.
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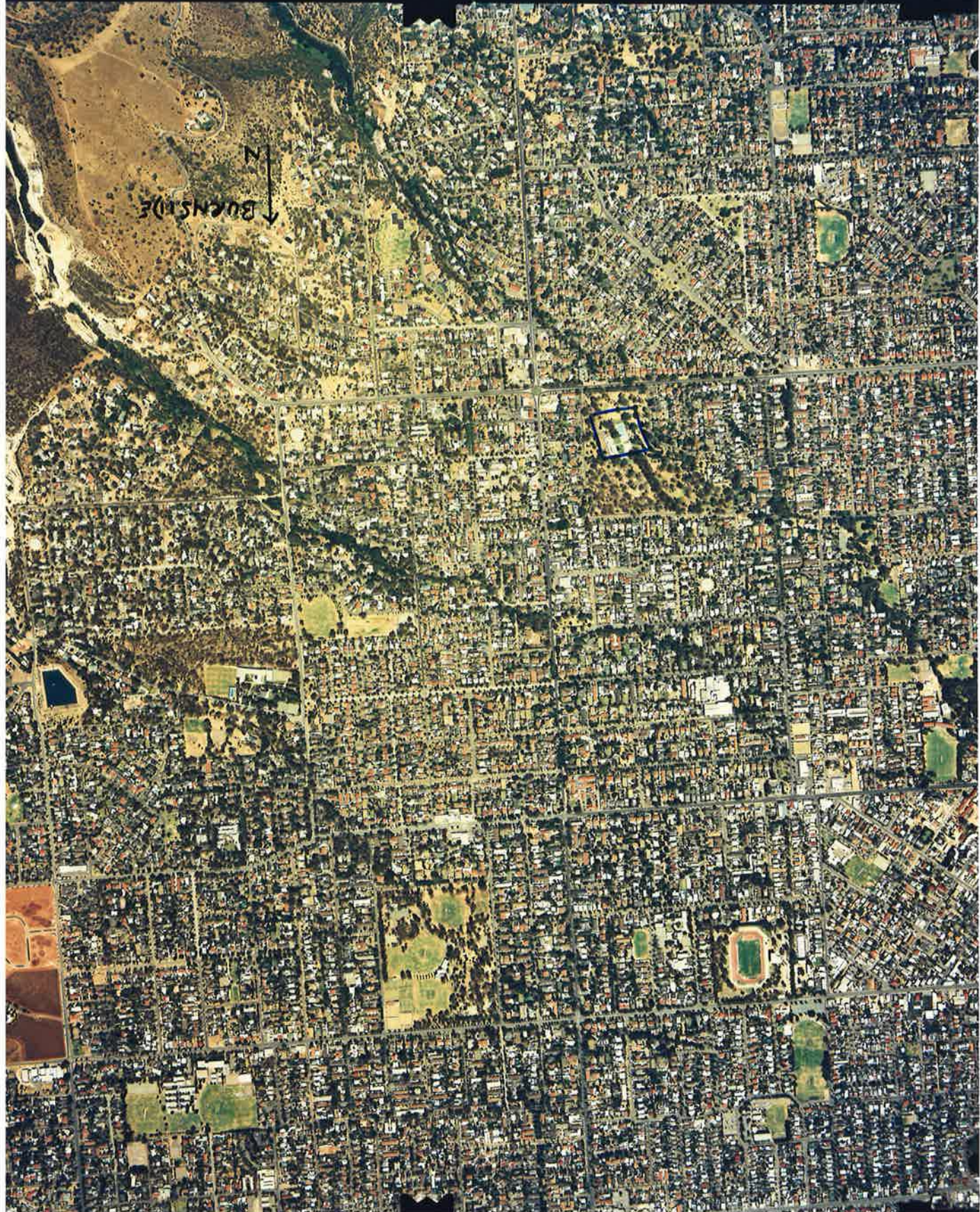


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