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MOBILITY STYLES AND LEISURE PRACTICES IN CROSS-BORDER AREAS:

THE CASE OF THE BASQUE EURO CITY

by
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La presente tesis doctoral analiza las pautas de movilidad transfronteriza en tiempo de ocio de los habitantes de la Eurociudad Vasca Bayona-San Sebastián. Para este análisis, se han tenido en cuenta dos perspectivas diferentes: (1) el nuevo paradigma de movilidad –*New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP)*– que entiende la sociedad desde un prisma móvil, caracterizado por la constante interacción de personas y culturas; y (2) las teorías del ocio, especialmente desde la perspectiva de barreras a la participación en ocio, que consideran que el comportamiento humano puede estar limitado o constreñido por diversos factores, dando lugar a un cambio en el comportamiento. La fusión de esta doble perspectiva ha posibilitado estudiar las pautas de movilidad y las prácticas en ocio desde una perspectiva más profunda que la que cada una de las teorías podría facilitar por separado, dando como resultado la identificación de las razones que impulsan la movilidad y, al mismo tiempo, los elementos que pueden limitar dicha movilidad.

Para el estudio empírico, se realizó una recogida de datos a ambos lados de la frontera franco-española. Se realizaron un total de 800 encuestas, representativas a la población de la Eurociudad Vasca. Para el análisis de los datos obtenidos se utilizaron técnicas estadísticas como el análisis clúster, el análisis factorial y el análisis de los modelos lineales generales (MLG). Los resultados obtenidos del análisis clúster identificaron cuatro grupos, con estilos de movilidad similares, los cuales fueron contrastados con la percepción de barrera, dejando ver una relación estadísticamente significativa. El análisis MLG permitió crear un modelo que explica la movilidad transfronteriza y permite medir el impacto de las distintas variables y factores en la variable dependiente *frecuencia de movilidad transfronteriza durante los últimos doce meses*. El análisis dio como resultado que la frecuencia de movilidad transfronteriza es dependiente de factores sociodemográficos, pero también de las motivaciones, el tipo de participación en ocio y los valores, actitudes y estilos de vida. Asimismo, la distancia fue identificada como una de las variables con mayor impacto en la movilidad, pues además de tener un impacto estadísticamente significativo por sí mismo, el efecto de las demás variables cuando están en relación a la distancia aumenta.

ABSTRACT

This thesis analyses the patterns of cross-border mobility in leisure time of the inhabitants of the Basque Eurocity Bayonne-San Sebastian. For this analysis, two different perspectives were taken into account: (1) the new paradigm of mobility –*New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP)*– which understands society from a mobile prism, characterised by the constant interaction of cultures and people, and (2) theories of leisure, especially from the perspective of constraints to leisure, who believe that human behaviour could be limited or constrained by various factors, and hence could change the behaviour. The fusion of this dual perspective has allowed a deeper analysis of mobility styles and leisure practices than each of the theories may provide separately, resulting in the identification of the reasons that drive the mobility and the elements that might limit it.

For the empirical study a survey was conducted, in both sides of the Spanish-French border. A total amount of 800 responses were collected, representative of Basque cross-border population. The data was analysed by means of three different statistical procedures: Cluster analysis, Factor analysis and General Linear Model (GLM). The obtained results identify four different clusters representing different mobility styles in the cross-border area, where a statistically significant relation has been found between the mobility styles and the structural constraints related to transport facilities and the geographical variables. General Linear Model (GLM), used to measure the effect of the obtained regressor factors and socio-demographic variables on the dependent categorical variable –the frequency of cross-border mobility during the last 12 months. The results obtained from the GLM analysis showed that cross-border mobility is dependent of socio-demographic characteristics, motivations, constraints, leisure participation type, values attitudes and lifestyles but mainly of distance from home to border, which was identified as significant variable by itself, but also in interaction with the rest of factors.

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Eskerrik beroenak etxekoei: aita eta amari, hastera bultzatu eta aurrera egiten laguntzeagatik; neba-arrebei, lasaitasuna emateagatik eta hiloba maiteei, alaitasuna etxeko bazter guztietatik zabaltzeagatik; eta azkenik, Arkaitzi, momentuoro euskarri izateagatik, amaieraraino nire ondoan egoteagatik, eta bere laguntzagatik izan ezpalitz lan honek amaierarik izango elukeelako. Lan hau beraiei guztiei eskeintzen diet.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This research aims at extending previous empirical study on human mobility and leisure practices in cross-border areas to form a deeper understanding of human mobility across the borders in the current globalised world.

1.1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Mobility is an increasing phenomenon, enhanced thanks to technological development, but also because of administrative and political changes, which have allowed free mobility across national borders. Furthermore, the area of mobility is expanding because we have the ability to move faster in time and further in distance as a consequence of the development of infrastructures, but also because of the globalisation and the unification of the economic space.

This tendency is remarkable in the European Community since the onset of the common market and the free circulation of goods, which became the European Community in a politically and economically integrated geographical area. However, the openness of the borders is a recent trend within the last 20 years and still can influence, in some respects, the behaviour of European citizens.

In this context, this work aims to better understand the impact of the border in cross-border mobility. From the onset of the study, it was considered that mobility in cross-border areas could be constrained in any manner, as is widely posited by Timothy (2000, 2006). In this way, it has been pointed out that borders can affect or limit human mobility. For that reason, the present study takes into account not only previous studies about mobility but also the literature related to leisure constraints.

The fact that borders can be considered constraints is because, historically, they have affected the behaviours and life-styles of the people living there (Timothy 2000, 2006; Hall, 2005a). People who had lived their lives in a centralised state before the European integration, who had hardly crossed the national borders even when living near them, especially during

historical moments, when the flow across the borders was strictly controlled. This would involve some customs that do not take into account the possibility of crossing the border. Consequently, it allows us to think that mobility of people living in these cross-border areas would be more focused on not crossing the border.

This perception comes from the time in which the physical and political border was actively situated among the states. Thus, it is possible to think that, although the political border has been suppressed as a consequence of the Maastricht Treaty of 1992 of the European Community Process (European Commission, 2007), people still would feel and take into account the presence of the border in their behaviour. In this case, the border would act as a constraint to go into neighbouring states or countries. In that sense, it was not clear if the openness of the border had any positive effect on the mobility of the region, because we did not know if mobility had increased throughout the entire region. To that end, this study will also provide some insight concerning European integration and social understanding in cross-border areas with references to cultural constraints.

The reason behind the study of the cross-border area was the consideration of border areas acting as a laboratory to measure the globalisation process (Prokkola, 2008; Blatter, 2004). The authors have stated, “these areas were specially ‘bounded worlds’ during the heyday of the sovereign state”, but currently, as Sassen (1996: 532) pointed out, “border regions are becoming globally linked and disembedded from their national environment”, where the European processes can be analysed and measured at a micro-level. Furthermore, it is considered that understanding the human patterns across borders, as well as cross-border human mobility, could help to better understand human interactions in the current globalised world.

The aim of better understanding the globalisation processes has driven this research and has led us to the main objective of the present study: **a deeper understanding of people’s cross-border mobility patterns and identify the nature of cross-border mobility in leisure time.**

It was considered that, among the different types of mobility, the mobility that happens in people’s free time, leisure-related mobility, would be the optimal approach, bearing in mind that people, in their free time, can choose the type of activities and the place in which those

activities are carried out without restraint (Iso-Ahola, 1999; Cooper, 1999). There is a perception of leisure as an element that can be chosen and practiced as an element related to freedom, and as one of the main characteristics of modern societies (Veal, 1999).

The participation in leisure time often implies human and social compromises, relationships, or business. The practices are implicit in the leisure activities, since it is possible to speak about “practices” when speaking about leisure and tourism (Crouch, 1999). Leisure related mobility –what can be called tourism– is offering new approaches to encounters, interactions and production and reproduction patterns on the one hand, and new ways of consumption on the other (Urry, 1995, 2007; Meethan, 2001). The considerations of leisure related mobility provide a better and more specific understanding and comprehension of tourism. This comprehension is bigger than the vision centred in social sciences, because, as Iso-Ahola, Jackson and Dunn (1994) pointed out, the basis of leisure and the participation in free time is the freedom, or concretely, the “perceived freedom” in each moment. It refers to the moment in which people feel that they are participating as a consequence of a decision made earlier, because they could and they wanted to.

Because of this, leisure and tourism, as voluntary practising forms of a particular activity or in a particular space, are ways to understand people’s behaviour in the territory. This behaviour can be called habit or *habitus* (Bourdieu, 1986), and it is sustained by the practice (Rojek, 2005). However, and using the reference of the phenomenological point of view of societies proposed by Ariño (1997), it seems clear that not everybody has the same access either to culture or to leisure. That is to say, there are some factors limiting access to different activities. In this way, the motivations and the participation in preferred activities can be limited or constrained by internal or external factors, which could change the behaviour of the consumer (Jackson, 2005). Consequently, the identification of those factors is essential to the understanding of the reasons for people’s behaviour. As has been pointed out several times (Jackson, 1999; Jackson and Henderson, 1995; Nadirova, 2000; Raymore, Godbey and Crawford, 1994; Kelly and Godbey, 1992), the analysis and identification of the perceived constraints help to form a deeper understanding of human patterns.

The perception of constraints can be even bigger when the space has somehow been “closed” and limited to physical mobility. This idea had been the starting point for this doctoral thesis,

which hopes to comprehend the mobility style and the kind of leisure behaviour of the inhabitants living in the cross-border geographical areas, and/or euro-corridors, because this knowledge could help form a better understanding and deeper comprehension of the processes that are happening in a Europe immersed in a “globalised process”.

For that purpose, this doctoral thesis is based on two main theories: first of all, and driving the entire research, are the theories of the New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP) (Urry, 2007; Sheller and Urry, 2006; Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006; Hall, 2005a; Jamal and Robinson, 2009), which is being recognised as the way to understand the current mobile societies, and secondly, in the theory behind leisure and tourism constraint due to the limiting effect that borders can have on people’s leisure mobility.

In the part of the study analysing mobility, the starting point was the new social perspective provided mainly by Castells (1996), Bauman (2000, 2005, 2007) and Urry (2000, 2007). Moreover, from the model proposed by Coles, Duval and Hall (2005), it was considered essential to insert the border element into the model, with the objective of better understanding if the border has any influence on the perception of distance and time. Understanding human mobility patterns in leisure time is considered important since, as it is concerned with socio-spatial practices involved in mobility, corporeal mobility implies human interaction and relations. In this sense, it helps to create and recreate new spaces of contact.

The study of mobility patterns was considered relevant also because it is considered that understanding and identifying human mobility patterns can help analyse future behaviour in the area. “In order to anticipate future travel patterns it is essential to research first, the likely geographical scale of people’s social networks; second, the degree to which it will continue to be necessary for such networks to meet up; and third, the implications that these networks and meetings may have on future forms of travel and levels of demand” (Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2006: 9). Therefore, knowing people’s current mobility patterns will make it possible to know what future mobility tendencies will be.

In the “mobile reality”, the added value to any research is to identify and characterise the interactions and the transformations generated by the mobility as flow and change. In the same way, it is interesting to gather empirical evidence of how these new mobilities across the

borders can give place to new socio-cultural patterns in time and space, which can then create new social interactions and constructions. In that sense, it was considered relevant to analyse some conduct, such as leisure related mobility frequency, since it is supposed that people use this time as they want, and leisure participation because the kind of activities in which people involve themselves can be different. The reasons can be to identify people's leisure preferences, or benefits sought/motivations and also the activities in which they are involved. In the same way, and considering that any kind of participation can be constrained for different reasons, the perceived constraints have also been analysed.

Some personal characteristics were also considered relevant, such as Values, Attitudes and Life Styles, because they are valid perspectives for achieving deeper knowledge of the participants or consumers, as well as socio-demographic characteristics, too.

Due to the particularity of studying the mobility in a cross-border area, the understanding of the elements that limit cross-border mobility was considered crucial to this study. The cultural characteristics of the populations living on both sides of the border make us consider whether the cultural or linguistic context could limit cross-border mobility; they share the same Basque culture and language, but the Basque language is not known by all the population (especially in France). Some structural constraints such as transportation facilities were also considered relevant to introduce into the present study, since there, transportation means connecting the cross-border areas, and these are not well connected. Through the study of constraints, the reasons behind the presence or absence of leisure time mobility and cross-border participation in leisure activities will be better identified.

All those elements have been measured following the efforts to better understand the mobility styles and leisure patterns of people living in border areas. The mobility of inhabitants of the cross-border territory has been analysed, focusing on aspects such as mobility itself, mobility motivations, and the participation in leisure at a cross-border level, but adding the leisure constraints theories –applied also to tourism studies– to the analysis of such mobility.

The empirical part of this work is based on quantitative and qualitative analyses. This part of the research explores, on one hand, what are the leisure mobility types existing in the Basque Eurocity and, on the other hand, how factors related to constraint, motivation and

participation type, and other independent variables measured as, for example, distance from home to border, are affecting the cross-border leisure-related mobility frequency at the Spanish/French border in the Basque Country coastal area.

This doctoral thesis analyses the mobility behaviour of the citizens living in the border area to see if the general patterns of high transnational mobility identified throughout western societies is also happening in the border area of the Basque Country –the so-called Basque Eurocity. This study focuses on leisure participation that implies crossing the national border to measure cross-border leisure behaviour.

The consideration of the two main theories within one research paper is what distinguishes this from previous research. Furthermore, this would be the first empirical approach wishing to identify current mobility behaviour, and, with this, likely future travel patterns, as well as identifying the possible factors constraining it. In this way, it would be possible to identify certain strategies and draw implications for policy makers, which might help them overcome the factors limiting mobility, as well as help them direct future research on leisure mobility and how it might develop in the future.

1.2. NEED FOR THE STUDY

The following aspects embody the need for this study: (1) context related necessities due to the current changing realities of globalisation and increased mobility, (2) the theoretical approaches used by the researchers in analysing mobility patterns of leisure time, and (3) in the empirical evidence explaining the relation of internal and external factors affecting leisure related cross-border mobility.

In relation to **context related necessities** (1), the need for the study was born during the apparent loss of a sense of political and administrative borders since the opening of the borders in 1992, which directly affected the communities near the borders. This is the case of the communities in the Basque Country between Spain and France. The national borders do not restrict mobility across the borders anymore; however, because the border has been actively defined for decades, the mobility patterns could still be feeling the presence of the border. The same thing could also be happening at other borders.

The Treaty of Maastricht (1992) represents a new stage in the creation of European integration. This treaty constitutes the creation of the European Union, and the creation of European citizenship is one of the major innovations, among others, established by it. This citizenship gives to the people living in the territories constituting the community the right to “circulate and reside” in the community. The treaty establishes the free movement of people, as well as the free movement of goods and capital (European Commission, 2007). However, as has been previously mentioned, it is not clear where people have gone after free mobility was established, because, as it has been widely analysed by (Timothy, 2006), borders can act as barriers.

From this European process, the need for the identification of mobility flows was discovered. It was clear that people move more now than in years past, but it was necessary to see if the movement was occurring at the transnational level. The initial perception was that cross-border mobility was very high in this territory. There are efficient instruments to measure these social flows, and there are general statistics measuring the mobility and the flows at the borders, but measuring only people who go from Europe to Spain or Africa, and vice-versa. In the same way, the reasons behind those flows were not clear, since there are studies

measuring physical flows but only toward the point of view of transport. In the same way, there are some studies measuring people's mobility from the perspective of tourism, for example, Frontur, but without taking into account the regional perspective, as they measure the flow of people across the border in general; therefore, it is not possible to measure how many people crossing the Spanish/French border in the Basque Country are staying in the Basque Eurocity. The identification of trans-national mobility and the identification of the reasons behind both mobility and lack of mobility would also help to reinforce what the area has to offer, if necessary, or, for example, give advice to policy makers about transportation or exchange of information.

In the same way, the understanding and identification of the mobility flows across the border would make possible the segmentation of the market, allowing the adaption/conversion of the offers while taking into account each segment.

The second main aspect in which the necessities driving this study have been classified is related to **theory** (2).

First of all, the theories related to mobility, The New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP), widely analysed by Urry (2007), Sheller and Urry (2006), Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006), Hall (2005a) and Jamal and Robinson (2009) among others, have been taken into account. Based on the knowledge generated by the authors working in the new paradigm of mobilities, it was considered necessary to the understanding of the particular mobility flows in this area. Hall (2005) has classified the type of activity participation requiring mobility related to mobility frequency, time, and distance.

Mobility as a constant in everyday life has created new theories that have started appearing in sociology and in current ideas regarding tourism, among others. However, the empirical analysis of such mobilities is not as extensive. In that sense, it was identified as a necessity to a better understanding of the type of mobility in the area. This necessity is connected to the necessity of understanding the leisure-related mobility patterns in the area. The identification of the mobility patterns in the area will enhance the theory of mobilities, because it is adding the value of analysis of mobility, but in a cross-border area.

Similarly, the necessity of better understanding the reasons behind mobility in leisure time was also identified. Particular attention was paid to people's participation in leisure activities when moving to the other side of the border. The identification of mobilities based on leisure activities will help develop a deeper knowledge of the cross-border mobility patterns of the Basque Eurocity and also constitute an added value to leisure research. Furthermore, the benefits sought or motivations affecting the decision making process of people participating in cross-border leisure activities have also been studied.

For a better understanding of inhabitants' behaviour, it was considered necessary to also identify the possible factors affecting cross-border mobility. The identification of such constraints would constitute an innovation, since the constraints affecting the cross-border mobility in the area have not been previously identified, at least not in a scientific study. For instance, the possibility of there being barriers to mobility has been previously mentioned by Ahedo Gurrutxaga (2004), who analysed the historical contacts in this geographical area, and stated that the border has never constituted a barrier (cited in Ahedo, 2004, based on Casadevante, 1985 and Rubiralta 1998). However, those studies were based mainly on perception and literature reviews, not on an analysis of the people's perceptions. In that sense, a lack of the development of leisure theories analysing constraints in cross-border areas was identified, and as a consequence, the need for its development was recognised.

In regards to the constraints literature, this work would be another step in the analysis of constraints to leisure, with a further characteristic that it be applied in a trans-national space and to mobility, which has not been previously implemented. The closest approach in the implementation of the constraints to leisure related theories is in the field of tourism –further explained in the literature review. The identification of the possible factors constraining cross-border mobility, and therefore, the cross-border leisure participation was also considered necessary, since the identification of such constraints would make possible the design of new strategies to overcome possible problems, which is linked to the first aspect related to the context mentioned in the necessities.

Another literature-related necessity is the better understanding of the lifestyles of consumers, and their characteristics or different typologies. This work aims at identifying the mobility styles behind the different leisure patterns in the cross-border area of the Basque Eurocity.

In this way, and following with the theoretical necessities, this work analyses mobility, taking into account the New Mobilities Paradigm, but also the perspectives of leisure and tourism in an integrated way. This necessity is recently being considered, along with the traditional tendencies that took them into account in different ways.

Following the classification, the third main aspect is related to the **methodology or the empirical analysis of mobility and leisure** (3).

The first empirical necessity identified was based on the New Mobilities Paradigm. This theory has been widely analysed in the last decade; however, this theory has not been empirically implemented. This research wants to go beyond the mobilities theories, and extend the knowledge about the elements and factors –both internal and external– significantly affecting mobility. In that sense, the necessity for the creation of an empirical model explaining mobility that integrates theories of mobility and leisure was identified.

In relation to leisure theories, the identification of the factors affecting mobility was considered relevant, since in the constraints to leisure theories, a wide range of research analysing constraints in cross-border areas does not exist. The identification of such constraints was also necessary, since the research on mobilities and tourism has hardly considered the constraints in their analyses. Furthermore, the constraints theories based on leisure research are currently being considered in some of the research on tourism, but there is less evidence of the application of such theories in the research analysing mobility.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

One of the main purposes of this study was to develop a deeper understanding of mobility in the cross-border area of the Basque Eurocity. The aim of this doctoral thesis is to comprehend the mobility patterns in cross-border areas, for which purpose the range of constraints affecting leisure time mobility and the ways of participation that imply cross-border mobility, have been analysed. Those elements, combined with individual internal and external characteristics, have been used to better understand the leisure behaviour in the cross-border area. First, the behaviour was analysed in terms of styles of mobility. Secondly, the main purpose was to design and develop a model explaining the general cross-border mobility frequency. This purpose could help develop initiatives fostering cross-border mobility and leisure participation. Thus, some policy recommendations could be drawn from the research.

Besides the analysis of the reality of cross-border mobility research, another purpose is related to the current research in existence. In that sense, the main purpose is two-fold since the study aims to develop mobility theories identifying a conceptual model, but also aims to develop an empirical model explaining cross-border leisure mobility. The proposed conceptual and empirical models are based on previous research on mobility and leisure, especially on the constraints theories that constitute the *Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*. This way, the first point is to see if the classification that Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993) made with the three types of constraints can also apply to the case of cross-border mobility. This research is based on constraints because constraints are analysed to “investigate factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (Jackson, 2000: 62).

This study considers the negotiation process of constraints, as well as with other aspects such as motivation, to somehow develop the theories behind mobility and leisure, and also to create an operative model, in order to examine people’s mobility in cross-border areas –transnational mobility. In this analysis, the constraints on leisure for both participants and non-participants in leisure activities, which entail cross-border mobility, will be considered. This purpose is based on the theories of mobility and leisure, with an emphasis on analysing constraints, and the fact that both have hardly been studied in an integrated way.

1.4. CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

This study is based on the process of globalisation and its influence on the increasing mobile reality. The transformation is evident in places around the world, especially in developed countries, such as in Europe, involved in the process of European construction. In the same way, and related to the globalisation and the constant flows and movements that this process implies, a new paradigm of mobility will be explained.

1.4.1. The Effects of Globalisation in Europe

In this section, the effects of globalisation will be analysed. First, the process of European Integration will be explained. Then its effect on border areas and in tourism will be analysed since our thinking is based on the idea that if we take into account geographical areas, cross-border areas have felt the European integration process more strongly and, from economical perspectives, tourism is one of the industries that has felt the effects the most.

1.4.1.1. The Effect of the Process of European Integration on Mobility

Europe is involved in a regional and national market integration process through a *Common Market* of the free circulation of goods, services and people. This is enough to reconsider border significance in an increasingly more globalised context, understanding globalisation as an emergent phenomenon that has effects at different levels as a result of economical, political, socio-cultural and technological processes (Hall, 2005a).

The cultural and social transformations of Europe illustrate that mobility is a central component of contemporary culture and ways of life. The European Union's course of action in conjunction with the opening of borders has fostered people's mobility. Thus, these initiatives had access to more than a third (36,4%) of the European Commission's budget in 2005. As a consequence of the process of European Construction, this trend transformed the contemporary reality, changing the consideration of the state or nation as an independent unit to a territory that is part of a wider entity of cooperation and coexistence.

The importance of mobility has increased since our involvement in the process of globalisation. Mobility, in fact, involves contact between cultures and people, generating flows of diverse natures: social, economical and cultural (Urry, 1990, 2002, 2007). Due to this, the perspective of researchers has changed, too, and there are increasing concerns about mobility-related issues, trying to take into account the phenomenon as an activity/reality that implies multiple social, geographical and political changes, and as a reality that previously went unrecognised by researchers and policy makers.

With the recent acceleration of globalisation, information, capital, and physical and social flows are emerging, too, breaking down the former conceptions of space and time. Thus, places are closer than ever, and not only because of the possibility of getting to other places faster than ever, but because of the possibility of having and knowing other places through technology such as the internet. Furthermore, because of increasing mobility, borders are more permeable than ever, and this makes those societies and cultures that were close before now more in touch with other –new or not– societies and cultures.

Thus, the “new global times has been a better understanding of the role of space and time in constituting social formations. Space and time had for long been treated in a taken-for-granted manner as ‘containers’ of human activities in a totally inert way: space as a mere stage upon which events occurred, time as a mere medium we experience consecutively” (Johnston, Taylor and Watts, 1995:6). The problematising of both space and time in social analyses repositioned a previously marginal geography toward the centre of the social sciences (Gregory and Urry, 1985).

In the same way, and as it has just been mentioned, the sense and function of the border are changing, too. Historically, the border has been changing continuously, as Sofield (2006) has pointed out “geopolitical boundaries have rarely if ever been static and history is thus central in reaching an understanding of ‘the mutual processes of construction and reconstruction of borders and identities.... Both (borders and identities) must be legitimated historically in order to meet with broad acceptance’” (Hageman et al. 2004: 3, cited in Sofield, 2006: 103). Their functions in history have been mainly the control of flows of goods and people, and that is why some authors –for instance Timothy (2006)– have written about the filter function of borders.

Nowadays, although there are borders that still have the function of delimitation –physically and socially speaking– of territories and flows of people, for instance, the border between Mexico and the United States, in other cases, as in the case of the European member states, the function of the border is not to limit the mobility of people, goods and capital any more, even though administrative border control is still working. Thus, the situation at the border has completely changed because of European Integration, while the boundaries have broken down as such. This situation has been improving since the “Treaty on European Union”, signed in 1992, when the borders were suppressed and the free movement of people and merchandise was accepted.

1.4.1.2. Globalisation and borders: The change of Cross-border areas

Borders have changed in the course of history, and the geographical areas or territories situated in or close to the border have been affected by the changes. The situation has shifted from the traditional conception, where as Hageman *et al.* (2004: 2) have stated, physical and conceptual border were “demarcations of ‘us’ and ‘them’ of delineating difference, of civilized from barbarian, of one field of endeavour (e.g. the arts) from another (the art of war), as either ‘open’ or ‘closed’, and of dividing friend from foe”.

As Hageman *et al.* (2004) and Sofield (2006) posited, border areas are spaces where different nations, governments, ethnicities and cultures meet. Thus, the term ‘border’ involves nations’ legal demarcations, but also the places of contact between states. Following the idea of this authors, the cross-border relationship has historically been different. They have not always been allowed, and therefore, the ‘border’s’ function was mainly to restrict, constrain, control and regulate the flow of people, capital and goods. This control of the cross-border contact has been, and still is, significant in the cases where there is a physical boundary. Those boundaries can be built by humans –after being politically demarcated– as shown by the Berlin Wall, the Great Wall of China or the wall between Mexico and the United States of America, but can also be marked by natural features, such as mountains, for instance, the Pyrenees, or rivers, for example, Bidasoa or Gibraltar, in the case of the Spanish borders.

However, as mentioned earlier in this study, since the Treaty of Maastricht (1992), a freedom of movement across the border has been established. In that sense, it can be seen that, “in the

context of the European Union, where integration policy is promoting the transformation of national borders from barriers into places of communication” (Prokkola, 2007: 120). Therefore, as (Nowotny, Scott and Gibbons, 2001: 26) stated in their analysis of modernity, “[i]t no longer has valid boundaries”. Therefore, the function of the border, which historically has been to restrict, constrain, control and regulate the flow of people, capital and goods, has changed to become an area of constant flows and interchange.

With the globalisation, physical borders are losing their previous sense of control and limit of movement, especially in European states, where the Integration of the European Community has changed the function of borders. In that sense, cross-border areas have changed significantly. However, although the physical or political borders have been suppressed, the border can also be a state of mind (Sofield, 2006). The consideration of the border as a mental barrier has been previously analysed by Timothy (2001), who has stated that borders, although they might not present a real or physical barrier, can act and be perceived as a barrier, even in the case of friendly neighbours.

Thus, cross-border areas are very significant territories for understanding the changes that are happening within the European Union, because the changes that are theoretically developed by politicians, in practise, are mainly affecting the areas situated at the border or near those borders. The European Union cross-border areas, thus, have become a micro-level resource for getting to know how the process of integration can develop at a macro-level.

In that sense, as Prokkola (2007) has posited, there are some researchers that have regarded cross-border regions as “laboratories”, where the advancement of the European integration process can be measured and evaluated. Thus, and continuing with the authors’ idea, a cross-border region can be conceptualised as “a territorial unit that comprises contiguous sub-national units from two or more nation-states” (Perkmann and Sum, 2002: 3).

Because of the new functions of borders, which, based on Timothy (2001), their functions of filter were changed by the function of their contact areas, and the mobility facilities behind the process of European integration, there has been an emergence of new interpretations of the territory during the last several decades. Thus, the appearance of new responses to the needs

and challenges involves a growing interdependence and global competitiveness. Two phenomena stand out in this process: urban networks and cross-border cooperation.

The phenomenon of urban networks has been growing since the early 80s and has been expressed as “the growing belief that next to the vertical, horizontal cooperation and linkages between cities are also important” (van Houtum and Lagendijk, 2001: 749). This concept overrides the previous concepts of the “urban field” (Friedman and Miller, 1965) and “city systems” (Pred, 1977). In the European integration process, the concept of urban networks became fashionable (Ministry of Education and Science, 1987; Pumain, 1992; Batten, 1995; Camagni and Salone, 1993) due to the belief that this process must be guided by the stimulation of networking among the cities of Europe.

The physical aspects of urban networks have gained a high profile because of the linkage between the competitiveness of these areas and their connection to the European communication system. Since the 90s, the notion of spatial corridors at national and international levels has complemented the concept of urban networks. In this view, the corridors are the spatial representation of the power relationships in the economic field that make possible the development of these urban areas. These corridors attract different types of flows: information, cultures, ideas, etc. As a consequence, these corridors play a double role in the progress of urban networks. On the one hand, they are spatial gateways for urban communication and competitiveness. On the other hand, they represent the frame of reference for the positioning of these urban areas in the competitive space (van Houtum and Lagendijk, 2001).

Cross-border cooperation is one of the different forms of territorial cooperation. It has priority since the internal borders of the European Member States were suppressed in 1993, and it is focussed on the creation of cross-border areas to develop a better relationship among neighbouring countries. This initiative, promoted by European institutions, culminated in the creation of euro-regions, making possible the realisation of trans-frontier activities and projects, encouraged by the European Community by means of several initiatives, for example, the INTERREG initiatives –which wants to implement cross border cooperation and provide support for economic development in less developed border regions (Etxebarria,

2004)– as well as others, such as FEDER and FEOGE, which are focussed on regional development, and consequently very helpful to the border regions.

1.4.1.3. Spanish and French Cross-border cooperation

This subsection will explain the cooperation of France and Spain throughout history, giving special relevance to the Treaty of Bayonne (based on Exebarria, 2004). After that, the current situation, from 2007 to 2013, of cross-border and trans-national cooperation will be explained (based on European Commission, 2009).

Historically, there have been different experiences in cross-border cooperation. There are treaties dating from 1856, 1862 and 1866 related to national limits with Spain, as well as celebrating the merging of the municipalities at the border. However, in the European Framework Agreement on Cross-Border Cooperation (1980 to 1992), there was no French right to sign cooperation instruments or agreements. In any case, before any agreement, it is necessary to sign a bilateral treaty with the implied territory. In spite of this, there were still no regulations concerning the participation of the French territories and their foreign rights.

However, this lack of rights was overruled in 1995, when the French communities were allowed to join a public organisation with foreign rights as well as to participate in at least one territorial community of another Member State of the European Community. With this law, the required aspects of efficient cross-border cooperation were finally obtained. At this moment in France, there are two possible modalities of cooperation: informal and formal. *Informal cooperation* has legal obligations, and this was first considered in March 1982 and was about the right of freedom for the municipalities, departments and regions. This law of decentralisation complements the law of 1972, but still has some limitations, because it was to be developed only by French regions that have a common border with other foreign decentralised communities. The cooperation was limited to regular contacts to be cemented, and it allows only cross-border cooperation activities. *Formal cooperation*. In 1992, the French government allowed, thanks to Orientation Law n° 92-125 (6 of February), the French communities to develop a triple activity: agreements with foreign territorial groups (Art 131); creation of local mixed economic societies (Art 132); and the creation of public interest groups (Art 135).

In the case of Spain, there are also formal and informal cross-border cooperation agreements. The *Formal cross-border cooperation* of the groups was profoundly marked by the dispositions of both the Treaties on the Limits with France of 1856, 1862, 1866 and the European Framework Agreement (21 of May of 1980). There were two main figures involved in making the cooperation effective: the European Economic Interest Grouping (AEIE); and the creation of societies for the direct and indirect management of services. The *Informal cooperation* was done through meetings, consults, information exchanges, projects and activities coordination and so on, and it did not incur any problems, because there was no reciprocal obligation among the involved parties.

The effect of the Treaty of Bayonne has contributed to filling the gaps in the law existing in this area of the Spanish arrangement. The treaty of Bayonne was the first “legal” step in French-Spanish Cooperation. This treaty started in 1989, but it was in 1994 that it became possible to enact it. The treaty was born with the intention of solving the problems of cross-border cooperation practices among entities with less power than the state. This way, the states of Spain and France decided to put it into a legal framework, which take into account the different administrative and political structures of the two states, with reference to cross-border efficient cooperation.

In 1994, it was possible to politically promote the Spanish-French treaty. This treaty was possible due to the clear common policy wish; the previous existence of a internal regulation of the cooperation structures with legal representation and the time coincidence respecting other juridical texts as the Additional Protocol of 1995 to the European Framework Agreement. The Commission was formed by six representatives named by the respective governments, and they met with each other four times per year.

The main objective of the treaty is to make the cross-border cooperation among territorial entities of the border in the Pyrenees easier, giving the necessary juridical framework for its development that provides an integral and harmonised response to the essential questions of cross-border cooperation in the public right schedule. Taking into account the Treaty of Bayonne, there is flexibility regarding the territories that can participate in it. Moreover, the treaty does not limit the cooperation to the communities that are near the border.

Currently, as it has been previously mentioned, there are policies implementing cross-border cooperation both directly and indirectly, and some of them are affecting the cooperation between Spain and France (European Commission, 2009). Two of the 13 transnational programmes under the European Territorial Cooperation are running currently, and one of the 52 Cross-Border Cooperation programmes is affecting cooperation at the border between Spain and France.

1.4.1.4. Cross-border cooperation in the “Basque Country” (CAPV)

The Basque Autonomous Community has historical contacts with France, as Basque Lands have historically constituted some provinces situated on the Spanish side and others on the French side of the border. As it stands, all the provinces share the same Basque cultural and language background (Etxebarria, 2004).

As a consequence, contact has been a common aspect of this community, especially in the territories and at historical times when the border was more permeable. However, the natural contact between inhabitants due to commerce and interchange, above others, has been more complicated in the case of administration because of the centralisation of the states.

However, and as it has been shown before, an interstate relationship has been established as well as legalised through the Treaty of Bayonne. The cross-border cooperation was fostered by public institutions, but also by other private initiatives, which were very important for dynamising cross-border experiences. Furthermore, and in the creation of the networks in this area, it is possible to say that the most common initiatives promoting them are the sub-estate authorities, which voluntarily incorporate those themes that need coordinating treatment.

There are different networks that affect cross-border cooperation in the Basque territory, and it can be institutional, as well as non-institutional. Non-institutionalised cooperation is based on the common space, culture and language that the Basque communities share, while institutionalised cooperation is interregional and interurban.

Referring to *Interregional Cooperation*, there are different protocols of cooperation from different times (Etxebarria, 2004): Euskadi-Aquitania (1989); Euskadi-Aquitania-Navarra

(1992); Euskadi-Midi Pyrénées (2002); and Aquitania-Navarra. In the case of *Interrurban cooperation*, there is the Bayonne-San Sebastián Basque Eurocity, while in the *Intermunicipal cooperation*, there is the cross-border consortium Bidasoa-Txingudi.

This way, and due to the impossibility of making a network with direct relationships among the territories behind the different states –South and North Basque Country, a cooperation among different political levels was established to manage and supervise the network.

The case of the Basque Eurocity Corridor

Bayonne-San Sebastián Basque Eurocity is an interurban cooperation fostered by the communities on both sides of the border in the coastal area of the Basque Country. This initiative started in January 1993, and it was developed by the person responsible for Diputación Foral de Gipuzkoa and the Community of Agglomeration Biarritz-Anglet-Baiona (BAB) because it was a district at that time that compromised on promoting the cooperation among the institutions on both sides of the border.

At that time, as Ahedo Gurrutxaga (2004) stated, a strategy was developed to move the cross-border concentration among the municipalities of both sides of the border, with the objective of transforming the urban reality that straddles the 50 km between Bayona and San Sebastián, which was a mere jumble of different administrative buildings until that moment, and turn it into a new European city of 600.000 inhabitants (Euro-ciudad, 2003).

The Basque Eurocity has a surface of 58.934 km² and a population of 5.504.263. Although it seems there are wide differences among the communities on both sides of the border, there are also similarities: similar Gross Domestic Product (GDP); the industry is concentrated in the metropolitan areas, the importance of the third sector, and so on. The most important characteristic is the location of Bilbao and Bordeaux as dynamised subdivisions. This way, the Spanish-French border is seen as an area of opportunities because of their similar characteristics and their competitive geographical situation, for being among two different nations, and because it is the contact area of northern Europe with the South –Spain and Portugal in Europe– but also of Africa.

The following map shows the situation of the Basque Eurocity Corridor in Europe.



FIGURE 1. THE BASQUE EUROCITY CORRIDOR

As can be seen in the figure, the territory designated as the Basque Eurocity has a central geographical situation. This area is the contact between France and Spain, between southern and northern Europe, but also between northern Europe and Africa, since almost everyone has to pass through the border at Behobia or Biriattou to go to Spain or to go to the south.

1.4.2. The effect of European Integration on Tourism Mobility and the increase of human flows across the borders

Most research that investigates mobility flows has traditionally focussed on economic and social impacts generated by those flows. However, little has been done with respect to the analysis of the complexities of “mobilities” in cross-border areas. In accordance with the new sociology, the pattern is to recognize the complexity of this process and to analyse the mobility from a multidimensional and interdisciplinary point of view. Some studies have emphasised that those “mobilities” have the capacity to construct and re-construct physical environments and diverse cultural forms (Urry, 2000; Meethan, 2001).

However, mobility, which implies crossing a border that may still be in the mind of its citizens, could be constrained by the national border. In cross-border areas, the meeting of two societies, maybe with different cultures, characteristics, customs and consuming patterns, happens. This is important mainly in the cases in which the border has historically been a very strong and close border, both geographically and politically. The closeness of the border can stem the development of independent societies, although these can have a common cultural basis. Furthermore, as it has been explained before, European institutions fostered initiatives implementing mobility, especially international mobility of people living in the European Community.

Mobility is implemented in different areas for workers by Article 39 of the EC Treaty, which regulates the issue of mobility and is considered to be one of the most important rights of EU citizens (Eurofund, 2009) and also for students, implemented considerably with initiatives such as the “Erasmus Programme” (European Commission, 2010). This programme supported the mobility of 1.683.928 students from its first phase, started in 1987/88, throughout the final phase in 2006/07.

The globalisation of the markets has opened new opportunities for the movement of tourists, too. The EU tourism policy is enhancing tourism development, which is further enhanced by a greater number of private and public stakeholders at international, European, national, regional and local levels. The policy focuses on three main areas: (1) mainstreaming measures affecting tourism; (2) promoting tourism sustainability; and (3) enhancing the understanding and the visibility of tourism (European Commission, 2009). For that purpose, six different actions have been developed: Calypso (social tourism); Cooperation in tourism; EDEN-Destinations of Excellence; Sustainability and Competitiveness; Promoting EU tourism; and Sustainable Tourism-Iron Curtain.

In Europe, tourism is considered an element with “a great potential as regards contributing to the achievement of several major EU objectives, such as sustainable development, economic growth, employment as well as social cohesion”. “The EU tourism industry generates more than 4% of the EU GDP, with about 2 million enterprises employing around 4% of the total labour force (approximately 8 million jobs). When related sectors are taken into account, the estimated contribution of tourism to GDP creation is much higher - tourism indirectly

generates about 11% of the European Union's GDP and provides about 12% of the labour force” (European Commission, 2010).

1.4.2.1. The effects of Globalisation on Tourism

As Mules (2001) pointed out in the last part of the 20th century, there has been an increase in international movement of goods, services, people, funds and information, because of EU politics that enhanced the free movement of people, services and capital across boundaries in the European community.

In the last decades, Europe has been immersed in a globalisation process, as was explained in the first section, with the integration of regional and national markets into a *common market*, promoting the free circulation of goods, services and people. Besides the opening up of national borders in Europe, the political boundaries continue to define the national interest, as well as demanding from *policy-makers* information on the impact of tourism on the national economy. The economic impact has traditionally been measured by the multiple effects of the national economical variables, for example, the national income level and the employment rate.

The opening up of the national borders has been called globalisation or internationalisation. Tourism is an exponent of this tendency that implies the movement of people, international payments, the *cross-fertilization of cultures*, and the internationalisation of business based on tourism infrastructures, such as hotels and attractions. Globalisation is an emergent phenomenon that affects the mobility or flows on multiple levels as a result of the diverse economical, political, socio-cultural and technological processes (Hall, 2005a). Furthermore, as Urry (2000) posited in his diverse works, people, objects and information move and travel, and consequently, have the capacity to produce and reproduce social lives and new cultural forms of different natures, but in inter-related and inter-connected territories.

Tourism as a mayor exponent of mobility in the Knowledge Society: the transformation of a model

The increase of tourism activity has been developed as a Fordist model or as a mass activity, developed in the 50's and 60's and based on the demand for sun and beach products, where the sector provides cheap and standard tourism products. In the 90's, tourism sectors suffered a crisis because of the maturity of sun and beach products, a generational change with travel experiences and a higher cultural level, the worldwide economic crisis, the lack of infrastructure renovation, the new environmental conscience opposed to the overcrowding suffered until then, and the presence of the low cultural level tourist due to the reduction in prices.

There is an increasingly heterogeneous demand, added to different and continuously changing life styles and values, with people who are more and more used to travelling. In the same case, there is an increasing flexibility in holiday and leisure disposition. All those changes provide both risks and opportunities, resulting in the increase of competency in tourism destinations.

In the relationship between globalisation and tourism, we can see that, as Macleod (1999) highlighted, tourism is one of the maximum exponents of global flows. This way, the consequences of globalisation in the tourism framework goes beyond a simple change in the extension or time destined to travel, because: (1) the costs and time designated for mobility in the space falls, and consequently, the connection of different parts in the world increases, which has been defined as *hypermobility*; and, at the same time, (2) the contact and flows among different cultures and, consequently people, increase.

As mentioned above, tourism is one of the most globalised industries (Timothy, 2006) and one of the best exponents of global flows (Macleod, 1999). Consequently, and taking into account travel literally (from A to B), places, territories and people today are more connected (Mesplier and Bloc-Duraffour, 2000), as the following picture (figure 2) shows.

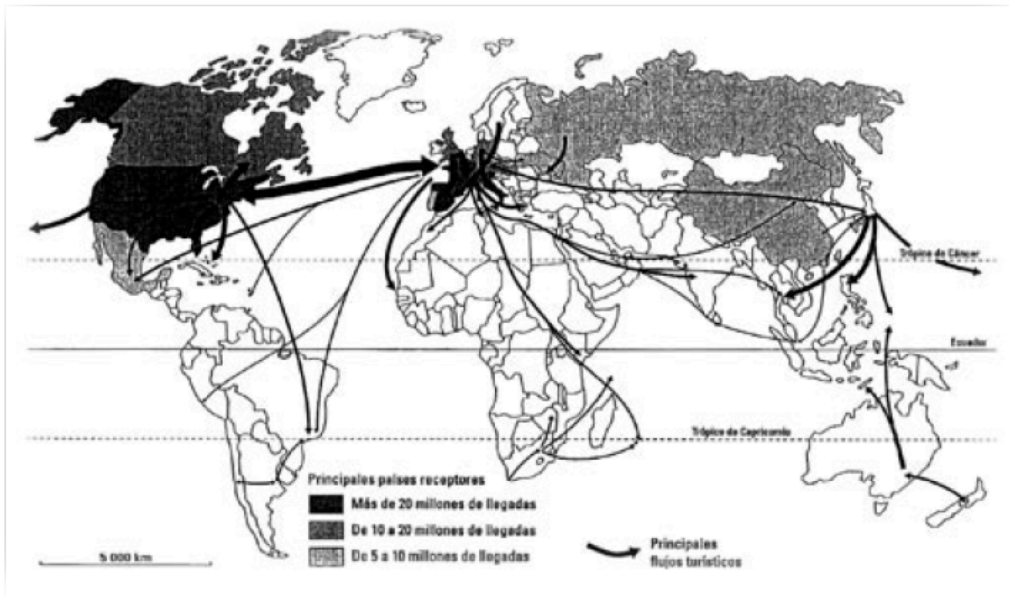


FIGURE 2. THE TOURISM GLOBAL FLOWS IN 2001 (Mesplier and Bloc-Duraffour, 2000)

In accordance with the World Tourism Organization (WTO), tourism activity is one of the most significant phenomenon today, both socially and economically, which is shown by the growth of this activity. Growth has been substantial, mainly from the middle of the past century, which went from 25 million international arrivals in 1950 to reach a total amount of 920 million in 2008 and 880 million in 2009. Furthermore, “[t]ourism is an activity that takes place in all continents and its economic significance and impacts are far reaching” (Fletcher, 2009, 166).

Currently, tourism is considered a decisive global economic strength, and a wide global industry. Furthermore, tourism is continuously increasing as it is shown by the data given by the UNWTO (2007), which mention that tourism enhances all aspects of world tourism flows. Nine hundred and twenty-two million international tourist arrivals were measured in 2008, which is a gain of 1,9% over 2007 (UNWTO, 2010), and the prospects and perspectives for the future are positive.

In this context, the importance of tourism flows both in France and Spain is crucial, because along with the United States, they are the top three places to visit, taking into account destinations but also the number of international tourism receipts.

1.4.3. The effects of the changing globalised contexts in the theory analysing social processes

Meethan (2001: 34) pointed that globalisation “is not merely the sum of international or transnational connections between places, but rather implies a different order of relationships structured across space and time”. “In essence, globalisation involves the exchange and flow of economic and intellectual items in terms of goods, knowledge, values and images, as well as people, on a global scale” (cf. Featherstone, 1990a,b; Featherstone and Lash, 1995, cited in Macleod, 2004: 4). This way, it seems obvious that “globalisation implies increasing interconnectivity, increasing economic ‘depth’ and the extension of commodity relations into realms which were previously seen as free from such influences” (Meethan 2001: 35).

The changing reality in the social life has influence in the academic world, and in the scientific knowledge. This way, “during this period, we have passed from paradigms of social analysis that grappled with modernity, to those dealing with postmodernity and more recently, to paradigms that are beginning to assess economic, social, cultural and political changes in terms of globalisation” (Meethan, 2001: 2). Therefore, this new “global reality” goes towards the change both within and without academia. Other authors (Robertson, 1995) have sustained this idea as well. This way, globalisation means that the traditional boundaries of social science are, rather like their subject matter, in the process of revision.

Spatial mobility denotes the most immediate aspect of mobility in our social lives and is manifested by, for example, dramatic increases in both international tourism and business travel in the 20th century. But mobility, in the sense of human geographical movement, makes necessary the reconsideration of the notion of mobility, and tries to expand our perspective towards it. “To do so, we argue that ‘being mobile’ is not just a matter of people travelling but, far more importantly, related to the interaction they perform – the way in which they interact with each other in their social lives” (Kakihara and Sorensen, 2001, 33). In this sense, the mobile process and the process of globalisation, tourism is an important factor, because being a tourist implies being mobile, and interacting with different peoples and places. As some researchers have shown, tourism is one of the “most obvious forms of globalisation” (Held et al., 1999: 360).

Mobility and social flows may be related to many different desires, causes and historical moments, such as work, free time or the time spent on leisure-recreation. This doctoral thesis is concerned with the mobility or flows of people within, but especially beyond, the cross-border areas. As a consequence, this work is based on an emerging sociological approach, based on the society in flux more than on a static society, as it has been until now.

1.4.3.1. The New Mobilities Paradigm

As Hannam, Sheller and Urry pointed out (2006: 2) “it seems that a new paradigm is being formed within the social sciences, the ‘new mobilities’ paradigm (Sheller and Urry, 2006)”. With this idea, the previous vision of societies as the centre point of sociology is no longer considered because of the rise of multiple mobilities, which will constitute the context for this research (Mavric and Urry, 2009).

The new mobilities paradigm tries to put into theory the fact that “[o]ur societies are constructed around flows: flows of capital, flows of information, flows of technology, flows of organizational interactions, flows of images, sounds and symbols... they are the expression of the processes dominating our economic, political, and symbolic life. Thus, I propose the idea that there is a new spatial form characteristic of social practices that dominate and shape the network society: the space of flows” (Castells, 1996: 412). Castells’ flows metaphor is, in fact, mobility, and the “space of flows” could also be seen as a “space of mobilities”.

Bauman also stated the importance of mobility in the modern world using the term *liquid* to explain the mobility and the fluidity in several works, for instance, *Liquid modernity* (2000), *Liquid life* (2005) and *Liquid times* (2007). This author highlighted the effect of mobility on social constructions, arguing the transition of the sociology who had explained society as a solid and fixed to a particular space, to a new sociological perspective analysing society from a “much more fluid and speeded-up ‘liquid modernity’ (2000)” (Urry, 2002: 141).

However, sociology has hardly taken mobility into account in its analysis of societies, looking at them as “sedentary societies”. This way, as Sheller and Urry (2006: 208) stated “[s]ocial science has largely ignored or trivialised the importance of the systematic movements of people for work and family life, for leisure and pleasure, and for politics and protest. The

paradigm challenges the ways in which much social science research has been ‘a-mobile’”. However, this perspective is increasingly being criticised, and mobility is increasingly being considered a component of current societies.

The importance of mobility in the current knowledge-based society answers the centrality of the interconnection processes in the definition of economic and social dynamics in the contemporary world (Castells, 2000). In mobility and in its relation to time and space, tourist activity has been considered a determinant factor in the circulation and transference of flows in its global concept because of its relationship with the production and consummation of all kind of goods.

In this sense, it is necessary to take into account that the distances related to space and time are changing owing to the development of new technologies. In the physical aspect of mobility, technology changes help to overcome the distance of different places, enabling people to go anywhere faster, easier and cheaper, which changes the sense of distance between different places, making them closer than in any other time before. As a consequence, the frequencies of travel and the volume of goods and people, which participate in these mobilities, are some of the most important things characterising the current time. In that sense, Urry (1997) added the idea of the “death of distance” for some social groups. Virtual mobilities such as the virtual or communicative mobilities, which, although increasingly important these days, are affected drastically. Regarding this reduction of the scale of time and the growth of the possibilities for travel, there is no doubt that people’s and current societies’ lives have developed new patterns whose implications need to be understood (Urry, 2000; Hannam, Sheller and Urry 2006).

Mobility implies new series of contacts and interactions, and new patterns of production and reproduction on the one hand, and patterns of consummation on the other. Depending on the activity, the time and the distances covered change. As different theories of mobility show, people, goods and information move or “travel” and have the capacity to produce and reproduce social lives and cultural forms of diverse natures (Urry, 2000; 2002). These constant flows make the territories and cultures closer; as well as making them more and more interrelated and interconnected.

Taking into consideration mobility in its general sense, it is possible to speak about virtual mobility due to new technologies, especially the internet, imaginative mobility, and so on. As Urry pointed out, “all the world seems to be on the move” (Sheller and Urry, 2006). Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006: 1) further posited “the concept of mobilities encompasses both the large-scale movements of people, objects, capital and information across the world, as well as the more local processes of daily transportation, movement through public space and the travel of material things within every life”.

The importance of mobility is increasing, especially in the last several years, as a consequence of the democratisation of the new communication systems, which are generating different kinds of flows. The growth of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) systems and mobile systems has transformed social life and communication, breaking down the distances. This is the reason that some researchers argued that people in the post-industrial era are becoming geographically independent “nomads” supported by various technologies (Kakihara and Sorensen, 2001). Since then, “the 1990s have seen remarkable ‘time space compression’ as people across the globe have been brought closer through various technologically-assisted developments” (Urry, 2002: 141). Therefore, mobility has become a core category that structures the social life of people (D’Andrea, 2006).

With this new “mobile reality”, the research interest on the subject of mobility, and the interactions and transformations that it generates has grown. Researchers have shown how mobilities criss-crossing societal borders in new temporal-spatial patterns constitute a new view of the sociology of mobilities (Meethan, 2001; Urry, 1995, 2000; Urry and Rojek, 1997), since mobility implicates a social relationship, a relationship between people and things, and has the possibility of creating and recreating new social or cultural forms. This is because, as Urry explains (2000), people, objects and information move and “travel”, therefore, they have the capacity to create and recreate different types of social lives and cultural forms.

Therefore, cultures are themselves mobile as a result of the mobilities movement or mobility of different societies. It can be said that mobility, criss-crossing the regional borders of society, brings out some aspects of contemporary “de-territorialization” (Lefebvre 1991, in Urry, 2000).

1.4.3.2. Dimensions and perspectives encouraged by the New Mobilities Paradigm

Taking into account the theoretical conceptions of mobility, Hall (2005a) has postulated a model of mobility trying to integrate tourism with others forms of mobility. With that purpose, this representation of mobility takes into account the total amount of travel – interactions– in space and time, as shown in Figure 3.

Most of the research is based on the traditional perspective, which has as its basis a study of the definitions that mainly take into account two dimensions: temporal and geographical. There are so many different definitions of tourism, but the one most widely used is that provided by the World Tourism Organisation (1991), which recommended differentiating between visitors, tourists and excursionists (day-trippers). However, there is an increasing international agreement that “‘tourism’ refers to all activities of visitors, including both overnight and same day visitors (United Nations 1994, p.5)” (cited in Hall, 2006: 17). Thus, travel is being considered tourism depending on the time spent away from home (abroad) or the distance travelled from home.

The following figure provides a two-dimensional representation of some of the key concepts of tourism in space and time. The figure also illustrates the critical points of time for definitional purposes in that twenty-four hours or an overnight stay away from home is usually used to differentiate between day tripping and tourism. Depending on the jurisdiction, time is also used to classify migration and tourism: in some countries it is six months away from the country of permanent residence, in others it is twelve months.

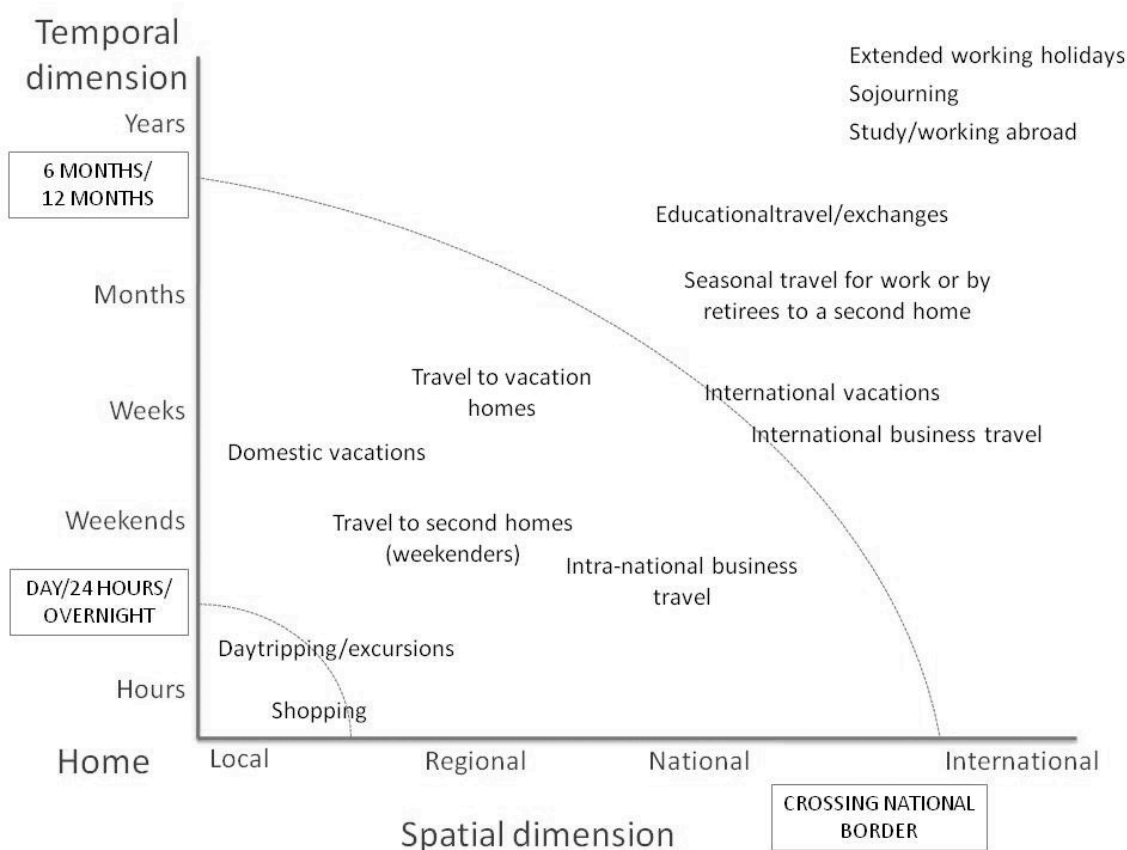


FIGURE 3. TEMPORARY MOBILITY IN SPACE AND TIME (Hall, 2002: 20)

Research has been developed that takes into account these two dimensions: space and time, above all. It is considered that the relationships between space and time have implications for the study of mobility. It has been proven that people’s activities are very related to the dimensions of time and space, as shown in the figure above.

Thus, it is considered that the dimensions of time and space have been decisive in the analysis of people’s activities. In the same way, and due to this consideration, such space-time relationships have also impacted the scientific frameworks. For instance, there are different perspectives from which to study mobility, and it has somehow been seen as leisure studies, transport studies, tourism and migration studies, all depending on the type of mobility in the space and during the time (Hall, 2005a: 20-21) (further explained in the literature review – chapter 2).

However, there is an historical lack of interdisciplinary nature/point of view among the scientific subjects. This un-interdisciplinary perspective is becoming problematic in the case

of the study and measure of human mobility, which needs to go beyond the national and international surveys of tourism and migration, as well as studies of short-and long-term travel. As Hall (2006: 21) stated, “this may have occurred because of the relative lack of seriousness given to the tourism phenomenon in the wider social sciences until very recently”. There is an increase in the consideration of the potentiality of trans-disciplinary and interdisciplinary research, but the system of academic research and institutions is still very disciplinary. However, there are a number of researchers, such as Urry, Sheller, Hannam, Hall, Meethnam et al. who “are seeking to find a new common ground for the study of human mobility” (Hall, 2006: 21).

The problem that the lack of interdisciplinary perspective of human mobility evidences in theory is also important in the measurements of such mobility and its statistics. This way, for example, the crossing of a national border separates domestic from international tourism as it does domestic from international migration. Moreover, space is also used as the determinant of regional and local tourism statistics. Those statistics measure mobility from point A to point B but with a very generalised perspective –nationality, for example– while paying less attention to the specific places where people are coming from or going to.

This situation affects the measurement of mobility in border areas, since current measures are taking into account the amount of flows going into the state, but not the specific mobility in the borderland, which constantly flows from one side to the other. This short term constant mobility is difficult to measure because of its international condition, hardly taken into account in leisure studies, and hardly taken into account in transnational or cross-border mobility.

1.4.4. General theoretical and practical position of the present study

This research covers the perspective of mobility as an element that has the capacity to create and recreate new spatial and political structures, and, with this, new social forms that have been described as a vision of a “network society” by Castells (1996). Furthermore, geopolitical boundaries are dynamic, and “considering mobility in term of borders, governments exercise a number of regulatory and legislative powers that both facilitate and

hinder tourism flows” (Sofield, 2006: 106). Hence, the borders among different states are not as restricted as before, and as a result, there are more facilities to move.

Consequently, mobility flows are increasing as well, especially in cross-border areas. This is why nowadays it is not possible to speak about society and place without taking into account the process of globalisation in which we are immersed.

In this context, and understanding tourism as a voluntary activity in leisure time, with the perception of freedom that it implies in a cross-border context, enables to understand that the border acts as a transit line between two different realities or surroundings; yet, in the same way, it is possible to understand that the border factor can also be a limiting factor or constraint (Timothy, 2006), inhibiting cross-border participation, and, therefore, cross-border mobility.

The possibility of the border as a constraint to people’s cross-border mobility and participation is based on the idea that, in general, people are afraid of crossing borders (Morales, 1996, cited in Michaelsen and Jonson, 2003: 83). This concept was also considered in the geographical area of Bayona-Donostia Basque Eurocity, in *The White Paper of the Basque Eurocity* (2000), where it is stated that the border constitutes a psychological and political constraint in the valuation of the cross-border territory and constitutes a large-scale inherited burden.

This way, it is easy to think that in the cross-border territories, factors could exist that constrain mobility. Overall, this research has explored the degree to which the border is a constraint to mobility and leisure participation in order to better understand new metropolitan development.

1.5. GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF THE THESIS

This thesis is the result of some objectives and research interest related to mobility in leisure time and constraints to mobility. This work has been developed with the main purpose of contributing to the elimination of the fragmentation in leisure and mobility studies, through the combination of an alternative and “conventional” analytical strategies to better understand the current social behaviour and its consequence. To achieve the above-named purposes, research has been developed through three general ideas or objectives related to theory, methodology and, finally, policy implementation:

1.5.1. Objectives related to theory

The first objective is concerns the theoretical perspective, based on the idea of better understanding the leisure mobility patterns in cross-border areas. Before this analysis, there was no specific support or knowledge about cross-border mobility in leisure time. Thus, the free-time use of the people living in the Basque Eurocity has been analysed to better understand the mobility behaviour of its citizens. Above all, people’s behaviour related to their mobility patterns and leisure participation –both positive and negative– in the cross-border area has been analysed. Taking into account the theory, the following objectives has been settled:

- a. Explain the differences in mobility patterns in leisure time of the inhabitants of cross-border areas based on leisure tendencies and personal characteristics.
- b. To extend the leisure constraints model by adding three separate sub-dimensions of structural constraints in the tourism context. These findings would also affect to the Industry, since as knowing why people do not travel may suggest strategies that can be used to overcome constraints, therefore, helps destination management organisations design strategies to overcome those constraints.
- c. To determine the dimensional structure of constraints, while examining the possible sub-dimensional structure of constraints in the case of leisure related cross-border mobility.

- d. To develop and design a conceptual framework explaining cross-border mobility while integrating mobility and leisure theories. Furthermore, one of the most important aims is the analysis of the possible applicability of the constraints-related factor in developing a conceptual model.

1.5.2. Objectives related to methodology

From the methodological perspective, this research wants to develop and test an empirical model to explain mobility in cross-border areas, using mobility theories and the widely used model of constraints to leisure in the particular case of border areas, to develop an empirical model of mobility. Within this main methodological objective, the following sub-objectives has been posited:

- a. To develop an empirical model which corresponds to the previously identified conceptual model explaining mobility that entails crossing a national border. This model would help to generalise it to tourism.
- b. Identify if in the structural constraints, the geographical constraints are affected as much as other types of constraints, such as cost or lack of time and lack of facilities.
- c. Leisure constraint aspects that concern geographers: the geographical factors that create opportunities for leisure preferences, participation and enjoyment.

1.5.3. Objectives related to policy implementation

This part of the study is based on the problems or constraints behind cross-border mobility in the Basque Eurocity. The identification of the possible constraints could help take them into account when policymakers design new strategies for mobility in cross-border areas. In that sense, the following objectives has been addressed:

- a. Identify the general characteristics of leisure related mobility in the Basque Eurocity Cross-Border Area. Define the different mobility patterns in the area.
- b. Identify if the constraints are affecting leisure choices, and if there are structural constraints, are they more important than others.

- c. Identify if the spatial variation, for instance, closeness of the border, affects the perception and experience of constraints.
- d. What is the relative importance of geographical or structural constraints versus other types of constraints to leisure?
- e. Are there significant spatial variations in the experience of constraints on leisure and, if so,
- f. How much does the closeness of the border affect the experience of constraints in comparison with variables that have commonly been investigated in leisure constraints theory?

As has been explained earlier, each question is connected to different scientific approaches, and as a consequence, each research question considered above will be developed through its literature review and its data analysis.

1.6. ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This work is divided into five different chapters. The first one is the introduction, where the objectives, the necessity, the purpose, the context and the objectives of the research have been explained. After that, the literature review and the methodology used to analyse mobility in the area are explained. The following section explains the empirical framework, and the proposed models for the study are described. Then, the results obtained through data analysis are shown. Finally, the conclusions obtained through the theory and data analyses will be elucidated.

This research is based on different theories, as explained throughout the different subsections of the introduction. First of all, it is based on the theories behind mobility. Secondly, and following mobility, the research analyses tourism and travel theories –domestic travel– because most of the time the mobility assets of free time are synonymous with tourism. Lastly, the study is based on leisure theories due to the effort of finding a deeper understanding of the causes that result in non-participation. In this way, mobility during free time in a cross-border environment will be analysed. Moreover, the items related to leisure participation constraints will be used to analyse the reasons for explaining mobility frequency in cross-border areas. This will help to better understand cross-border mobility and mobility styles in this area, since the constraints theory helps to form a deeper understanding of people's behaviour during leisure time.

This study aims to show the confluence of two different theories: (1) Mobility theories, and (2) Constraints to Leisure and Tourism theories. These theories have been utilised with two main objectives: first, the identification of mobility patterns in the cross border areas, and second, the identification of the constraints factors affecting leisure mobility in the cross-border areas. The first two objectives have also been used to arrive at the main objective of the study: **the creation of both a theoretical framework and an empirical model explaining mobility in cross-border areas**. The figure 4 shows the conceptualisation of the study.

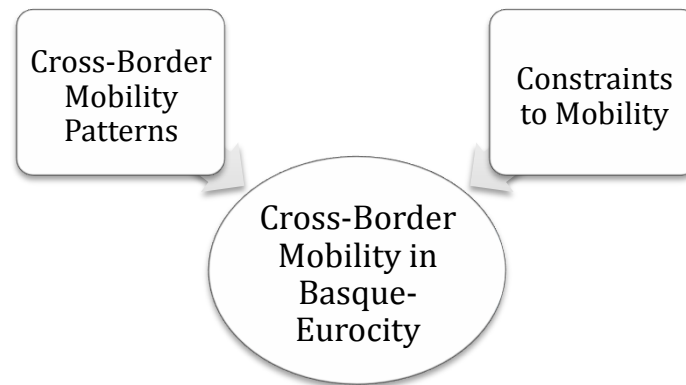


FIGURE 4. CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE STRUCTURE

In this approach, the authors want to know if, in cross-border mobility in leisure time, there are factors affecting this type of mobility. To this end, we decided to investigate by means of two different sections that will help us to understand the general purpose of knowing the mobility reality at the border, which will then be presented as the third statistical analysis.

1.6.1. Mobility patterns and leisure behaviour

The aim of this section is to understand the general free time mobility patterns of the people living in the Basque Eurocity. For this, it is crucial to identify the characteristics of leisure related mobility in the area. For that, mobility frequencies have been analysed, taking into account the geographical impact –proximity of the border– on this mobility. In the same way, leisure activities behind this mobility have been identified so that we have a better understanding of the activity associated with the different patterns of mobility.

Consequently, it will be possible to identify the mobility patterns in the Basque Eurocity and manage this behaviour in an empirical model, looking for the existing influences and relations among different variables and constructs.

1.6.2. Constraints to Mobility in cross-border areas

In this section, two different aspects or points of view of constraints are analysed. This part of the study's objective is to contrast or validate the leisure constraints theory to the case of cross-border leisure related mobility. That is to say, test whether the classification of constraints given in *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* can be implemented in the

area. Therefore, taking into account what leisure theories have demonstrated over the last several years, data will be analysed and contrasted to identify how a hierarchical model of leisure constraints is working in cross-border areas.

The second aspect studied through the constraints is the effect that the perceived constraints have on mobility styles of the area –contrasting with the obtained mobility clusters– on the one hand, but also measuring the significance that the constraints factors have on the frequency of cross-border mobility in leisure time. Consequently, the identification of leisure constraints has been considered essential to better understanding the leisure behaviour mobility patterns in this area.

1.6.3. Cross-Border Mobility in Cross-Border Areas

The third and last section will take into account the theoretical and empirical evidence of theories of mobility, and tourism and leisure, in combination. The objective of this part of the study is two-fold: as proposed, a theoretical framework of mobility, which has been recently implemented and tested, so as to obtain an empirical model explaining cross-border mobility.

Taking into account the mobility patterns in the area, and the results obtained through the section studying leisure constraints, the aim is to identify the elements and factors affecting or influencing people's cross-border mobility frequency. For that purpose, the impact of internal and external elements is measured, paying special attention to the effect of structural constraints and the distance between home and border.

Through those sections, it should be possible to better understand the leisure time mobility in cross-border areas. To be concrete, this research is focussed on people's mobility related to leisure in cross-border areas because “borders are likely to become a focus of increased attention for tourism researchers” (Sofield, 2006: 188).

In sum, and to finish this section, we want to define a model for *cross-border mobility in leisure time* for this area, in contrast with the other models working since then, as for example, the model proposed by Hall (2005a) or the models analysing tourism based on the leisure constraints model proposed by Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The present research analyses human mobility behaviour in leisure time at transnational level. For that analysis, both, the theories behind sociology analysing human mobility and the theories explaining leisure participation have been taken into account. The two main theories have been used to divide the literature review in two main subsections: (1) Understanding Mobility in Leisure Time, and (2) Understanding Constraints to Mobility in Cross-Border Areas.

The first section analyses the tendencies and the evolution of the study of mobility from the sociological approach. For that purpose, firstly, the current perspective analysing mobility as an integrate discipline is described, and secondly the traditional tendencies of the different disciplines that have studied mobility in any sense and underlying it relation with leisure as a discipline is explained.

The second section is based on the psycho-sociological approach of leisure. This subsection analyses aspects related to leisure participation behaviour, paying special attention to the literature of constraints, as it is considered that the identification of constraints helps to better understand people's behaviour (based on Jackson and Scott, 1999; Jackson and Henderson 1995; Kelly and Godbey, 1992; Lanzendorf, 2000; McGuire and Dottavio, 1996; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008; Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe, 2004).

Both approaches has been analysed separately, since researches joining both perspectives as integrated theory are not very common until the last ten years. However, current theoretical perspectives shows the necessity to integrate different perspectives, since "tourism is therefore increasingly being interpreted as but one, albeit highly significant, dimension of temporary mobility and circulation (Bell and Ward, 2000; Urry 2000a, 2000b; Williams and Hall 2000, 2002; Larsen 2001; Hall and Williams 2002a; Sheller and Urry 2003; Coles et al. 2004; Hall and Müller 2004a)" (cited in Hall, 2005a: 21).

The consideration of the mobility as an integrate phenomena is at the moment in the debate of different disciplines studying mobility and its economic and social consequences in any sense, as for instance, human geography, anthropology, sociology, tourism, transport, leisure and so on. This new perspective contrasts with the traditional studies that, as it has been explained in the introduction, analyses mobility from different and separate perspectives, depending on the type of mobility or the time expending outside the place of residence. However, the majority of the researches are still using the traditional perspective of analyse social processes based on mobilities, in a no transversal way, as it has been mentioned in the sub-section “contextualisation” of the introduction.

Since border between theories behind mobility are often too unclear, this section will analyse the literature behind the different perspectives of mobility, following the theories of Coles, Duval and Hall (2005). Based on Hall (2005a: 19), the relation among different disciplines related to leisure, mobility and tourism seems clear, although it has been traditionally unconnected. The following figure (Figure 5) shows the relation among disciplines, as well as “describes various forms of consumption through reference to travel activities and motivations”.

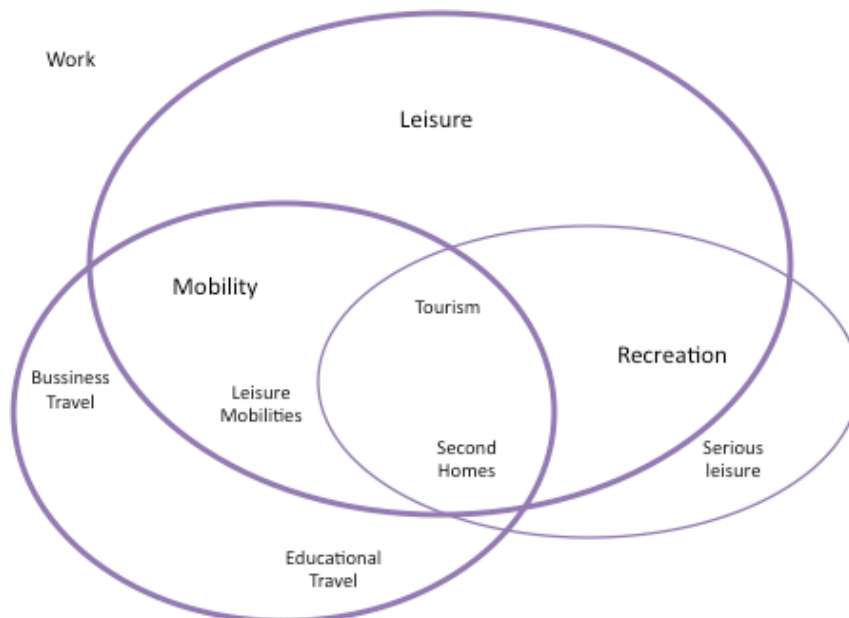


FIGURE 5. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEISURE, MOBILITY AND RECREATION (Based on the relationships between Leisure, Recreation and Tourism and Cognate Concepts proposed by Hall, 2005: 19)

Following the current researching viewpoints about mobility, this work is based in the need of interdisciplinary approach and cross-fertilisation of subjects which has been proposed in the New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP), the theory proposed and developed by some authors analysing the social perspective behind mobility, such as Urry (2007), Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006), Hannam and Knox (2010). Concretely, the approach of this study is based in the mobility in leisure time itself, within the dimensions of time and distance or space, but as explaining dimensions, not as delimiting factors among scientific focuses.

This work is focused on the relationship between tourism and leisure, and all kinds of mobilities involving in it, since it is considering that the understanding of today's peoples' mobility patterns is necessary to better understand the current society and its way of life. Therefore, the perspective adopted by this doctoral thesis is based on the New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP) and the concept of mobility proposed by this paradigm, which goes beyond the traditional fragmentation of the disciplines. This new sociological perspective allows studying the current society, characterised by being in constant mobility.

2.1. UNDERSTANDING MOBILITY IN LEISURE TIME. AN APPROACH TO INTEGRATE LEISURE AND TOURISM RESEARCH INTO A MOBILITIES RESEARCH

From the social paradigm, nowadays it is understood that mobilities are constitutive of the social structures, due to its impact in the configuration and reconfiguration of the cultural identities (Bauman, 2000; Urry, 2000).

People, objects and information moves and “travel” and has the capacity to produce and reproduce social life and cultural forms (Urry, 2000). This means that cultures are themselves mobiles, as a result of the mobilities supported in different social patterns. Those mobilities have the capacity to create and redefine the space and the environment, but also the cultures itself, since cultures are the result of their people’s social and territorial relations. Referring to Richardson and Jensen (2003), the social culture of the space have the potential to identify which symbols and cultural significances are attached to a territories social space. In sum, mobility implies a social relation among the inhabitants and the elements that circulate in these flows.

Mobility has increased considerably in the last decades, and this has created an increasing awareness in the research community. However, even though mobility is increasingly important, the literature revision will show that the social aspect of mobility, in general, are hardly analysed. It is not until the last ten years when researchers started paying more attention to those tendencies and to its consequences. Those theories analysing mobility as a central to the societies are based in the change of society from societies of place to societies of flows (Bauman, 2000; Castells, 2000), which requires a change of the sociological perspective (Urry, 2000). This has been considered as a new paradigm explaining the current way of life, and this theory it is being considered and implemented through diverse scientific disciplines, but especially in sociology and tourism (Urry, 2007).

In the case of the studies related to mobility, transport and tourism, the relative lack of interplay and cross-fertilisation among the fields that study mobility is remarkable (Williams and Hall, 2002). All disciplines explained in the literature review analyses mobility somehow, but are delimited or fragmented by time and distance. However, this work is based on the fact that the delimitations of theories are not always as clear as in the figure 6, and

consequently, they do not allow analysing society from a more flexible perspective based on a constant mobility. Hall (2005a) has summarised the relation of the disciplines studying mobility through a simple figure which shows the most important disciplines that has studied mobility. Illustration 6, above, shows the place of each discipline related to both dimensions: time (y axis) and space (x axis).

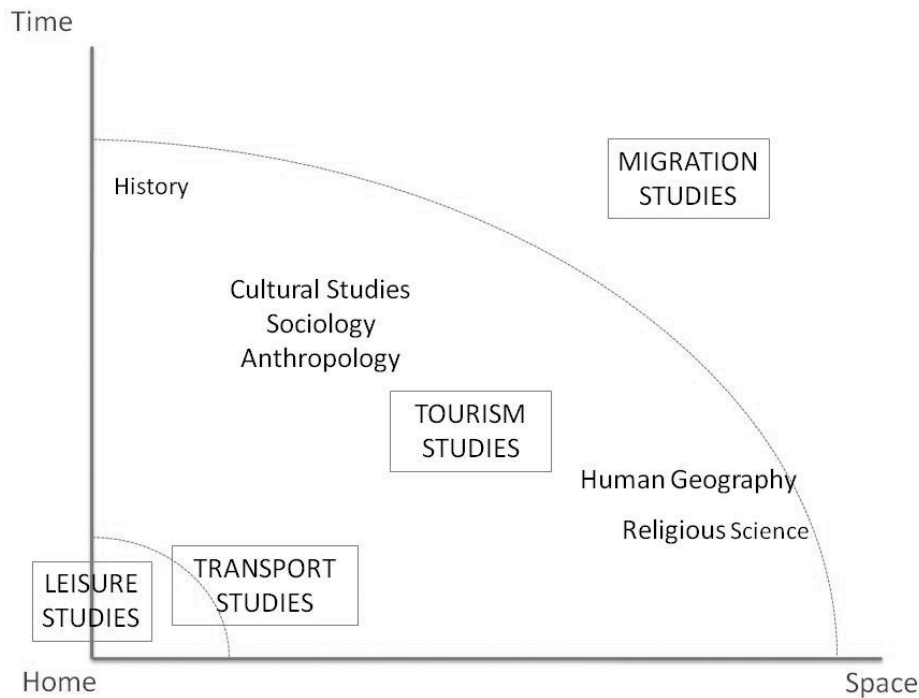


FIGURE 6. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF TIME-SPACE RELATIONSHIPS FOR DISCIPLINARY STUDIES (Hall, 2005: 22)

As can be seen, human mobility patterns and processes can be explained by various disciplines, such as is shown in the illustration: history, cultural studies, sociology, anthropology, human geography and religious sciences. However, the main disciplines directly analysing mobility are, depending the undertaken distance and the time spent away home: leisure studies, transport studies, tourism studies and migration studies.

This study wishes to go beyond the interdisciplinary perspective that understands societies in a mobile context; to answer to the current necessity of better understand the peoples behaviour, more mobile than ever before (Urry, 2000; Hall, 2005b; Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006). The study takes into account the society in constant mobility, but adding the

transnational element of the mobility, since this would help to understand whether the society and territory is being constructed.

For that purpose, this study wishes to answer to following research questions:

- (1) Is the cross-border mobility homogeneous in the Basque Eurocity?
- (2) Which are the characteristics of leisure related mobility in Basque Eurocity Cross-Border Area?
- (3) Why do people move?
- (4) Why do people not move?
- (5) Which are the variables affecting more significantly to the mobility frequency in the Basque Eurocity Corridor?
- (6) Is there a model that can be applied to explain the mobility frequency in Basque-Eurocity Corridor, and therefore in cross-border areas?
- (7) How can mobility be implemented in the area?
- (8) Are there specific mobility styles in the Basque Eurocity cross-border Area?

To answer the stated questions, a deep understanding of nowadays society and ways of life is necessary. This requires a deep understanding of social patterns, which are changing and redefining. This way, the study is focused on the mobility, but only related to leisure, which as mobility, it is increasingly important in current societies. In the same way, tourism is going to be analysed, since it is considered that tourism studies joins the disciplines of mobility and leisure.

2.1.1.1. Mobility, constitutive of today's societies

Post-industrial societies are less static than any time before, however, the importance of mobility has hardly take into account from the sociology (Sheller and Urry, 2006). The “static” perception of societies from the sociology has been criticised the current sociological perspective analysing societies in constant mobility (Bauman, 2005, 2000; Castells, 2000;

Hall, 2005b; Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006; Mavric and Urry, 2009; Meethan, 2001; Rojek and Urry, 1997; Sheller and Urry, 2006; Urry, 2000, 2002, 2007).

The analysis of mobility from the sociology is considered new phenomena, since, although mobility has been analysed in some how from some perspectives as transport, migration and tourism, those perspective has hardly analysed the social dimension that such mobilities could involve. As Urry (2000: 189) states, “[m]obility of people has been sociologically ignored”. In the last decade, mobility started being considered in the analysis of societies due to the works of Urry, *The tourist gaze* (Urry, 2002) and *Sociology beyond societies*, (Urry, 2000), and Bauman, *Liquid Lives* (Bauman, 2005) above others.

The authors analysing mobility are agree in the fact that “[m]obility has become and evocative keyword for the twenty-first century and a powerful discourse that creates its own effects and contexts. Furthermore, and probably because of the process of globalisation around the world and with the openness of the borders in Europe, the mobility through the borders is being implemented. At the same time, the technologies are developing, and transportation is being democratised, what increases the possibilities to ‘be on the move’” (Sheller and Urry, 2006: 207).

Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006: 13) consider the mobility not just as a displacement, from place A to place B, but “as forms of material and sociable dwelling-in-motion, places of and for various activities (see Jokinen and Veijola, 1994; Crouch, 2000; Johnston, 2001; Featherstone, *et al.*, 2004)”. Thus, “the concept of mobilities encompasses both the large-scale movements of people, objects, capital and information across the world, as well as the more local processes of daily transportation, movement though public space and the travel of material things within everyday life” (Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006: 1). The new conception of mobility shows the importance of “being on the move” (term used by Sheller and Urry, 2006) of the objects and peoples.

This mobile situation has changed the conception of the society making a new step in the scientific conception of sociology. Consequently, the subject of mobility as a scientific differentiate frame is growing between the researchers and it is being considered as the base of current sociology. This theory is based on the fact that societies need to be analyzed from

their social relation in its non static dimension, and the mobility that they encompass, because “it is now clear that people tour cultures; and cultures and objects themselves travel” (Rojek and Urry, 1997: 1).

The new conceptualisation of the mobility as constitutive of current societies allows a better understanding of the information and knowledge transference and makes possible the analysis of mobility patters in the society. The concept of mobility then has a double meaning or dimension of the movement. It could imply a displacement –physical, real or virtual– in one hand, and a change –from one position to other– in the other hand. As a phenomenon, mobility could refer to objects, animal, goods or people, but in every case, its centrality is a political, economical or social debate, as a result of social and cultural implications of such a diverse mobilities.

Furthermore, mobility implies contacts of people, and also of culture, with its images, customs and places. According to Larsen, Urry and Auxhasen (2006: 59), mobilities “support social networks and generate travel demand in the contemporary world”. From the perspective of such an extensive concept of mobility, every form of mobility is interdependent and generates networks and social relations. The qualitative change of the studies about mobility in the contemporary world settles in the recognition of this interconnection and in the necessity to overcome partial and unconnected perspectives that analyses mobilities and flows in an uncontested way. In that sense, the analysis of the mobility in its general sense allows to understand that the mobility has changed to new ways of thinking of the ways of life.

As Frändberg and Vilhelmson (2003: 1753) suggest, mobility patterns are continuously changing and the understanding of those changes will allow to understand the current tendencies in the society, because “[c]hanging mobility patterns should be understood as integral aspects of transformations in individuals’ and organisations of time and space (Vilhelmson, 1999)”. In the same way, individuals and social groups could have different mobility patterns, due to its circumstances or life styles.

The change of the models and goods and peoples mobility forms in the contemporary world it is sustained, mainly in the possibilities given by the technological development. In its corporeal or physical aspect, the technological change had allowed to achieve distances easily

and cheaper and therefore, the travel frequencies and the volume of goods and people that participate in those mobilities. Referring to the not less important virtual or/and communicative mobilities, the transformations have been hard as well. In this aspect of the reduction of needed time and the rising of the distance, it is comprehensible that the life of people and current societies is developed around new patterns, not fully understood in its implications.

The different types of mobilities were defined also in the classification of mobility proposed by Coles, Duval and Hall (2005) who suggested the existence of five different “mobilities”, which are usually interdependent between each other: (1) Physical travel of people for work, leisure, family life, pleasure, migration, and escape; (2) Physical movement of objects to producers, consumers, and retailers; (3) Imaginative travel elsewhere through memories, texts, images, TV and films; (4) Virtual travel often in real time on the Internet, so transcending geographical and social distance; and (5) Communicative travel through person-to-person messages via letters, postcards, birthday and Christmas cards, telegrams, telephones, faxes, emails, as well as instant messages, email and videoconferences.

In the same way in which there are different types of mobilities, the reasons behind this mobility could be different too, and as Urry has posited (2000: 3) mobility, in any kind of its forms, could be regarded “to many different desires, for work, housing, leisure, religion, family relationships, criminal gain, asylum seeking and so on. Moreover, not only people are mobile but so too are many ‘objects’”.

The perspectives analysing mobility are different depending on the type of mobility or the divisions that different disciplines has made related to the distance from home to the destination as well as the time spent out of home. Researches about mobility have traditionally focused on mobility that implies large period stages, as migration and diasporas (Cohen, 1997; Tsagarousianou, 2004) for example, while the rest of disciplines that have studied aspects related to mobility during shorter periods, for instance tourism, while leisure related researches have put its effort in the analysis of peoples activities during their free time, mainly in home or in near-home environments. Thus, those activities are often associated with daily leisure behaviours (Hall and Page, 2002). The fields of transport studies and transport geography are analysing shorter period of mobility too, focussing on daily travel and long

distance travel, but taking into account predominantly the problems arising in transport reality and politics (Hall, 2005a).

In reference to the perspectives in which mobility has been analysed, the majority of researches are theoretical approximations, as it can be seen through the works of Urry (1995, 2000, 2002, 2007), Hall (2005a, 2005b), and Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006), which are sociological perspectives of mobility. Empirical studies are based on qualitative analysis and interpretation whereas few studies are analysing mobility from a quantitative perspective. This perspective is based mainly in those researchers analysing mobility from the transport perspective as for example, the analysis made by Lanzendorf (2000).

The literature on mobility as an integrate perspective is an approach that is getting importance. The integration of the mobility paradigm in the theoretical and empirical studies it is now in the discussion of the sociology, as it is seem through the works of Urry (1995, 2007, 2000, 2002) for example. In that sense, and due to the aim of answering the mentioned research questions, it was considered necessary to take into account not only the revision of the literature about mobility, but also the relationship of mobility with both, leisure and tourism. Similarly, this study is based on the necessity of analysing mobility phenomena from both the theory, but also from the empirical approximation based on either quantitative or qualitative perspectives.

The reason behind the analysis of leisure and tourism related mobility is clear, since tourism links the disciplines of leisure and mobility. Hall (2005) has posited that tourism is one forms of mobility, and in the same way, Leiper (1990) has stated, “tourism is a special form of leisure” (Moore, Cushmanand and Simmons, 1995: 67). Furthermore, as traditionally the analysis of mobility have from other disciplines, there is a necessity of consider the literature review of tourism and leisure to analyse the mobility, since it is that those approaches are empirically closer of the reality of this study. It was considered necessary to encompass the analysis of other perspectives studying mobility, such as travel and migration, to finally explain the theoretical approach taken in this study.

2.1.2. The analysis of leisure and its relation with mobility

Leisure has been widely analysed and matured in the last twenty years (Rojek, Shaw and Veal, 2007) but still is usually being criticised by the researchers for being atheoretical (D'Amours, 1997; Rojek, 1997, cited in Henderson, Presley and Bialeschki, 2004). Shaw and Williams (2005), based on the works of deGrazia (1984), Kelly (1999), Patmore (1983), Stockdale (1985), posited that along the history the concept of leisure has changed several times, giving as a result a wide range of definitions and delimitations of leisure.

Leisure was defined first as juxtaposed with the time that is practically required to work or to biological needs, as for example sleep or eat. In this first stage there are Dumazdier (1960) and Kaplan (1960), which defined leisure in terms of work/non-work dichotomy (cited in Reid, McLellan and Uysal, 1993). However, this definition had been extended by deGrazia (1962), who considered leisure activity only if the person perceived the time spent as free, therefore, deGrazia was the first author considering leisure as a “state of being”. Kraus (1971) did not take into account the perceptions, but only the “type of time”, defining leisure as the time left over after work or free time. In this stage, leisure is taken into account as the time when leisure activities are undertaken. However, those definitions have been criticised because of its lack of concretion and objectivity (based on Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995).

Iso-Ahola (1980) reacted and set out leisure as an attitude of mind, based on the perception of the time, as the type of time that it is considered qualitatively different. Kelly (1999: 7), continuing with this perception added other definition “[l]eisure is defined by the sense of time, not the time itself. It is distinguished by the meaning of the activity not its form”. Gete (1987) gave another step in this statement, considering that not all the free time is leisure time, and he differentiated free time into necessities, obligations, displacement/movement and leisure time. In the initial stages, leisure was always related to and usually explained by free time, but Reid et al (1993) gave another definition, based on the previous concepts conceiving leisure as “a multidimensional construct embracing a range of self-determined activities and

experiences” (cited in Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995: 5), developing the perception of leisure conceived as just a type of time, to a time perceived as leisure.

Thus, there are three essential meanings of leisure, “as a period of time, as an activity, and as a state of mind” (Stockdale, 1989: 115). However, as Cooper (1999: 3) stated, “[m]ost of us share a concept of leisure as free time, but there is considerable disagreement about which conception of this concept is best suited to guide theory”. Free time as the base of freedom has also been used in many definition, as for instance, the definition proposed by Hsieh (1998: 27), who stated, “[l]eisure has been defined to reflect various meanings, such as free time, recreational activity, and attitude”. This relation of leisure and free time has been also used by Argyle (1996), who considers that leisure encompasses activities that a person could do in its free time, because he/she wants to, without any external or internal pressure, with the objective of enjoy, entertainment, develop him/herself, or any other objective that do not imply material profits. Moreover, San Martín García (2004) considered the free time as time not dedicated to work or to sleep.

Following the same perception that considers leisure as state of mind or perceived time, this doctoral thesis has considered any activity undertaken or practiced in the time perceived as free as leisure activity, as this work do not want to fall in a theoretical discussion of what is and is not leisure. Therefore, has considered as free time the time when people do and go whatever and wherever they want.

2.1.2.1. The emergence of leisure as a field study

The dichotomy of leisure in contrast of work is being reconsidered from the beginning of the researches analysing leisure, because of the impossibility of having free time being at work. As a result, and in the tradition that both, free time and leisure are related to work, some different forms of expending this free time have been proposed (Zuzanek and Mannell, 1983). However, although this discussion is considered very useful and interesting, this division it is not the aim of this work.

As Burton and Jackson (1999: xvii) stated, the modern era in leisure studies began in 1899, with the publication of Veblen *The Theory of the leisure Class*. The main contribution of this

author was “the notion that leisure, like other aspects of individual and social life, could (and should) be subjected to theoretical and empirical analysis and not simply venerated as the ultimate goal of human activity”. However, researches about leisure, as it, appeared in the post-war period –in the 1950s– when the interest in leisure came up. Therefore, leisure could be seen as a concept of postfordism society, because it is after the industrial development when people started to have and think on free time or nonworking time, due to the speed up of the production processes and its consequently increase of the income in a bigger percentage of the society.

This economic change involved a social change too, with the transformation of patterns and time use in the daily life and a bigger availability of the leisure time. For this reason, some authors have debated about the existence of the leisure society differentiating it of earlier productive or distributive models. This evolution has materialised in a new and different behaviour, which determine the free time, but the work and daily life.

However, the awareness about that frame started more than fifty years after the work of Veblen. The research of leisure as a distinct field study in the scholarly community started in the early sixties (Burton and Jackson, 1999), “beyond its previously narrowly defined scope relating to parks, recreation and physical activity” (Barnett, 1995: 8), and after some previous efforts –in 1906, with the formation of National Recreation Association, and followed by the creation of American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER); formerly known as the American Physical Education Association, in 1930.

However, as Burton and Jackson (1999: xvii-xviii) pointed out leisure as distinct field started with “the work of the U.S. Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) between 1958 and 1962 (ORRRC, 1962), with its emphasis on explaining recreation behaviour by reference to sociodemographic data of numerous kinds”. Since the sixties, publications about leisure had developed and increase. According to Burton and Jackson (1999) and Barnett (1995), the most important works among the publications of leisure are *The Journal of Leisure Research* (1969), *Society and Leisure* (1969), *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Recreation Research Review* (1973), *Leisurability* (1974), *Leisure Sciences* (1977) and *Leisure Studies* (1983).

2.1.2.2. *The relation between leisure and tourism*

There are some attempts addressing the relationships between leisure and tourism, however, the literature shows that those research areas have been developed in relative isolation (Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995). This idea has been remarked previously by Smith and Godbey (1991: 93), who stated that although there is a clear change in the attitude analysing leisure and tourism, “traditions of recreation and leisure studies have historically ignored tourism”.

Leisure researches started to think about tourism in the sixties, but the awareness on its possible relation with leisure started in the eighties, which has been analysed by Bodewes (1981), Hamilton-Smith (1987), Jafari and Ritchie (1981), Leiper (1990), Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) and Mieczkowski (1981). As Moore, Cushman and Simmons (1995: 67) stated “some of these authors have argued that tourism is a special form of leisure, having its own special characteristics (Leiper 1990a)”. The authors added that the relationship existing between two disciplines has also had given as a result the difficulty of defining one discipline, because of the other discipline. This has been the case of the definition of leisure, which has been generally unclear and mutable, which in Smith’s (1989) opinion has been “because of the different uses to which a definition is likely to be put by people with different interests in the phenomenon of tourism” (cited in Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995: 71).

Butler (1999), based on Mieczkowski (1981), analysed the relation between tourism and leisure, who had explained it through a quite simple diagram showing that recreation, leisure and tourism as elements regarded one to each other.

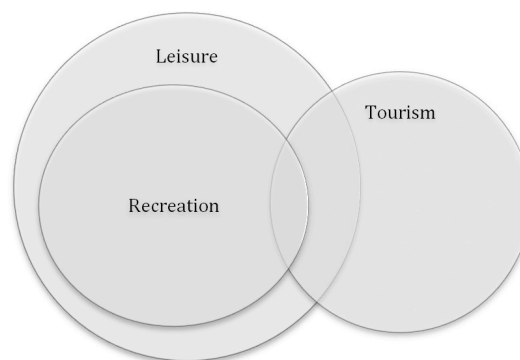


FIGURE 7. MIECZKOWSKI'S CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG LEISURE, RECREATION, AND TOURISM (Mieczkowski, 1981: 189)

As Shaw and Williams (2005: 9) posited, this relation is based in the fact that tourism and leisure often occupy the same-shared spaces in their practices and, as it, are inter-related. They added that this is particularly evident in those places that are not highly specialised in tourism. However, some authors have criticised the specialisation and fragmentation of the perspectives, because in their perception, “tourism involves a minimum of one night spent away from home, [and therefore,] this activity is only possible during certain blocks of the time available for leisure”. Through this theoretical discussion, it seems clear that tourism is one of the kinds in which the free time can be used.

Leisure is based on freedom, but concretely, in the freedom perceived by people. Iso-Ahola (1999) has called “perceived freedom”, and as the author says, it is determined by, above all, the previous “motivation”. The “perceived freedom” in tourism is being discussed, but as Leiper (1990) stated, tourism should have a “special status” within a leisure context (cited in Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995). However, the general tendencies until those days have been to analyse them in a separate way, following the presented literature review and the statement of Shaw and Williams (2005: 8), who said “[m]uch of the previous literature on tourism, leisure, and recreation has developed as separate strands of research and teaching, often with very few points of contacts”.

The relation between leisure and tourism, as a part of leisure activity, it has currently been studied by Boniface and Cooper (2009). This relation has been established taking into account the widely used perspective of leisure-work dichotomy, but adding the activity type and geographical range of the time. The following figure (Figure 8) shows their proposal on the distinction of time, where the leisure time itself is divided in different activities and the most common geographical range in which those activities happen.

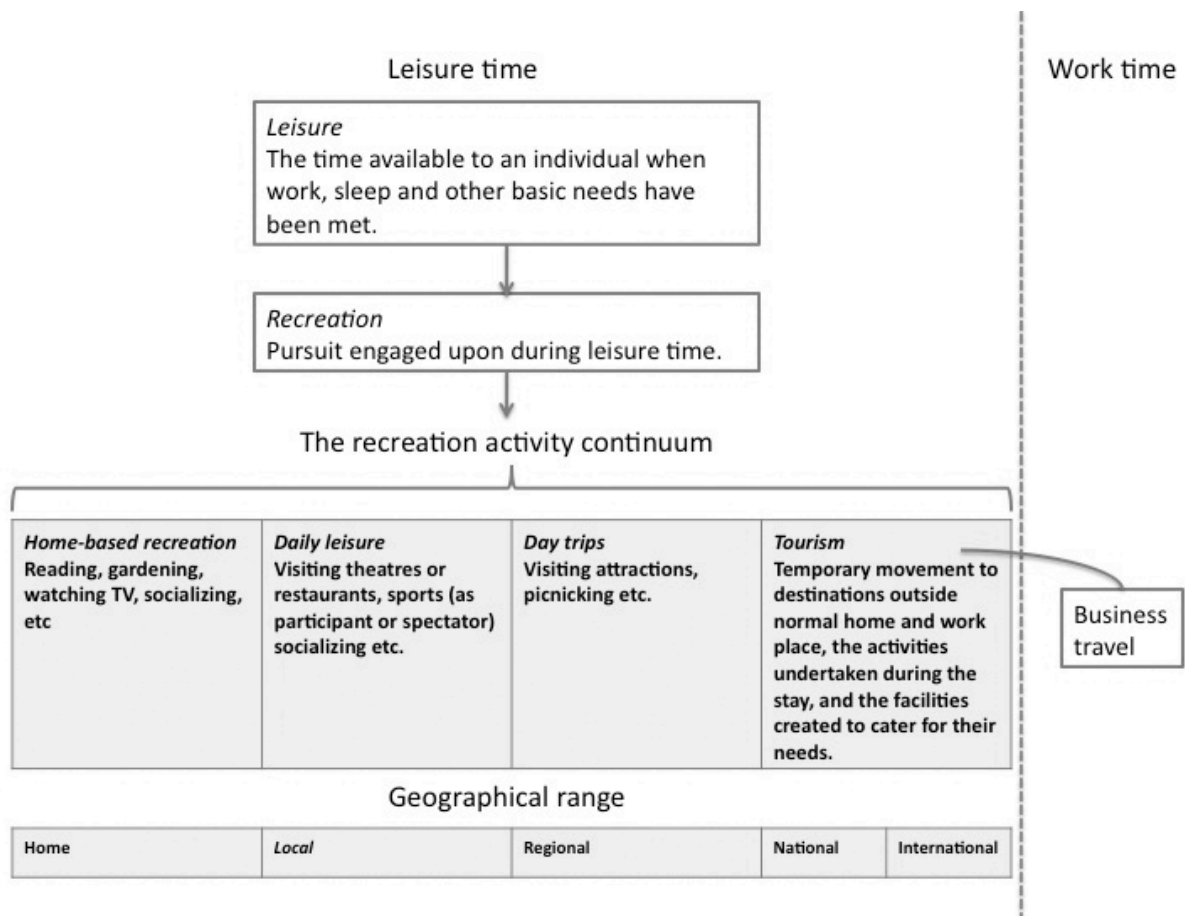


FIGURE 8. LEISURE, RECREATION AND TOURISM (Boniface and Cooper, 2009: 4)

As it can be seen in the figure, leisure can be divided in different recreation activities, such as home-based recreation, daily leisure, day trips and tourism. The specified activities are also shown in term of geographical range, which are home, local, regional and national or international, respectively. With the exception of home-based recreation, all the recreational activities imply a movement from home to the attraction or visiting place, or what is the same, to the destination (World Tourism Organisation, 1993). In that sense and having understood leisure in its general sense, it is easy to understand the place of mobility studying leisure time. Furthermore, and taking into account the crossing national borders allows speaking about tourism, although the wider recognised classifications catalogue tourism in terms of overnight stage.

Tourism researchers have barely been used to analyse leisure participation and the social perspective of mobility and has been more focused on the economical perspective, analysing the profits obtained in the destination places. However, this perspective is currently changing,

and the lack of interdisciplinary approaches of researchers analysing some how mobility are being developed through a new perspective, the New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP), which is getting important in sociology, but also in tourism.

2.1.3. Tourism Studies and Mobility

In the subsection on tourism studies and mobility two main aspects are analysed. First of all, the perspectives of the researches studying tourism are explained, and second of all, the studies of tourism from a wider perspective based in the new mobilities paradigm is analysed.

Tourism implies a temporary movement, which is classified by either daytrips or exclusionism and also in more than one-day travel, motivated by recreation or leisure. In that sense, it is not unusual to establish relationships among tourism, leisure and mobility – conception based on the previous conceptualisation that shows the relationship between leisure, mobility and tourism (Figure 5).

The analysis of tourism increased after the democratisation of tourism. The grown of the tourism phenomenon has been analysed by the research community, as Franklin and Crang (2001) has explained. Xiao and Smith (2008: 62) also mentioned the increase of the tourism studies, stating that “the past decades have witnessed a strong and mounting interest in assessing the state of tourism research and scholarship”. They also added that, in those years, tourism studies have had advances, especially in the fields of sociology, anthropology and its knowledge basis. In that direction, Jamal and Robinson (2009) added the discipline of geography, as an appropriate perspective analysing tourism.

The study of tourism has a large tradition, and in this time, the perspectives of the studies have been changing, trying to keep on the current tendencies (Rithchie, Burns and Palmer, 2005). There have been some discussions related to the status and position of tourism, as a discipline itself, and also in relation to other disciplines (Jamal and Robinson, 2009). Within the theoretical discussion, a more common perspective that analyses tourism beyond the perspective of tourism as industry and as problem has been increasing (Rithchie, Burns and Palmer, 2005).

Although the just mentioned large tradition of the tourism studies, its definition still has not been agreed (Cooper, et al., 1998, cited in Franklin, 2006). As in the case of leisure, there are different kinds of definitions and conceptualisations of tourism (Moore, Cushman and Simmons, 1995). In its several conceptions, tourism has been usually defined as a temporary mobility of people outside their normal places, as it can be seen in the definitions proposed by Franklin (2006) based on the previous works of Mathieson and Wall (1982) and Burkart and Medlik (1974). Shaw and Williams (2005: 6), based on Gunn (1988), gave another recent definition, which stated, “tourism includes all travelling except commuting”. Kelly (1989) also defined tourism in relation to mobility, as a recreation on the move, a recreation away from home, in which one of the satisfaction sought is travel. However, this definition is too unclear, as “away from home” is subjective.

One of the widely accepted and used definitions, and in which much of the authors has based their analysis is the definition proposed by the WTO (World Tourism Organization, 1993) “tourism includes all travel that involves a stay of at least one night, but less than one year, away from home”. Taking into account the definition of UNWTO (traditionally WTO), tourism is delimited to an overnight travel, with encompasses a stage away from home of less than a year. This definition, then, it is not based on the necessity of leisure, as in the previously mentioned cases, and neither in the nature of the visited place. In the effort of defining tourism, Timothy (2001) has taken into account the international nature of the visit, and stated that international tourist are people who cross and international boundary and stay at least one night in the destination country.

This way, tourism can also be delimited in geography or space –as in time and activity, since it still exist the difference among research on international, national and regional tourism, being analysed in a separate way. Nevertheless, this definition is the most commonly used within the literature on tourism.

In all the mentioned cases, the authors have defined tourism taking into account some boundaries as for instance, the place, the time, or the use of such time. This delimitation has helped to measure the flow of tourism in one hand, and to understand the nature of tourism in other. This way, it is possible to say that they have been very useful to measures tourism flows, and therefore it has been helpful for the tourist “counting” for policy and planning

purposes, which as Franklin and Crang (2001) explained, it is the perspective that has dominated in tourism researches. However, the delimitation of tourism within definitions has also had negative effect of not contemplating day trips although they would possibly have the same characteristics and/or are motivated by the same reasons, or even the same transnational nature.

In reference of the relation between mobility and tourism Bell and Ward (2000: 88) have provided useful guidance of this topic. For them, “tourism represents one form of circulation, or temporary population movement. Temporary movements and permanent migration, in turn, form part of the same continuum of population mobility in time and space”. Taking into account this statement, this work is based in the first part of the definitions, which defines tourism as a temporary movement and form of circulation.

2.1.3.1. The New Mobilities Paradigm, a new perspective for tourism studies

Tourism mobility have grown during the last decades, especially in the westernised societies or, in other words, in the prosperous industrialised societies, as it has been explained in the introduction. Peoples lives are not static any more, and there are continuously moving, The quantities of flows are higher than before, whether job requirements, education, leisure, family reasons. That is why some authors speak about “neo-nomadism” (D’andrea, 2006: 97), trying to explain the way of live of the majority of the citizens that are immersed in a continuous mobility –working in one place, having fun or entertaining in other and living in a different place, which probably is changing over the time. This term is “based on the hypothesis that new forms of subjectivity and identity are being engendered under the post-identitarian predicament of globalization”.

Mobility has been analysed from the tourism studies, but has focused mainly on the human mobility patterns, but mainly from the economic and commercial perspective, with the objective of counting the profits or losses that it generate or trying to identify the market niches to develop a better directed and more profitable business. Tourism has analysed mobility from the economic perspective, since it has been analysed regarding to the tourist flows from origin to destination, counting the amount of people going from one place to other. The economic impact of tourism in the destination is one of the widely studied aspects

of tourism. In reference to the reason, the type of tourism has been analysed in a generalised way.

The current perspective of mobilities wants to overcome the existing divisions of tourism, and take into account the consequences of the mobility involved in it. This perspective is not considering the type of the travel, as the classification is not the objective of this perspective. In this analysis, all kinds of mobilities, also the shorter travels, which are gradually being more considered because of the impact they could have in the social construction. Thus, contemporary authors that are analysing tourism and travel patterns are wandered about the social consequences of the people's interaction and interconnection related to such mobility. Therefore, the delimitation of national, regional and international tourism previously used it is not as important as the effects that this mobility could bring to the society.

Therefore, the delimitations are being increasingly criticised by different authors, and although little has been written about the future of the tourism research (Hall, 2005a, 2005b), the most recent publications on tourism (Jamal and Robinson, 2009; Hannam and Knox, 2010) shows that tourism research goes to a new perspective that takes into account tourism from a wider perspective of mobility. The new interpretation is based in the fact that “[t]ourism is increasingly being interpreted but one, albeit highly significant, dimension of temporary mobility and circulation (Bell and Ward, 2000; Urry, 2000; Williams and Hall, 2000; Hall and Williams, 2002; Coles *et al.*, 2004; Hall and Müller, 2004)” (cited in Hall, 2005a: 21). From this perspective, tourism can also be interpreted and analysed from the perspective of leisure, since it is one kind of leisure expressions.

The knowledge of the relations derived from new forms of mobility is the part that should adapt to the vicissitudes of a globalised world, where the spatial reality is changing. This aspect is evident in the European Communities Institutions, since its policy goes to enhance the free circulation of goods and capital and the mobility of the European citizens (see introduction). With the globalisation and with the democratisation of leisure and travel, some authors are debating the real existence of tourist (Rojek and Urry, 1997). This idea is sustained in the idea of the increasing mobile reality, in this period in which travel, more than an exceptional activity, seems to be a living stated where to be in move became indispensable to work, for shopping, even so to spend free time. In contrast, the absence of mobility is also

an element to be into consideration, as society could be divided in more and less mobile groups (Urry, 2007).

The access to global communications and transportation networks obviously varies among different segments of the population, as well as between countries and regions. Similarly, the access to free time is not equal depending of the personal or economical situation. For that reason, it is considered that human behaviour could be very influenced by the initial preferences, but also by the real possibilities that could have. Therefore, different mobility patterns are possible within the same community. This perspective allows to posited the following proposition:

Proposition 1: Mobility frequency is different among groups with different leisure pattern

The conceptualisation of the new approach of mobility is shown in the Figure 9. The following image shows a model describing different types of mobility, taking into account tree different dimensions: distance, time, and number of trips. As it can be seen, the figure (Figure 9) shows the decrease of the number of trips or movements in time and distance away the central point, denominated as “home”. As it is shown in the figure, the number and the further of the movements declines in time and space away from the point of origin, also called home (Hall, 2005b).

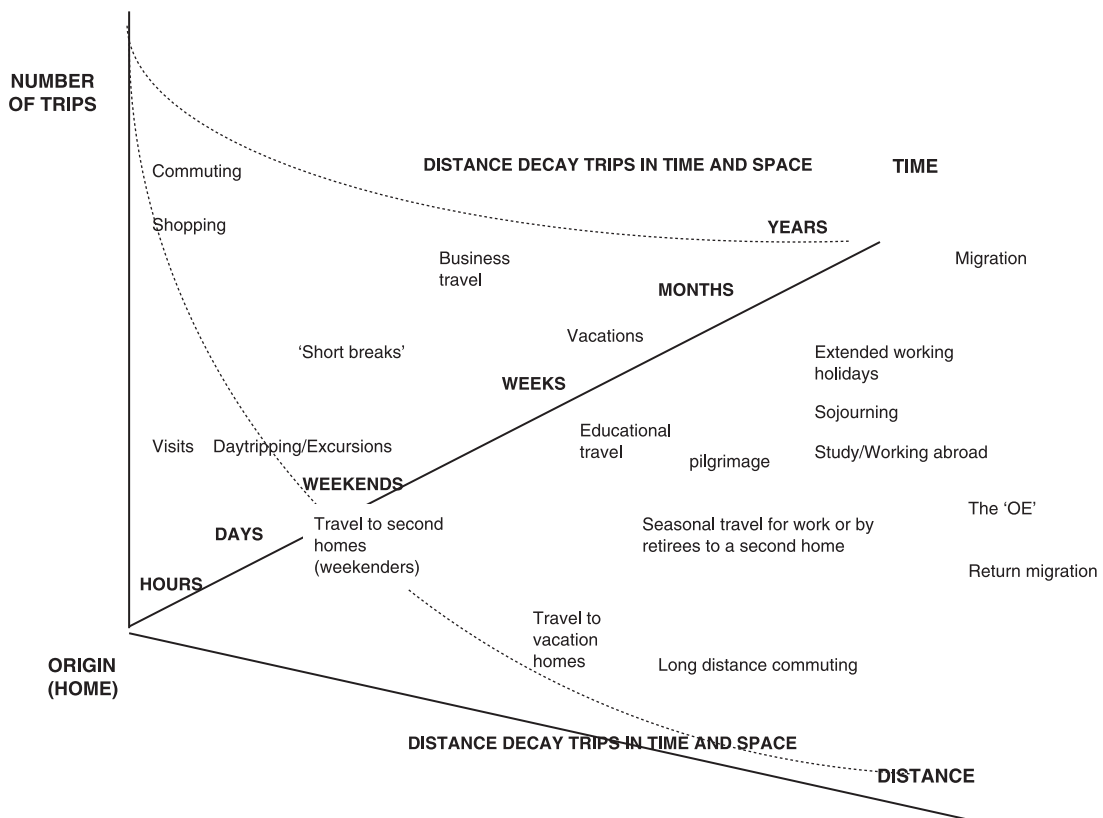


FIGURE 9. EXTENT OF TEMPORARY MOBILITY IN SPACE AND TIME (Hall, 2005b: 132)

The decrease of the number of trips in relation of time and space has widely been proved through many researches. Nevertheless, it is necessary to take into account that distances are losing the impact that could have before, due to the proximity that technology such as Internet and other applied to enhance transport means has given. However, it is considered that, although the distances are getting shorter due to the development of technologies and the democratisation of the transport means, distance is continuing important, mainly referring to the number of trips, as it is shown in the figure.

The effect of distance has also been analysed in terms of the perception of border. Timothy, (2001: 33), based on Leimgruber (1989) and Pagini (1979) has stated that “[p]eople who live a distance from the border will have a different perception from people who live in daily contact with it”. In that sense, the author also mentioned the importance of the image of the environment, which also has capacity of defining different people’s behaviour in the space. In that sense, Smale (1999: 179) has widely analysed the geography of recreation and leisure and had highlighted the importance of “location” but mainly of “distance”, that is to say, the

distance between locations, as “the most fundamental of concepts associated with geography”.

Taking into account those perceptions related to the effect of distance and borders and the mentioned statements, the following proposition was defined:

Proposition 2: Cross-Border Mobility frequency would increase when the border is near home

In the case of the areas near border, where border has not implied any –at list physical– mobility restriction, the geographical range speaking about national or international mobility it is not related to long distances and therefore, long term stages. In cross-border areas leisure practices and daytrips tourism are happening at transnational level, the previous classifications are not working properly. Thus, the perspective of the studies needs to be adapted to the new European context, which is changing the entire social reality.

2.1.4. Other approaches researching mobility

Mobility has been traditionally studied, both directly and indirectly, from other perspectives away leisure and tourism, which has been showed in the first part of this literature review. Based on the Figure 9 of Hall (2005b: 23) presented in the introduction of this section, there are other two main approaches –apart from leisure and tourism previously explained– that have studied aspects related mobility: transport and migration. The review of those approaches is going to be explained continuously.

2.1.4.1. Transport studies

Transport or “[t]ransportation is a fundamental driver of the tourism industry: it is a precondition for travel, since it facilitates mobility and the movement of tourists from their place of origin (i.e., their home area) to their destination and back” (Page and Ge, 2009: 371). In that sense, transport studies has analysed mobility too, but focused mainly in the infrastructures behind such mobility and there are less focused on the social processes.

Larsen, Urry and Axhausen (2006: 12) mentioned “transport planning and modelling mostly ignore the social dimension of travel and broader issues of how travel and transport help to produce modern societies”. As in the case of leisure and tourism, the lack of interdisciplinarity is also remarkable between transport studies and social sciences, in which much of the researches “ignores the movement of people for work, friendship and family, leisure and pleasure” presupposing, the mobility –actual and imagined– of people besides analysing.

Thus, the lack of interdisciplinarity in the researchers in transport studies is manifest, and they tend to take the demand as largely given, and from the economic perspective, and they examine travel, especially short-term travel as daily mobility, and without having into account the possible purposes of such travel. Finally, travel is taken as individual reality, and therefore have they are not likely to understand travel patterns as “socially constructed” behaviour, or a behaviour related to a special group of people or inhabitants.

The fact that takes into account mobility as individualised thing, counting the flow of cars, or the number of people travelling by train, plane or any other infrastructure, and its economic impact, although “travelers demonstrate highly routinised and predictable travel behaviour” (Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2006: 12) create a misunderstanding in the comprehension of social impacts of transport/travel in the places in which transports is impacting in. This individualised perspective it was remarkable in the case of tourism too, where the amount of travel flows are measured in terms of people moving from the origin to destination –from A to B. However, oppositely to the transport studies, they tend to focus too in the economic impact created by the tourists in the destination, while the transport researchers analyse the reason behind such mobility.

The relation of transport and tourism is close and natural, taking into account that tourism is helping in the creation of transport infrastructures, and in the way around, without proper infrastructures the development of tourism is difficult. However as Page and Ge (2009) have argued in reference to the relation between tourism and transportation, “most of the existing research has been conducted from a single discipline perspective (economics, geography, management, psychology or sociology), without a multidisciplinary approach” (cited in Palhares, 2003: 403).

The first author making a real synthesis between the disciplines of tourism and transport was Page, in 1994, with the work “Transport for Tourism”. From 1994 there have been some attempts trying to integrate both disciplines and trying to take care on the social impacts of those disciplines. However, Duval would give the most crucial development in 2007, which “made a constructive attempt to analyse the synergy of transportation and tourism within a network of flows and nodes” (Page and Ge, 2009: 372).

There are some examples of the researches that aims at including aspects related social aspects of mobility in transport research, as for example the work of Lanzendorf (2000) titled *Mobility Styles and Travel Behavior. Application of a Lifestyle Approach to Leisure Travel*, which integrate travel behaviour and leisure behaviour taking into account the lifestyle of the inhabitants of Cologne (Germany). In the same way, the creation of the journal *Mobilities* implies an important development in the awareness of integrating scientific dimensions, as it integrate transport and transportation in its research agenda.

2.1.4.2. Migration studies

Migration studies has usually analyse long stage movement –within more than twelve months–, which is mostly long distance travel –regional or international– related to work or wellness. In accordance to Spiekermann and Wegener (2006: 19) “[g]lobalisation and European integration have not only led to intensified flows of trade and capital, but also to growing international labour mobility, despite political forces in the more affluent countries to contain immigration”.

Migration has been present along the history, but the facilitation of mobility across the borders has increased the migration flows during the last decades. As a consequence, migration is an increasing phenomenon alongside the western countries, which has created awareness in the research community. The importance of migration mobility –specially within the same country– grew with the industrialisation, when people moved from countryside to more industrialised places, looking for a new job and better living possibilities. However, in the last two decades, and due to the freedom of movement previously mentioned, the migration has increased both, in distance and number (Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty, 2009).

This fact has been especially important in Europe, where people's mobility between countries joining European Community has increased considerably. This is because, "[w]ithin most European countries there are no restrictions on mobility of persons or households between regions or cities except the cost of movement and the opportunities for making a living and finding affordable housing at the destination, [and are] large part determined by work or education opportunities. In contrast intraregional migration is largely determined by housing factors" (Spiekermann and Wegener, 2006: 34)

The increase of transnational migration has impacted the literature especially within the last decade. Migration has analysed from different perspectives, although it can be said that it is subject that it is making its own scientific space. Among the disciplines, migration has been studied from the demography, with the aim of identifying the origin of immigrants in each place. Traditionally has been analysed in terms of diaspora, identifying the reason behind the general mobility of population from one place to other. But the analysis of the migration is based mostly in the economic situation that could generate. For instance, the effect of migration in the enterprises is analysed too (Irastorza, 2008). The policy makers of the states or supranational organisations are measuring migration using the measures of migration flows, and changing the policy to a more restrictive lows (University of Sussex, 2003).

Spiekermann and Wegener (2006: 34), in their effort to better understand the migration mobility patterns they tried to identify the barriers that could be affecting such mobility. In their work, they argued that "immigration in most countries is restricted by political constraints, and that these constrains tend to become more rigorous over time. This implies that international migration is largely politically determined and so difficult to forecast. Migration flows between regions or cities are conceptually easier to model and forecast". The Human Development Report (United Nations Development Programme, 2009) titled *Overcoming barriers: Human mobility and development* made also an effort to identify the barriers behind migration mobility. Furthermore, the effects on migration on the society or community to where migrants are moving have been analysed by United Nations in terms of social cohesion and integration.

Related to the growing scientific area of Mobilities, Migration has been analysed with a lack of concern of the social aspects of this mobility. However, as in the case of transport, a

increasing necessity of integration among sciences is patent. As in the case of transport researches, one of the most significant examples is the appearance of the journal titled *Mobilities* (Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006) which has inserted in its areas of interest the areas of “Migration, diasporas & families” and “Mobilities and new social exclusions”.

2.1.5. The proposed approach in the present study

This work is based on the widely accepted theories of Iso-Ahola (1980), Gete (1987) and Argyle (1996) explaining leisure as one part of free time, as the time considered qualitatively different and is constituted by necessities, obligations, displacement/movement and leisure time. Then, it is supposed that, in displacement and leisure time, people do what they want, without any external or internal pressure, with the objective of enjoy, entertainment, develop him/herself, or any other objective that do not imply material profits. The freedom to choose makes the analysis of the practices during the mentioned free time very useful to understand people’s wishes and motivations.

This study is based on framework of the increasingly important aspect of mobility, based in the fact that “[p]eople in prosperous industrialised societies are both increasingly on the move and communicating more to reach and connect with absent others. Thus developments in transport and communication technologies not merely service or connect people but reconfigure social networks by disconnecting and reconnecting them in complex ways” (Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2006: 10). Thus, it seems clear that, with the globalisation, peoples, cultures and objects move or migrate more than ever before (Rojek and Urry, 2006). This change in the society was what Castells (1996) stated as the change from the traditional “spaces of place” to the current “space of flows”, in his work “The Rise of the Network Society” (based on Blatter, 2004).

Thus, researches about mobilities seem to be completely necessary to get a deeper understanding of today’s ways of life, with full of territorial and virtual interconnection and interrelation. This way, mobility today is central in societies and the comprehension of those mobilities is essential to understand the current way of life.

From this global point of view of society in constant mobility, this phenomenon requires of the researches with interdisciplinary perspectives that makes available the identification of new tendencies, measuring its effects. As it has been previously explained, during the last ten years, this perspective is getting importance, and this integrating perspective of mobility is being theorised and analysed from different researchers as, for instance, Urry (2000), Sheller and Urry (2004), Coles and Timothy (2004), Hall and Mueller (2004), Hall (2005), Coles, Duval and Hall (2005). It can be said that those authors started to analyse the tourism from the perspective of the mobility, which needs to transgress the disciplinary limits (cited in Coles, Duval and Hall, 2005).

Taking this into account the presented literature review, this research is based on the New Mobilities Paradigm, which wants to overcome the lineal conception of peoples and things mobility or transport in its objective sense –from place A to place B– or mobilities in the social scale. Therefore, this framework wants to go beyond the traditional scientific disciplines that have fragmented leisure, tourism, transport and migration in static and delimited disciplines, as it is considered that all of them are connected and analysed within the broader umbrella of the mobilities paradigm.

The special focus on leisure related mobility and tourism is because, among all the different perspectives, this study considers the human mobility in leisure time gives the possibility of identifying the peoples desired mobility. It is a mobility that is done in free time or in a time perceived by the people as free. Thus, it is supposed that this mobility is done because they want. This way, the desired cross-border mobility will be analysed.

For this reason, and with the main objective of identifying the current cross-border mobility between Bayonne and Donostia, the approach of this work is based in the mobility classified by Urry (2002) as “corporeal”. As the author pointed out, “corporeal travel” results in the anticipation of, and the realisation of, intermittent periods of physical proximity to particular peoples, places or events”.

2.2. UNDERSTANDING CONSTRAINTS TO MOBILITY IN CROSS-BORDER AREAS: A PSYCHO-SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH

This research aims to extend previous empirical study on leisure constraints. There are a very large amount of empirical and theoretical studies showing the effect of constraint in leisure participation, but the effect of constraints in tourism and especially on mobility has been less studied. Furthermore, although the constraint researches had been applied to leisure participation and tourism in different places or activities, those studies are rarely focused on cross-border spaces. In that sense, this research wishes to identify whether the border is affecting to peoples' cross-border mobility behaviour. In concrete, the aim is the identification of the factors that are influencing the frequency of the people's cross-border mobility.

For this research, a psycho-sociological approach of leisure constraints has been chosen, because the study is based on the idea of "effectiveness of constraints as a Framework for understanding the factors that shape people's everyday leisure choices" (Jackson, 1997: 459). This study is based on the idea that leisure participation and therefore mobility in the cross-border spaces can be limited, and in that sense, the insertion of leisure constraints theories has been considered fundamental in the study.

Studies about constraints have demonstrated that both participation and non-participation can be restricted, and therefore, can be analysed by means of constraints, since the identification of constraints helps to better understand the human patterns in leisure time (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993). Furthermore, this study wanted to go beyond the applicability of constraints studies to the analysis of leisure behaviour, extending the constraints theories to analyse cross-border mobility.

The objective of identifying and understanding cross-border mobility droved this study to the analysis of mobility motivations and leisure cross-border participation, but also to analyse the possible factors acting between such motivations and the final participation. As Nadirova (2000) has mentioned, as important as the identification of the elements that motivates and inspires people to participate in leisure is the knowledge or identification of the aspects or factors that deterrent the leisure involvement and enjoyment. This affirmation is based on the theories started by Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993), which say that constraints not only

gives as a result the non-participation, as they can also restrict participation or change the participating behaviour.

The following research questions are based on the necessity to deeply understand the reasons behind the type of leisure participation of the citizens in the particular space of cross-border. For that purpose, this research is based on the previous studies about constraint, although there are not implemented in those specific spaces. In this concern, in this thesis there are two general worriers, first about the way in which *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* could be applied to the analysis of mobility in cross-border areas, by checking the validity of the model in this territory and identifying the most important aspects that are working in the model and, in the other hand and complementing the first one, identifying how the distance from home to border is affecting in the mobility frequency. Summing up, this part of the study wishes to answer to following research questions:

- (1) Whether *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* could be apply to the study of mobility in cross-border areas?
- (2) Are constraints having any effect in the cross-border mobility frequency in the Basque-Eurocity area? And if it so, how are they working?
- (3) Which constraint factor is limiting more significantly affecting in the mobility frequency in this territory?
- (4) Is the type of participation affecting to the mobility frequency of the area?
- (5) Is the previous motivation of visiting the other side of the border affecting to the mobility frequency in this cross-border areas?
- (6) Do distance from home to border affect to the cross-border mobility frequency?

To better understand the approach to constraints to leisure participation it is indispensable to understand of leisure participation first. The understanding of the factors influencing participation it is important, because constraints are not the only factors explaining the resultant participating behaviour. Participation is the results of the interaction of a variety of

internal and external elements and factors that can affect positively and/or negatively the leisure participation preferences, giving as a result the final leisure participation behaviour.

2.2.1. Participation in Leisure

“Leisure participation can be defined as a overt manifestation of leisure, or observable leisure behaviour” (Nadirova, 2001: 16). Leisure participation is defined then as observable leisure behaviour, and therefore, participation can be defined in terms of different leisure activities in which people participate. Leisure participation is the result of a sequence of factors, both internal and external, which affects the decision-making process. The elements affecting participation has been synthesised and showed though a sequence diagram by (McCarthy and Jinnett, 2001).

As it is showed in the figure 10, leisure participation is defined by people’s background, which encompasses the socio-demographic factors, personality and other socio-cultural factors, but also by the experiences of the past. Perceptual characteristics shown in a second stage, which are constituted by the personal beliefs about leisure participation, and the perceptions of social norms towards leisure participation, which interacts and gives as a result the attitudes towards leisure participation. After the attitude towards participation, the experience stage is presented, where the participation is committed. The participation is considered the experience, but experience also is constituted to the reaction to that experience, which in this case, is the reaction to the leisure participation experience. This experience will affect the entire process, as it has the possibility to change the personal belief about leisure but also the perception of social norms towards leisure. This process is showed in the following figure.

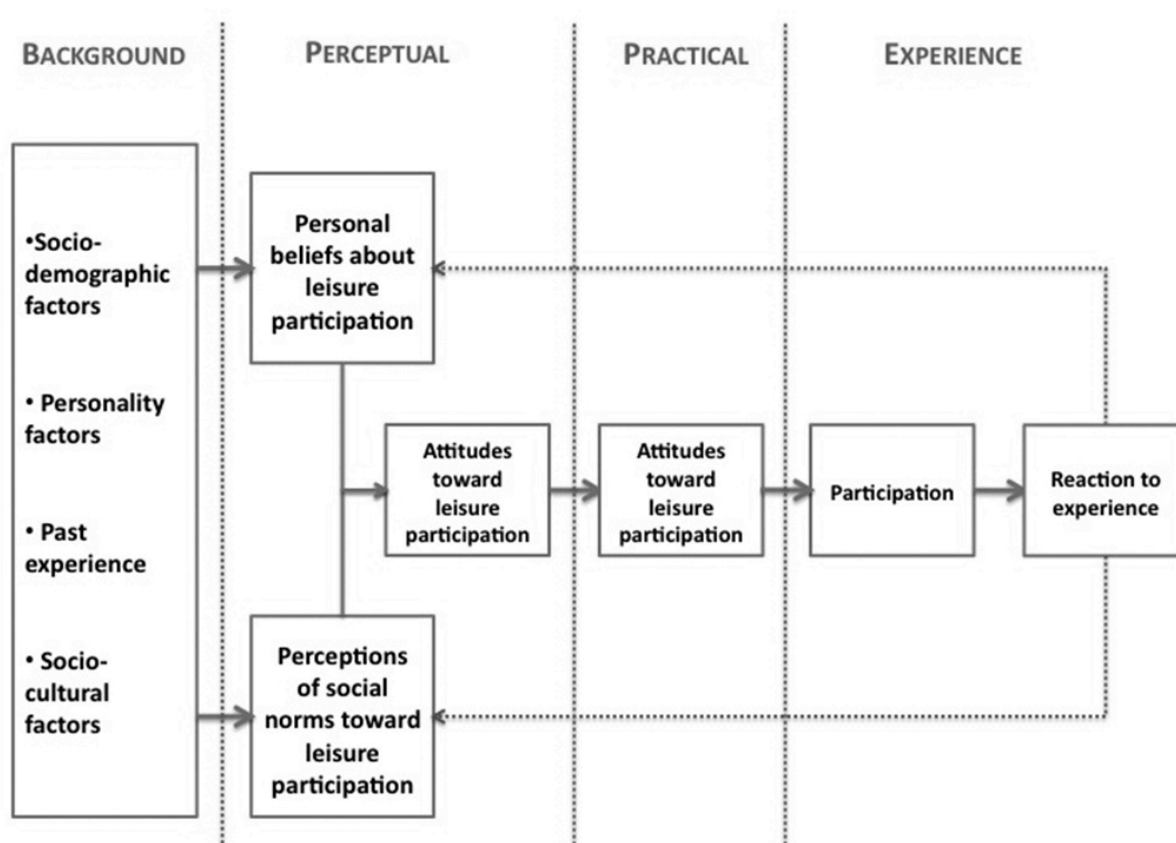


FIGURE 10. PARTICIPATION MODEL, ADAPTED FROM McCarthy and Jinnnet (2001: 23)

The leisure participants, then, are influenced by their background, which is constituted by different social elements that come from the historical period and the context where they live and their culture, but also from their internal factors as the personality (factors affecting to the decision making process will be deeply analysed in the following subsections). Consumers, manage in the leisure society with some defined characteristics and a determinant and different behaviour.

Leisure participation behaviour has been studied in terms of typology, satisfaction and frequency (Jackson and Scott, 1999; Mannell and Kleiber, 1997; Raymore, 2002). Furthermore, most of the researchers have focused in the analysis of subgroups of the population and the comparison among those subgroups. Those researches have been used for marketing purposes, since the understanding and identification of the leisure behaviour has helped to define concrete products to each of the groups. Those researches have broken down the population into different participation involvements have shown that in life stage affects significantly to the participation behaviour. The leisure activity type is also different in the

population groups, and some activities are more likely for men than from woman. This difference has been shown by Shamir and Ruskin (1983), whose gives a clear example of that through their study, where they stated that wives are less involved in recreational sports than were their husband.

The “way of life” is affecting the decision process of each individual from a previous experience. Therefore, the communities that have historically been in contact with the border –especially in those places where the border was physic– can be influenced by this element. The border communities can be affected by physical border, but also for a transnational way of life. This it is perceived in the communities where the border is not restricted to peoples mobility, leisure participation can be influenced by experiences and perceptions, including different meanings attached to the activity, expectations of enjoyment, perception of constraints, and so on.

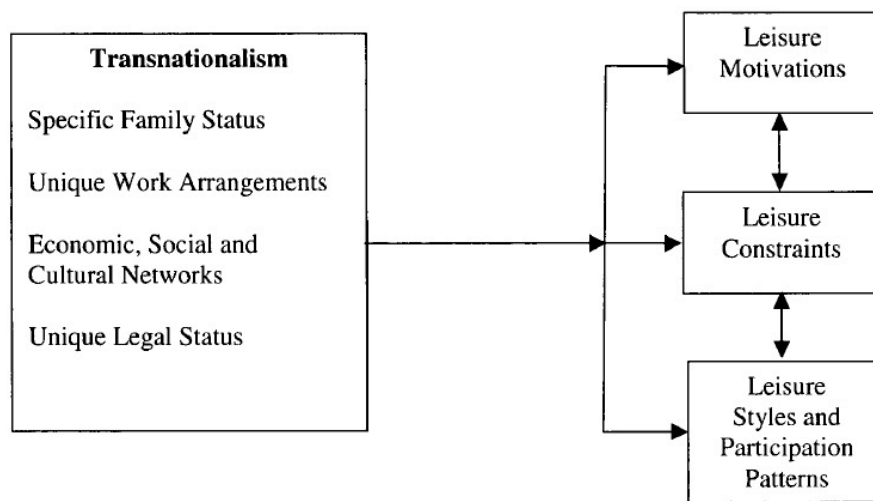


FIGURE 11. THE EFFECT OF TRANSNATIONAL STATUS OF LEISURE BEHAVIOUR (Stodolska, 2006: 161)

Taking into account the figure, it is possible to say that there are multiple factors affecting participation. Those factors have the capacity to affect some how peoples participating attitude. However, the figure have not consider motivations –at list in a manifested way– although, as Iso-Ahola (1999) mentioned, motivations can be work directly in the participation, as the first stage of the decision process of participate in any activity is the need or the preferences to such activity.

2.2.2. Motivational aspects of mobility in leisure time

The most generalised definition of motivations comes from Murray (1964: 7), who stated, “[a] motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behaviour”. In the same direction, Iso-Ahola (1989: 248; 1999: 40) has defined a motive as “an internal factor that arouses and directs human behavior” and Freysinger (1999: 259) has defined it as “the reason(s) which underlie(s) why an individual behaves as he or she does (Osgood and Howe, 1989: 179)”. It is interesting how some authors refer to motivation as a “reason” behind behaviour, while other authors speak about motivation as a “mechanism of direction” of the behaviour. The main difference here is how some authors consider that motivation a decisive element influencing behaviour, while others consider motivation impacting behaviour just if they are in relation of other factors.

The conception of motivation, as a mechanism directing behaviour has been considered by Kanfer (1994), who stated “[m]otivation refers to the psychological mechanisms that govern the direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior” (cited in Iso-Ahola, 1999: 40). Hsieh (1998: 18) followed the same direction, explaining motivation as “fundamental force that causes an individual to behave in a particular manner”. Then, motivations have been referred as an extent part of the human behaviour, an element impacting in the human decision making process.

However, “[m]otivation is a complex phenomenon” (Hsieh, 1998: 18) and it is an internal phenomena affecting human decision-making process, owing to its measurement it is not easy. Iso-Ahola (1999) has identified two main problems in its analysis: the fact that it cannot be directly observed and the lack of a unifying theory of motivation. Due to the difficulty measuring motivations, it is easy to understand why motivations have often been characterised as emerging from human need theory or as an interaction between needs and the environment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Maslow, 1964, cited in Walker and Virden, 2005).

The awareness in relation to motivations started through the analysis of human needs. Maslow developed his theory of human needs in 1943, in his work titled *A Theory of Human Motivation*. This theory constitutes one of the wider extended theories behind the understanding of people’s behaviour. Maslow’s hierarchy has six phases of needs: 1) the need for psychological requirements, 2) the need for safety and security, 3) the need for

belonging, 4) the need for recognition, 5) the need for self recognition, and 6) the need for self-actualisation. Taking into account this theory, the lower need have to be fostered to try getting higher needs. Thus, for the theory of Maslow, people will consider leisure necessities when the lower stages of those basic needs are met (Shin, 1998). Obviously, the higher needs only come into focus when the basic needs are gathered/met.

There are remarkable differences between different needs and, in the same way as them, motivations has also been differentiated, since motivations are not always related to the same needs. Needs drive human behaviour: some of them are physiological –as eat or drink, and necessities for survival, while others as leisure helps to improve the quality of live, but they are not vital. In that sense, motivations have been widely analysed in terms of leisure, referring to the behaviour in their leisure activities or how people behave in their free time. In the analysis of leisure, motivation is a fundamental aspect to identify peoples' preferences and wishes, and as it, it has been researched and theorised many times.

This idea has been highlighted by Iso-Ahola (1999: 231), who pointed out, “leisure plays an important role and helps people balance their lives and achieve a better quality of live”. Human needs may be homoestatically motivated and/or psychologically motivated. Homoestatic motivations are those that are influenced primarily by biological drives while psychological motivations have biological predispositions but “various psychological motives or needs are learned through the socialization process, and thus are primarily social in nature” (Hsieh, 1999: 18, based on Iso-Ahola).

2.2.2.1. Leisure motivations

Early psychological approaches analyse satisfactions, motivations and outcomes of leisure, giving more and more attention to meanings in the form of motivations and outcomes. Since the late seventeen motivations behind leisure have been continuously researched. There were different researchers that wanted to explain the reasons for the different motivations, and the effect of those motivations, explaining the final behaviour.

The first attempt to analyse the motivations to leisure started with Driver, analysing forest and other outdoor resource-based recreation, which resulted in seventeen meaning factors:

Enjoyment of nature, escape from civilization; Escape from routine and responsibility; Physical exercise; Creativity; Relaxation; Social contact; Opportunities to meet new people; Heterosexual contact; Family interaction; Recognition and status; Social power; Altruism; Stimulus seeking; Self-actualization, self-improvement, and feedback; Achievement, challenge, and competition; Way to kill time and avoid boredom; and Intellectual aestheticism. Those findings and the new methodology based on the analysis of motivations to better understand recreation started later to be applied to other types of leisure activity (Kelly and Godbey, 1992).

As Friedman (1992: 114) pointed out, “motivations arising out of one’s own needs, desires, interests, values, and attractions, in contrast to motivations arising from what is socially assigned, ascribed, expected or demanded” (cited in Arai and Pedlar, 2003: 193). Therefore, decision to take part in an activity could be generated by an individual or collective motivation. In both cases (individual collective or need), people voluntarily decide the activity in which will participate. As Nadirova (2000: 17) stated, “[i]t [is] reasonable to expect that people voluntarily engage in various recreation activities during non-obligated time because of intrinsically rewarding outcomes associated with such engagements away from work and monotonous and stressful day-to-day routines”.

From the perspective of free-time use of the people, individual and collective motivations have a decisive role since leisure participation would be defined by the motivations and preferences driving behaviour to the final objective of obtaining a wellbeing or satisfaction. In that sense, it is necessary to say that most of the studies are taking into account the basic component of a general model of motivations: (1) needs or preferences; (2) behaviour or activity; (3) goals, satisfactions, or psychological benefits; and (4) feedback (based on Mannell, 1999: 243).

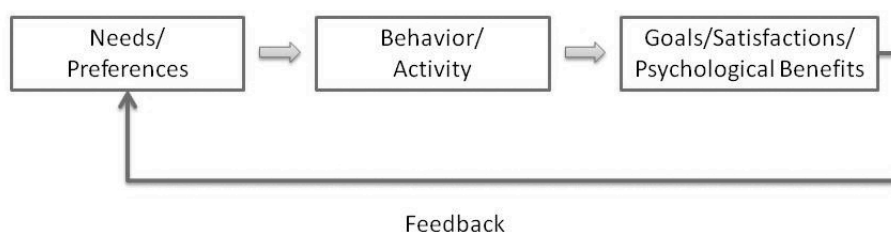


FIGURE 12. A MODEL OF MOTIVATIONAL PROCESS (Mannell, 1999: 243)

Mannell (1999) suggests that needs, preferences and motives influence leisure behaviour, which in turn impact the outcome of leisure in the form of goals, satisfaction and psychological benefits. These leisure outcomes then provide a feedback, which may alter subsequent leisure needs, preferences and motives (Campbell, 2007).

Motivation, then, it is an important construct to be analysed if the aim of the study is to better understand the peoples' behaviour, since "[m]otivation has been viewed as an important determinant of behaviour" (Hsieh, 1998: 41). Therefore, within needs and preferences, motivations could be seen as forces that cause people behaving in certain way, and can also be behind leisure participation (Crandall, 1980). Other researches have developed this discussion, settling social psychologists of leisure have discovered a strong correlation between leisure and freedom of choice, enjoyment, intrinsic motivation and relaxation. However, it has been also found that there is considerable slippage between regarding motivation as a cause or effect of participation. "Furthermore, meaning is generally used as a multidimensional category making it difficult to generate useful analytic observations or hypotheses (Osgood and Howe 1984; Horna 1994)" (cited in Rojek, 2005: 81).

The literature review shows motivation as a possible factor causing the participation in leisure activities, and therefore, it seems indispensable element to study when analysing leisure practices. However, in terms of leisure practices at cross-border areas little has been studied, and because of this reason, and due to the common aspects that cross-border participation and tourism could have, the literature on tourism motivations has been analysed.

2.2.2.2. Tourism motivations

"The importance of motivation in tourism is quite obvious. It acts as a trigger that sets off all the events involved in travel" (Apostolopoulos, Leivadi and Yiannakis, 2002: 75). As Snepenger et al., (2006: 140) mentioned, "theorists and tourism researchers have asserted that motivations are (1) the fundamental reasons for behavior (Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Pearce 1982, 1991; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983), (2) critical to understanding the vacation decision-making process (Dann 1977; Dirakaya and Woodside 2005), and (3) foundational for assessing satisfaction from the experience (Dann 1981; Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991; Oliver 1980, 1997; Ryan 2002b; Yoon and Uysal 2005)".

One important author researching motivations influencing travel is Pearce (1982: 287). This author developed the theory of Maslow in order to find out which could be the motivations influencing the decision to travel. This model argues that in the same way that a person has a “work career”, he/she also has a “travel career”, and identifies five levels of travel career ladder (TCL) in which people tend to ascend the ladder as they become more experienced travellers: (1) Relaxation; (2) Stimulation; (3) Relationship; (4) Self-esteem and development; and (5) Fulfilment (cited in Mill and Morrison, 2006).

From the perspective of travel, as Snepenger et al. (2006) stated, “considerable effort has been undertaken by motivation scholars to document and quantify general and specific motivations for tourism (Crompton, 1979; Yuan and McDonald 1990; Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter 2001; Sirakaya, Uysal, and Yoshioka 2003; Pearce and Lee 2005)”. The authors also highlighted that, in 1980, Iso-Ahola developed the theory through the understanding of travel motivations, with a motivation theory applicable to leisure, recreation, and tourism, the Optimal Arousal Theory.

Consumer studies has been also very important in the analysis of tourism motivations, and as Pearce has told, “[a] major focus of consumer studies in the psychology of tourist behaviour is the study of travel motivation. The question is often expressed simply as ‘why do tourists travel?’” (McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie, 1995: 167). The interests of the identification of tourist motivations have largely grown from the studies of geographers’ too, but the position of them has been criticised by psychologists and sociologists (Pearce, 1982), because they has tended to accept the main theories of motivation instead debate them (Shaw, Agarwaland and Bull, 2000).

In any kind of decision-making process during peoples’ free time, the previous motivation is crucial. Motivation, both for travel and leisure is the initial intrinsic factor behind the action of moving or participating. As Iso-Ahola (1999) stated, it is an internal factor that arouses and directs human behaviour. This way, it is easy to understand that motivations will be different depending on the characteristics of people over their life span. Thus, there are some patterns that could be seen as related to each age: “[t]he research indicates that there is great heterogeneity in patterns of activity participation across the life span (Cutler and Hendricks, 1990; Iso-Ahola et al., 1994; Kelly et al., 1986; Stanley et al., 1996)” (Freysinger, 1999: 262).

Motivation has been found that vary by age (Iso-Ahola, 1999), especially in the case of intrinsic motivation behind to do an activity for the sake or enjoyment itself. Motivations change with the age and the changes related different age ranges, as for example, childhood to adolescence, young-old to old-old, or young to middle adulthood, and from adulthood to elderly. Those differences are related to the constitution of a family, change in the time and money disposition and so on. In the same way, gender has too much to see with the possibility of doing leisure activities. From this statement, the following proposition is proposed.

Proposition 3: Leisure motivation is different depending on the peoples' profile

There are other factors that could influence motivations, and consequently the type of participation. Those factors are “social roles, health, race and ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender are just some of the factors that distinguish the experience of age and leisure” (Freysinger, 1999: 262). According to Hsieh (1998: 18) the change of behaviour depends on peoples characteristics and also to the type of activity in which they are involved: “[d]ifferent activities can meet different need for different people at different times. Also, the same people can pursue different activities for different reasons at different times. Understanding what motivates people to participate in leisure activities is important. Such knowledge is fundamental for explaining and predicting leisure behavior”. Therefore, the understanding of what motivates people to participate in leisure activities or tourism is fundamental to explain and also predict leisure behaviour.

In the analysis of the leisure and tourism activities, Hall and Lew (2009) –following Chadwick (1987)– grouped travellers into the following activities, related to different motivations: activities in visiting friends and relatives, business travel, travel to second homes, health- and medical-related travel, education-related travel, religious travel and pilgrimage, travel for shopping and retail, volunteer tourism. This classification has been widely used in tourism related scientific works, for instance, Hall and Page (2002) showed four primary purposes of travel, in their classification of travellers: Business, Visiting friends and relatives (VFR), other personal business and pleasure.

Literature review has shown the importance of motivation strength and motivation type to the final behaviour of people. Motivations would be different depending to the characteristics of people, but even if the motivation is the same, the result may vary, as people would act in the different way to motivations. As Shin (1998: 34) posited, “[m]otives for travel also relate to socio-demographic variables, demographic variables, and reference group attitudes and opinions (Uysal and Hagan, 1990)”. This perspectives shows that motivation is influenced the internal and external characteristics of a group or person. From this statement, the following proposition is proposed.

Proposition 4: Different peoples’ profile will result in different mobility behaviour.

Thus, living characteristics or lifestyle could define behavioural patterns of the citizens, in the same way as leisure experiences could define different life styles.

2.2.3. Values Attitudes and Lifestyles in leisure related mobility

Peoples’ way of life or living style can be determined or influenced by the type of activities in which they are involved. Lifestyle is considered as a set of habitual practices that can be understood as a result and a condition of everyday activities (Lanzendorf, 2000). This will be analysed through the following parts: consumption of habits, demonstration of tastes, and leisure activities.

As travel is an important everyday activity, lifestyle is expected to be an important determinant of travel patterns. This idea has been supported by Nadirova (2000: 16) who has posited, “[l]ifestyle can be defined as a individual’s whole way of living, and *leisure style* is one of its numerous aspects”. Taking into account previous statements, the following proposition has been postulated.

Proposition 5: Since lifestyle could be defined as a set of habitual practices, Lifestyle can be utilised to explain different mobility patterns

Lifestyle is a social element that determines an individual's identification with a social group and manifests itself in all facets of everyday life, such as consumption of habits and the demonstration of tastes and leisure activities. According to these theories, everyday activities have a symbolic meaning in the social space.

Lifestyle have been analysed mainly from the business perspective. The theory shows that researchers started to take into account values and lifestyle and they developed some methodologies to analyse it. Among the methodologies, it can be said that “[o]ne of the more intriguing development in value methodology in recent years has been the Values and Life Style (VALS) methodology developed at SRI International by Mitchell (1983) (...) (Eiesman, Glazer, and Deney, 1950)” (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986: 405). Furthermore, as McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie (1995) stated, VALS is “[a] popular segmentation system used today”.

VALS has been extended mainly in the researchers wishing to deeper understand the consumer needs and typology, by means of lifestyles (McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie, 1995). To get the understanding of consumer needs it is not easy, because neither values nor lifestyles are directly measurable aspects. As Shaw, Agarwal and Bull (2000: 270) stated, “[i]dentifying those who engage in these new forms of consumption is problematic, although there are obvious class divisions, along with stages in the family life-cycle. Perhaps the most useful analysis is based around the idea of value and lifestyles (VALS) (Mitchell 1983; Shaw and Williams 1994)”.

Due to the awareness of better understand consumers and measure people's necessities – previously identified by Maslow (1954), SRI International research institute created a survey. The VALS™ survey purpose is to identify the values, attitudes and life styles (VALS) type of the person taking the survey. Through this survey, *nine American Lifestyles* were identified: innovators, thinkers, believers, achievers, strivers, experiencers, makers and survivors (see Figure 13). The classification takes into account the resources and the primary motivation, because it was –and still is– considered that “motivations and resources determine how people will express themselves in the marketplace” (Strategic Business Insights, 2009-2010).

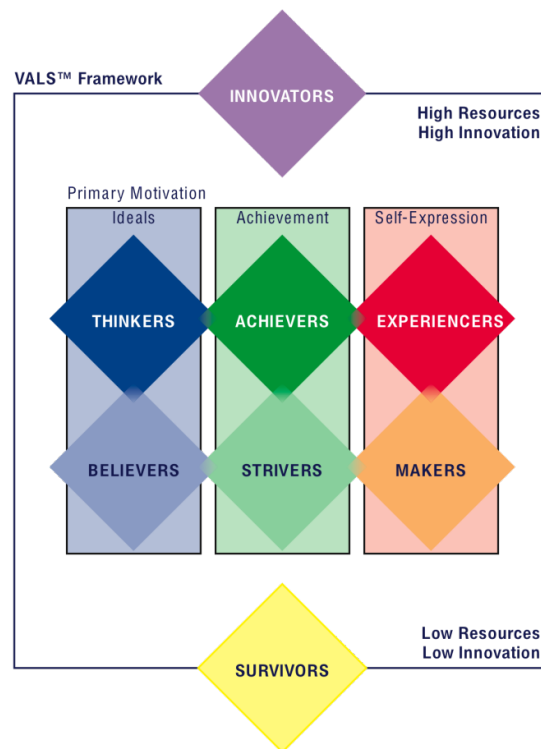


FIGURE 13. VALS CLASSIFICATION (Strategic Business Insights, 2009-2010)

This survey is used to find out about a person's product ownership, media preferences, hobbies, additional demographics, or attitudes, the questions in the VALS survey integrate into larger questionnaires that ask about these topics.

As tourist or visitants are a consumer too, it was considered that VALS™ survey could be applied to this study. The insertion is based on the evince of the necessity of further studying tourist typologies: “there is a need for further research to investigate the use of tourist typologies in the light of the development of new tourist leisure styles and the increasing segmentation and specialization of tourism markets” (Shaw, Agarwal and Bull, 2000: 273). Tourism it is considered one type of participation and in the same way that tourist can participate in different activities. Following this tendency, it seems that the methodology proposed in VALS could be applied to define participation types and similar mobility patterns. Taking into account the theory, the following proposition is postulated.

Proposition 6: Values, Attitudes and Life Styles (VALS) model can be applied to study people's leisure participation patterns

But life styles are connected to motivations too, as “mobile subjects are internally differentiated in terms of motivations and life strategies” (D’Andrea, 2006: 99). Therefore, it seems that motivations and life styles are somehow connected. The idea of motivations as an element in the definition of the mobility or participation type comes again, but this time, the motivations have been connected to life strategies. Life strategies, in the same way of the motivations, can be somehow limited, both, from external and internal factors.

The limitations connected to life strategies have been analysed from the cultural sociology, as it can be seen in the analysis of cultural relations made by Ariño (1997). In his analysis, the author stated that the access to leisure and culture is different for everyone. Those differences can be related to life strategies, but also to the barriers or constraints which people could be dealing with. Therefore, the motivations and preferences to activities could be constrained by factors that could give as a result a modification of the behaviour. Taking into account leisure related mobility in the human voluntaries mobility context, it is possible to analyse the social patters of mobility, though the identification of factors that limit or affect leisure time mobility, as the identification of constraints could help to deeper understand human behaviour.

2.2.4. Constraints to Mobility from the perspective of Constraints to Leisure Participation

In this section the theory about constraints to leisure and tourism are explained. Constraints to leisure participation has been widely analysed, since its emergence in the 1960s, and as well as the barriers to travel, which has been studied since the 1980s (...). However, “applying the concept of leisure constraints to the study of tourism is a recent phenomenon (e.g., Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Hudson, 2000; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Pennington-Gray & Kertetter, 2002)” (Hung and Petrick, 2010: 206).

The applicability of leisure constraint theories in the analysis of leisure behaviour is because both, participation and non-participation could be constrained (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991). However, “[i]nvestigation of leisure constraints is one of the key areas in leisure research focusing on the “negative” or “problematic” side of leisure behaviour” (Nadirova, 2000: 48). This way, the non-participation has been less studied and, as Mannell

and Loucks-Atkinson (2005: 223) has stated, “[a]lthough there are a number of alternative models of nonparticipation in the health and exercise areas, there are few leisure behaviour nonparticipation models”.

The necessity of researching leisure constraints has been highlighted by Jackson (2005: 3) among others, who has presented three general justifications to explain the necessity of studying it: (1) its study as other factor influencing peoples leisure choices and behaviours; (2) to deeper understand leisure; and (3) to enhance communication of the scholars within other disciplines, interests and methodologies. Jackson and Scott (1999) have also defended the importance of identifying the impacts of constraint on leisure in the analysis of human behaviour as associated variable.

The perspective of studying mobility or travel constraints from the widely analysed perspective of leisure constraints has also been adopted in this study. The researches on travel and tourism constraints are based on previews researches on the perception of leisure constraints, which is the reason why the literature of leisure constraints is explained first.

2.2.4.1. Analysing Constraints to Leisure

Constraints to leisure are analysed to deeper understand peoples’ leisure behaviour. The research on constraints started in the 1960s, although it is not until the 1980s when their study will start having stronger bases. During this period, the constraints theory has changed, and within this changes, the definitions of the concept.

The changed in the definition of constraints has been substantial. In early studies, constraints were defined as “those barriers or blockages that inhibit continued use of a recreation service (Backman & Compton, 1989)” (cited in Hung and Petrick, 2010: 208). Constraint has been defined as “any factor which intervenes between the preference for an activity and participation in it” (Henderson, et al., 1989: 117). Those researchers considered a positive relationship between leisure constraints and leisure nonparticipation, as they had considered the barriers as insurmountable obstacles, which the only result was the nonparticipation. Therefore, at the beginning constraints were defined as “a subset of reasons for not engaging in a particular behavior” (Jackson, 1988: 69).

Recently, and due to the theoretical and empirical developments of constraints researches of the late 1990s, Hinch and Jackson (2000: 95) redefined constraints, as “factors that are assumed by researchers and perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (modified and expanded from Jackson, 1991: 279). Nadirova and Jackson (2000) proposed another definition, stating that constraints are “those factors that inhibit continued use of leisure services, cause inability to participate in a new activity, result in the inability to maintain or increase frequency of participation and/or lead to negative impacts on the quality of a leisure experience” (cited in Hung and Petrick, 2010: 209).

Through the wide range of definitions founded in the literature, the conception of constraints adopted in this study is based on Hinch and Jackson (2000) and Nadirova and Jackson (2000), and considers constraints as factors that can limit and/or change the participation behaviour.

2.2.4.2. Development of Constraints to Leisure

Researches about constraints started getting importance with the democratisation of leisure time and the increase of participation in leisure. As Hinch and Jackson (2000: 95) pointed out, “constraints to leisure has been widely analysed during the last decades”, and its study have received increasing attention from academics.

As Goodale and Witt (1989) has told, the origins of the field of study on constraints can be traced back over the early 1960s, by the hand of Outdoor Recreation Research Review Commission (ORRRC), and even to the origins of the North American parks and recreation movement in the 19th century. The early studies of leisure and did have into account “barriers” or “constraints” as an insurmountable problem to participate. In the early 1980s, “researches tended to make certain assumptions about constraints, and their impacts on people’s leisure and recreation, not uncovered as limiting the development of the field until much later (Jackson, 2005: 3).

The earlier stage of the researches about constraints included two important assumptions: (1) constraints are immovable, static, obstacles to participation; and (2) the most significant, if perhaps not only, effect of constraints on leisure is to block or limit participation. In other

words, the absence or presence of constraints would explain “why a person does or does not participate in an activity” (Jackson, 2005: 3).

From the emergence of the leisure constraints research in North America –in 1980s, (Jackson and Scottt, 1999), to those days, researches about constraints “has passed through a series of pivotal developmental stages” (Nadirova, 2000: 49). The development of the studies about constraints can be classified in four distinct phases, as Hinch and Jackson (2000: 95) pointed out: (1) early origins; (2) period of barrier studies; (3) emergence of generic concept of constraints; and (4) search for underlying patterns and explanation.

Taking into account the development above mentioned, it can be said that one of the most important progresses in the researchers about constraints to leisure are the publication of complex models that shows the manner in which constraints influence the behaviour in leisure decision making process. This process has been called “constraints negotiation” and has been introduced by Crawford and Godbey (1987). This alternative vision introduced by Crawford and Godbey (1987) emerged in the middle of eighties, in a study analysing the family barriers. After that, the theory was explicitly explained by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) and Scott (1991), which take into account the non-participation as the result of those who react passively to constraints, with the non participation, whereas other could negotiate with those, giving as a result to get into or the go on with participation in one leisure activity. This way, participants could also be constrained (Wright and Goodale, 1991).

The evolution of the constraints conceptualisation shows the proposal that constraint to leisure could depend in one hand, on the absence of constraints, and in the other hand on the positive result of the constraint negotiation, overcoming constraint. The overcoming of constraints would give as a result leisure participation. The negotiation process is a complex phenomenon that allows people overcoming the presence of constraint. This possibility is taking into account from the nineties and, since then, it has been widely demonstrated by different researchers. “Crawford et al. proposed that individuals who participate in a given leisure pursuit might have successfully negotiated a sequential or hierarchical series of constraints, whereas individuals who do not participate have experienced constraints that might have occurred at any one of several stages (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993).

The validation of this affirmation is based on some psychological orientations, those that has the capacity of predispose people, consists at least in three subjective evaluations: the belief of oneself and people have to do; the preferences of oneself; and people's ability to change behaviour (Huston and Ashmore, 1986, cited in Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991). Therefore, the conceptions of constraints or barrier as insurmountable element, which gives as a result the non-participation, had been modified.

This idea was mentioned by Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993: 4) developed the initial method, inserting the motivation dealing with the preferences and with the constraints. They believed that “[p]articipation is dependent not on the absence of constraints... but on negotiation through them. Such negotiation may modify rather than foreclose participation”. The findings of those studies can be summarised in the following proposition.

Proposition 7: Perceived Constraints may modify leisure participation, and therefore, mobility patterns

In the same way, participation could not be explained thought the absence of constraints, because, the absence or existence of constraints does not give as a result participation, with the first case, or non-participation, with the second. The result of constrained or unconstrained desired activity could be different, depending on the moment or the individual in which it appear. Non-participation could be explained through the lack of desire to participate, as it has been explained by Jackson and Searle (1985) “[n]on participation: Jackson and Searle (1985) distinguished between two types of adult non-participants: those who do not wish to participate, and those who wish to participate but for whom a barrier or combination of barriers restricts participation” (Raymore, Godbey and Crawford, 1994: 100).

2.2.4.3. A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints Participation

The most widely accepted theoretical framework of leisure constraints was proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987), and latterly elaborated by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991). These authors proposed that leisure constraints could be “categorized into three hierarchically organized levels: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural” (Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe, 2004: 543). This classification was conceptualised through the model *A*

Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints, shown in the following figure (Figure 14). This progress, as Jackson (2005: 5) stated, “would not likely have occurred had it not been for the stimulus of the articles by Scott, Kay and Jackson, and Shaw et al., among others”. Thus, the model of Jackson and Godbey is the result of other major contributions that ensued from 1987 to 1991: starting with the integrative review of Jackson (1988); following by Scott (1991), who was the first researcher exploring the “leisure constraints negotiation”.

A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints is a more sophisticated model in the literature about constraints, supported by the affirmation “leisure participation is heavily dependent on negotiating through an alignment of multiple factors, arranged sequentially, that must be overcome to maintain an individual’s impetus through these systemic levels” (Crawford et al., 1991: 314, cited in Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993: 3). Each level of constraint must be overcome in order to face the subsequent level of constraint. This affirmation is based on the behaviour out of habit, in which the factors strongly affecting are those are closer and internal. For that reason, taking into account their proposal, to participate, it is necessary to negotiate and overcome the constraints at intrapersonal and interpersonal level, to later face the structural, and just this way it would be possible to participate in any activity.

The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

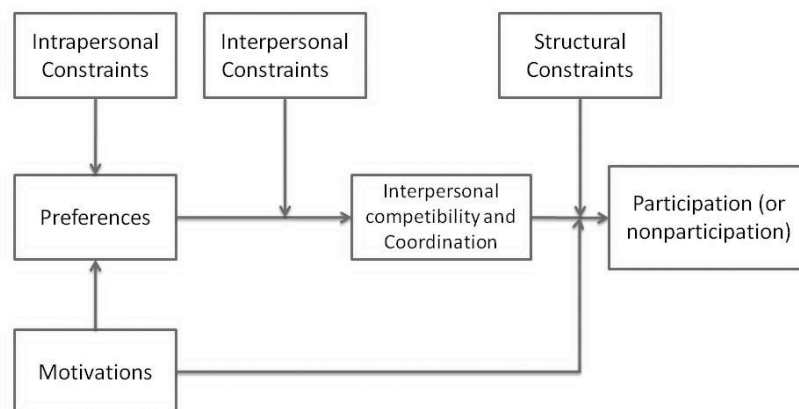


FIGURE 14. A HIERARCHICAL MODEL OF LEISURE CONSTRAINTS (based on Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993)

An extensive range of studies shows that the first level of constraint is *intrapersonal* which involves individual psychological states and attributes, which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation. The second stage of *interpersonal* constraints occurs as a result of interaction or the relationship between individuals' characteristics. Finally, *structural* constraints, the type of constraints that has received most attention in previous constraints research. Structural constraints are those intervening factors between leisure preferences and participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Hudson and Gilbert, 1999). The literature review brings the following proposition:

*Proposition 8: Constraints can break down in three different factors:
intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural*

As Jackson (2005) pointed out, this is a flow-diagram model, and it has been summarised both, by the negotiation thesis and by six specific propositions: (1) participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints –although this may be true for some people– but on negotiation may modify rather than foreclose the participation; (2) variations in the reporting of constraints can be viewed not only as variations in the experience of constraints, but also as variations in success in negotiating them; (3) absence of the desire to change current leisure behaviour may be partly explained by prior successful negotiation of structural constraints. (4) Anticipation of one more insurmountable interpersonal or structural constraints may suppress the desire for participation; (5) anticipation consists of not simply the anticipation of the presence or intensity of a constraint, but also the anticipation of the ability to negotiate it; (6) both the initiation process depends on the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participating in an activity and motivations for such participation (based on Jackson, 2005: 6).

There is no doubt about the recognition of *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* of 1993, because it is a model that has been empirically tested through several researchers. However, during the last decade “leisure constraint theory has been criticized as inappropriately becoming a general theory of leisure behaviour” (Samdahl and Jekubovich, 1997, cited in Mannell and Loucks-Atkinson, 2005: 223). The work developed by Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) concluded that, above the different type of constraints, cultural

constraint should be differentiating from the structural constraints. In their work, the following model was proposed.

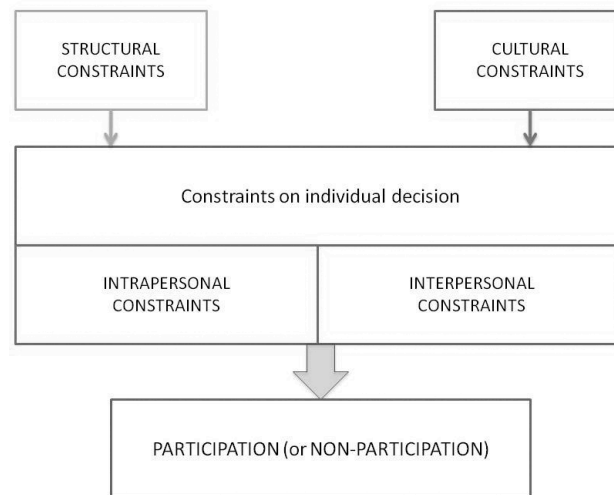


FIGURE 15. CLASSIFICATION OF CONSTRAINTS (Chick and Dong, 2003: 341)

Supporting this differentiation of constraints, Chick and Dong (2003: 341) argued the importance of cultural constraint on leisure too. As they concluded: “a new line of research where in culture is used as an independent variable in both intracultural and cross-cultural comparative studies of leisure and leisure constraints [is being developed]”. Based on the propositions given by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991), and the subsequent theories and findings, it is concluded that there are different stages of constraints. Those constraints are *intrapersonal*, *interpersonal* and *structural*, but in some cases, it may appear other constraint that has been classified as *cultural*.

Proposition 9: Leisure decision process in cross-cultural environments is affected also by cultural constraints, despite of intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural

Furthermore, it is proved that the result of the constraints is not the absence of participation, as it has been thought. A person is able to change or modify the participating behaviour or to maintain their participation pattern through the negotiation process, overcoming those constraints (Jackson Crawford and Godbey, 1993). Taking into account this idea and the development of the studies, it is possible to understand that the earlier studies could not

explain the relationship among the preferences and the participation (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991).

Until the last twenty-five years, all the studies show –both implicitly and explicitly– constraints as insurmountable obstacle to participation, recognising briefly its potential intensity. Similarly, the potential negotiation of constraints was not considered, but taking into account the developments, it can be said that the “negotiation” among leisure preferences or anticipated motivations with constraints is successful when a person do not stop participating. Based on previous studies, the following proposition is posited:

Proposition 10: Constraints are not insurmountable obstacles to leisure, because motivation can reduce constraints influence on participation

Thus, participation is the result of the alienation of multiple factors, which have to be overcome to maintain the wanted participation behaviour. The publication of complex models that shows the relation among both preferences and participation and the way in which those are connected is one of the most important developments of the researches in constraints to leisure. Those researches have shown that motivations and preferences can deal with constraints, giving as a result participation.

Few empirical evidences showing the process of negotiation concluded that it constitutes a principle answer to constraints. Deeply, these findings could be interrelated as evidences showing that people could answer actively to constraints, negotiating, more than passively, with the non-participation. But for the positive negotiation of constraints, the motivation has a very important effect. It is demonstrated that the overcoming potentiality of constraints is higher if the motivations are strong.

Furthermore, it is possible to speculate that the successful confrontation and negotiation could increase the participation, changing it and redistributing the itinerary, depending on the priorities of each person. Besides, it is necessary to have into account that negotiation and the motivation to participate are fundamental, and could be highly interconnected with preferences and participation.

Regarding to the methodology applied to the constraints related researches, quantitative methods have dominated, and if qualitative methods are used, then they are typically reduced to help to create and pose hypothesis, which can then be tested and refined using statistical research methods and models (Hudson and Gilbert, 1999).

2.2.4.4. The Integration of Constraints to Leisure Theory in the Tourism Context

As it has been mentioned in the introduction of the subsection on constraint literature it is recently when leisure constraints theory has been taken into account in the tourism context. Then, it seems that although the sophistication of constraints research, the relation between leisure studies and tourism research has been briefly studied (Hinch and Jackson, 2000). As Hall (2005b: 134) stated, “although there is a well-established literature on leisure constraints (for example, Jackson et al., 1993; Jackson and Scott, 1999) such notions have been relatively little applied to tourism (Shaw and William, 2002)”.

Recent tourism constraints studies “[d]espite the wide scope of issues and populations examined in recent tourism constraints studies, they all are based on theoretical knowledge about individuals’ perceptions of the factors that condition the way they spend their leisure time” (Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe, 2004: 542). Some authors perceived that “any study in which tourism phenomenon serves as a dependent variable is related to the topic of constraints” (Ellis and Rademacher, 1986: 36), as it is considered that constraint could influence participants’ leisure travel experience (Tian et al., 1996). As the authors suggested, participants succeeded in maintaining their desired level of participation when they are able to overcome perceived leisure constraints.

According to the researchers, participation in leisure travel is related to factors that both, implement, and limited through perceived constraints. Therefore the idea of the “negotiation” previously presented in the leisure constraints model was also considered in the analysis of travel. They explained the effect of benefits sought –also considered motivations– in the process of overcoming constraints. This way commented, “benefits sought accruing from leisure participation might be substantial enough to offset the costs associated with the constraints” (Shin, 1998: 33). In the study, it was added that decision to travel is influenced by factors related to motivation, but to “the effort and cost related to the trip (Harries,

Driverand Bergerson, 1985; Woodside and Lysonki, 1989; Krumpe and McLaughlin, 1982; Um and Crompton, 1992; Tian et al., 1996” (cited in Shin, 1998: 32-33).

Hinch and Jackson (2000) justified that tourism should be analysed from the perspective of leisure constraints theories, because of the relative theoretical sophistication of this area of study. Leisure constraints could be one conceptual framework that may help understand why individuals do not participate in specific tourism activities, since tourism is also a leisure activity. Therefore, tourism researchers may benefit from looking at the leisure constrains literature and overcome the grounded in leisure constraints studies. The authors have supported the introduction of the constraints theory because “(...) previous models of consumer behaviour in tourism have neglected the constraints on participation (...) authors make operative a recent constraint model in order to examine the constraints on skiing for both participation and non-participation” (Hinch and Jackson, 2000: 95).

However, “until very recently, however, few studies have explored the usefulness of the leisure constraints framework in the tourism context” (Hinch and Jackson, 2000, cited in Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe, 2004: 542). According to Nyaupane and Andereck (2008: 434), there is not any research related to constraints to tourism mobility until the year 2000. In their work they criticised that “[d]espite the potential applications of leisure constraint theory in studying travel behavior, only a few articles have used the theory in a tourism context”.

Among the attempts to enhance and adapt the model *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints Theory* to tourism *A Model for Sport Tourism Constraint Research* (Hinch, et al., 2005), constitutes one of the clearest efforts. This model has developed the initial hierarchical model, by adding some other elements, for instance, micro and macro level factors, as factors influencing the perception of constraints and preferences, from the first step of the decision making process to the analysis of sport tourism (see Figure16).

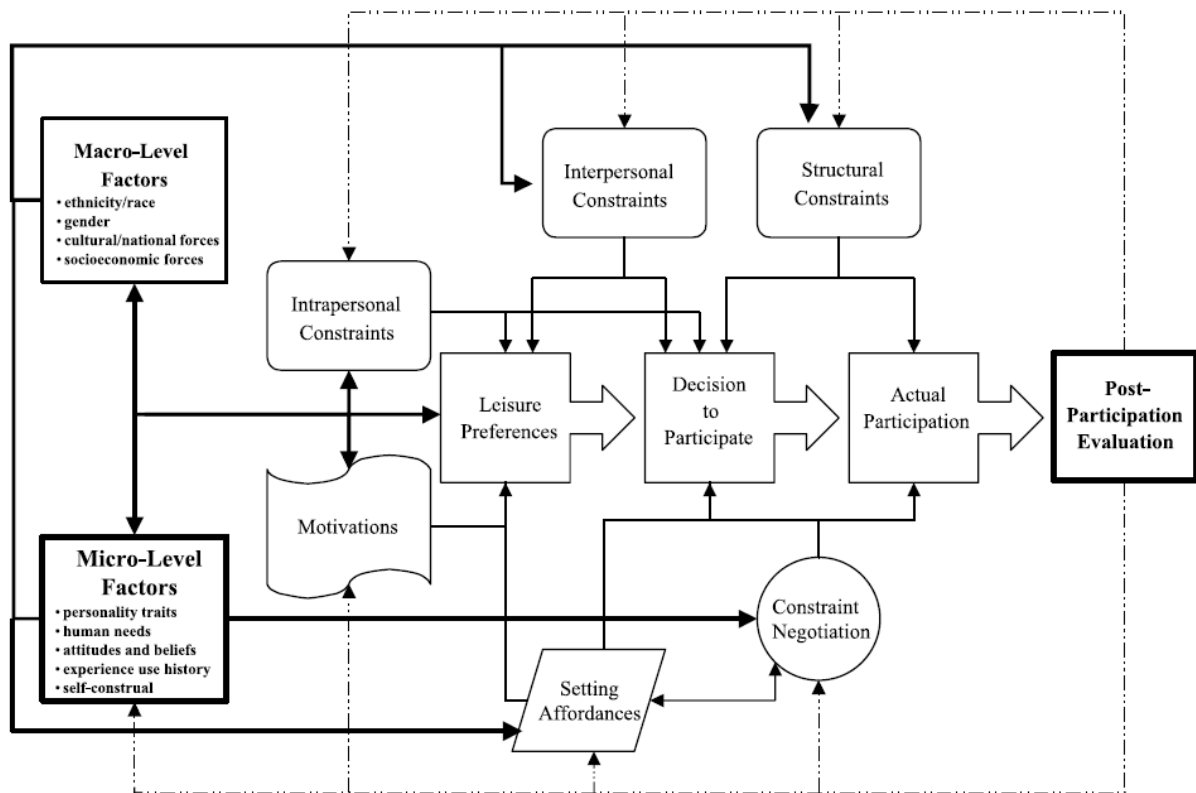


FIGURE 16. REVISED LEISURE CONSTRAINTS MODEL (Walker and Virden, 2005: 202)

There are other earlier studies that can be considered as the antecedent of tourist constraints studies. Concretely, there are studies related to geographical aspects of constraints, which had help to the later development of tourism constraints. The most remarkable study of Jackson (1994) titled *Geographical Aspects of Constraints on Leisure and Recreation*. The research concluded, “while they affect recreational choices, geographical constraints are less influential than other types of constraints, such as cost, lack of time, and lack of facilities” (Jackson, 1994: 110).

It seems that, although the “relative sophistication of constraints research”, there is not enough co-ordination between leisure studies and tourism research, even though it is likely to think that the introduction of constraints research could bring significance advantages for tourism studies (based on Hinch and Jackson, 2000: 95). The significance of the analysis of tourism from the approach of leisure constraints theory has been shown in the analysis of Fleisher and Pizam (2002), Gilbert and Hudson (2000), Hinch and Jackson (2000), Hudson (2000), Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe (2004) and Pennington-Gray and Kertetter (2002).

The findings of those researches have been very important at different levels. Hinch and Jackson (2000) have argued that constraint framework can provide a better understanding of tourism seasonality. Related to the identification of specific constraints affecting tourism, some studies have identified that intrapersonal constraints are affecting to specific group of people, e.g. non-skiers (Gilbert and Hudson, 2000), women more than men in the case of potential skiers analysed by Hudson (2000) and Israeli seniors, finding income and health as the constraints that are affecting more to senior tourists (Fleisher and Pizam, 2002), whereas structural constraints –such as cost– have been identified as the most important constraints by Gilbert and Hudson (2000).

There are number of studies showing the importance of constraint in the process of choosing travel destination. However, those studies consider the importance of constraint in tourist's travel decision, since constraints influence tourist travel decision process has been detected (Shin, 1998), however, its role of constraint in has been little analysed (Tian et al., 1996). Furthermore, the authors noted that tourist's decision-making deal directly with factors such as desirable destination attributes, image, and benefits sought. Crompton (1992) has also analysed those factors, giving as a result of his work done –in 1977, about the tourist's decision-making process, concluded that their behaviour was the result of the interaction between constraining attributes: time, money, ability to travel, and destination image and the decision-making process.

As in the case of leisure, travel participation and travel decision will be different depending on the personal characteristic of the participants. According to Hall (2005), there is a study showing the importance of age, income (Race factor constraining long-distance travel –Travel constraints and the findings of the 1995 US National Travel Survey) (Hall, 2005). Through those studies it is possible to present the next proposition:

Proposition 11: Mobility decision process is directly influenced by personal profile, despite of constraints and motivations

In the analysis of travel constraints, Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe (2004: 435) found three factors of constraint; one essentially interpersonal, other factor was called fear domain, that was essentially intrapersonal, and other factor was structural in nature (it was identified as

cost domain by authors), and “had the most diverse items including costs, distance from home and lack of time. Likewise, Pennington-Gray and Kertetter (2002) identify three factors of constraints, but tested the leisure constraints model in a nature-based tourism context and found support for the three dimensional model”.

Other previous researches about travel had taken into account, at least latently, some factors affecting travel behaviour that would be regarded as constraints to travel. This is the case of the works of Tongren (1980), which analyses that “the planning process and travel behaviour of these individuals were influenced by multiple factors” (cited in Shin, 1998: 30) even as, currently, some of them are considered as a constraint. In the same way, Um and Crompton (1992) had analysed some “perceived inhibitor”, “which were considered as a constraints to travel” (Shin, 1998: 31).

Recently, Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) made an approach to understand travel constraint from the perspectives of Leisure Constraints Model, in their article titled *Understanding Travel Constraints: Application and Extension of a Leisure Constraints Model*. Edginton et al. (1988: 203), in their effort of better understand constraints, added that “[c]onstraints include obstacles, limitations, impediment, restrictions, and other factors placed in front of individual either by themselves or by culture, society, or environment. These constraints prevent people from engaging in satisfying leisure experiences”. Therefore, “[a] constraint may not be articulated, let alone perceived, does not necessarily deny its importance as an influence on leisure. Nor does it negate the value of the constraints construct as a theoretical or empirical explanation of leisure decisions” (Jackson, 1997: 462).

2.2.4.5. Constraints researches and related factors

Researchers on constraints have analysed the effect of different factors in the level of participation or in the decision making process of tourist. Demographic impact in the perception of constraints has been widely analysed and “have been used as independent variables to explore cross-sample variations by variables such as gender, age, and income” (Jackson and Scott, 1999: 305). In any case, gender could not be seen separately from other factors, as income, since a correlation with the perception of constraint in men has been found. In the same way, the perception of time as constraining factor is different depending of

the age. As Freysinger (1999) stated, “time commitments, for example, typically exhibit an inverted-U-shaped relationship, which means that they increase from youth to middle age but decline thereafter, while an opposite pattern usually emerges for constraints related to social relationships, in particular the difficulty of finding partners with whom to participate”.

The perception of constraints in reference of socioeconomic status and gender had been analysed by Raymore, Godbey and Crawford (1994). The authors analyses gender, but related to *cost related constraints*. The early findings helped to enhance the understanding of the effect of constraints in the inhabitants, depending of their social characteristics. Furthermore, it helps to in deep comprehend the different perceptions among groups and the evolution of them, since “has indicated that there are indeed statistically significant and frequently striking variations in the perception and experience of constraints” (Raymore, Godbey and Crawford, 1994: 306). This way, it is proved that cost related constraints decline with the age “while lack of skills and abilities increases, but problems with facilities and access do not appear to vary by age”.

In the perception of other factors that could act as a constraint such as income and family structure the same happens. Those variables could not be measured regarding the divisions related to age or gender. This way, and following Jackson and Scott (1999), subgroups of the society have to be considered relating to similarities associated to other circumstances. *Social factors* are influencing the perception of leisure constraints too. Considered social factor are culture, race, and other similar characteristic that constitute society. However, some researchers have recognised the little attention paid to other external factors that could be constraining the participating intention in territories that are not familiar or in places where people has different characteristic, such as life style or language.

In that sense, it was considered that the study of values, attitudes and lifestyles could help to study the internal factors. Following this purpose, this study will consider that aspects related to values and lifestyles (VALS) are –within leisure behaviour– are useful in the analysis of different perception of constraint among subgroups of inhabitants. The findings from the literature review make possible to postulate the following proposition:

Proposition 12: Variations in the population subgroups based on VALS have influence on the perception of constraints.

In the study of social factors, Shinew, Floyd and Parry (2004) studied the effect of race and Manell (2005) the cross-cultural differences, while the relation of culture in the perception of leisure constraints has been analysed by Walker, Jackson and Deng (2007). But culture, as possible limiting factor has been less studied, due to the difficulty of the identification of culture, and therefore, it has been studied through the language, which are usually linked.

Geographic factors are less studied in the researches of constraints. The most important contribution studying constraints from the geographical perspective was done by Jackson (1994) in the early nineties. This research published as *Geographical Aspects of Constraints on Leisure and Recreation* have been taken into account from later studies about the effect of constraints to leisure, but also to tourism and recreation. It is believed that this work is one of the most important antecedents in which this work is based on because, very related to geography is the perception of territory, where *border* can act as a constraint to participate if this participation is implicating crossing national boundaries. As Prokkola (2007: 121) stated, “[n]ational boundaries affect tourism in every aspect –tourist flows, destinations, tourism planning and marketing campaigns”.

Recently, there are some efforts to integrate studies of border with tourism, as for example, Timothy (2001, 2006), which shows the early of the researches about political geography in which tourism has been introduced for its particular interest. Border in leisure studies have been analysed in different ways, mainly in terms of cooperation. But as a consequence of globalisation “a new space is being created for tourism: in this space, tourists travel in a ‘world where the only frontiers are in your mind’” (Rojek and Urry, 1997: 90). As the authors stated, it is a time where “the boundaries between things –between people, places and cultures– are being transgressed and redrawn”.

Border can impact in different ways, and the relation between international borders and have in relation to tourism flows and tourism development has been analysed by Timothy (2001). The author has presented the relation of border typology and its effects with the tourism. This relation is based on the fundamental relationship between international borders and tourism,

“because travel almost always involves crossing some political border or other and borderland are often the first or last areas of a state that travellers see” (Timothy, 2001, cited in Prokkola, 2007). However, “[m]ost travel surveys are focused on people’s daily travel within the borders of a country, a region, or a city and pay limited attention to border-crossing travel activities” (Frändberg and Vilhelmson, 2003: 1753)

The following figure (Figure 17) shows the influence that international borders have in relation to tourism flows and tourism development in different ways, depending of the nature of the border. In this approach, the closed border will function as a barrier to tourism flows and tourism development, while an open border where there are few cultural, political and economic differences; tourism development can be complementary.

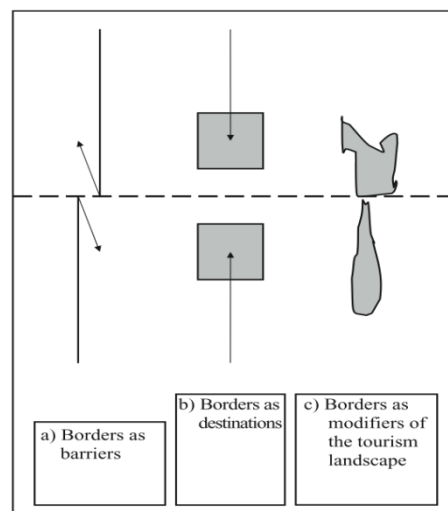


FIGURE 17. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISM AND BORDERS (Timothy, 2001: 11)

However, this relationship is rarely as simple as it is shown in the figure. And “[w]hether relatively closed or relatively open, border zones are distinct within their respective nation-states because of their location, which in many cases is far from the core, and because of the international climate produced by adjacency to another country” (Martinez, 1994: 8). Furthermore, as Timothy (2001) stated, political boundaries are widely demonstrated to act as a barrier in tourism, and affect the people’s interaction “[t]here is widespread recognition that political boundaries create barriers to human interaction”.

Border could be a real or perceived barrier. It will be real, when the border is closed, as in the first case shown in the figure, and it will be perceived, if although people are permitted to

cross. Owing to perceived constraints, do not. This case will be when border crossing is challenging and therefore undesirable. In this case, border will act as frontier.

The perception of border as constraint will be influenced depending on the history of the border and depending on the history of people with such border. Thus, if border have been historically closed, it is possible to people to still consider the border as barrier. Furthermore, the contact and the permanent interaction with this border can change the image of people to the border. As Timothy stated (2001), “people who live a distance from the border will have a different perception of it from people who live in daily contact with it (Leimgruber 1989; Pagnini, 1979). This theorisation allows the postulation of the following proposition:

Proposition 13: Border can affect as constraints to Cross-border Mobility

It is considered that the perception of border will affect the mobility frequency to the other side of the border. This idea has been developed by Timothy, but specially in the case of shopping. As the authors say, “there appears to be a notable spatial pattern, wherein the closer a person lives to the border, the more frequently he/she will cross for smaller items (e.g. petrol, groceries, and cigarettes). The further on lives from the border, the less frequently he/she will cross, but the items purchased will be bigger (e.g. clothing, electronics, and appliances) (Timothy and Butler, 1995)” (cited in Timothy, 2006: 12)

2.2.5. Border perception as a constraint to cross-border mobility in leisure time

This research is based on the process of the European integration and the effect that such process could have in the people living in countries constituting the Europe Union. The perception that the open up of the borders has been a turning point in the history and in the ways of life and mobility behaviour has driven this study. The change could be even more dramatic in cross-border territories because with the open up of the borders mobility throughout different states was free, and therefore, mobility could increase.

Nowadays people travels more than in other past time and there are few places around the world that has not been visited by tourist some time. As it has been deeply showed in the introduction, every day millions of people travels around the world whishing meet different or

new cultural and natural contexts. As Rojek and Urry (1997), stated, culture is changing, and with this, travel behaviour and tourism. But the cross-border travels are not out of history and during the last centuries, people have overcome borders due to different reasons, such as market, education or enjoy one. However, little has been written about those travels, mainly from the perspective of tourism.

This research is also taken into account that the territorial imaginary or dweller, and its possible effect in the perception of the territory, could be affecting the mobility. The identification of the possibility of the perception of border on the cross-border mobility was one of the initial objectives of the present study. The necessity of knowing how the border was currently affecting the mobility in the cross-border area was considered essential, first of all, to deeply understand how the mobility is in the area, but also to further understand the social aspects of the European integration process. Furthermore, “possibilities for tourism of this new space of flows are only just beginning to be explored, but they have the potential both to expand the kind of journeys possible (...) and to provide the basis for new kinds of hierarchy among both travelling people and travelling objects” (Rojek and Urry, 1997: 91).

The conception of border as possible limiting factor as been stated by different authors, and who argued that borders do not define merely the differences between tourist’s origin and destination, but cultural aspects and leisure experiences of visitants (Timothy, 2001). In this sense, the present study wanted to assess “whether peripheral groups are more likely than others to perceive constraints to cross-border participation in leisure or outdoor activities” (Johnson *et al*, 2002: 113).

Many social scientists involved in the study of leisure have recently focused on constraints to leisure behaviour (Raymore, Godbey and Crawford, 1994: 99), and as it has been explained in the literature review, sociologists are paying attention to a society, which is constantly “on the move” (Sheller and Urry, 2006: 207). For this reason, the present study is an attempt to merge both disciplines, with the purpose of deeper understand the human leisure behaviour in the cross-border areas by identifying whether the border is affecting peoples mobility, and test the dependency of the cross-boder mobility in leisure time.

2.3. PROPOSED THEORETICAL MODEL

This section shows the theoretical model proposed in this research. This study considers human mobility dependent on several internal and external factors, which are affecting the decision making process. All the factors deal and give as a result a tangible action, which is the cross-border mobility in this case. This relationship is shown in the following figure (Figure 18).

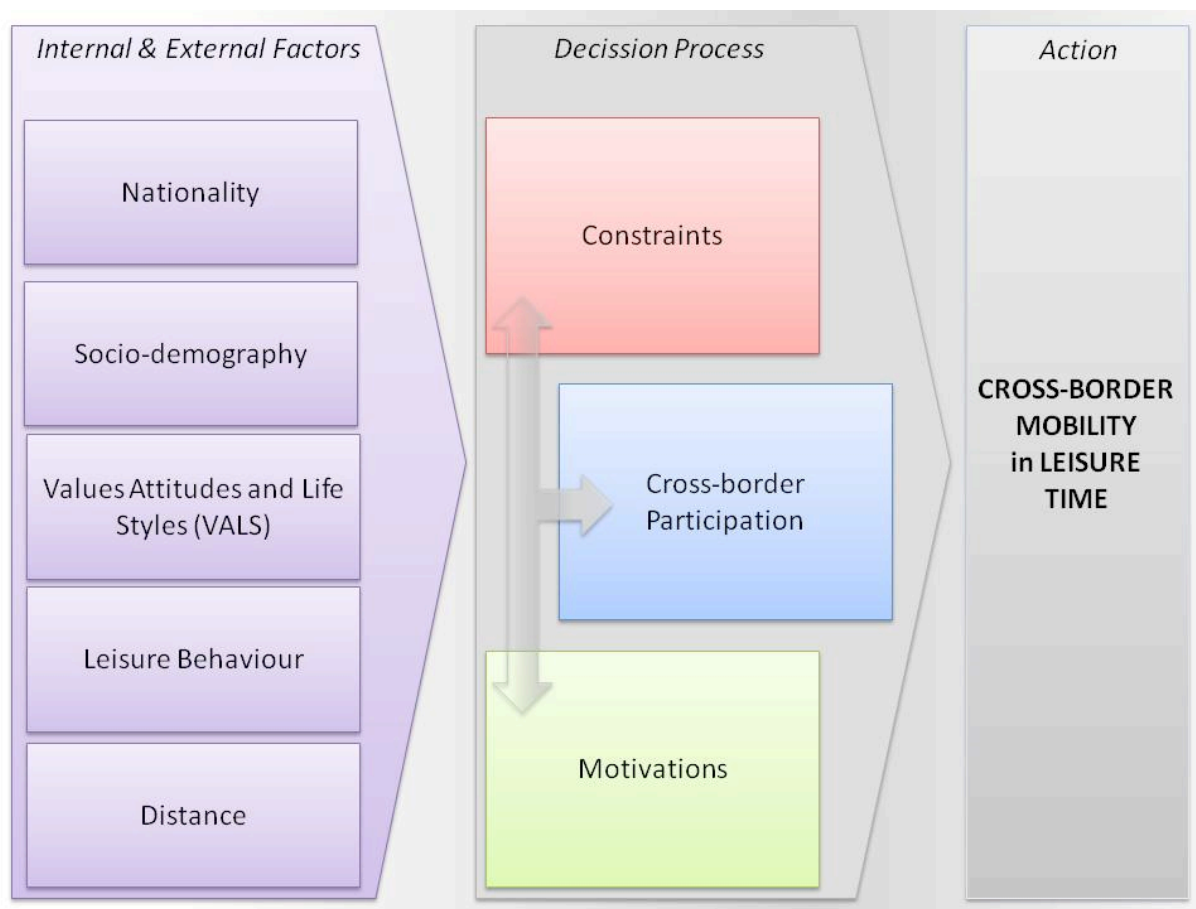


FIGURE 18. THEORETICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

The presented theoretical model (Figure 18) shows all the aspects analysed in this study, and the order in which those elements are acting giving as a result the final action. This way, as it is shown in the model, *internal and external factors* as nationality, socio-demography, values and life style, leisure behaviour and the distance between home and border however affect to the decision making process, as depending to those characteristics, the preferences and the behaviour could be different. In the following stage, denominated as *decision process*, the

previous factors meet and generate a particular motivation, which deals with the perceived constraints, to give as a result a particular cross-border participation. Finally, the third stage, denominated as *action* shows the **cross-border mobility in leisure time**, which is the result of all the mentioned factors.

The identification of the cross-border mobility in leisure time is, therefore, the final and principal objective of this research. However, it was considered that, although the identification of the dependency of cross-border mobility was the last objective, the identification of mobility styles and also the constraints was not less important. Those three elements would give a wider picture of the mobility in the region that the mobility model could give by itself. Due to the triple objective of this study, the initial theoretical model has been divided into three different sub-models, with the aim of: (1) identify the nature of mobility styles in the studied area; (2) classify the nature of the cross-border mobility constraints; and (3) find the dependency of cross-border mobility.

2.3.1. Sub-model 1: The Nature of the Mobility Styles

The first step of this doctoral thesis is the identification of the mobility styles in the cross-border area. For that purpose, the internal and external factors were measured and analysed in order to identify the nature of cross-border mobility in the area.

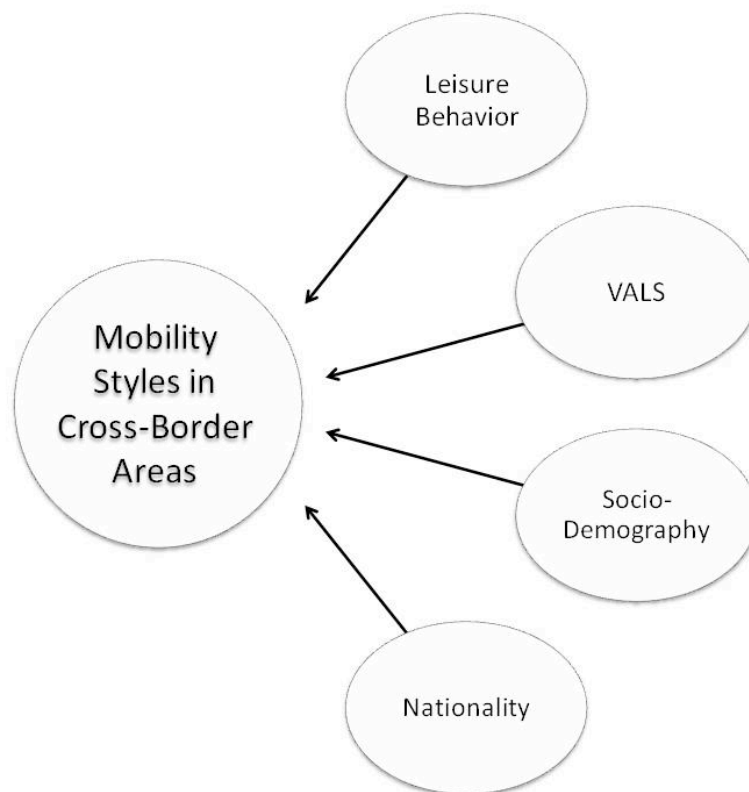


FIGURE 19. THE NATURE OF MOBILITY IN CROSS-BORDER AREAS

As it is shown in the figure above (Figure 19), leisure behaviour, personal values attitudes and life styles, socio-demographic information and nationality would make possible to identify whether the mobility has a homogeneous nature or not.

2.3.2. Sub-model 2: The Nature of Mobility Constraints

This model is based on the leisure constraints theories. A wide range of the researchers, has classify the constraint in three different factors: interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural. However, this classification has been criticised, as a simplistic classification, which has not takes into account the cultural differences.

Due to the transnational character of this study, the identification of the constraints factors affecting the cross-border participation in the area was considered fundamental. This way, the aim of this part of the study is to identify if the classification of constraints could be apply to this study (see Figure 20), or if not, how constraint factors are categorised.

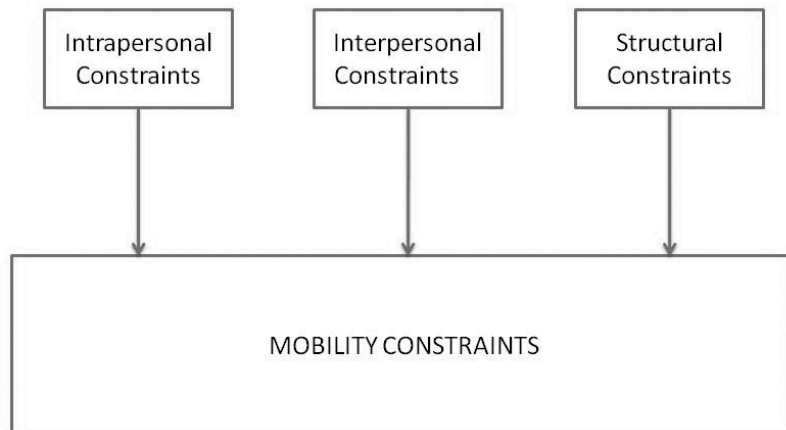


FIGURE 20. MOBILITY CONSTRAINTS CLASSIFICATION

2.3.3. Sub-model 3: A Model for Cross-Border Mobility in Leisure

The third and final model proposed in the study considers every measured dimensions and variables in the study: constraints, motivations, cross-border participation, border/cross-border perception, and all the internal and external factors, as it is presented in the following figure (Figure21).

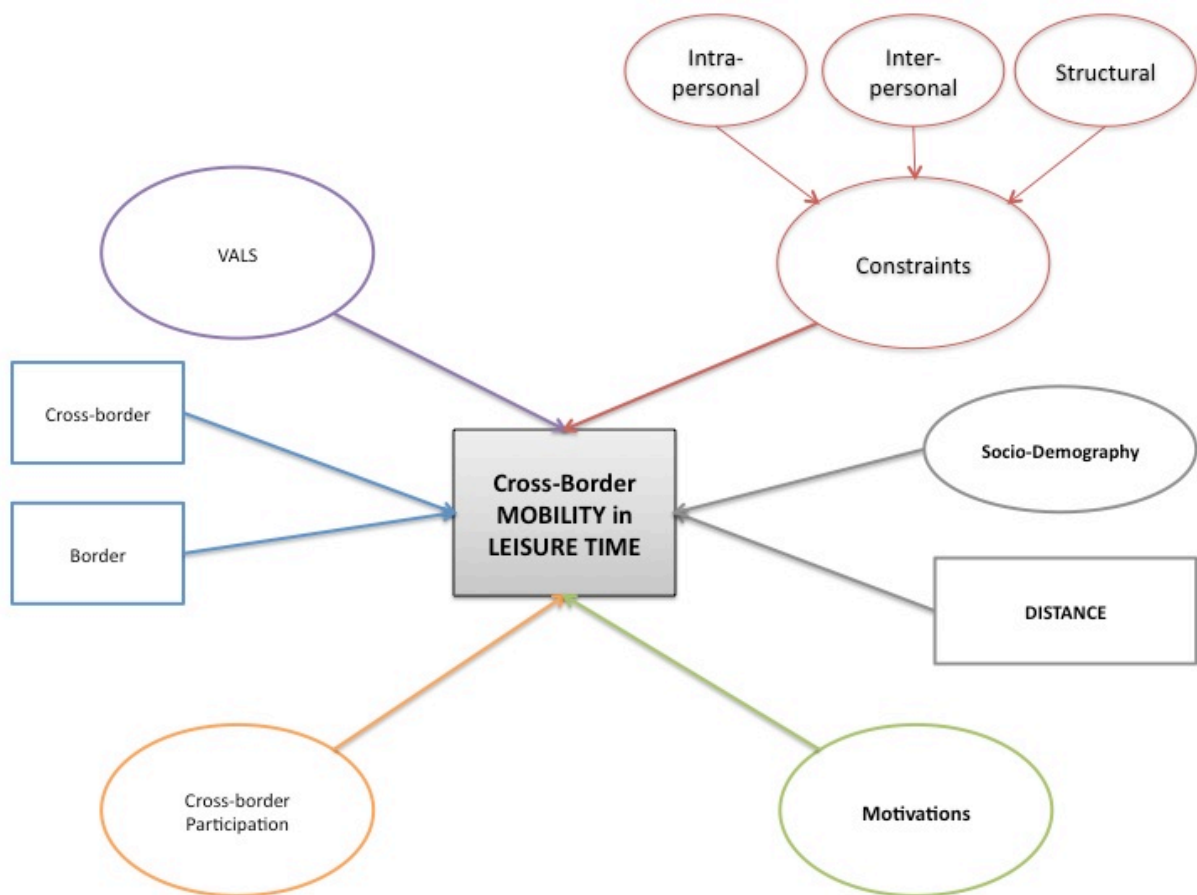


FIGURE 21. THEORETICAL MODEL OF MOBILITY

This model is proposed to test the dependency of the mobility frequency; therefore, the level in which each element is affecting the cross-border mobility in leisure time is measured.

3. METHODOLOGY

This section explains the way in which this study has been done to develop and get the earlier defined objectives.

The first difficulty of the study was the analysis and identification of the different mobility styles in the area, because the identification of the factors and elements affecting mobility styles would allow us to identify the nature of mobility in the area. Second, the constraints factors are identify, in order to know the character of constraint in the area, and if the border constitutes a constraint to mobility. Third, the analysis was focused in the identification of the mobility frequency, based on the elements and factors behind mobility motivations, leisure participation, constraints and the external and internal factors. Therefore, it was necessary to develop a proper measurement instrument, created by joining different sources from different scientific disciplines, as it was not earlier useful empirical evidence analysing the cross-border mobility in leisure time.

With the finality of obtaining the data required for the study, it was decided to base the research in quantitative data, through telephone surveys or questionnaires. Those questionnaires were based on the literature review, but also on eight personal semi-structured interviews, conducted to people working in different institution and organisations on both sides of the border, with general and specific.

3.1. METHODOLOGY DESIGN: DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

This section explains the way in which makes possible to develop the empirical study. Firstly, the way in which the questionnaire was designed, and after that, the manner in which it was conducted. As methodological strategy, we made a pilot study, proving how the prepared questionnaires were working. This way, we could redefine and reformulate the questions that were not working –either because they did not understand or they are too personal to being answered.

The methodology was designed through the integration of inductive and deductive process. It was a deductive process since the first approach was the analysis of related literature and the theoretical perspectives analysing similar practices or developments, and it was inductive, because above the theoretical analysis and theories explaining the construction, development and interactions both in cross-border areas, it was considered the necessity of analysing the particular case of Bayonne-Donostia (San Sebastián) Basque Eurocity, to better design the questionnaire.

Therefore, the items proposed in the questionnaire are based on the knowledge of the customs and behaviour that we previously had about the people living in this cross-border area. Although we had some previous perceptions, there was not previous study analysing people's mobility behaviour in the area, and consequently, this analysis was considered necessary. There were some works analysing the formation of the cross-border territory, and describing the political and administrative characteristics of the place, but those studies do not take into account the development as a territory where different social interaction and processes were occurring.

Following the objective of analyse the perceptions, opinions and attitudes of the citizens of the *Basque Eurocity* regarding to mobility and participation in leisure time, the chosen methodology is from diverse nature. A Mixed Methodology has been chosen, because the necessities to in deep know the selected variables from both qualitative and quantitative perspective. The chose of mixed methodology, more than make difficult the empirical study, improve it, because it helps to answer to different objectives that could define a research, helping each other, giving different perspectives and points of view that any of them could give alone.

This thesis is using different methodological procedures because Social Sciences, the same as Tourism, necessitate a general reflection of the using methodology. As Ruiz Olabuenaga (1998) pointed out it is possible to speak about two researching styles or methodology types, although the ambiguity of the border between them. Each one is based on certain suppositions, techniques and practices, which constitute a theoretical system oriented to specific problems. Those methods use specific techniques and languages that might be neither

unique nor exclusives, but they are able to obtain their own goals. Those research methods are known as quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

The use of both methodologies is being continuously developed, but most of the times in an individual way, as opposite research methodologies. During the last decades some authors have focused their works upon the debate about the use of quantitative and qualitative methodologies in the researches (Bryman, 1988; 2001; Veal, 2006). “These discussions reflect a tendency to treat quantitative and qualitative research as though they are mutually antagonistic ideal types of the research process” (Bryman, 1988: 93). Although he has accepted that there are some differences between research traditions, some authors has argued as well “the differences are not as rigid as the programmatic statements often imply” (Bryman, 1988: 93).

Moreover, “while the debate between protagonists of qualitative and quantitative research can become somewhat partisan, it is now widely accepted hat the two approaches complement one another” (Bryman and Bell, 2003, in Veal, 2006: 38). Furthermore, from the quantitative methodology the measure is based on innumerable qualitative suppositions about the measurement instrument and evaluated reality (Cook and Reichardt, 1986:46, cited in Callejo, 1998). This way, it can be said that qualitative and quantitative methods are connected from the beginning of the research.

In this research both methodologies are connected from the beginning too, since the qualitative methodology has been used, first to design the measurement instrument required in the quantitative methodology, and second, to contrast some of the results obtained from the analysis of the results. The purpose of the use of a methodology is necessary to make the decision about the best methodology using in each case. This is very important, because “while there are many differences between the two research strategies, there are also many examples of research that transcend the distinction” (Bryman, 2001: 427).

The use of both techniques was considered that could encourage in the comprehension of the problem. In that sense, and taken into account the differences between quantitative and qualitative researchers proposed by Bryman (1988), for the case of this study, the use of quantitative methodology was considered crucial as it would help to confirm the relationship

between theory, concepts and research, giving the possibility of obtain hard and reliable result from the data, while the qualitative methodology would make possible to get a deeper analysis of the reality.

Thus, this work is more focused in the reasons to break down the differences between both quantitative and qualitative research method the possibility combines them: *Mixed Methodology*.

3.1.1. The use of a Mixed Methodology to design the measurement instrument

Mixed Methodology refers to the combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. As it has been mentioned above, some authors trend to exaggerate the differences between the methods. But, although sometimes could be exaggerated, it could not take into consideration the existing problems with the quantitative/qualitative contrast. In some researches those methodologies appear combined in order to study the same reality, but this combination is not always easy, because of the distinction in the using objectives and characteristics itself.

Lots of researchers support the negotiation of both methodologies (Ruiz Olabuenaga, 1998; Callejo, 1998; Bericat, 1998). Based their research in Callejo (1998), Cook and Richard (1986) argue about use of different methodologies, stating that makes the research better, instead of complicate or unclear, because: (1) it makes possible to pay attention to multiple factors influencing the researching reality; (2) allows mutual interaction, facilitating points of view that neither qualitative nor quantitative methodology could demonstrate separately; and (3) allows to contrast the obtained results. Therefore, the use of different methodologies forces the reconsideration of the research if the results from both methodologies are divergent.

The combination of two methodologies is based on the conviction that the division of the research methods produces a division in the work and sciences. Since there is not any new methodology overcoming those differences, researchers should work combining them. In this sense, the triangulation and the complementary use of both methodologies have been frequently used in the researches that invite the use of combined methodologies. In that sense, there are few authors defending the quantitative opening towards qualitative methodology

through the acceptance of this method in the researches that traditionally were taking data measures and the causal explanation. Moreover, from the quantitative methods that are getting sophisticated, the qualitative methods are more recognised. The mutual acceptance has developed in the complementary use of quality and quantity in the researches, by means of *complementation* and *triangulation*.

Zeithel proposed the complementation of both techniques in 1962, giving a dominant perspective of the mixed use of both methods. The strain of this complementation is based on the complementation caused by the study from different approaches –epistemological perspective– and the behaviour in the techniques, where the deficiency of the whole study is presumed without considering it as a complementation of the object (methodological perspective). *Triangulation* was proposed by Denzin, in 1975. This is one of the first steps through the articulation of quantitative and qualitative methods. This way, methodological triangulation is supported by those authors defending the combination and integration of both research methodologies. This method is used to compensate the “fallibility of any single method or measure. The validity of both qualitative and quantitative applied research is bolstered by triangulation in data collection” (Bickman and Rog, 1998: xvii).

Although mixed methodology is being criticised, it has been accepted due to the generating feelings: on the one hand, the confidence when the results produced by both methodologies fit; in the other hand, the increases the doubt about the research steps or research process choice, such as object, method, theories when the results from both methodologies do not fit.

From a different perspective, some researches defend the combined use from a similarity between them, situating the qualitative and quantitative hierarchically, more than in opposition. Deeply analysis of the mixed methodology applications shows that the combination is more utilized than a methodologically integrated analysis.

In order to identify the interrelation of both methodologies there are some variations of the combined use of the methodologies. It is necessary to pay attention to the studying element, which sometimes is independent objects, but other times is integrated in the studying process. This debate has derived from the epistemological to technical domination or to the technical possibilities of combining them.

Callejo (1998) has identified a design typology to articulate the research methodology: (1) *As rhetoric function*: a. Realisation of interviews or focus groups to illustrate quantitative results; b. Reinforcing the explanation of the quantitative data with the content based on the relation between the observer and the observed reality; and c. The function of the qualitative seems to be reduced to be rhetoric. Methodological integration is more theoretical than practical. (2) *Before to the quantitative*: a. Utilized as exploratory phase before the questionnaire design; b. Do some qualitative practices to know the proper vocabulary using for the questionnaire design; c. Qualitative data is usually subordinated to the quantitative studies; d. It is a valid strategy to observe a problem, reality as well as period. The qualitative study could identify the relevant points of the studying subject, and the quantitative could identify the importance of that; and e. Division between both methodologies. The qualitative could help in the exploration and generation of hypothesis and the quantitative tests and verifies such hypothesis. (3) *Quantifying the qualitative*: a. Score the results from the interviews contents and/or focus groups; b. Analyse discourse as quantitative information. Use computer programmes; c. Qualitative studies using the statistical analysis as a third generation of qualitative method; d. The discourse reflects behaviours. The sense of the discourse is given through the terms repetition and the social position draws through the references in the discourse. (4) *Multilevel and Multimethod*: a. Do the questionnaire in a general sample and in-depth interviews to a smaller sub-sample; b. Detect a reality, while the qualitative try to identify the motivations and the sense in which the population do practices, attitudes and opinions; c. Apply to identify elements of the context, obtaining information about the general population and population of the peripheries; and d. The main problem is ethic, because affects to the anonymity. (5) *Diachronic articulation*: a. The continuous sequential combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods to analyse the same subject; b. The objectives, researchers and strategies make it a combined research, not only the methodological succession; c. The objective is to reinforce the research; and d. Since there are expensive studies, the main problem is the temporal and material continuity.

Thereby, although there are different methods, the border between both methods is not always clear. The researching strategies should take advantage of the similarities, but as well as about differences, taking into account that all of them have their strengths. The main problems to design methodologically articulated research method are: economic, because it needs more resources; time, because usually gets longer; the researchers' capacity, researcher should

specialise in both research methods; and methodology, because of the doubts about the influence in the application of other methods.

3.1.2. Qualitative techniques

Some researchers have argued that the use of qualitative methodology is necessary to know the significance of the social phenomenon, while quantitative methods analyses it superficially. The qualitative methodology is used in the researches depending on the situation or problem that are analysing. The research method could be different depending on the investigating object. This methodology is more adequate if the study is about the processes and behaviours. The objective is the identification and reconstruction of the significance. It is also adequate if the investigation is using mainly the language of concepts, the metaphors, more than numbers and statistical tests, or if the researchers prefers to collect the information trough the observation or interviews more than using massive surveys.

In the same way, it is more likely to use qualitative methods if the starting point is a theory and a structured and perfectly elaborated hypothesis, and the researcher prefer to start the findings from the data, trying to reconstruct and understand a complicate or difficult world, which theorisation and systemisation is more difficult. The process is more inductive than deductive. Finally, qualitative methodology would be useful if the analysing problem is not going to be generalised to all the population, as the aim is not to do general assumptions or generalise one community from a small sample because the collecting data is not representative to all the population.

Bryman (1988) has underlined some the characteristics of qualitative methodology. As the most fundamental characteristic, the author underlines the strategy based on the commitment to viewing vents, actions, norms, values, etc., from the eyes of the studying people -*Seeing through the eyes of*. Other characteristic why qualitative methodology is considered important is because it provides a detailed description of the settings that they are investigating is one of the main purposes of the socio-cultural backgrounds of the research style, and therefore, helps to describe, but also to analyse the context and environment of the research -*Description*. In the same way, it exhibits a preference for the context to understand the factors around and influencing the studying reality, allowing the *Contextualisation*, and permits a better analysis

of the society as a process, allowing to analyse the society and its context environment that is continuously changing, without static point of view -*Process*.

Furthermore, qualitative methodology allows a flexible and unstructured research, dependent to the studied element -*Flexibility and Lack of Structure*- and also it is based on research without imposing a potentially unfamiliar framework on their subjects, since it is more focused on analysing reality, rejecting the formulation of theories and concepts in advance - *Theory and Concepts*.

Regarding to the techniques to collect the qualitative data there are several methods, some more direct than others; *In deep Interviews*, *Focus Group* and *Observation* are the most popular methods (Palacio Gómez, 1999; Veal, 2006):

In-depth Interviews refers to an interview with one or various experts/knower of a determined subject, which is immersed in a determinate context and usually is “conducted with a relatively small number of subjects [and] guided by a checklist of topics of rather than formal questionnaire” (Veal, 2006: 198). The researcher has to look for the fact in which is interested through a scientific conversation, being the advisable way to conclude the study appropriately. Interviews can be structured with set questions, allowing following a guide making easier to analyse all the planed subjects. The interview could be semi-structured with set points to be covered (an interview guide), but as well as unstructured interviews of conversational style interviews. Referring to the interview guides, Bryman (2001: 317) suggests: make sure your questions flow; use questions that will help you to answer your research questions; use language that is relevant and comprehensible; and try not to ask leading questions.

Group interviews/focus group are “similar to in-depth interviews but conducted with a group” (Veal, 2006: 198). It is referring to a form of group interview with a moderator and several participants who discuss fairly prescribed topic(s) (Bryman, 2001). As Alonso (1996) pointed out, the objective is the study of social representations through the assumptions emerged through the discussion (cited in Palacio Gómez, 1999). Thus, the interaction among participants makes possible to identify new subjects influencing the study frame but as well as to construct the studied reality. Focus group will work better if 5 or 6 people constitute the

groups, because if the group is smaller participants could feel inhibited and if the group is bigger would be difficult to control the group for the supervisor or researcher.

Other fundamental technique in qualitative researches is *observation*. It is important especially in the tourism and leisure studies is a specific process to identify the social behaviour. There are two types of observation (Palacio Gómez, 1999): *simple observation*, where the researcher is hexogen observant, without get in touch with the analysed subject; and *participant observation*, where “researcher gathers information by being an actual participant with the subjects being studied” (Veal, 2006: 198). This technique allows understanding the culture and particular group of people, identifying the elements influencing it. To insert in a community some authors (Bryman, 2001) advises to: provide a clear explanation of research aims and credentials; be prepared to negotiate and re-negotiate the access possibility (sometimes the acceptance is not easy); dress like the community members; and offer something in return, as for example the final work of this analysis. Finally, as soon as to immerse in the community the researcher should write field notes in private and as soon as possible, to do not forget anything.

3.1.2.1. In-deep interview to identify general context and deeply understand the cross-border reality

As inductive approach of the analysing phenomena, the qualitative methodology was considered crucial. Through an inductive approach the wish was to get to know the reality through the immersion in the different areas forming part of this changing reality, as it has been explained in the introduction of this section about methodology.

In the present research, the selected qualitative technique was the *personal interview* or *in-deep interview*, because it gives the possibility to interact directly with the interviewed person. The development of the personal surveys was considered very useful to define and design the questionnaire, which comprises, as it has been mentioned earlier, the most important part of the study. The questionnaire was designed taking into account the literature review, but the personal interviews too.

Eight different interviews were conducted to the selected experts working in cross-border geographical area. In the process of selection of the interviewed people, the importance of

their work at transnational level was relevant, as it was considered very important the possibility of obtaining opinions of people dealing with the problems and benefits that the transnational work is giving to them.

To gather their knowledge and perceptions was very interesting, since it constitute the first approach to the problem, and allows redefining the quantitative measurement instrument (the questionnaire). The aim of the analysis of those interviews was not the generalisation or the representatively. The objective was to bring up the opinions of those who are more used to work in a transnational manner or of those who are merged in the cross-border activities development. All the interviews have a general part, the same questions to everyone, and other more accurate part taking into account each case¹.

As in all methodological techniques, after the data collection it is necessary to do the analysis to get results for the research. This research method could be applied to lots forms of elements, as for example, different kinds of texts, such as newspapers articles, political discourses, postcards, images, cartoons, pictures, and so on. Interview often tape-recorded and verbatim transcript prepared (Veal, 2006: 198). However, since it is a qualitative research method, it will not provide absolute answers to a specific problem, but make possible understand the conditions behind a specific (Bryman, 2001) context. Due to the limitation of the qualitative technique, the results form the qualitative analysis was used to create the quantitative tool.

3.1.3. Quantitative techniques

Quantitative techniques offers the possibility of defining an adequate instrument to measure the current tendencies and peoples' behaviour of the territory, as gives the possibility to quantify the reality, as well as extrapolate it. This methodological approach "is associated with a number of different approaches to data collection" (Bryman, 1988: 11), and therefore, "involves statistical analysis" (Veal, 2006: 40). As Bryman (1988; 2001) pointed out, sociologists use mainly surveys in their quantitative researches. Surveys have the capacity to generate quantifiable data in a large number of people or big sample that is representative of a wider population or a community living in a place/country. In sum, if the studied sample is

¹ See Appendix 1. Interview structure.

good or representative, should be possible to extrapolate and generalise results. This way, quantitative methodology is the best method to test theories or hypotheses, identifying the relation and effects of elements in different sciences.

Bryman (1988) have analysed the preoccupations above the quantitative methodology, drawing attention to some particularly major characteristics. First of all, it was mentioned the capability of measure the concepts (*Concepts and Their Measurement*), what refers to the possibility of identifying the influencing concepts and factors. Furthermore, using statistics it is possible to know the degree in which those factors are affecting reality, and also how concepts come into being, and come to be subject, to a measurement process. As the author has stated, quantitative methodology it is allows obtaining a reliable data, and therefore results. The reliability of quantitative researches is directly concerned with the consistency of a measure, firstly because of the internal consistency and secondly because of this consistency over time “testing for which entails administering the measure more than once” (Bryman, 1988: 29). Second, the author also underlines the *causality* of this methodology referring to the establishment of causal relationships between concepts. This aspect constitutes one of the objectives of the quantitative researches.

Another main objectives why quantitative methodology is used, is because allows *generalisation*. In that sense, Bryman (1988: 34) argued that “[t]he quantitative researcher is invariably concerned to establish that the results of a particular investigation can be generalized beyond the confines of the research location. Among survey researchers this preoccupation manifests itself in a great deal of attention being paid to sampling issues and in particular the representativeness of samples”.

Other characteristic that makes quantitative methodology interesting to researchers is the possibility to *replicate* the study in other situation –in other period or place. “The essential basis for [physics’] success was the possibility of repeating the experiments. We can finally agree about their results because we have learned that experiments carried out under precise the same condition do actually lead to the same results” (Heisenberg, 1975: 55). Because of this reason, it is possible to apply the result to other context, being applicable only if the characteristics and context of a particular situation are the same or similar.

The final characteristic posited by the authors is the *individualism* of quantitative researchers, which constitutes another main reason to apply this technique, since this method tends to treat the individual as the focus for empirical investigation: “[o]ne manifestation of this tendency is the view that aspects of social units can be built up from the aggregation of individuals’ survey responses” (Bryman, 1988. 39). This individualism helps the analysis of a phenomenon, and the further analysis of generalisation.

All those characteristics about the methodology are concerned to the method itself, but as well as to the analysing data in the researches. The data is numeric and is obtained mainly through questionnaires. The questionnaires could analyse people’s behaviours, interests and feelings. That is to say, if the questions in the questionnaires are correct, it is possible to construct and characterise the reality and the factors that are influencing it.

The analysing subject is not the unique element influencing the using method, because external factors could also be decisive. For example, time and costs usually are decisive to choose the method in with the researcher will use to collect data from the questionnaires. There are two forms to collect data: they can be interviewer-completed or respondent completed. As Veal (2006: 235) posited, “each approach has its particular advantages and disadvantages. For example, and as the author has stated, in the case of the interviewer completion, the advantages are that it is more accurate, it is possible to obtain a higher response rate, the questionnaire will be fuller and with a more complete answers, and the design can be less “user-friendly”, whereas the disadvantages are that the cost is higher and that it is less anonym. In the case of the respondent completion, the advantages are that it is cheaper, quicker and relatively anonymous, whereas the disadvantages are that it can be patchy response, the responses can be incomplete, there is a risk of frivolous responses and the design have to be done more carefully”.

The questionnaire surveys can be divided into many types in any science. Focussing in the case of leisure and tourism, the division can be into six types (Veal, 2006). One of the method is the *Household survey*. This type of survey is a technique that produces a lot of data in the field of leisure and tourism, from people that are selected on the basis where they live and are interviewed in their home. Generally, this method is very representative of the community because the sample has the structure of the studying population. Other way to do a survey is

street survey, which involves a short questionnaire, because people are selected by stopping them in the street, in shopping malls, etc. The day and the location (such as airports, shopping centres) in which the questionnaire has to be conducted is chosen by the researcher, taking into account the researching subject.

Other surveying method is the *telephone survey*. Since it refers to a questionnaire conducted by telephone, theoretically a widespread sample of the community can be contacted. However, the experience shows me that the response rate is not very high. Consequently, it is difficult to get concrete profiles of the population. Furthermore, the future of this technique is unknown; because of more and more households do not have landline telephones, relying only on mobile phones, which are not listed.

Other widely method is the *mail survey*, which refers to questionnaires that are sent and returned by mail or post. The problem with those is that it is quite expensive, since you need proper material to send it and the postage-aid reply envelope. Moreover, the response rates are low, so money losses easily. Thanks to the generalisation of Internet *e-surveys* are taking importance too. Those are the surveys making use of the Internet and email. As the mail survey, the disadvantage is that “it is confined to those with access to the Internet and, while the sending of reminders is cheap” (Veal, 2006: 244).

Another method is the *user/on-site/visitor survey*. This kind of survey is conducted to users of leisure or tourism facility, site or destination is surveyed on-site. “*On-site* and *site survey* tend to be used in the context of outdoor recreation studies, *user survey* in the context of indoor recreation facilities, and *visitor survey* when tourist or day trippers are involved, or types of facility where visits are relatively infrequent, such as museums or zoos” (Veal, 2006: 245). The last method that is underlined among the qualitative techniques to obtain data is the *captive group survey*. By this technique, members of groups, such as classes of school children, members of a club or employees of an organisation, are surveyed. It is fast and effective because usually the access is negotiated and anybody should have not problems to complete it.

To choose the technique and design the questionnaire it is necessary to think about the researching reasons. The researches questions have to be precise and the using variables to

test hypotheses or empirical models have to be identified. For which purpose a literature review has to be done. After that it is possible to do the questionnaire, because the “questionnaire survey should itself be the culmination of a careful process of thought and discussion, involving consideration of all possible techniques” (Veal, 2006: 249). Another element to take into account when the technique needs to be selected are the resources: “[t]he choice of the method for collecting the data depends on the information needs and value, as well as the budget and resources available for the project, as well as the timing” (Alreck and Settle, 1985: 40).

To analyse the data, questionnaires should be recoded, and the data obtained in those questionnaires would be analysed. Related to the way in which the data is analysed to get results, “data are now analysed by computer. This means that the information in the questionnaire must be coded –that is converted into numerical codes and organised in a systematic, ‘machine-readable’ manner” (Veal, 2006: 268). Usually is the researcher who recodes manually the data to insert numerical data in a statistical package, but there are computer programs such as SPSS Data Entry Builder, LISREL, PLS, which allows designing the questionnaire in the computer and recode the questionnaire automatically.

3.1.3.1. The use of telephone surveys to measure tendencies and identify behaviour

In the case of the present study, the use of the telephone surveys or questionnaire has been considered the most appropriate, as it allows to a higher percentage of responders, comparing to post questionnaire, and also it is cheaper. Phone questionnaires also permit to get wider post questionnaires, and more accurate sample than e-mail questionnaires for example, since Internet will not be useful to get answers in some of the age ranges.

The street questionnaire was not appropriate to the present study, since the questionnaire was not short enough to that, and other techniques, as captive groups for instance, were considered too reduced in terms of the sample. As the study wanted to understand the human mobility patterns in cross-border areas, a significant sample representing the entire society living in the cross-border area –older than 16 years old– has been considered. Due to the large sample (a minimum of 400 cases in each measurement) and all the variables to be measured by the questionnaire, a phone questionnaire was selected.

The validity of the questionnaire was proved through a pilot study, based on some telephone calls, which were tested to make sure that the obtaining data would be as reliable as possible. Two different samples had been obtained, using a very similar questionnaire. The differences between both questionnaires are the redefinition of some variables or that some of the variables had been added or removed from one questionnaire to the other. Concretely, the two different measures were developed in different years: the first one in 2005 and the second one in 2006.

Therefore, the telephone questionnaire was conducted to obtain a random sample of minimum of 400 cases in each year, proportional to the society living in the area. As the study was conducted in two different moments –year 2005 and 2006– a total sample of 800 was obtained. This sample would allow generalising the obtained results and findings. The obtained data has been analysed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18.

The following section explains the nature of the data, where the measured items for the study are described.

3.2. DATA COLLECTION IN BAYONNE-DONOSTIA BASQUE EURO CITY

The data was collected by means of administered telephone questionnaire survey conducted in several communities of the cross-border territory called Basque-Eurocity. The used measure technique is the proportional sample, which means that each member of population has the same probability to be chosen, at least from its related characteristics (age rate and geographical area). In each municipality a concrete number of elements or people were chosen, depending on its weigh. All this makes effective the measure and gives the possibility of extrapolate the results.

Referring to the studying subjects, the questionnaire was based in five main areas related to mobility in this cross-border territory: (1) cross-border mobility, reasons behind and frequency of cross-border visits; (2) Leisure Participation, type of activity where they are involved (3) Values, Attitudes and Life Style of people living in the Basque Eurocity; (4) perceived constraints; limitations they find to cross the border; and (5) socio-economic (or demographic) characteristics. Those studying areas were answering to the elements to be identifying by this research, to answer to the stated objectives. Those elements were presented in an operative way through variables measuring the degree and frequency of the measured elements, by means of usually predetermined answers, allowing getting quantifiable data of the needed knowledge for this study.

This research takes into account different dimensions and variables. Based on the empirical analysis proposed before, this research takes into account the dimensions that had been considered crucial for the analysis of the leisure and mobility patterns in the cross-border territory of the Basque Eurocity. The questionnaire covered a wide range of questions related to people's mobility behaviour and experience in their leisure time, including information about the following main aspects of leisure participation and mobility: (1) visits to the other side of the border (within and without last 12 months); (2) visiting frequency; (3) visiting motivations; (4) leisure participation; (5) predisposition to higher leisure participation and preferred activities for that participation; (6) leisure constraints to cross-border participation; (7) valuation of the border related environmental changes; and (8) Values and Life Styles. In addition, demographic data were collected. The dimensions and variables were measured

through different rate. The way in which the studied variables had been presented in an operative way for the questionnaire is explained in the following subsection.

3.2.1. Measured concepts and variables in the questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to develop two different researches, one aiming to identify the behavioural aspects of leisure time mobility and other more related to the identitarian changes in the society. Furthermore, there were other measured aspects, as for example the knowledge of the project of Eurocity, which was asked to get a better knowledge of which kind of communication means were working better in the diffusion and transmission of ideas, wishing to satisfy the necessities of the institutions that has paid the research. Because of that, the research is based on an initial questionnaire containing thirty one question in the first questionnaire (in 2005) and twenty eight in the second one (in 2006). However, as this research is only one part of a wide study, from all those questions, eleven questions are going to take into consideration, since some of the question were part of other study analysing the peoples identity in the area, and other questions were not consistent enough for the study.

The questionnaire contained eight pages and was designed following proportional random sample as it has been explained before. The question design was made following Dillman's recommendations, who says that the questions at the beginning of the questionnaire has to be designed to capture the interest of respondents and involved frequencies of participation (cited in Nadirova, 2000). The way of how asked questions proposed by Dillman and stated by Nadirova (2000) was followed in this research, but the questions itself were changed a bit, as the research is conducted to deeper understand the mobility. This way, the frequency of participation was changed by the frequency of mobility, which in the majority of cases is very related to participation frequency. The leisure participation was asked, but not taking into account the frequency as a number of times, but participation within and without crossing border.

The structure of the questionnaire is outlined below, following the sequence of the major themes used by this doctoral thesis. All the questions has the possibility of not answering, which was gathered up by means of "Don't know, not answered" (9= "Don't know").

3.2.1.1. Mobility

Mobility was measured firstly as a dummy variable, in terms visits to the other side of the border (q8) and visits to the other side of the border during the last 12 months (q9) measured as 0= “no” and 1= “yes”. After that, of visiting frequency (q11) was asked to all those respondents who had visited almost once the other side of the border during the last year. To measure the frequency of their mobility, the respondents were asked about the weekly, monthly or yearly frequency, giving as well the possibility to chose the number of visits in concrete seasons or indistinctively. All this possible answers were obtained ideally with the time of visits 1= “Every week”; 2= “Every month”; 3= “Concrete seasons”; 4= “Every year”; 5= “Indistinctively”; and 6= “Other”. The responders who has chosen the answer “no” (=0) were asked (but only in 2005) about the reasons for not visiting the other side of the border.

In the second questionnaire, some other questions were added with the aim of better understand the mobility general behaviour of the citizens. This way, people was asked about the daily mobility (any kind of mobility) as a dummy variable: 0= “no” and 1= “yes”, the destiny of this daily mobility as an open question and, after that, the reasons for this mobility where respondents answer with absolute freedom. After that, this qualitative variable was analysed and another variable was created, measuring the most answered ones. The most answered reasons are: 1= “work”; 2= “leisure and relax”; 3= “Visiting friends and relatives”; 4= “studies”; 5= “Shopping and personal services”; 6= “Second home/residence”; and 7= “Other”. This last possibility is grouping the answers that have been mentioned infrequently.

In the same way, respondents were asked about their mobility in leisure time (anywhere), first, as a dummy variable: 0= “no” and 1= “yes”, after that they were asked about the destination of this visit as a qualitative variable, and, finally, some possible reasons for this leisure time mobility were provided and respondents had to choose the one explaining better their mobility: 1= “Shooping”; 2= “Going to the beach”; 3= “Visiting a city or a specific city/place”; 4= “Going to a specific establishment (gastronomy)”; 5= “Visiting friends and relatives”; 6= “Open door activities”; 7= “Leisure and popular parties”; 8= “Second residence/home”; and 9= “Other”, which is grouping the answers that have been mentioned less frequently.

3.2.1.2. Leisure Motivations to cross-border mobility

In the fourth general (measured in both questionnaires) question respondents evaluated the perceived importance of eleven provided list of motivation that could be behind their leisure participation in cross-border or cross-border mobility: the motivation asked in both questionnaires are: (q18A) Nice and clean place to stay; (q18B) Artistic and cultural attractions-events; (q18C) To experience new and different life style; (q18D) Meet new and different people; (q18F) Shopping possibility; (q18G) Entertainment and relax; (q18H) Visiting friends and relatives (VFR); (q18J) Second residence; (q18F) Nothing special. There are other motivations measured only in the first sample, which had been removed because of its little importance for this research. Those are: (q18E_05) Activities for the all family; and (q18I_05) daily mobility (work/study). This was measured on a five-point Likert scale at first, and on a four-point Likert scale in the second, in both cases, measuring the level of importance. Then, the five point scale contains the following values: 1= “Strongly unimportant; 2=”Unimportant”; 3= “Neither important nor unimportant”; 4= “Important”; 5= “Strongly important”; and 99=“Don't know”, while the four-point scale contains the same values, excepting the neutral: 1= “Strongly unimportant; 2=”Unimportant”; 3= “Important”; 4= “Strongly important”; and 99=“Don't know”.

3.2.1.3. Leisure Participation

Leisure participation was measured in terms of geography, that is to say, in terms of the territory (side of the border) in which this activity was practicing most frequently. To measure leisure participation, respondents were provided with a list of 11 leisure activities and were asked about where they usually practice in this activity: 0= “no” (participation); 1= Spanish side “SP”; 2= French side “FR”; and 3= “SP/FR”, which means in both sides of the border. This measurement gave the possibility of identifying peoples’ participation in leisure, and also their participation in a transnational level. Thus, the cross-border participation was measured by the value 3. Taking into account this variable, other dichotomous variable was created measuring as 1= “yes” and 0= “no” the each activity in which people participate in one or other side of the border –explained in the subsection.

About the list of leisure participation activities, as in the case of motivation, some of the activities were removed from the first questionnaire to the second. The list of leisure participation contains, in both questionnaires, the following activities: (q19A) Outdoor activities; (q19B) Sightseeing (know a place or monument); (q19F) Attendance to sport events/sport reasons; (q19E_G) Cultural and artistic reasons; (q19I) Shopping, personal services; (q19J) Gastronomy (restaurants, bars and cafes); (q19K) Entertainment / holidays / relaxation; and (q19L) Participation in Popular parties, night leisure; and the activities that were removed from the first to the second are: (q19e_05) Practicing artistic activities; (q19G_05) Attendance to cultural activities-events; and (q19H_05) Health voluntary services.

3.2.1.4. Constraints to leisure related cross-border mobility

Perceived mobility constraints were measured by asking about a battery of possible reasons constraining the free-time mobility and the consequent leisure participation. A larger portion of the questionnaire was allocated to collecting information about the experience of constraints by means of a 20-item scale of constraints. The majority of items had been asked in two questionnaires: (q21B) “Lack of time”; (q21C) “Lack of health or mayor age”; (q21B) “Acknowledge of the territory and transport means”; (q21F) “Feeling uncomfortable or out of place”; (q21G) “Lack of language skills”; (q21H) “Lack of knowledge of the supply in the territory”; (q21I) “Economic reasons”; “(q21K) Lack of responsibility to participate”; (q21L) “Lack of company (friends/family do not want to go)”; (q21O) “Afraid of administrative problems for being in another country”; (q21Z) “Other barrier”, other items were asked only in the first questionnaire (q21A_05) “Family matters (obligations...)”; (q21E_05) “Working obligations”; (q21K_05) “Inadequate level of education”; (q21M_05) “Lack of identification with the initiatives”; and (q21N_05) “Insufficient transport means”, while other items were only in the second questionnaire: (q21D_06) “Unknown territory”; (q21N_06) “Unknown transport means”; (q21Q_06) “Because there is not any special offer”; and (q21R_06) “Because the travel/trip is too uncomfortable”.

The items were evaluated with a 5-point Likert scale in the first questionnaire, and a 4-point Likert scale in the second, which, in both cases, the level of importance was measured. Respondents answered how strongly they experienced each of constraining variables, which includes a total of twelve items listed in the questionnaire. The strength or intensity of

constraints experience was measured by asking how important they are in respondent's cross-border leisure participation choices. The scale included the following responses: 1= "not important", 2= "quite important", 3= "neither important nor unimportant", 4= "important" and 5= "very important".

Thus, the scale was ranging from 1= "Strongly unimportant", to 5= "Strongly important", with 3 as a neutral value. In the case of 4-point scale the scale was ranging from 1= "Strongly unimportant", to 4= "Strongly important" in the case of 4-point scale.

3.2.1.5. Values, Attitudes and Life Style (VALS)

Values, Attitudes and Life Styles were examined using the VALS™, to identify the type of "consumer" living in the territory. We use eight adapted items, from the VALS questionnaire (Strategic Business Insights, 2009-2010), to construct this part of the questionnaire. The items (q24A) "I like to learn new things although it has not any utility"; (q24B) "Interest in theories and NTechs"; (q24C) "Looking for prosperity and notoriety"; (q24D) "Like to try new and different things"; (q24E) "Work all possible to though goals"; (q24F) "Reticence and lack of consensus to social changes"; (q24G) "Like to make or fix thing with my hands"; (q24H) "Interested in few things - few interest and motivation in things", where asked with a four point Likert scale of agreement, as it has been doing always in the VALS questionnaire. The range given to the respondents is: 1= "Mostly disagree"; 2= "Somewhat disagree"; 3= "Somewhat agree"; and 4= "Mostly agree".

3.2.1.6. Place attributes: Border and Cross-border

The attitude through the border and cross-border aspects where asked because it considers necessity of knowing the people's values about this "borderland environment". To identify that, tree items were asked: (q22A) "Perception of the Border"; (q22B) "Perception of the Cross-border; and (q22C) "Perception of the creation of cross-border metropolis". The degree of acceptance of each statement was assessed using a three-part scale: 1= "Negative"; 2= "Neither positive nor negative"; and 3= "Positive".

3.2.1.7. Demographic information

The last part of the instrument (questions 31 through 36) the requested information was the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents: age (q31), gender (q32), marital status (q33), higher academic degree (q34), job (working situation) (q35), and monthly income (q36). Question 31 solicited their age in that moment, and in case they do not want to answer, they were asked to include themselves in any of the given seven categories: 1= “less than 16”; 2= “16-24”; 3= “35-44”; 4= “45-54”; 6= “55-64”; and 7= “more than 65”. Gender was asked as a dichotomy variable: 1= “Male” and 2= “Female”. The question 33 solicited a general marital status (household situation) where 1= “Single”; 2= “Married”; 3= “Partner”; 4= “Divorced”; 5= “Separate”; 6= “Window”; and 7= “Other”. The education was asked in terms of the higher academic degree obtained in their live, giving a set of answers of 1= “Primary school”; 2= “Secondary school”; 3= “University degree”; 4= “Illiterate”; and 5= “Other”. Choices of labour situation (job) comprises: 1= “Employee”; 2= “Entrepreneur owner with employees”; 3= Entrepreneur owner”; 4= “Autonomous”; 5= Cooperative”; 6=Student”; 7= “Unemployed, looking for a job”; 8= “Retired, pensioner”; 9= “Housework”; 10; Working without contract; and 11= “Other”. The last question was the personal income, which was originally coded in 10 fairly detailed categories: 1= “less than 300€”; 2= “301€ to 600€”; 3= “601€ to 1200€”; 4= “1201€ to 1500€”; 5= “1501€ to 2000€”; 6= “2001€ to 2500€”; 7= “2501€ to 3000€”; 8= “3001€ to 3500€”; 9= “3501€ to 6000€”; and 10= “More than 6000€”.

TABLE 1. SUMMARY OF MEASURED DIMENSIONS

Dimension	Measure
Mobility	Nominal and Scale
Mobility Motivation	Ordinal
Leisure Participation	Nominal
Constraints to Leisure Mobility	Ordinal
Values, Attitudes and Life Styles	Ordinal
Place Attributes: Border and Cross-Border perception	Ordinal
Demographic Information	Nominal, Ordinal and Scale

As it has been explained in the introduction, the theoretical framework and results of the analysis will constitute different chapters in this work. The following three chapters corresponds to (a) the section of mobility; (b) the section of constraints and, finally; (c) the section of constraint to travel/mobility in Basque Eurocity, with its own theoretical framework and data analysis.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

This doctoral thesis is based on qualitative and quantitative methodologies. This methodological techniques has their own ways to collect the data, hence, the procedure is explained in different subsection.

3.3.1. Collection of the interviews

The interviewed people were selected taking into account their job area and the cross-border characteristic of their activity. It was believed that their perception could help to understand the cross-border reality in the area, and would help also to design the questionnaire, that is to say, the quantitative instrument. This first approach it was considered necessary, as it was not very much information about the social interaction and the human behaviour in the area. They were just some untested perceptions, mainly subjective, which were not adequate to use as the basis to conduct a research.

Therefore, some experts were find that were dealing some how with the cross-border reality, both in personal and professional life. Interviewees where selected through different disciplines and/or areas, as it is considered that the context could affect the perception of the reality.

TABLE 2. PROFILE OF THE INTERVIEWEES

Personal Interviews Sample: Characterisation and profile of the Interviewees

<i>Gender and age</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Area, institution</i>
Male, in his 30s	Spanish	University and NGO
Male, in his 40s	Spanish	Development Agency
Female, in her 40s	Spanish	Communication and Media (ETB)
Male, in his 60s	French	Education
Male, in his 40s	Spanish	Trade fair ground
Male, late 30s	French	Communication and Media (Euskal Media)
Female, in her 20s	Spanish	Tourism Agency
Male, late 40s	French	Dance Company

The interviews were semi structured, and the structure was basically the same in all the cases, but some questions were adapted to the specific reality of the person or the company.

3.3.2. Targeted Population and Sample through the questionnaires

This chapter describes used sample for this study. The selected quantitative technique has been the phone questionnaire, because it has a higher valid percentage of answers than other type of questionnaires. After the design of the questionnaire, the data was collected in two phases. The first data collection was realised between the June 13th and July 1st, 2005 and the second between June 19th and July 5th, 2006. In both cases, phone questionnaires were used, where the question were structured and a list of answers to be chosen were given in almost all the cases. Although more than one thousand of questionnaires were collected, obtaining a valid sample of 800 cases, 400 cases in 2005 and 400 in 2006.

The obtained information has been used to better know and deeply understand the habits and opinions of people living in the Basque Eurocity cross-border area. The sample was collected taking into account the real distribution of the citizens, allowing the better identification of the patterns through the population subgroups.

The chosen measurement technique is weigh probabilistic measure, a proportional random sample. This measurement technique allows two fundamental aspects. First, suppressed the problem behind the size of measured population subgroups. In this case, the sub-regions (denominate as “comarca”) or territorial demarcation extensively varies from one to other in terms of population. Second, the final sample is obtained from each element, in our case, has the same probability of being chosen.

3.3.2.1. Determining the sample of the Basque Eurocity Bayonne-Donostia

As Sofield pointed out, “borders today are perhaps boundaries of **inclusion** as much as they are boundaries of **exclusion**” (2006: 108). But, these border communities have been understudied, specially referring on the tourism and peoples and its behavioural and mobility characteristics. However, as it has been mentioned above, these places are “likely to become a focus of increased attention for tourism researchers” (2006: 188). This awareness dive this

research through this study to highlight the mobility patterns in those European cross-border areas.

To analyse the European process, the analysis of cross-border areas was considered particularly interesting, as the processes are impacting directly to such areas. Moreover, as the study of all the European cross-border areas was impossible, it was decided to focus the study in one particular area, which would allow extrapolating results afterwards. Thus, the analysis of Basque Eurocity area as case study has been developed. The case study as a research strategy since case study is “an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003, 13).

Taking into account this purpose, this analysis focused on the community living in the border area of Spain and French States. Namely, the study was carried out in the Bayonne-Donostia Basque Eurocity Corridor (see Figure 22).



FIGURE 22. BASQUE EUROCITY (Eurocity.org)

The Basque Eurocity straddles the French-Spanish border on the Atlantic side of the Pyrenees, extending along the 50 km urban corridor that separates Bayonne and Donostia - San Sebastián and containing a population of 600,000. It is the natural access route between the Iberian Peninsula and Western and Central Europe. Both territories share a common Basque cultural heritage, e.g. Basque Language, and throughout history have lived together through periods governed by mutual goodwill and the desire to promote reciprocal needs and interests, and, as has occurred in other border areas, also through periods of confrontation and estrangement.

The challenge faced by the cross-border cooperation project of the Bayonne-San Sebastián Basque Eurocity is the creation of a new European metropolis in an ancient frontier area with the aim of better attending to the needs and demands of its citizens. The aim of the authorities on both sides is to transform the urban reality which extends over the 50kms between Bayonne and San Sebastian, as yet a mere juxtaposition of different administrative structures, and to convert it into a new European city (eurocity.org, 2010).

This way, the territory denominated as Basque Eurocity Bayonne-Donostia encompass a large amount of municipalities –forty two in total, as it is presented in the following chart.

TABLE 3. TERRITORIES SHAPING THE BASQUE EUROCITY

Territories shaping the Basque Eurocity			
1	Ahetze	22	Hernani
2	Aia	23	Hondarribia
3	Andoain	24	Irun
4	Anglet	25	Jatsou
5	Arbonne	26	Lahonce
6	Arcangues	27	Larressore
7	Ascaïn	28	Lasarte-Oria
8	Astigarraga	29	Lezo
9	Bassussarry	30	Oiartzun
10	Bayonne	31	Orio
11	Biarritz	32	Pasaia
12	Bidart	33	Saint-Jean-de-Luz
13	Biriatou	34	Saint-Pée-Nivelle
14	Boucau	35	Sare
15	Ciboure	36	Souraïde
16	Donostia/San Sebastián	37	St Pierre d'Irube
17	Errenteria	38	Urnieta
18	Getaria	39	Urrugne
19	Guethary	40	Usurbil
20	Haltsou	41	Villefranque
21	Hendaye	42	Zarautz

However, all those territories have not been taken into account in this analysis, because of the economical difficulties behind the data collection. To make the data collection easier, we decided to analyse the territories between Bayonne and Donostia as it is the official name of this European region. Furthermore, we have chosen those territories in the seaboard, since there are more transport means and roads connecting them.

As a consequence of this selection, finally the territories enlightened in grey were selected to as sample for the study. The municipalities has been identified as 5 different regions or territorial groups (called “comarca”) depending on how each municipality works with others or territorial proximity. The questionnaire was conducted in both sides of the border, in the geographical demarcation of Basque Eurocity.

This way, in the analysis we have included the following territories, which in our perspective, and agreeing with Gabriel Sansinenea (2001), are the heart of the Basque cross-border territory: In the case of the French side the Coast of Labourt (Hendaya, San Juan de Luz, Guethary and Bidart), and the BAB agglomeration (Bayona, Anglet y Biarritz). In the case of the Spanish side of the border, the questionnaires were conducted in Donostialdea (Donostia-San Sebastián), Oarsoaldea (Pasaia, Rentería, Lezo, Oiartzun) and Bidasoa-Txingudi (Irún and Hondarribia).

TABLE 4. GEOGRAPHICAL AREA ANALYSED IN THE STUDY

Studying geographic area	
Denomination of the agrupation	Municipalities
Zone 1 Donostialdea	Donostia/San Sebastián
Zone 2 Oarsoaldea	Oiartzun Errenteria Lezo Pasaia
Zone 3 Bidasoa-Txingudi	Hondarribia Irun
Zone 4 Costa Labortana	Hendaye Saint-Jean-de-Luz Guethary Bidart
Zone 5 Aglomeración BAB	Bayonne Anglet Biarritz

3.3.2.2. Sample Size

The survey was carried out in two years, between June to July 2005 and June to July 2006 in the Basque Eurocity, a cross-border area between Bayona and San Sebastián². A random sample consisted of 800 male and female adults (16 and older) was obtained, which was

² See Appendix 2. Questionnaire.

drawn of a population of 600,000 inhabitants. In both measures, telephone questionnaires with closed answers were structuring the questionnaire. The surveys were carried out in the territories between Bayonne and Donostia-San Sebastián –both included– and, as it has been mentioned before, those territories. The measurement technique allows obtaining a high reliability level of confidence (95%). The sample includes a random proportioned sample of population of the area, as the proportion of the population distribution in terms of gender, age and living area was controlled during the data collection. As a result, the sample is distributed in the following way: a 65% of the sample was collected in the Spanish side, which was collected following the territorial demarcation, (1) **Donostialdea** (Donostia-San Sebastián) 36,5% of the surveys, (2) **Oarsoaldea** (Pasaia, Rentería, Lezo and Oiartzun) the 14%, and in (3) **Bidasoa-Txingudi** (Irún and Hondarribia) 14,5%, while in the French side the 35% of the sample was collected, distributed (4) **Côte Basque** (Hendaya, San Juan de Luz, Guethary and Bidart) 24,25%, and finally, the (5) **BAB Agglomération** (Bayonne, Anglet and Biarritz) 10,75%.

Demographic data, including gender, age and nationality, were used in weighting the survey data so that the results match characteristics of the total of Basque Eurocitys' adult population. It included questions related to mobility in this cross-border territory in the earlier mentioned three areas. In order to answer the above mentioned research questions, the variables regarded to mobility has been analysed, drawing the direction and the frequencies of the flows, the motivation to cross the border mobility, if there is a participation in leisure and culture behind the mobility or if there is any constraint that affecting the participation, and finally, the Values and Life Style of the surveyed population.

3.4. WORKING OUT THE DATA: MERGING TWO SAMPLES AND CREATING NEW VARIABLES

As it has been explained before, two samples were obtained from different measures, one made in 2005 and the other in 2006. This way, since the objective of this study was not to compare the differences in different time period, it was necessary to merge the two samples. Furthermore, it was also necessary to delete some further information obtained by the questionnaires, to measure aspects such as identity, as there were parts of other study.

The work of unification of samples in this case was quite complicated, because in some variables the level of measurement (Likert scales) were changed in the second year were the questionnaire was conducted, as it was perceived that the answers would be better recorded. Furthermore, some of the questions were divided or unified, depending of the identified necessities and problems. In the sample of 2005, the measured variables with Likert Scale were 5 point Likert Scales, while in the sample of 2006 was changed by 4 point Likert Scale. The scale changing reason was the necessity of getting out the middle points from the scales, that is to say, the neutral values, because people tended to use them when they do not want to decide whether their answer is negatively or positively.

3.4.1. Unifying variables

As the questionnaire was too large, it was decided to get out some questions and redefine others, sometimes, making one question from two, to measure in 2006, from two different questions of 2005. This is the case of variables measuring different type of leisure participation *q19E* and *q19G* of the sample. In the first sample, referring to practising artistic activities and assistance to cultural acts and events respectively, as were not very clearly understood, the question was formulated jointly: cultural and artistic reasons. The opposite was done in the case of constraints, where in the first measure *the unknowledgeable of the territory and transport means (q21D)* was asked. It was perceived that this variable results too unclear, and consequently, we separate the question into two new questions for the second questionnaire, asking first *lack of knowledge of the territory*, and after that, *lack of knowledge of the transport means*.

In other cases, some new questions were inserted, because, after the data analysis of the first sample, it was perceived that in the case of leisure activities and constraints, people's perception and behaviour was unmeasured. This happens with constraints, where two new variables were inserted in the second questionnaire. This is the case of the variables *q21F*, *21Q* and *q21R* referring to the questions *feeling uncomfortable or out of place, because they are not any different offer* and *because is the travel is too uncomfortable*. In other cases, it was detected that some variables were hardly explaining something, so it was decided to remove them from the questionnaire. This happens in the case of motivations, where the variables *q18E*, *activities for the family* and *q18I*, *daily mobility (work/studies)*, were removed from the questionnaire of 2006. The same happens in the case of leisure participation, where the variable *q19H*, *voluntary health treatments* was removed from the first questionnaire to the second.

In all those cases the data was adjusted by using means and tendencies, making possible the redefinition of the data, reflecting as much as possible the reality.

3.4.2. Changing Scales

As it has explained before, lots of variables were measured through five point Likert Scale. This is the case of the group of variables measuring MOTIVATIONS, CONSTRAINTS, VALUES AND LIFE STYLES. Since this scale has a neutral value it was decided to redefine those variables by removing it, as it was perceived that it was affecting in the obtained data. This way, for the second questionnaire, the five point Likert scale was changed for a four point Likert scale, taking out the neutral value (3=neither important nor unimportant).

This change makes people decide and take position either negatively (1 and 2 values) nor positively (3 and 4 values). However, although the consequences *a priori* were appropriate, the scales needed to be adapted to unify both samples. For that purpose, it was necessary to chose the scale that statistically is working better. To identify which of scales was the most appropriate, we decided to apply a Crombach alpha analysis using SPSS statistical package, to test the escale reliability.

Through this statistical procedure, it was possible to identify the scale that it was working better in each case. This decision was taken based in the Cronbach alpha obtained through the scale reliability analysis. This analysis was applied only to the variables measured through scales. In the case of MOTIVATIONS, it was considered better the use of five point Likert scale, as the result of scale reliability shows a Cronbach Alpha of 0,919, while the reliability of four point Likert scale used in questionnaire of 2006 was 0,778.

With CONSTRAINTS and VALUES AND LIFE STYLES the opposite happens. In the case of CONSTRAINTS, although the differences between the scale reliability of the samples obtained in 2005 and 2006 were not so significant, the five point Likert scale used in the first questionnaire works worse than the one using four point Likert scale. The Cronbach alpha of 2005 was 0,956 while in the second sample was 0,985. Therefore, in this case, all the constraints variables were changed to the five point Likert scale. The differences obtained from the scale reliability of both measures in the case of the variables measuring VALUES AND LIFE STYLES the differences where higher. The reliability obtained from the five point Likert scale was 0,484 and in the four-point scale was 0,829.

The way of choosing the best scale of each group of variables could not be perfect, as since the targeted population is different in each case, maybe the scale would work differently in the other sample. But the necessities of merge both samples make necessary to choose the measurement working better in each scale and change it, if necessity.

This way, in the case of MOTIVATION the four-point scale was changed to a five-point scale. To do that properly, different values to the initial scale were given. The first and lower value 1 was maintained, but the rest of values were changed. The old value 2 was changed by the value 2,33, and the value 3 was changed by 3,66, and finally, the value 4 was changed by the value 5.

In the case of CONSTRAINTS and VALUES AND LIFE STYLES the change was done in an opposite way, that is to say, it was necessary to adapt the four-point scale of the questionnaire of 2006 to make it suitable to merge both files. To do that, as in the case of the other scale, the first value was maintained, but the rest were changed. In this case, to the old value 2 was changed by the new value 1,75, the old value 3 was changed by the new value 2,5, the old

value 4 was changed by the new value 3,25 and the higher value 5 was changed by the new value 4.

Those changes have allowed merging the data obtained from both measures, giving as a result a database of 789 valid cases³.

3.4.3. Creating new variables

From the measured items and variables, it was considered necessary to create new variables. The new variables were created in one hand, to an accurate measure of leisure behaviour, and to obtain unmeasured variables.

3.4.3.1. *Distance from home to border*

The distance from home to border was not precisely measured. A general distance was obtained from the item “zone” (see table 4), which comprises Donostialdea, Oarsoaldea, Bidasoa-Txingudi, **Côte Basque** and **BAB Agglomération**. The distances were obtained measuring the approximate distance from the middle point of the geographical area of the zone. The approximate kilometres from the middle point of the zone to the border were used to create the values of the variable. This way, five different distances were given to the zones: 3= “Bidasoa-Txingudi”; 9= “Costa Labortana”; 14= “Oarsoaldea”; 22= “Donostialdea”; and 27= “Agglomeration BAB”.

3.4.3.2. *Cross-border Participation*

Leisure participation variable was utilised to create a dummy or dichotomous variable measuring the cross-border participation. The respondents who have participated in the leisure activity indistinctively in both sides of the border were considered a positive transnational participation. This way, the new variable was codified as: 0= “no”; 1= “yes” and 99= “Don’t know” in each leisure activity item. Through this codification a list of 11 leisure activities – the same of the leisure participation showed in the subsection 3.1.3.2.3– were obtained.

³ See descriptive statistics in Appendix 3.

This section continues with the empirical model of the study. The information obtained through both techniques, quantitative and qualitative is explained continuously. Following, an analysis of leisure related mobility and participation in the cross-border area of Basque Eurocity is being analysed.

3.5. EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

This section aims to make operative the theoretical framework presented in the second chapter of the present work. With this purpose this section is explains, first of all, the constructs and variables that have been used and, second of all, the empirical models and sub models and the hypothesis stated to each sub-model are presented.

Because of the innovator character of this study, the variables had been selected through the literature reviews on different scientific disciplines –such as Mobilities and Leisure and Tourism studies– which allowed the selection of constructs and variable forming the study. This way, although the start point was based on the earlier studies, the constructs and variables of each dimension that had been previously chosen have deeply defined through the personal interviews and the pilot test of the questionnaire. Thus, the final result was a tool contains a mixture of indispensable variables measuring leisure time mobility and participation behaviour, constraints to leisure mobility and others measuring internal and external characteristics.

3.5.1. Variables used in the Study

In this section the dependent and independent variables used in the study are shown. The selection of the variables is the result of the literature review showed in the second chapter of the study (Brown, Brown, Miller and Hansen, 2001) and the qualitative study, used to better accurate the possible answers to the measured variables.

3.5.1.1. Dependent Variables

First of all, two dependent variables related to MOBILITY construct were selected for the development of the study. The dimension of mobility is transversal since, as it has been explained in the literature review, people's mobility is fundamental for the social cohesion and territorial integration processes. Owing to the importance of the dimension of mobility this aspect has been studied taking into account different variables –related to daily mobility, mobility between two sides of the border, cross-border mobility frequency, mobility

destination/destination of the visit, company, duration of the visit, reasons of the visit, language used during the visit, motivation of the visit and childhood mobility— however, only some of those measured variables have been used in this study. Those variables are related to: (1) mobility between two sides of the border; (2) cross-border mobility frequency in the last 12 month; and (3) destination of the last visit.

Secondly, and related to this first construct, the MOTIVATIONS behind mobility were asked too, through eight different items, measuring the reasons why they decided to go to the other side of the border.

The third measured construct was LEISURE PARTICIPATION, because of the aim of better know the leisure orientations of the inhabitants. The orientations were asked through eight items or variables, responding to eight different activities in which people could participate. To identify the people's satisfaction about their participation in leisure, the predisposition to higher leisure participation and preferred activities for that participation were also asked.

The fourth measured dependent dimension is CONSTRAINT. This dimension has been measured through twelve different variables. These constraining items were obtained from the review of literature within the context of both leisure and tourism, selected, mainly, from the theory of A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints.

The fifth dimension was VALUES, ATTITUDES AND LIFE STYLES were measured. To examine this dimension, eleven items were selected. The selection was based on the VALS™ survey, which the questions were adapted to the particularities of the territory where the study was conducted. As a result, from a questionnaire containing 39 questions, which classify the consumers in 8 types, 8 questions were selected and adapted, each of them to identifying each of the eighth consumer types given by the VALS model (SRI consulting).

The last measured dependent variables were related to the PLACE ATTRIBUTES measured by mean of three items, related to the border and cross-border perception, as the study wishes to identify the effect of border perception to the cross-border mobility, and whether this perception could be constraining cross-border mobility. This value was considered because of the particularity of the cases of border areas. This way, the perception of *border*, *cross-border* and *the creation of cross-border territory* were measured.

3.5.1.2. Independent variables

The independent variables are those related to both, demographic and geographic aspects. It was important to collect geographic variables, because, as it is mentioned in the literature review, the distance has an important role in the mobility (Hall, 2005a; 2005b). Thus, the variables related to ZONE and NATIONALITY were collected. Those geographical variables were used in order to create the variable DISTANCE, where distance from home (considered the zone) to border was measured.

Secondly, the demographic information was measured since socio-demographic aspects and economic responds to the necessity of knowing the characteristics of the people presenting differences in the behaviour patterns in the mobility. The demographic information was also used in order to define the different cross-border mobility patterns and leisure practices, as it is widely demonstrated the importance of gender, life stage, even culture or income in the perception of constraints and/or the possibility to use free time (Jackson and Scott, 1999; Iso-Ahola, 1999). Thus, in the section related to demographic information, the following items were collected: AGE; GENDER; MARITAL STATUS; EDUCATION; and INCOME.

3.5.2. Proposed Empirical Models and Hypotheses

The proposed model is based on the previous works analysing leisure constraints: Constraints on Outdoor Recreation (Walker and Virdern, 2005) and Leisure Constraints Model (Hinch et al., 2005), which are the adaptation of *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* to tourism. This model has been the basis researches with the aim of applying theories and models based on Leisure Constraint studies, applied to different stages, situations or practices.

This model has been the initial phase of the present study as well, but it has been adapted to analyse the cross-border mobility. In this framework, the first and more important dimension was the one referring to “leisure related mobility”, which comprises a central point of the analysis and the transversal dimension of the rest of the dimensions.

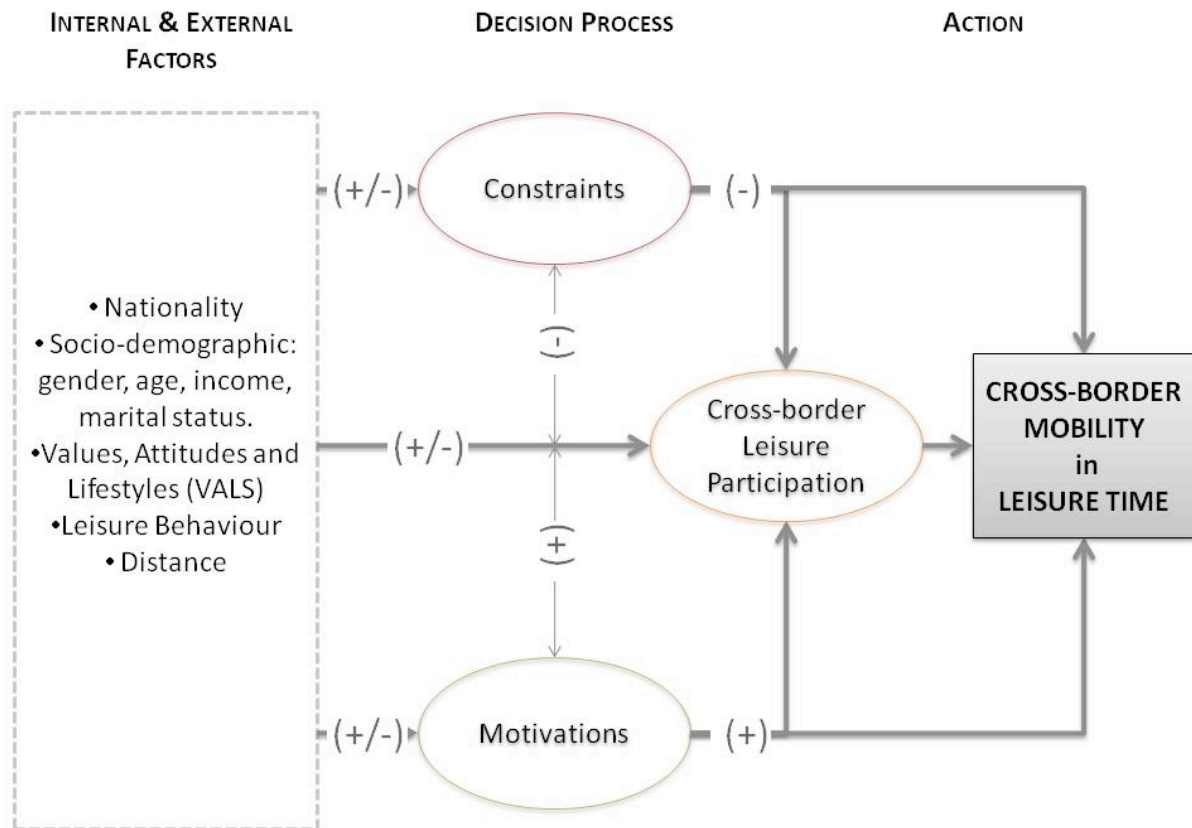


FIGURE 23. EMPIRICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

To empirically measure and test the character of transnational mobility and the factors affecting to the inhabitants cross-border mobility in the area –which helped in the definition of cross-border mobility model, three different sub models are presented.

3.5.2.1. Sub-model 1: Testing Hypotheses about the Homogeneous Nature of the Mobility Styles

The first model takes into account the possibilities of define different groups of inhabitants related to their personal characteristics and leisure orientation. In that sense, as it is shown in the model, this research is based on the fact that there are some internal and external factors, which are affecting the mobility styles of the area.

As it is shown in the proposed empirical model (Figure 24), this study aims to test the homogeneous character of cross-border mobility. That is to say, prove whether human mobility styles could differ based on the effect of independent variables –as age, gender,

income, nationality and marital status. In the same way, this model takes into account other dependent variables that constitute individual customs, values, attitudes and lifestyles, which as a result of the analysis of the literature, it is believed that are affecting the definition of the mobility styles. Taking into account mobilities theories, the variable “distance” was added to the model, as different authors has stated the effect of distance in the number of visits arguing that the number of visits decreases when the distance is longer.

From this approach, the first set of hypothesis is stated:

H₁. Mobility patterns are the consequence of internal and external factors.

H_{1a}. Mobility patterns are the consequence of Socio Economic Factors.

H_{1b}. Mobility Styles are defined by the personal Values and Lifestyles.

H_{1c}. Mobility Styles are the consequence of individuals Leisure Orientations.

H_{1d}. Nationality is significant defining Mobility Styles.

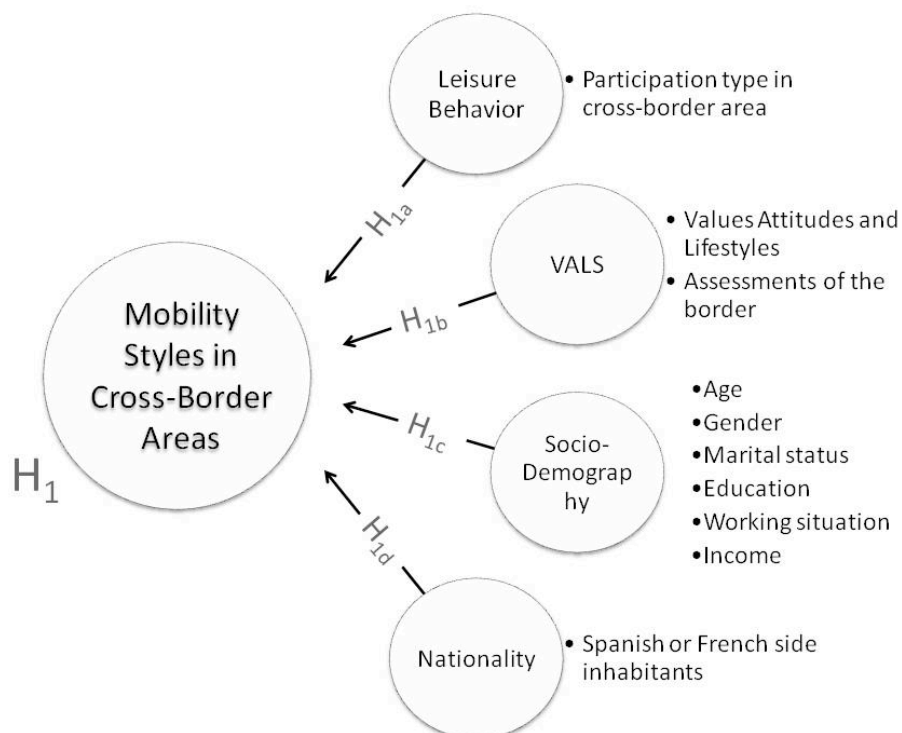


FIGURE 24. EMPIRICAL MODEL OF THE CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY STYLES

As it is widely shown, the perception of constraints could change leisure participation styles, and for this reason, its possible importance was considered in the study. Therefore, constraints will be analysed in contrast with the mobility tendencies. This is stated in the second hypothesis:

H₂. Constraints have different level of significance depending on the Mobility Styles.

To in deep understand the effect and the importance of constraints related to leisure cross-border mobility, the following model is proposed.

3.5.2.2. Sub-model 2: Modelling the Nature of Mobility Constraints

In the literature review the importance of constraints to leisure participation is explained. It is explained that the model that was used to explain leisure tendencies is useful to explain and better understand travel behaviour. Therefore, it is empirically proved that constraint could be classify in different factors, and that the perception of constraints could vary depending on the context. Related to the classification, it has also been argued that although the three factors based classification is the most important, there are other classifications that has criticised the classification given by *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*.

For this reason, the following model (Figure 25) and hypotheses are settled out in this direction. This makes possible to state the following set of hypothesis:

H₃. Mobility constraints are classify by means of constraint factors based on the Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints classification.

H_{3a}. Structural constraint factor is significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints.

H_{3b}. Interpersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints.

H_{3c}. Intrapersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints.

The following figure (figure 25) presents the hypothesis in a diagram.

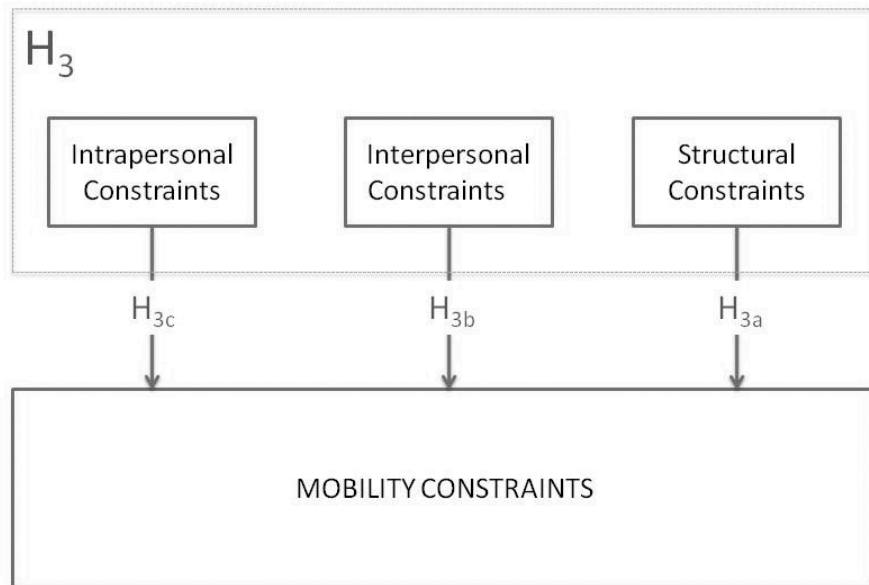


FIGURE 25. CLASSIFICATION OF CONSTRAINTS

3.5.2.3. Sub-model 3: Testing the Dependency of Mobility Frequency

This work assumes that mobility frequency could be influenced by several factors, as it has been showed in different studies (Jackson and Scott, 1999; Nadirova, 2000). To test the relationship of the factors in the mobility frequency, this study is based in the theories of both, leisure and mobility. It is based on leisure theories, as in the previous model, because it is considered that cross-border mobility frequency could be the negotiation between constraints and Motivation.

Based on the leisure and leisure constraints theories, this research considers the importance of the motivation, cross-border leisure participation and constraints related factors. In that sense, the analysis will measure the impact of motivation, taking into account that some of the motivations such as *visiting friends and relatives (VFR)* are having a particular impact on mobility, as it has been tested several times that VFR is a important predictor to analyse and

measure tourism flows. It was also considered that constraints could be impacting in the motivations, since it also wants to know the resulting behaviour related to the perceived constraints and motivation.

As it has been analysed in several studies, constraints have the capacity of restrict or change participation. Therefore, peoples' perceptions of constraints have been included in the model. Taking into account the proposed second sub-model on constraint classification, three different factors of constraints has been inserted in the model (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993). It is considered that the relation between motivations and constraints would give as a result participation behaviour. Similarly, it was perceived that cross-border leisure tendencies are decisive –not only the motivation and constraints– in the explanation of cross-border mobility frequency. The participation would therefore impact in the cross-border mobility frequency, since some activities would require crossing the border frequently, while other would not. For that purpose, leisure cross-border participation will be classified and reduced in different factors.

Related to the factors affecting mobility frequency, this work aims to prove that, besides the constraints, participation and motivations, there are other factors that are explaining the mobility frequency. Those are the internal factors that could also impact in the mobility: socio-demographic characteristics, values attitudes and lifestyles, and perception or valuation of border and cross-border related elements. Values, attitudes and life styles (VALS) of the people living in the area can be different, as are dependent of other factors, as personal and contextual characteristics. Thus, it is considered that those who are showing higher interest and innovative attitude, would also be more dynamic and mobile, and therefore they will be more likely to cross the border. In the same way, the perception of the border and cross-border could be different among the inhabitants. In that sense, it has been considered that those who have a positive perception of the border are less likely to cross the border than those inhabitants who perceived the cross-border element as positive.

The literature showed that distance is another element that could be influencing the mobility frequency. This research considers the impact of distance from home to border (Hall, 2005a) as one important factor influencing the mobility frequency. The mentioned aspects has drove the study, and the following set of hypothesis have been postulated:

H₄. Cross-border mobility frequency is dependent of the effect of a large scale of variables and factors.

H₅. Socio-demographic characteristic affects to the leisure related cross-border mobility frequency.

H₆. Distance -from home to border- impact negatively in the cross-border mobility frequency.

H₇. Motivations affect positively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H₈. Cross-border leisure participation type affects to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H₉. Constraints affect negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H_{9a}. Structural constraints affects negatively and more strongly to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H_{9b}. Interpersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H_{9c} Intrapersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H₁₀. VALS affects either positively or negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H₁₁. The attitude or perception behind Border and Cross-border affects the cross-border mobility.

H_{11a}. Border perception affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

H_{11b}. Cross-Border perception affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency.

The following figure shows the model proposed for cross-border mobility, where the last set of hypothesis is shown. The author creates this model, base on theoretical ideas of mobility developed by Urry (2002), Hall (2005), and Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006), in the theoretical and empirical studies of leisure and tourism constraints based on Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993) and Hinch, et al (2005) and also on the concepts considered in the current study.

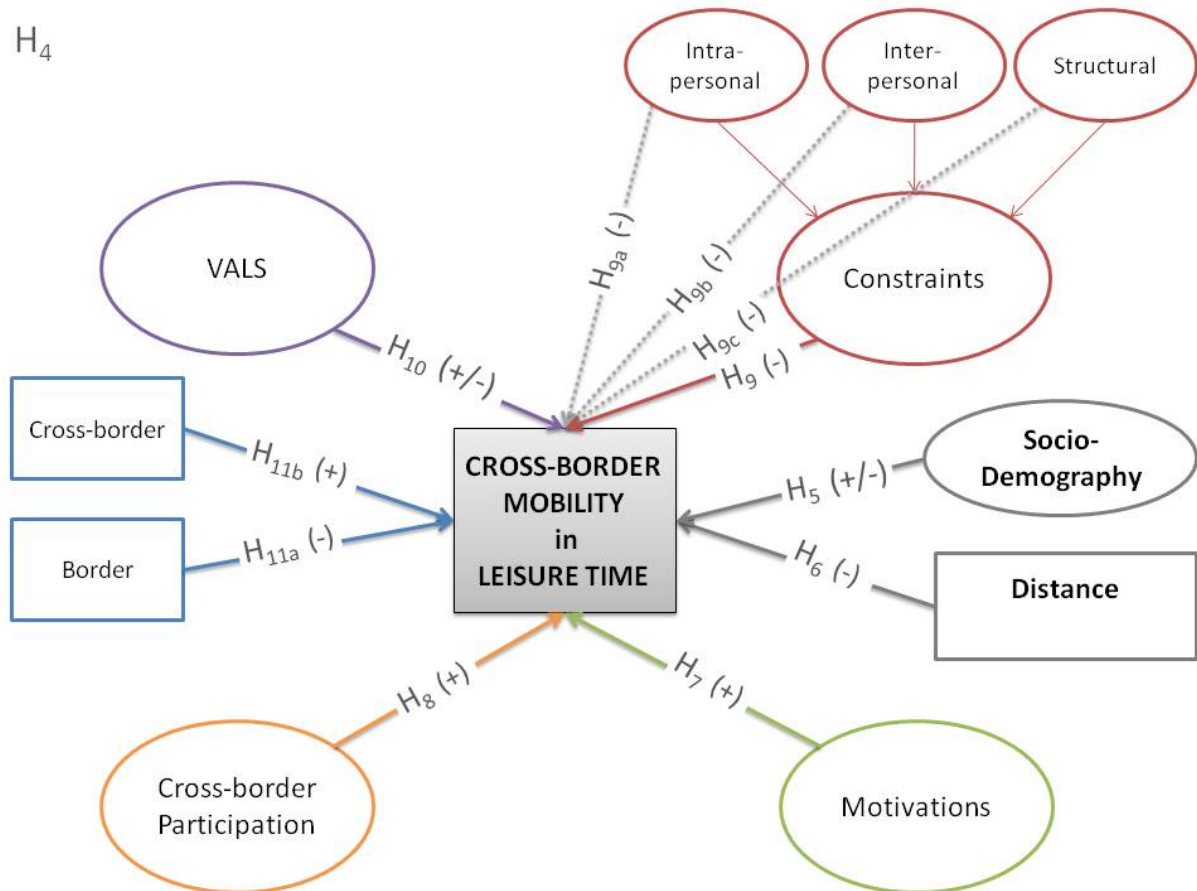


FIGURE 26. EMPIRICAL MODEL OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY IN LEISURE TIME

In the next part of the study, the best way to test the proposed models and hypotheses was through the use of quantitative techniques, using phone questionnaire, as it has been reasoned earlier.

3.6. METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS: SEQUENCE AND CRITERIA

The analysis of qualitative and quantitative data was done by means of different procedures. First of all, qualitative data was analysed, as the findings helped to get the first approach of the cross-border reality. The findings were considered jointly with the literature review, and the best solution was identified to construct and design the questionnaire.

Second of all, quantitative methodologies were applied to the data obtained from the questionnaires. The data were analysed using the SPSS computer software package for Windows (18.0). In the first stage has been to give some descriptive information, to get know with the data. The first stage of the quantitative analysis has been to get to know the construction of the data, and the behaviour of the different variables of the sample. With this first analysis different behaviour patterns among people living in the Basque Eurocity cross-border area was detected. Therefore, it was considered the necessity of applying cluster analysis to identify different mobility styles in leisure time.

3.6.1. Analysing interviews doing textual analysis

The interviews were recorded and transcript. The transcriptions were analysed using textual analysis, as this technique “draws upon the researcher’s own knowledge and beliefs as well as the symbolic meaning systems that they share with others. It also seeks to analyse the knowledge, beliefs and symbolic meanings being presented within the material in question” (Hannam, 2002: 192).

First of all, transcription were analysed taking into account where they were recorded and considering the general content. Each interview was deeply analysed in order to avoid missing anything. Trying to avoid the problem of subjectivity (Bryman, 2001), the transcriptions were broken down and categorised into general items. This technique is used in other disciplines such as history, and it helps to better understand the content of the text. As Hannam (2002: 189) posited, “[s]ome systematic way of selecting and sorting the material is needed”.

As a consequence of the analysis of the interviews 3 main parts were identify: (1) the perception of the Basque Eurocity; (2) Mobility in the Basque Eurocity; (3) constraints to

mobility. “There is no single ‘right’ way to cope with and analyse material” (Hannam, 2002:189), but the content was treated objectively and with transparency because this “helps in maintaining the integrity of the research and allows any conclusion to be better assessed” (Hannam, 2002: 193). Due to the particular interest of mobility behaviour and the constraints affecting such mobility, the results analysis paid especial attention to the parts of the interviews speaking about motivation behind and constraints to mobility.

3.6.2. Descriptive statistics to identify general mobility patterns

First of all, descriptive techniques were used to assess the general patterns of mobility of the people living and participating in this cross-border area, what permits the identification of general tendencies of mobility.

The first step with the database is the *Frequencies* procedure, which is the simplest form of descriptive analysis. This helps to get familiar with the database and helps to identify its needs. To make the database more readable it is necessary to recode some variables and clean some of the missing values. After that, it is possible to start analysing the database, identifying the relation between them. This analysis is the *Cross-tabulation*, which after the *Frequencies*, is the most commonly used SPSS command (Veal, 2006). This allows making quite interesting charts and tables, identifying the significance among variables.

After the identification of the general mobility tendencies in through the analysis of *frequencies* and *cross-tabulation*, different multivariate techniques were applied, which gave the possibility to deeper analyse the effects of the variables in the general behaviour of the citizens.

3.6.3. Data aggregation and classification, using Factor Analysis

The first multivariate analysis applied to the data was *factor analysis*. This technique was used with the aim of classify and reduce an extensive number of interrelated items belonging to a variable into a smaller number of internally consistent dimensions (Pardo Merino and Ruiz Díaz, 2005). As far as this research is based on the leisure theories explaining the importance of constraint to mobility in leisure and participation, factor analysis has been

applied to the items measuring motivations behind the cross-border mobility, to the items measuring leisure activities in cross-border area, to the items measuring perceived constraints to move and participate in cross-border area –in the other side of the border– and to the variables measuring the values, attitudes and life styles.

Factor analysis has been used several times in the researches analysing leisure constraints (see for example Nadirova, 2000). Factor analysis identifies similar types of items, and therefore, reduces and aggregate data from the measured items in factors. All the groups of variables – mobility motivations, leisure participation, constraints and VALS– were subjected to Varimax rotation. To determine the number of factors, the factor analysis was based on the extraction of factors with Eigen values higher than 1.0., “since is an Eigen value is less than this the factor explains less than the variance of one variable” (Wheeler, Shaw and Barr, 1994: 250).

Items with factor loadings of less than 0.40 were dropped from the factor solutions; also, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of reliability was used to determine the internal consistency for the entire scale and within the factor.

Furthermore, through this analysis it is possible to obtain a factor regresor variable, which can be latterly used in other analysis, as for example, General Linear Model. The initial factor analysis of constraints provides a basis of cluster analysis, following the researchers on constraints of Nadirova (2000) and Lanzendorf (2000).

3.6.4. Cluster analysis to identify population subgroups with similar mobility styles

The objective of the cluster analysis, as Lanzendorf (2002) stated is “to find groups of cases that are relatively homogeneous within and relatively heterogeneous in relation to the other groups”. One of the main objectives of this doctoral thesis was the identification of population subgroups with similar mobility patterns or mobility styles in the area. Hence, it was believed that the application of *Cluster Analysis* was the most appropriate one, as it helps to group individual according to their behaviour and attitudes (Wheeler, Shaw and Barr, 1994). *Hierarchical Cluster analysis* was carried out for three to nine clusters for was of the examined variables. Before the cluster, a factor analysis was applied to the constraints items,

using the result to the cluster analysis (Lanzendorf, 2002), because the cases with missing data were excluded from the analysis.

In this first stage of cluster analysis a result of four groups of clusters was obtained. To better define and make sure that this was the best cluster solution for this sample, a *K-mean cluster analysis* was applied, giving the solution of four clusters. The *anova* table obtained from the analysis define the variables that are differentiating more the clusters among each other. Furthermore, the K-means analysis allow to obtaining two new variables. One of the new variables gives the cluster member of each case, what helps to the further analysis needed to characterise each cluster. As (Nadirova, 2000) stated, the main limitation of this analysis is “the element of subjectivity in selecting the most appropriate cluster solution (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984)” (cited in Nadirova, 2000: 70).

The characterisation of groups was done from the obtained cluster solution, and also by means of comparative statistical methods of *Cross-tabulation* and *Means analysis*, which has been used mostly to find out and describe the possible differences between different cluster groups forming the Basque Eurocity Corridor (see table 4). This descriptive analysis allows the better understanding of the behaviour and characteristics of people with different type of mobility patterns and leisure habits.

3.6.5. General Linear Model (GLM) to identify the model behind the cross-border mobility frequency.

Finally, and with the aim at identifying the reliability of the proposed models, *General Linear Model (GLM)* was applied. “A general linear model (GLM) is a general model that encompasses both analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression” (SPSS Inc, 1998: 135). GLM predicts one *dependent* variable from one or more other variables, which are usually called *independent, predictor* or *explanatory*. This way, it helps to identify the significant variable to explain and predict the tendency of the dependent variable. However, it is necessary to have into account that it explains a tendency, which not necessarily implies a causality relation (University of Colorado, 2004).

In this research, just one dependent variable was tested –*cross-border mobility frequency in the last 12 months*, hence, a *Univariate GLM Analysis* was applied. This method allows

identifying the effect of one or more independent variable or factors and/or variables. The Type IV sum-of-squares was applied, as this method is designed for a situation in which there are missing cells (Spss Inc, 2007).

From the analysis, the table titled *The test of between subjects* is displayed. This obtained result allows measuring the consistency of the model looking at the *R Squared*, which will show the percentage of the variation explained in the model. The table of the *test of between subjects* also shows the significance (p value) of each variable and each interaction proposed in the model is given in the *Sig.* column. It is considered significant the value $p < 0,05$. The last column shows the *Observed Power*, “which gives the probability that the *F* test will detect the differences between groups equal to those implied by the sample differences” (Spss Inc, 1998: 140) and it is significant when is near 1.000 value.

The system also displays the *Parameter estimates*. “[F]or each dependent variable, there will be a row of parameter estimates, a row of significance values for the *t* statistics corresponding to the parameter estimates, and a row of residual degrees of freedom” (Spss Inc, 2007: 328). This data will show the effect of each variable and each interaction, and the effect and tendency of such variables in the dependent variable.

The analysis can display the *Estimated Marginal Means*, “[a] profile plot of one factor shows whether the estimated marginal means are increasing or decreasing across levels” (Spss Inc, 2007: 328). This is a graph in which the interaction of the variables is shown, besides, “the parallelism in this chart indicates that there is little or no interaction between the two factors” (Spss Inc, 1998: 145).

4. RESULTS

This chapter presents the results obtained from the personal interviews and the questionnaires. The analysis of the data has been done in order to deeply understand the cross-border mobility in leisure time of the inhabitants of the Basque Eurocity cross-border territory. The nature of the data is twofold, since as it has been mentioned in the methodology, the study has combined the qualitative and quantitative methods. Therefore, the result will have two main subsections: (1) results from the qualitative analysis; and (2) results from the quantitative analysis.

The analysis of the qualitative study is presented first, as the results obtained from the interviews helped to make the first approach to the cross-border reality, and also to design the questionnaire to be used to obtain quantitative data. The quantitative part, which constitutes the main part of this study, is presented second. The results from the quantitative study have been analysed deeply understand the mobility styles in the cross-border area, and to design a model explaining the dependency of cross-border mobility in the area. Both parts of the study have been used for the third subsection, where the discussion and conclusions obtained from the results are presented.

4.1. RESULTS FROM THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

In this subsection the results obtained from the interviews are explained. In some cases, the results are shown as divergent interpretations, but other times, as complementary model or perspectives. Higher or lower consensus in the asked themes does not necessarily mean a lack of consensus among the interviewed people, because their perception is the consequence from their professional and personal context.

The content of the interviews made possible the collection of information about the relationship among the existing networks and their relation with the decision making process in the area. People were asked about a large amount of questions, because of the necessity of accurate the study. This first approach was considered essential to define the general context of the Basque Eurocity cross-border territory, since it was possible to know the point of view of people living and working in transnational circumstances.

4.1.1. Representations and interpretation of the Basque Eurocity as geographical area and trans-frontier initiative

The project of Basque Eurocity is perceived mainly as positive. However, there are contrary perceptions too. The first perception is the valuation of the proposal as integration initiative for the socioeconomic development of the regions in the relative centrality of the Atlantic arc in the European economic context and the increasing competitiveness of the globalised world. In this frame, it is assumed as implicit way the agenda of the development as a progress and insertion of principal productive, commercial and economic tracks, but by means of the reclamation of the local competitive management, and far of the European Unions political initiatives.

From this perspective, the Eurocity is perceived as an opportunity and necessity, mainly from the perception of population growth in urban agglomerations and the possibilities behind the access to consume and services. The integration is perceived with high economic load, complementary to the institutional character of the transfrontier initiative and very associated with the idea of *metropolis* or *intermediate city*.

(...) I think that as a project, it's one of the most important ones we're undertaking right now in Gipuzkoa. I think it's particularly important because it will allow us –assuming the project is successful– to change from a small city to a mid-sized metropolis, and in the context of the Atlantic arc we could become a very significant urban nucleus ...

(...) The Atlantic arc, if well structured, can play a role and within the Atlantic arc. We hold a relatively good position, we're centrally located, and enjoy a cross-border setting which other places don't, right? So, becoming a metropolis with a population of nearly 700,000, I think is a challenge but at the same time it's a great opportunity we shouldn't miss.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

(...) what I know is that in the creation of large cities, let's say regional cities being shaped in different places around the world, especially in coastal areas in Europe, and there are also different models, it was considered a good idea, both important and necessary, to have a city here – a city or a place, I don't know if you can call it a city exactly – that stretched across the border between France and Spain, right?

(Spanish male, 30s, University and NGO)

Another interpretation values the regional integration as strategy to recover the cultural and identity values of the Basque culture in front of the nationalities of Spanish and French states. In some sense, the integration of the Basque Eurocity is linked to the integration of the Basque nationality. However, it is not a Unitarian point of view. It is maintained as common line in the demand of autochthonous culture as minority, but there are lots of interpretations about the ways to cohabit and integrate with other cultures. The notion of culture as a concept around the integration of people should be done. The perception of Basque culture as a common aspect is not the same in all cases, since some of the interviewees take it into account as a traditional and rural world, while others considers culture as element for the integration, as a changing reality immersed in city's culture that maintains its identity through the defence of the language.

(...) There are very important common cultural roots, the Basque culture, which you can see in the countryside, the gastronomy, in the language and a lot of things. But you should know that now more than 50% of the people living here in Iparralde weren't born here and don't have parents from here. So they don't have that culture. Culturally they're French and only French. They know nothing about the Basque culture ...

(French male, late 30s, Communication and Media, Euskal Media)

(...) Not only Euskera but also the culture, in other words identity as a people, you know? I think the identity as a people, if there is such a thing in Iparralde, and I think – maybe not as extensive as here, since there are less people – but I think that is a factor ... so, working more in the area of culture because that can be what brings people together on either side of the border.

(...) what people know here in Iparralde. There are the people who go to Bayonne to buy foie-gras and champagne and that sort of thing, but I think that it has a lot more to offer culturally, and yet we're not familiar with it. I think the people here see it as a different country. Even if we feel that Euskadi is a country, in fact the feeling is that we are the other side of the border, in a different country, like it or not.

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

The third perception of the Basque Eurocity project is seen as an effort to the integration, opened and not predefined, that have to assumed an open perspective taking into account the multicultural and intercultural character that will help to overcome the social and cultural challenges of the globalised Europe. This interpretation is seen as *European transfrontier phenomena* not necessarily concordant with the European communities strategy.

Yes, I think that, for example, a very, very important value in the Basque Eurocity is cooperation. I think it will be taken into consideration. I mean real cooperation, true cooperation. (...). I would move toward a comprehensive development based on the development of people, not only from a macro- or microeconomic perspective, etc., but from a personal point of view. And if the Eurocity is going to be created, the people living in the Eurocity must be taken into account. It shouldn't be a Eurocity, or a small-scale Europe where the only thing that matters are structures. It should be a Eurocity that creates networks of people or associative movements, or civil society based on people and fundamental values.

(Spanish male, 30s, University and NGO)

The valuation of the institutions in the development of the project is diverse. However, the perspective on the political action is common to all the interviewees, and it is very related to the Provincial Council, to the municipalities of the cross-border consortium and BAB, and to the cross-border development agency.

Thus, people working in the area know the project, however, the identification of the territory constituting the Basque Eurocity is not clear. Only one of the interviewed has decided to give a direct answer about the geographical limits of the Basque Eurocity. From the obtained answers, it was identified that the definition of the Eurocity is not clear. In a general sense, the more striking and constant territorial association is *Bidasoa*, as ambivalent element due to its settled image of traditional border and as symbol of surmounting. Other remarkable element is the Basque coast, as complementary characteristics of the geographical definition of Eurocity.

However, although in the obtained definition of the places covered by the project or the places in which the project has been focussed were not very clear, the project has been considered important since it is a project that wants to overcome the national boundaries. It has been considered that cross-border project could bring benefits to cross-border communities. The necessity of encouraging the relation between the north and the south has been underlined. The interviewed highlighted that this benefit it is especially important for the French side of the border, which is smaller and it is less populated.

(...) I have no doubt that the cross-border project needs to be pushed, and for those of us living in the north, we have much more to gain than to lose strategically. There's no doubt about it.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

The benefit that the project could bring to the territory and to the people living in it was also underlined in other interviews. The project in practice has been considered difficult, as the territory has to deal with the national governments, but it has been considered as an opportunity to get bigger, an opportunity to grow as a territory, which it was impossible years before.

(...) It is an opportunity to live in a place and have relationships that were not possible before due to the border. (...) It is not a reality yet (...) It is an opportunity to grow (get bigger) as a territory, as a community (...) and for me it is the future, for sure. (...) That is why I see it as necessary, and very positive, with all the difficulties it entails. (...) I think that it will be difficult, but inertia will drive it.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

The opportunity to grow as territory it is specially important in terms of the resources and access that the inhabitants could get in both sides of the border indistinctively, as both sides of the border are complementing one to the other. It has been considered that the differences between both territories could be treated as potency and not as competing areas. This complementation is considered difficult, as one territory is much more populated than the other.

(...) There is also a lot of complementariness between the two sides of the border. I mean, in general there are a lot more elements of complementariness than there are of competition, which is very important. Here on this side we're a highly developed territory in terms of industry, structures, urban development, even overdeveloped, (...), and relatively less developed, for example, in the tourism sector, leisure sector, etc, (...), I'm saying relatively? Compared with other sectors, I mean. With major centres of population density, etc, still with a more complicated holography and such. But on the other side (...) it's the opposite. It's a region of immigration, (...) in which the tourism and leisure sector has a very high relative value (...) it is an area of autochthonous emigration (...), a tourist area (...). They have a much better relationship with the territory, much more balanced, much more open space still, land to colonize for all types of activities. (...) There are many more elements of complementariness.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

As one of this complementary perspective of the cross-border territory the interviewee pointed out the case of leisure and tourism activity in the area. The openness of the border gives the possibility to collaborate in both sides of the border, and this collaboration is being successful in the case of some of the tourism agencies. The collaboration is based on the share

of information, such as fliers and tourism guides, and also on the facilitation of activities to groups coming from the other side of the border. Therefore, in this case, it is seen as a potency as well, where the market it is open to the visitants coming from the other side. The agencies, then, are sometimes encouraging the collaboration.

(...) When we talk about Oarsoaldea, we're talking about tourism in Oarsoaldea. What is its strength? Its location. It has Donostia, and we are also located here on the French border. We see that this is our greatest strength. From that point, it's clear, we can't focus on this little geographical area (Oarsoaldea). We have to broaden the scope in terms of territory, that is our strength. In the same way, we must take into account our little experience in tourism, which we are now creating.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism agency)

The collaboration is being successful in terms of attracting people from the other side of the border. However, although this collaboration is being given among some of the agencies paced in the Basque Eurocity area, the area itself is not being promoted. In terms of tourism, the places are being promoted at local and regional level, and the cross-border attribute is being presented to attract people from other places out to the Basque Eurocity.

(...) The wish to work together is there, to have a working relationship as "coastal Gipuzkoa" and "inland Gipuzkoa" and therefore, we have to coordinate our work. Based on that, there are some activities working together, meaning that in terms of tourism, the region is the best element for enhancing tourism, not the other way round: tourism driving the region. We need to keep an open perspective, don't we? Keeping that in mind the image of coastal and inland Gipuzkoa is clearer than the image of the Eurocity.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism agency)

(...) That is, we spread information there, and they do the same thing here. There is a relationship at that level, that is to say (...) there is a transfer.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

4.1.2. Cross-border mobility and interaction

In this section, the cross-border interaction will be analysed. One of the objectives of the interviews was the identification of the different types of mobility in the area. Therefore, the analysis of the people's interaction it was considered necessary for the interviewees, both, at individual and company level. From the beginning of the project, there was the perception of the mobility was especially leisure time mobility, but it was not any further consideration. Therefore, the collaboration among companies, and the mobility of workers in the company was analysed. The objective of this part of the interview was the exploration of their situation regarding the politics and culture in professional cooperation. The main aim was the identification of the mutual knowledge of the eurocities actors, as well as the cooperation and participation discourses expressed in concrete experiences of daily interaction.

As in the other questions, the answers are not homogeneous, but still, the tendency of imagining the other by means of indirect references more than the mutual knowledge built through constant relationship. In that sense, the difficulties of developing transnational relations of labour interchange and cooperation seems to be difficult, due to the limitations behind the linguistic competences, which are characterised by the necessity of a fluent use of at list thee languages: Spanish, French and Basque and also the professional specific skills.

(...) The language issue is key. Here there are some major deficiencies because the education system uses the same approach here as it does in, say, Vitoria. You know what I mean? So, here – this is something I've never understood – English is a language that is more useful overall on an international level, but in the daily lives of the vast majority of the people in the Eurocity French is a lot more useful than English. Maybe not for people living in Bilbao, but it is here. But French isn't offered as a foreign language. It makes no sense but that's the way it is.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

(...) logically, that clearly limits your job possibilities. If you know enough French you might be able to work for a company in Hendaye, Saint-Jean-de-Luz or Biarritz. They're not going to hire you if you can only speak English (...)

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

(...) I think an important reason is the language. I mean, let's not kid ourselves. In the case of Euskera, much less so. I'm saying this from experience. I speak English, and my French is bad. The communication problem. I think that if they spoke Spanish in Iparralde the relationship would be a hundred times better.

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

(...) In Europe foreigners communicate in English. In Europe "the problem they have is with communication" (...) and it is very difficult because the language is different. And even if they do speak Spanish, it's not their language. Euskera could be the language that binds us, but if it doesn't, the problem will persist. (...) The fundamental problem is communication ...

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

As a complementary reason to the difficulty in job relations the interviewees highlighted the differences in the daily habits –such as different timetable– and practices. This reality is not taken into account as other barrier in the configuration of Eurocity as a cohesion reality. However, the perspective of considering differences as “problem” is considered different in reference of the mobility related to leisure. It is believed that oppositely to business interaction, the mobility related to consumption and leisure it is perceived as not limited to administration and, in that sense, they consider that people have overcome the reality of local and regional borders.

(...) On the contrary. It's the people. Individuals come to do things, not people.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

In reference to the people's mobility, it was pointed out the effect of the European Integration, and the establishment of the free circulation across the borders, as a moment in which the relation and the mobility across the border increased. The interviewed stated that there was an increase in mobility since the border is gone. The difference of the currency in both states – peseta vs. franc– because during some periods it was easy for the inhabitants of one state to do the shopping in the other side of the border.

(...) the physical disappearance of the borders and then (...) since 92, 93 (...) the peseta was very strong against the franc. Here it got more expensive and then (...) it became inexpensive for them to come here, and in France there's practically no nightlife.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

The increase of the mobility was pointed out also in other interviews. Furthermore, it was added that the cross-border mobility related to leisure is still increasing.

(...) What is clear for us on the French side of the border is that more and more people are coming. This is clear, and the demand is also clear, more or less (...) the figure of Victor Hugo, the gastronomy. There is also an increasing demand for hiking and environmental tourism.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

(...) The evolution is positive. From all the "comarcas" there is a clear tendency of the visitants.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

The mobility it is clear, especially of the people living in the nearest areas, and the contact between tourism agencies is mainly based on this demand. In some cases historical contacts

are taken into account, and as a consequence, some particular elements are being used to promote and give personalised product to the potential visitants. For instance, in the case of Oarsoaldea, the tourism agency utilises the figure of the French writer Victor Hugo, because Pasai Donibane (San Juan) still maintains the house where Victor Hugo is being used, as there is the house where he spent a period. The interviewee added that this kind of contacts is characteristic of the relation with other places of Gipuzkoa.

(...) Well, with Paris, and the town of Getary, and being near Irun, Biarritz and Hendaye, and (...) Bayonne too. With the language agency of Bayonne, and the relationship with them. They do a presentation on Victor Hugo, (...) mainly that. And then, without a doubt, with Donostia, Gipuzkoa, and I guess that in the rest of the schools.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

The French known writer constitutes, then one element motivating cross-border mobility, as attracts the French inhabitants to visit San Juan, situated in the Spanish side. In that sense, they added that the figure of Victor Hugo makes possible the interaction with the agencies of “Iparralde”, but also relation with Paris, with the house of Victor Hugo there. The established relationship is the share of information, and to invite them, and so on. Thus, in the case of Oarsoaldea, the transnational relation is meaningful, due to the figure of Victor Hugo.

(...) and then, in our case, in the region, specifically in Pasai Donibane, we have the Victor Hugo house. The French writer gives us an element of contact not only with the North (French side of the border), but with France with the Victor Hugo house in Paris. We have had contact with them for some specific activities, to ask them for information. But that's because we have Victor Hugo as a specific reason.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

In the case of the cross-border territory, in general, it was pointed out that the cross-border activities are different depending of the direction of mobility. As it has been mentioned earlier, one side can complement the other side, due to the differences between both areas. Thus, the French side will be chosen to those who are having some relax to be in a quiet area,

whereas the Spanish side is more visited due to the lower prices of some products, gastronomy, and the nights out. Particular cultural attractions were also perceived as the demand of the people living in the French side of the border it is related to consumption, but also the cultural aspects, such as rowing –*traineras*– or sightseeing in places such as Pasai Donibane.

(...) They come mainly for the gastronomy, cheaper petrol, mostly for the food and night life and somewhat for cultural things (...) like rowing competitions, or they come to see the city, Pasai Donibane, and well, the best-known places.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

Shopping related mobility of the people living in France going to the Spanish side was also stated in other case. However, it was considered that this mobility was not particularly important in their case. In other hand, the reasons behind the mobility of people living in French side will be mainly because of gastronomy or shopping. This leisure mobility due to consumption is done because of the difference among the prices of the products, and not so much due to the access of different services. As the interviewee says, as the territory is very focussed on services, the difference between two sides is not important.

(...) Few, very few of them are coming from the North (French side of the border) to buy things or to rent apartments and so on. More specific contact is related to music. There are some reasons that enable a deeper relationship.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

It was also stated that this consumption related mobility is not going to stop, as the crossing of the border it is getting increasingly easier, and it is going to be even easier in the future.

(...) The economic flow is in progress, and it's not going to stop, and this facilitates contact. It is a flow that's not going to stop, it'll keep getting easier.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

The interviewees underlined *cross-border way of life*. The interviewee stated that many people lives in both sides of the border, because although they *live* –or sleep– in one side,

they go to the other to spend their leisure time do shopping and have lunch or dinner. Similarly, it was remarked the tendency of Spanish side inhabitants buying second residences –as for example, in *Las Landas*– in the other side of the border. In that sense, *cross-border life* was referred mainly speaking about some people living in the Spanish side of the border.

(...) Many of us live on one side of the border part of the time and part of the time on the other, cross-border for example, or sometimes you go to Las Landas, or to the beach, someone from Bayonne might come to Donosti to shop or have dinner. It's true that there is a demand for greater homogeneity, I'd say in terms of accessing services. That's how I see it, because after all, this is an excellent area for services, and, no, it's not the kind of service that can be found in Bayonne and not Donosti or vice-versa, I don't think. Both sides are developed and have practically the same services. If you can't find something in Donosti, you're not going to find it in Bayonne. Well, there are some things, but if you go to one side of the border or the other, it might be because the prices are lower on one side than they are on the other, or, I don't know, because you want a specific kind of product. But maybe what people do want is for access to be more homogenous.

(Spanish male, 40s, Trade fair ground)

Other interviewee has stated the differences among prices and/or services. In that sense, the tourists of the places will be different, as in French side of the border will be characterised by a older tourist profile, which goes to be in quiet, and because of the sun and beach tourism, culture, artistic events people is not going there to night leisure, as there is not much offer, and it is very expensive. Therefore, those who live in the French side go to the Spanish side of the border to find this night leisure that is not able to find in their place.

(...) In Biarritz the kind of tourism is completely different. The people tend to be older, so there are a lot of things having to do with art, you know, like shows, but targeted at that type of public. And, of course, night-time entertainment is scarce and very expensive. So, people come in busses to Donostia.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

Some of the interviewee has the perception of leisure related mobility as superficial flows in terms of its impact in social interactions, while other think that they still have the power of overcome the social prejudice as leisure mobility could make people get closer progressively promoting forms of mutual understanding. Thus, the tourism is shown as particularly sensible in the sense of monitoring them to the better understanding of people related flows, in its social and economic dimension. The participation is understood as potential instrument for the economic development. This perspective of leisure related mobility it is important because of multiple reasons: (1) as bridge (Timothy, 2001), constituting the mutual understanding by means of a progressive appropriation of places and customs; (2) as an element that nurtures the tourism industry of Eurocity, which is important; and (3) allows the valuation of the cultural and heritage richness from the complementarity of both sides, more than from the competitiveness. This way, the regional integration increases the possibilities of compete in the international tourism market, as the urban agglomeration could become a better-valuated place because of its diverse and complementary offers.

From the tourism perspective, the Basque Eurocity is considered an opportunity for develop and expand. Hence, they have considered the possibility to put the Eurocity in the touristic market, as it has been done with Bilbao earlier. However, some of them have clarified this idea, underlying the idea of a not mass tourism for the case of Eurocity, because this would help to enhance peoples' interaction.

4.1.3. Constraints to mobility

This section analyses perception of constraints affecting the cross-border mobility. Even if the cross-border mobility has been seen as a constant and increasing social phenomena in the area, through the interviews, the initial perception of mobility could be affected by the border and nationality related aspects have been tested.

Through the interviews, different type of constraints has been identified. This section will analyse the obtained results through the identification and aggregation of the different type of constraints mentioned by the interviewees. As a result of the aggregation the following types of constraints have been identified: mental constraints; cultural differences; language skills;

lack of knowledge; transport means. To finish the section about constraints, the necessity of overcoming constraints mentioned by the interviewees has been also explained.

4.1.3.1. Mental constraint

Among the constraints affecting mobility, mental constraint is the constraints that is closer to the perception of “border as a constraints”, which this study wants to identify. In that sense, the interviewees stated that although the free circulation across the border it is currently established, the times in which this mobility was not free still affects to the mobility.

The free circulation was established in 1993, and therefore, the majority of the people currently living in the area have lived in this period, and they still have the border in mind. For them, it is still possible to remember the time when the French and Spanish police was controlling flows in the border. This has made that, although the filling of considering both sides of the border as “Euskadi”, as “Basque Country”, the experience of crossing the border to find other culture, other people with different lifestyles and culture is still there. Furthermore, this constraint has been also connected to the lack of language skills because although the Basque language –euskara– is common to both sides of the border, not everybody can speak and communicate in this language, and therefore, the interpersonal relation is as difficult as with any foreigner.

(...) and then here we still have, well, not the younger people, but I remember (...) the borders, and the Civil Guard, and the French police and the border crossing... you have that in your head, even if you have the feeling of country, a sense of identity toward Euskadi, whether you like it or not, you've seen a border and a different kind of people with different customs. In Irun the people are noisy, they spend their time outdoors, but in France it's different. And the construction... so, I see this as being complicated. I think it's much more likely to collaborate economically or at the institutional level than on a personal level, because if the French don't speak Euskera, they'll have the same problem as a Swede or a Dane...

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

The mental differences can be also regarded to the differences that still are between both sides of the border. These differences are related to culture, but also the real state value and prices, petrol and so on, which made the mobility somehow particular in the area. For example, the tendency the last years has been for the people living in the Spanish side of the border, to buy a house –first residence– in the territories nearest of the border, such as Hendaye, where it was possible to find cheaper houses than in the Spanish side. Some years ago, this tendency was important also, but in reference of second residence in further places, as *Las Landas*, where people find the possibility of buying second residence far away from the stress of the city by cheap.

(...) Little by little this lead to a trickle of people going to the other side of the border. (...) They were practically “thrown out” of here. (...) It doesn’t make any sense economically. (...) If this is still happening it’s because there’s a series of mental barriers.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

The interviewee said that this differences are the consequence of mental barriers, which still are in the territorial perception of the inhabitants.

4.1.3.2. Cultural differences as constraint

Culture is a particular aspect in the area. As it has been explained in the introduction, both sides of the border conforming the Basque Eurocity, are part of the Basque Country, a historical geographical demarcation, which has its own language, culture and history. However, the so-called Basque Eurocity and also Basque Country are part of different states, France and Spain, each one with its different national culture and language. The possibility of culture differences affecting leisure behaviour have been posited in some researches (Chick and Dong, 2005), and due to the cross-border nature of this work has also been considered in this study.

Although there are some communalities in both sides of the border due to its belong to Basque Country, there are also some differences which are related to the lifestyle, and culture,

because they are part of different states, which has its own particular culture, habits and language.

(...) Then there's the three cultures living in the area: the common culture, Basque, and two different cultures, Spanish and French. There are very different from one another, aren't they? There are different mentalities involved and that really does lead to significant clashes.

(Spanish male, 40s, Trade fair ground)

The cultural common basis has been mentioned in the interviews. Those commonalities are the Basque culture, which appears as shared element between people living or working in different sides of the border. However, the similarities characterising the contact are not always the reality, since in some other cases, the differences are wide, because this person can be much closer to Spanish or French culture, than to the Basque culture.

(...) Yes, there is a common foundation (...). In our work, logically, working with people from Iparralde, there is a common foundation: our genetics, the Basque culture. So, logically, there's, that. It's a common foundation, but there can also be a common foundation with someone from Saint Jean de Luz, and then you can talk to someone else in Saint Jean de Luz who is absolutely what we would call French. So there are people with common concepts but also people who are a world apart.

(Spanish male, 40s, Trade fair ground)

Other interviewee has also stated the differences on lifestyle and culture. In this case, he posited that border separates two different realities in the area. This difference is mainly in terms of daily culture, which it is also considered as positive and enriching characteristic. But there also is some communality in the culture, as Basque traditional dances and the Basque language, of course.

(...) They are two different realities... daily culture is very different. That is what gives the region its richness... in the case of Basque dance, sure there is a common land, and the Basque language, of course.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

The above-explained cultural characteristics have been seen as constraint, due to the different culture and history. Thus, culture as constraint has been stated. Furthermore, the unequal relation could affect the people living in the French side, as it is a smaller community, which could be affected by the social contact in terms of losing their *Basque French* identity.

(...) I see a lot of difficulty because of the historical and cultural difference between the two communities in that they don't have the same vision, and every time the people want to move forward, the difference in population is also 1 to 10 more or less in the French Basque region, that part of the border and yours 1 to 10 always that complex which in the end they are going to want to control and through important things we are going to lose a little of our Basque French identity.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

4.1.3.3. Lack of language skills as constraint

Connected to the cultural constraints, language can act also as a constraint, although there is a common language in both sides of the border: euskara. It is considered that the loss of the Basque language will affect the relation between both sides of the border. This loss is more likely to happen in French side, and the loss of the Basque language is perceived as the loss of communication among the people and enterprises of both sides.

Interviewees mentioned the language as constraints in relation to the inexistence of a common language, which everybody in the area can speak. Basque language is common, but it is not the communication language of the majority of the inhabitants. Although it is widely spoken in the Spanish side of the border, the percentage is smaller in the French side.

Regarding to the national official languages, the Spanish is not very extended among the French side inhabitants, and neither is the French language among the inhabitants of the Spanish side.

(...) For me it is the most important thing, and it is one of the biggest dangers in Iparralde because they are in a very complicated situation with Euskara and if we lose it, we might not, but if we do in Iparralde, which language are we going to use in our relationships with the people on this side of the border?

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

(...) and then there's the matter of the language. (...) There is no common language spoken by both parties. Here, for example, a lot more Euskera is spoken than over there and the language is protected legally. (...) But here we speak almost no French and they don't speak much Spanish over there, although a little more than we speak French, but mainly in the border areas.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

(...) Not in French – either Spanish or English. Here French has disappeared. We speak English ... when they come from the North (French side) here they are not Basques or nationalists either. They speak English with the local people

(French male, late 40s, Dance company)

In case of the lost of the Basque language, the English language seems to be the language of communication of the people of both sides of the border. Therefore, the small possibility to communicate is considered a problem to the relation among the Basque Eurocity inhabitants. If the inhabitants of both sides do not know the Basque language, it is believed that the social understanding is going to be difficult. This case it has been seen as particularly interesting, in the cases of those who have bought the house in the French side of the border, because

although they are “living” in the French side, they still do their live –in terms of going out, buy, and so on- in the Spanish side of the border.

(...) “the problem of communication” on both sides. If Euskera isn’t used, they might as well speak in Swedish. Society is completely different for the people who live in Hendaye. A lot of the people with houses in Iparralde, where do they spend their time? Where do they shop? Now they do their shopping here because it’s cheaper. They feel connected to Euskadi but where do they spend their time? I think this is a very important sociological subject to study. Yes, they live here, but where do they spend their time? Integration has not happened. Why, they even have a branch of the Kutxa savings bank.

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

Besides the consideration of language skills as a constraints by the interviewee, the lack of knowledge of the offer in the other side of the border it was also stated.

(...) Neither the language, nor the knowledge, it is the lack of knowledge of how to do it.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

4.1.3.4. Lack of knowledge as constraint

The interviewees have also stated the lack of knowledge of the offer in the other side of the border. The current mobility patterns are enhanced by the previous knowledge of the offer in the territory, places and activities of existing in the other side of the border. Therefore, that knowledge is necessary and needs to be developed to make mobility higher.

(...) Demand also comes from the North (French side), related to Aiako Harriak, (...), and Pasaia is in great demand. The marine culture of Pasaia and guided boat tours there.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

In the same way, but in opposite direction, in the Spanish side, some of the most required territories to visit in the French area, Aquitaine and the closest places, and Navarre. In the tourism office, they have information about the French side of the border, because they understand that, for them it is necessary to have the information about this place.

(...) Yes, apart from Iparralde and Navarra, people tend to ask for information about the closest places. But of course for people from Oiartzun who want to go to Aquitanaine, we have information about there too. We don't have information, say, on Asturias, but we do on Iparralde, because we understand that it is (...) what we have the most (...), what we need to have. People only ask about Asturias and other provinces on occasion and we don't have that information, but Navarra and Iparralde are the places people ask about the most.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

Although in some cases it is not difficult to get information about the other side, this is only sometimes happening, and mainly when there is a established mobility pattern. However, related to the general offer of the territory, it is not widely know the over of the other side of the border. The interviewee perception is the lack of information about the events celebrated on the other side of the border, and more importantly, the lack of information about the place where the event can be booked or bought. He stated that to get the tickets to the events that have as venue the Kursaal it is easy, and possible also through Internet, but people do not know how to do it.

(...) I have been working cross-border for a long time in all areas, but I don't think people know much about it. As a simple example, when there is an event at the Kursaal, people in the North don't know where to buy tickets. It's as easy as visiting begira.com and buying them online, and you have the ticket right there at home. –these kinds of small details, small and very easy.

They don't know how to buy tickets either on the Internet or in the Hiphop bookshop in Irun. It is very easy, but there is no information available.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

It was also mentioned that if the offer is clear and known, people are likely to participate in the activities that enhance the crossing of the national boundaries. The interviewee gives as an example the Ballet of Biarritz, whose events are followed by people in both side of the border, at list, if the offer is clearly shown.

(...) Little, little, but you have to organise. For example: in December, the Biarritz Ballet organised two events in Biarritz with one of our choreographies, the “The Nutcracker Suite”. We arranged two events here, and two hundred people came in four buses one Sunday to go there, and the buses were full. It means that if you organise and advertise it is possible, but if not, it is more difficult.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

The difficulty in the availability of the information of the events or offer of the other side of the border it is considered difficult. There is the possibility of getting information, but it is not easy. There are some punctual event advertised in the newspaper, but they hardly give any information of the events celebrating in the other side of the border.

(...) When I look for information about Iparralde it’s hard to find. Occassionally there are things in the “Diario Vasco”, but we don’t have information about things that happen there.

(Spanish female, 40s, Communication and Media, ETB)

The only shared information in the communication means is almost always related to political conflicts. However, in some communication means, the information about the other side of the border is getting easier.

(...) Increasingly more are mentioned, but few, and if something happens at the political level, in terms of conflict for example, straight away. It is new, because 3 or 4 years ago it was not mentioned so much. Now, for example, in the “South-Ouest” or on public radio in the North, or on public television the elections are mentioned, but it wasn’t like that before. Now they follow the news more, in terms of quality, but mainly politics.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

4.1.3.5. Transport means as constraint

The last of the reported constraints are the transport means. The characteristic of the transport means were analysed before the interviews, and it was perceived as a potential constraint. The initial perception was confirmed through the interviews. All the interviewees mentioned the difficulties of using public transport going from one side of the border. Thus, the necessity of better transport means it seems as basic step in the construction of a fluent mobility and social interaction. In that sense, they stated that there is the necessity of the creation of a rail system or bus from Donostia to Biarritz, especially if there is the wish of considering the cross-border territory as metropolis or city.

(...) But I think there is a basic issue (...) the issue of local transportation (...). If you want to have a metropolitan area or a structured urban community you have to be able to travel easily from one place to another without having to change your means of transport three times ... that's for sure. A narrow gauge train that goes to Donostia to Hendaye or to Biarritz is fundamental if we're talking about a city.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

I think there should be transportation, what do you call it, conurbation. I think there should be a bus, there should be some kind of Bayonne-Donosti bus, but more like the concept of a regular bus line, or that the narrow gauge train should be extended to Hendaye, and be converted into a kind of metropolitan line, right?

(Spanish Male, 40s, Trade fair ground)

The necessity of making the transport means easier and cheaper has also stated in other interview. In this case, it was said that it would be better if the train arrive up to Bayonne. Therefore, it is necessary to have or create a better transport mean, cheaper and going through all the eurocity area. In the same way, it is underlined that if the car travelling were cheaper - without toll road- the mobility would be higher.

It needs to be organised a bit. It's a pity that the train goes only to Hendaye, why not to Bayonne... if one day we don't have an easy, cheap public means of transport from Bayonne to Donostia. Think about the road, What do we need todo? A very easy thing is to remove the toll, it's very easy, but is a political desire. I know they want to do it here, but not in the North (French side) it's only a political desire.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

4.1.3.6. Necessity of overcoming constraints

All of the interviewees coincided in the fact that constraints needs to be overcome to towards a better relationship, and higher mobility and participation. It is necessary to share more information and offer clearer information about the events celebrating in both sides of the border. The need of the creation of better communication between the offer in both sides of the border was also considered crucial for the consolidation of higher mobility frequency, and higher participation. This was reinforced, because from the tourism agencies, it is noticed that the interest grows when the places or the activities are shown in the newspaper or in other communication means. In their perception, it would be better if the information and the offer were shared in both sides of the border, because it would give as a result the disappearance of the border.

(...) it increases perhaps when there's an article in the "Diario Vasco" for example about Aquitanaine, (...). With things like that you can see that people are more interested, more than the subject of the Eurocity. I think there are a lot of people who don't know about it. (...) I think it increases when there are occasional advertising efforts in the newspapers and things like that. Just like we have noticies when there is publicity in "Suroest", for example, on the other side of the border. (...) We notice more tourists from here who go there.

(Spanish female, 20s, Tourism Agency)

(...) The markets have shifted at different times. I think that in a few months or a year it will be another structure. It is necessary because if there is a concert here, they know that for Donostia, the market is not only Gipuzkoa, it is also the North (French side) ... more or less one million, a million and a half, between Gipuzkoa and the south of Aquitaine... this way they create a wider market, and the borders have disappeared with regard to the market, and this change is also necessary when it comes to the scenic arts.

(French male, late 40s, Dance Company)

Besides of the enhance of the information, the necessity of developing a better transport means it was also considered a requirement to overcome the existing constraints. In that sense, the difficulty of the creation something integrated was mentioned related to the French government, which being so centralised, make difficult the relation among regional institution and companies.

(...) I think it is for the French side because there, to make a decision they have to go to Paris, although Paris is a region that has absolutely, shall we say, no interest, and French investments are not going to come here, are they? I think that our weakness is in the consensus between stakeholders in the territory. I think that the real problem is that here the stakeholders and decision-making power are very close but that is not the case over there. The stakeholders in the territory, just as an example (...) an absolutely key issue for building the Basque Eurocity is the matter of local transportation (...). To structure a local transportation system, it is almost enough here with the provincial government and the Basque government (...) in consensus with the Basque government. There the Spanish government means nothing, right? Or very little (...) it could be done through their own powers.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

The necessity of overcoming the language constraints has also been stated. In that sense, it is interesting that as languages to be reinforced, there were mentioned the national languages – Spanish and French, and not the Basque language, which is common to both territories. The

overcoming of the language related constraints is perceived key for the construction of an area where there is a social understanding.

(...) In Hendaye there is more Spanish spoken, but there isn't a language like in other European border areas (...). This is a difficulty but in the mid- or long-term, with adequate policies for learning different languages, well then ...

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

(...) The issue of language is key and expensive. Here there are some very significant gaps because we have an educational system, the same approach as if we lived in Vitoria, you know what I mean? Here English is the language, which is something I've never understood. I mean, on the international level English is a generally useful language but in the lives of the vast majority of people living in the Eurocity French will be much more useful than English. Probably not for the people living in Bilbao, but here it's not offered as a foreign language. I mean this is completely incomprehensible, but, well, that's the way it is, isn't it? (...). It limits your professional possibilities (...) French should be included as a third, not a fourth language. That's my impression.

(Spanish male, 40s, Development Agency)

In that sense, it was stated that although mobility across the borders can be constrained by different factors, peoples' natural tendency goes thought overcome the borders. The social and economic dynamic goes to the overcoming of border. The society goes faster than any other element and institution. This idea wanted to explain the fact that, in the case of Basque Eurocity, political initiatives are not promoting the interaction among people, because even if there is something done, society is not being informed.

(...) different rules on either state, different jurisdictions: that's an obstacle, and then there's the political will, right? Well, I think that since, 93, I think it's 93 or thereabouts, little has been done, very little, and I think that dynamics of the society tend to overcome borders, to move beyond borders, with economic, social, business and cultural relationships. We're talking about being one state but the same country on both sides of the Bidasoa, society is ahead and the weaknesses I see is that there is also a communication problem, isn't there? If things really have been done, they need to communicate.

(Spanish male, 40s, Trade fair ground)

4.1.4. Summary of the qualitative analysis

Qualitative analysis show there is a common conception of the necessity of working together between the institutions of both sides of the border to enhance the cross-border mobility and interaction.

As expected, the use of the personal interviews with experts working some how in the cross-border area helped to make the first approach to the cross-border reality and give us some idea of the kind of mobility and interaction of the people living in the area. Therefore, the initial perceptions were sometimes sustained and rejected other times, what help us to identify the proper items to ask in the questionnaire.

From the perspective of interviewees, motivations behind mobility are different among people living in the French and Spanish side of the border, since those living in the French area would move because of shopping and gastronomy while those living in the Spanish area would perceive relax and quietness of the French side as the main attractiveness. The following figure (Figure 27) summarises the perceived motivations of the inhabitants to cross the border, in relation to their nationality, identified in the interviews.

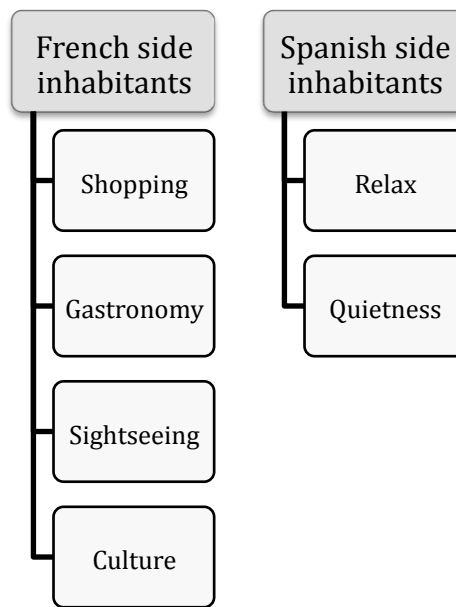


FIGURE 27. CLASSIFICATION OF MOBILITY MOTIVATIONS OBTAINED FROM THE INTERVIEWS

The first perception was the need of quietness interaction between the enterprises and institutions of both sides of the border, what it was confirmed thought the interviews. The experts think this is a first and necessary approach to design an offer, which could help to the communication. However, although in some cases –as for example in the case of tourism sector– the cross-border communication and interaction is perceived, the lack of interaction is the general observation of the interviewed experts. They consider the necessity of collaborate among institution of both sides of the border.

The same lack of interaction between the enterprises and institution was considered among people living in the cross-border area of Bayonne-Donostia, because although they consider peoples mobility very high and therefore very important in the area, they perceived a lack of “real” interaction. The main reason for the lack of interaction perceived from them was the language difference, which currently seems easier the communication using the English language, more than French or Spanish. From the cultural institution the Basque language was evoked as vital for the communication and common understanding. In that sense, a danger of losing this common language is seen especially for the French side of the border, where the percentage of Basque speakers is much lower than in the Spanish side. Therefore, language differences or what is the same, lack of language skills was identify as the most important constraints limiting mobility and more importantly, limiting peoples interaction.

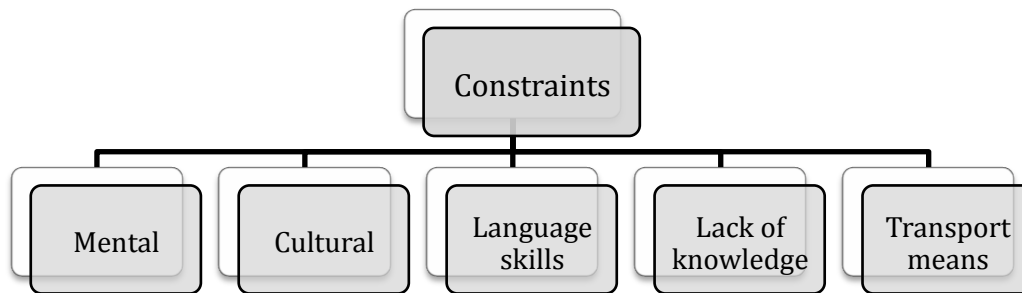


FIGURE 28. CLASSIFICATION OF CONSTRAINTS TO MOBILITY OBTAINED IN THE INTERVIEWS

A common culture was perceived as positive for the interaction, but above the common culture a different lifestyle was highlighted. Those differences were identified as possible constraint affecting mobility, but also as possible elements motivating the cross-border mobility, as it make a difference in the offer –the valuation of the French side as a place to relax and the valuation of the Spanish side for a nightlife, gastronomy and consume.

However, as in the case of language, some other factors were perceived as a constraints affecting cross-border mobility, as for instance, the lack of knowledge of the offer buy tickets in the other side of the border, as well as the transport mean. They perceived the necessity to promote better policies and develop a common initiatives and a deals in the transport means to enhance mobility.

4.2. RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

The quantitative analysis wishes to answer to the proposed research questions and hypothesis. Its structure responds to the structure of the literature review, as the first subsection is about mobility and the next subsection is related to constraints. However, as it has been explained in the introduction, both parts have been converged in the third subsection, which objective the design of a theoretical and empirical model on cross-border mobility.

4.2.1. General Socio-Demographic and Mobility Profile in Cross-Border Areas

This section examines first the general characteristics of the respondents⁴. To better understand the construction of the sample, the socio-economic information is explained. After that, general mobility tendencies obtained from the analysis are exposed, showing the motivations behind mobility, leisure participation tendencies, the perception of constraints, and the values, attitudes and lifestyles of the respondents.

First of all, the general socio-economic characteristic is described. It is important to describe the obtained data, because this allows doing a further better data analysis. The AGE GROUP is quite proportional to the reality, since it was one of the aspects taking into account in the process of data obtaining. As a result, a sample of 786 respondents was obtained, which were distributed (taking into account the valid percent) as follows: the 10,1% is less than 18 years old; the 16% is from 18 thru 24; the 12,3% is from 25 thru 34; the 14,6% is from 35 thru 44; the 14,6% is from 45 to 54; the 18,2% is from 55 to 64; and finally, the 14,2% is over 65.

⁴ See Appendix 3. Descriptive statistics.

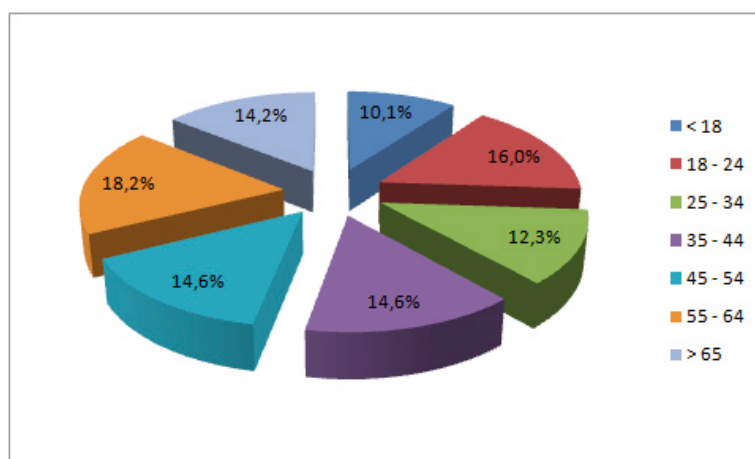


FIGURE 29. CHARACTERISATION OF THE SAMPLE BY AGE

In the case of the variable related to GENDER, this variable was controlled too, trying to obtain the most approximated measure to reality. The result was a sample of 43,9% of males and 55,7% of females.

The variable measuring the MARITAL STATUS was not controlled. As a result, the proportion of the married people (47,2%) was higher than the other status, followed by singles (33,3%). The next higher proportions are windowed, constituting the 8,1% of the sample, which could be due to the high presence of older profiles. Referring to the HIGHER ACADEMIC DEGREE obtained by the respondents, the valid percent showed that the majority has obtained a university degree (35,8%), followed by the people with secondary school (34,1%) and primary school (20,2%). The presence of illiterate is important too, constituting a 4,7% of the sample.

In reference of the WORKING SITUATION of the respondents, the higher valid percentage is employees (33,5%), followed by retired and pensioner (28,8%). The next higher percentage is students, which constitutes the 12,1% of the sample. The presence of both illiterate and pensioner is caused by the high percentage of older population in the sample.

The MONTHLY INCOME of the high percentage of the questioned population earns less than 1000€. Concretely, the 19,9% earns less than 300€, the 11,1% earns from 301€ to 600€ and the 11,3 of the population earns form 601€ to 900€. The 16,9% of the respondents earns from 901€ to 1201€, and there are few that earns more than 3501€.

4.2.1.1. Description of the general mobility tendencies

Referring to the mobility in general, almost everybody (95,2%) has visited the other side of the border at least one time in their life. Taking into account the last 12 months, the 73,4% has visited the other side of the border, while the 26,6% do not. The reasons mentioned by the responders that explains this absence of mobility are “lack of interest” (chosen by the 5% of respondents) and “preference of other destinations” (chosen by the 3,8% of the respondents), showing that almost the 10% of the respondents characterised by an absence of mobility or “immobility” are just not likely to cross the border. Therefore, it seems that in this case, it is not because of any constraint.

Oppositely, responders who had visited the other side during the last year were asked about the frequency of their visits, and the answers goes from once a year to almost everyday. The visits are focused mainly in Hendaye –with 159 visits– within the French side, and Donostia-San Sebastián –with 97 visits– and Irun –with 85 visits– in the Spanish side. The bullets of the map (figure 30) show the different number of people that has limited the place in the other side of the border, and the number indicates the real quantity of respondents that answer to the question *Where did you go the last time when you visit the other side of the border?*. Due to the differences of the sample –which follows the proportion of the population, the number of the responders in the Spanish side was almost the double, and hence, the total amounts of the visits are higher in the Spanish side than in the French.

The next map (figure 31) shows a better picture of the flows of visitants, as both the origin and the destination are presented, and each line is proportionally represented. The initial (narrow) part of the line shows the place/zone of residence of the respondents, and the thicker part of the line is situated in the visiting place –city, town or municipality. As it can be seen, the blue colour represents the flow from the French side, and black colour represents the opposite: the flows from Spanish side to the French side.

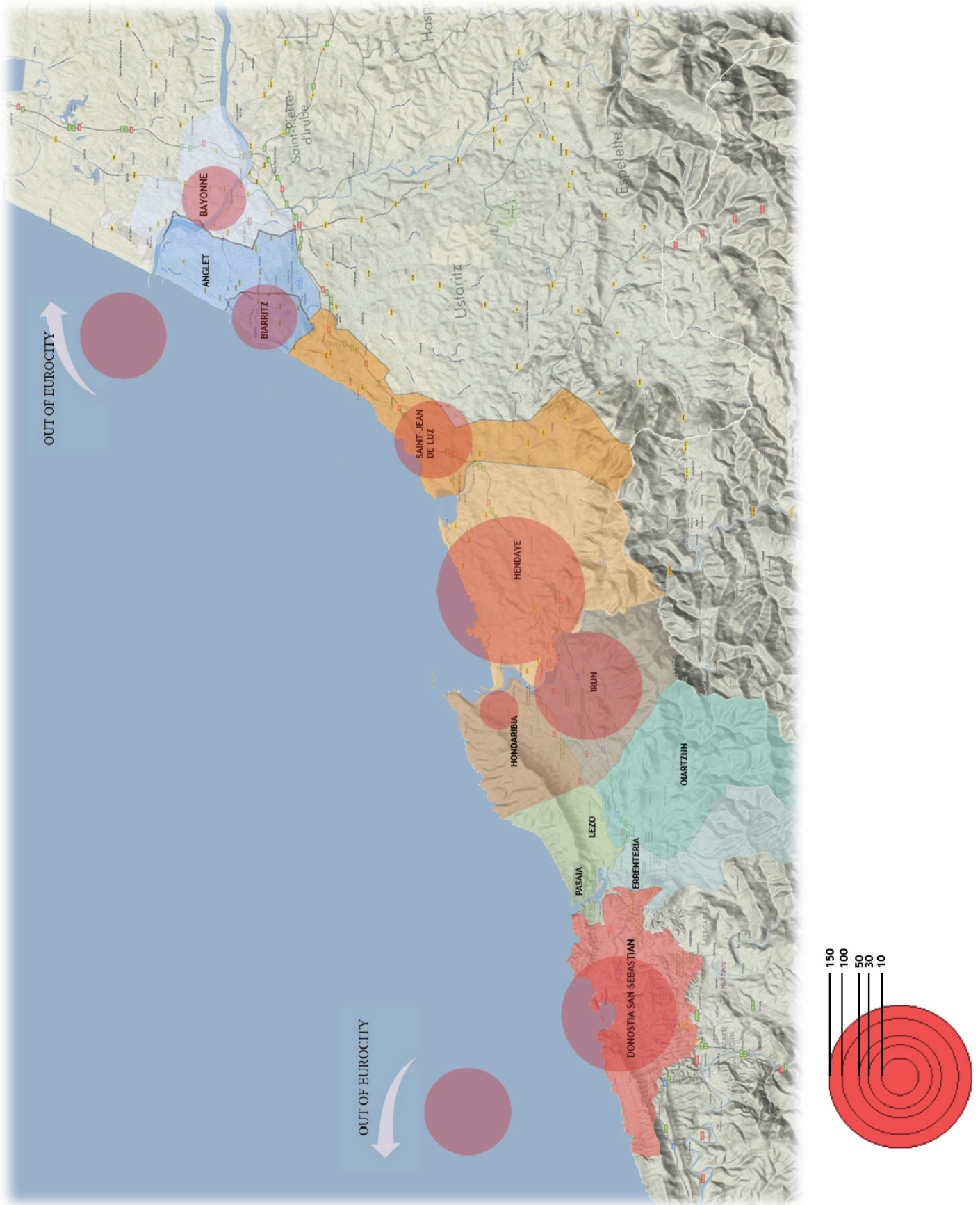


FIGURE 30. VISITS TO THE BASQUE EUROCIITY GEOGRAPHICAL AREA

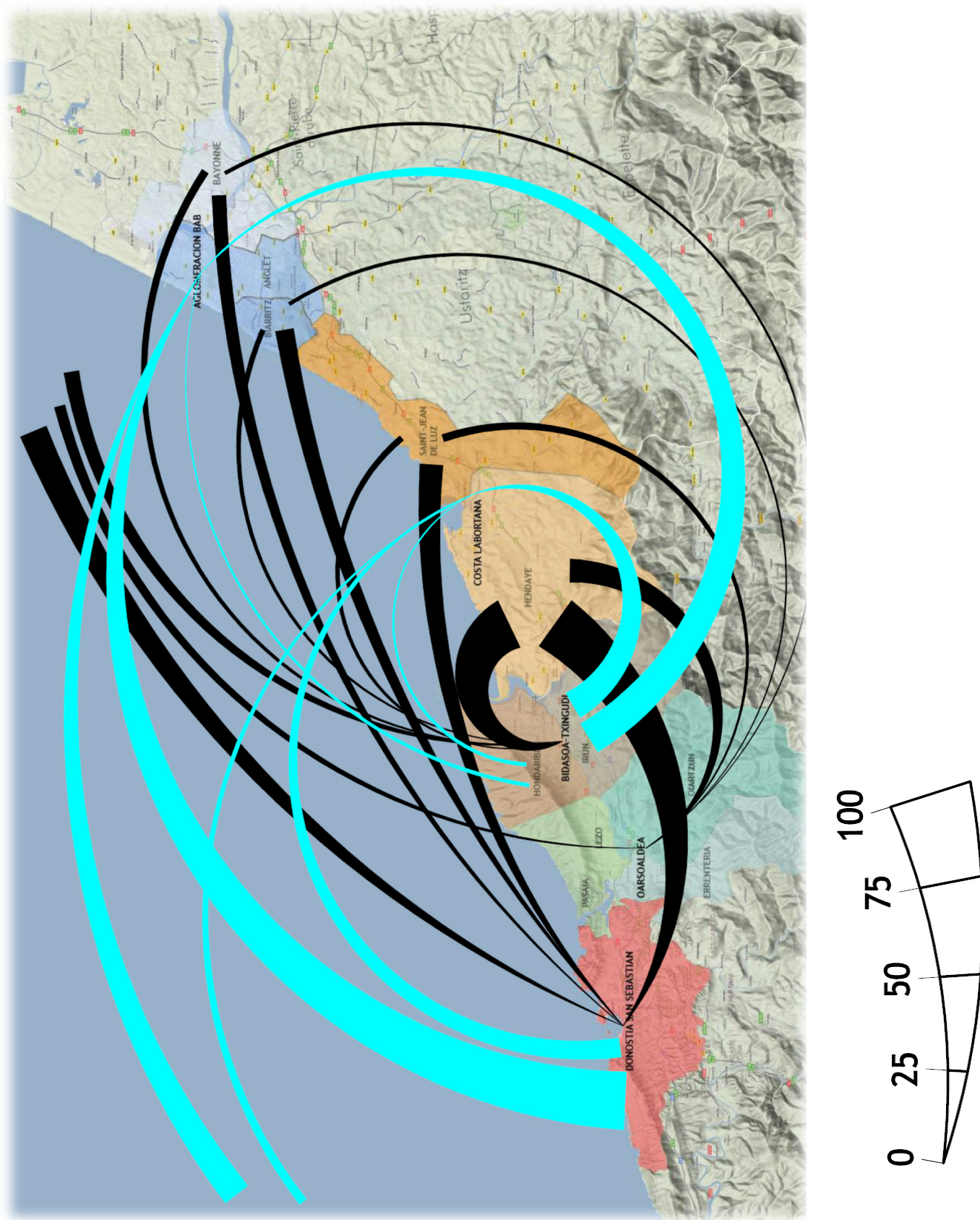


FIGURE 31. CROSS BORDER VISITS IN THE BASQUE EUROCITY (ORIGIN AND DESTINATION)

As it is shown in the map, the mobility of the people living in the nucleolus of the borderland is stronger, but mainly in the Spanish side, where the affluent of Bidasoa-Txingudi is mostly to Hendaya (n=63). Following with the Spanish side, people living in Oarsoaldea and Donostia goes more to Hendaya, too (68 and 28 respectively). However, people from Donostia has not a general similar customs, as the visits to the other side are not uniform.

Taking into account the visits in an opposite way, from French side to Spanish side, the majority of the visits from Hendaye and San Jean de Luz are to Irun and Hondarribia (36 in total). Thus, here the distance too seems to be a factor affecting mobility. However, in the case of Bayonne-Anglet-Biarritz (BAB) this seems to be different, as the majority of the visits are to Donostia (n=70).

The description of general characteristics of the sample helps to understand the current situation of the Basque Eurocity. In addition, this analysis helps to settle down the data, giving the basis for further analysis.

4.2.2. Mobility styles and Leisure Behaviour in Cross-Border Areas

The aim of this part is to detect the different mobility behaviour patterns of the citizens living in the Basque Eurocity cross-border area. To explain travel behaviour in leisure time, the leisure participation is considered. The approach to identify the existing different cross-border mobility patterns among citizens is based on lifestyle and leisure participation, as it has been explained earlier, and in the assumption of the importance of the attitudes and values about border. In order to differentiate groups or segments, cluster analysis and factor analysis were used, as complementary methods of data reduction and classification (Nadirova, 2000). In the initial stage of this research, a factor analysis was applied to the dimension of constraints (Lanzendorf, 2002). The resulting factors provided a sample of 642 cases with complete data, which was used to do the cluster analysis.

The first step was the hierarchical cluster, with Ward algorithm, carried out for three through seven clusters for each of the examined variables: Nationality; Participation in leisure; Place

attributes (perception of border, cross-border and the creation of a cross-border territory); Values, attitudes and life styles, (VALS); and demographic information (age, gender, marital status, higher degree, job and annual income), because as Nadirova (2000) argued, “fewer than three clusters would represent a too high level of generality, while more than seven would defeat the purpose of exercise”. The resulting solution from the Ward algorithm was four clusters, which were used as starting partition for the K-mean algorithm. It is considered that these groups would explain the general leisure behaviour, and after that, mobility patterns of each group are going to be analysed.

4.2.2.1. Result of the Cluster Analysis

It was decided to take a four-cluster solution for further analysis. As a result, the 642 cases of the analysis were grouped obtaining a first cluster of 255 responders, the second group with 103, the third with 29 cases and fourth cluster with 255 (see Table 5).

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS AND CASES

<i>Cluster</i>	<i>n</i>
1	255
2	103
3	29
4	255
<i>Valid</i>	<i>642</i>
<i>Missing</i>	<i>,00</i>

In the analysis the variables explaining NATIONALITY, PARTICIPATION, PLACE ATTRIBUTES, such as perception of border, cross-border and the creation of the cross-border territory, the VALUES, ATTITUDES AND LIFESTYLES (VALS) and SOCIO-ECONOMIC characteristics were used. The ANOVA table obtained in the analysis shows statistically significant variable in the creation of the population subgroups (Table 6).

TABLE 6. ANOVA TABLE FROM CLUSTER ANALYSIS

	ANOVA				
	Cluster		Error		F-value
	Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df	
Nationality					
Nationality	6,49	3,00	,18	638,00	35,864**
Cross-Border Participation					
Outdoor activities	31,50	3,00	,98	637,00	32,153**
Sightseeing (know a place or monument)	35,70	3,00	1,29	634,00	27,751**
Attendance to sport events/sport reasons	14,96	3,00	1,14	626,00	13,164**
Cultural and artistic reasons	30,09	3,00	1,10	635,00	27,333**
Shopping, personal services	26,28	3,00	1,00	635,00	26,285**
Gastronomy (restaurants, bars and cafes)	38,68	3,00	,95	637,00	40,898**
Entertainment / holidays / relaxation	36,76	3,00	1,10	633,00	33,508**
Popular parties, night leisure	28,20	3,00	1,03	627,00	27,261**
Place Attributes					
Perception of the Border	1,81	3,00	,49	611,00	3,682*
Perception of the Cross-Border	,56	3,00	,42	592,00	1,36
Perception of the creation of cross-Border metropolis	,37	3,00	,34	542,00	1,11
Values, Attitudes and Life Styles					
I like to learn new things although it has not any utility	3,00	3,00	,70	637,00	4,31**
Interest in theories and New Technologies	1,71	3,00	,69	638,00	2,48
Looking for prosperity and notoriety	3,27	3,00	1,05	623,00	3,123*
Like to try new and different things	5,30	3,00	,78	634,00	6,791**
Work all possible to though goals	5,20	3,00	,81	634,00	6,44**
Reticence and lack of consensus to social changes	1,22	3,00	,84	593,00	1,45
Like to make or fix thing with my hands	1,22	3,00	1,06	636,00	1,15
Interested in and motivated by few things	2,98	3,00	,85	626,00	3,495*
Socio-demographic Information					
Age Group	138,82	3,00	3,18	633,00	43,621**
Gender	,56	3,00	,25	635,00	2,21
Marital status	20,48	3,00	2,03	631,00	10,086**
Higher academic degree	8,67	3,00	1,02	617,00	8,498**
Working situation	1906,57	3,00	1,31	631,00	1456,24**
Monthly Income	6941,53	3,00	2,99	438,00	2323,433**

The mean difference is significant at the * < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 level

The F tests should be used only for descriptive purposes because the clusters have been chosen to maximize the differences among cases in different clusters. The observed significance levels are not corrected for this and thus cannot be interpreted as tests of the hypothesis that the cluster means are equal.

This analysis answers to the objective of identify the different mobility styles in the area, and which are the elements that are affecting more significantly to the classification of the

clusters. The obtained ANOVA solution shows the statistically significant variables in the creation of the clusters. The results show that nationality is significant ($p < 0,01$), and also all the socio demographic information, except gender. The same significance level is presented by all the participation activities practiced in both sides of the cross-border area indistinctively.

However, other dimensions such as Place Attributes and the Values, Attitudes and Lifestyles show different levels of significance. For instance, in the perception of the “border”, “cross-border” and “the creation of the cross-border metropolis”, just the perception of the border has significant impact ($p < 0,05$). The same happens in the case of the second dimension mentioned (VALS), where five of the eight measured variables resulted statistically significant: “interested in few things – few interest and motivation in things”; “looking for prosperity and notoriety” (both significant at $p < 0,05$) and “I like to learn new things although it has not any utility”; Like to try new and different things” and “work all the possible to thought goals” (significant at $p < 0,01$).

The variables with statistically significant effect in the cluster analysis were examined to characterise the obtained groups. This characterisation is shown in the following two subsections. The first subsection (4.2.2.2. Cluster Characterisation) shows a summary of each cluster, while the second subsection (4.2.2.3. Descriptive Analysis of the Obtained Clusters) shows each of the variables in relation with the clusters. Furthermore, constraints have been analysed as well, following the second hypothesis. In order to identify the effect of constraints in the different mobility styles, the correlation between perceived constraints and the obtained clusters is analysed.

The last subsection (4.2.2.4. Testing hypothesis through Clusters) summarises the results from the analysis in relation to the previously stated hypothesis.

4.2.2.2. Cluster characterisation

In this section the obtained cluster are characterised, taking into account all the measured dimensions and variables in the research. Each cluster is described, mentioning the most important aspects that are explaining better the classification obtained through the statistical

analysis. Thus, although all the variables of the table have been taken into account in the statistical procedure, in the description of the clusters just the most significant variables (at $* < 0.05$ and $** < 0.01$ level of significance) are contemplated.

Cluster 1. Middle ages workers

This cluster is characterised by young skilled workers, which are probably starting their working career. They are interested in different things, and they would like to have a better knowledge of the environment and living space. This cluster is characterised by age profile of young (23,1%) and adults (26,7%), who has obtained the university degree (46,2%) or the secondary school (36,5%).

They are mostly employees, and they participate in soft leisure activities, such as, sightseeing, shopping, entertainment and relax and outdoor activities. They do not participate attending sport events neither in popular parties.

Time commitments are the most constraining element for them (mean of 3,6), followed by lack of knowledge of the supply of the territory and lack of language skills. They perceived the creation of cross-border territory as positive, and their values, attitudes and lifestyles are focussed on obtaining of goals.

Cluster 2: French Shoppers

The second cluster is characterised by both, older ages profile (53,7% from 55 and above) and very young's (31,3% is less than 18 years old), who has obtained the secondary school (36,1%) in its majority.

They are mainly French, and due to their ageing or young age profile, the majority are students, retired or pensioner, who has low or null income. They participate mostly in consuming activities, such as shopping and gastronomy, and they consider border as still important part of the reality or territorial imaginary, perceiving that border is still affecting to the population living in the area. As in the case of the Cluster 1, in this case time commitments are considered as one of the most important aspect constraining mobility too, but followed by language, economy and lack of company.

Cluster 3: Mobile Youth

The third cluster constitutes the most mobile profile: almost the 90% (89,7%) of respondents in this group has visited the other side of the border during the last 12 months. Young's compose this group in its majority (the 80% is under 25 years old) who are still students or who has obtained or are obtaining the university degree. Consequently, they do not have any income, and are single.

Therefore, it makes sense that for them, lack of time and the economic problems are the most important reason why their participation is not higher, which is not rare if we have into account their socio-economic characterisation.

However, as in the cluster 2, they participate mainly in leisure activities classified as shopping and gastronomy. This way, it can be said that this group it the potential consumer group of the future, that once they resources increase, their cross-border participation and consumption would increase too.

Cluster 4: Older less mobile

This group constitutes the group with less mobility percentage, where almost half of the group (41,7%) has not visited the other side of the border during the last year.

They are characterised by an old age profile, constituted by lower degree education, with 9,7% of illiterate, 30,4% of primary school and 32,8% with secondary school. It is not difficult to understand that with this profile, the majority of them are retired of pensioners or housework. However, and related to income, this group is constituted by people with low income (the 42,1% of respondents chose the option less than 300€). Not surprisingly, in their identification of constraints, lack of health is perceived as the main reason to not participate at cross-border level.

4.2.2.3. Descriptive Analysis of the Obtained Clusters

To better characterise the obtained groups, each dimension and variable statistically significant in the creation of the mobility groups was broken down making a cross-tabulation of the clusters and the variables. This characterisation is showed in the following subsections.

4.2.2.3.1. Socio Economic Characteristics

As it can be seen, from the six variables explaining the SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS, all of them is except *gender* are statistically significant (at $p < 0,01$) in the classification of clusters.

Related to AGE, clusters can be characterised by different age ranges, as it can be seen through the graphs (Figure 32).

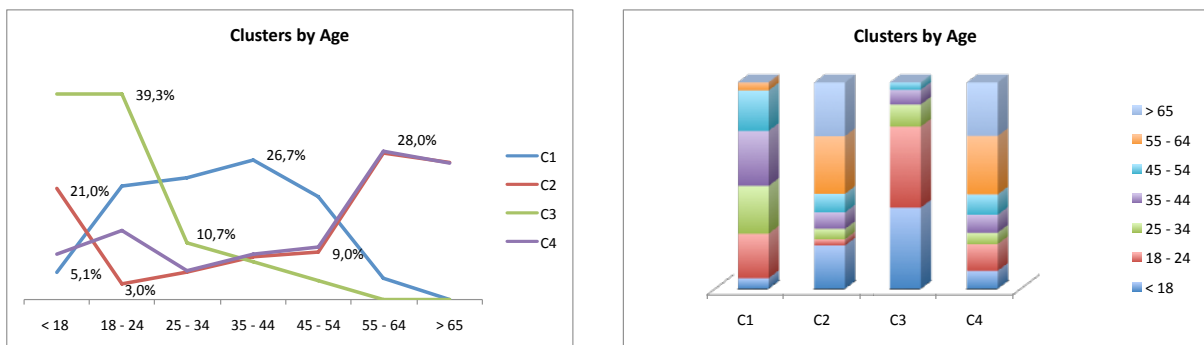


FIGURE 32. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY AGE

The results show that in reference with AGE, adults (26% in 35-44 age range) characterise first cluster, and the third cluster is characterised by young's (composed mainly by the age ranges of <18 and 18-24) while second and fourth cluster is composed mainly by old profile (>55 years old). However, the second cluster has an important component of young's too.

MARITAL STATUS as well is significant in the definition of four clusters, and the differences are shown below (Figure 33).

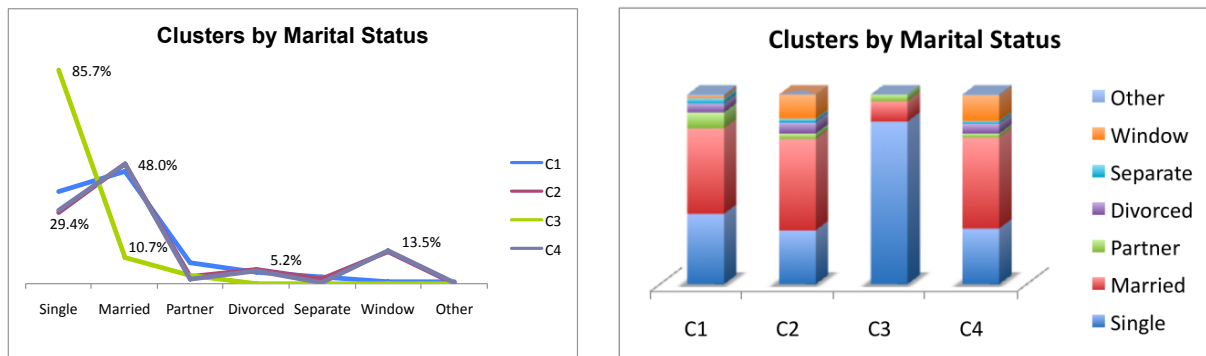


FIGURE 33. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY MARITAL STATUS

As it can be seen in graphs, the main differences are among cluster 3 and the other clusters, since the majority of the respondents classified in the third cluster are single (85,7%), while in the other clusters are composed by married people (10,7%). As a remarkable difference is the percentage of windows in clusters 2 and 4 (around 50%).

The variable measuring the higher academic level obtained, measured by HIGHER ACADEMIC DEGREE, show significant differences in the definition of clusters (see Figure 34).

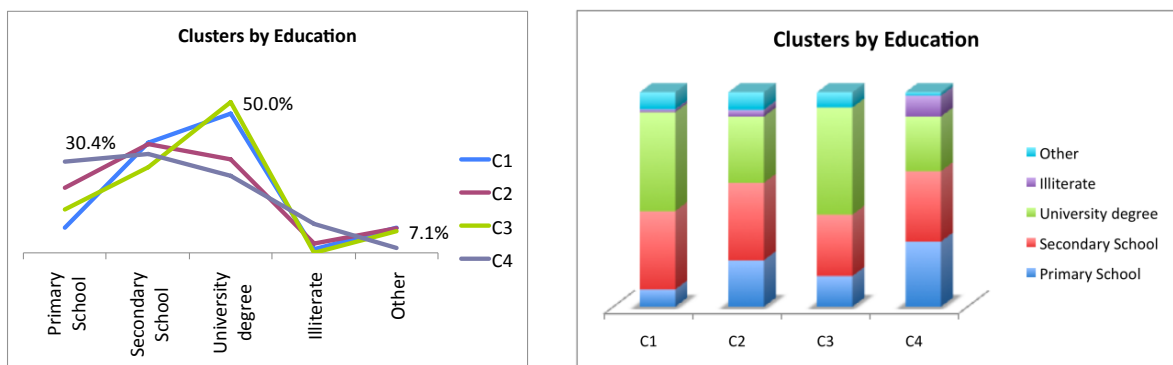


FIGURE 34. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY EDUCATION

The main differences of the higher education degree obtained by the respondent's shows that cluster 1 and particularly cluster 3 are constituted by a higher percentage of people who has obtained the university degree (50%). In the opposite situation, cluster 2 and 4 are constituted by a higher degree of primary and secondary school (around the 30%), and in the case of fourth cluster, the presence of respondents who are illiterate or has obtained just the primary school is higher than in the other groups.

WORKING SITUATION has been identified as significant variable defining the obtained clusters. In this sense, the most significant differences are showed bellow (figure 33).

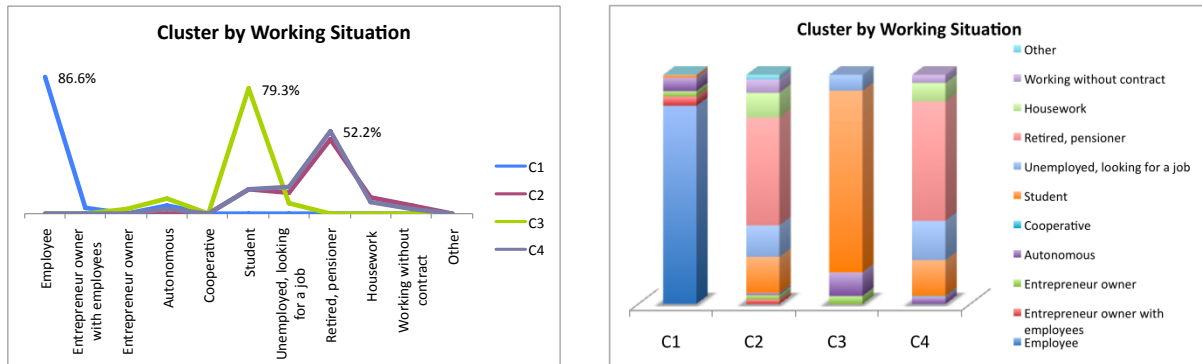


FIGURE 35. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY WORKING SITUATION

As it can be seen in the showed graphs, the most important differences are the higher presence of students in the cluster 3 (79,3%), and the presence of employees of the cluster 1 (86,5). The working situation of the rest of the clusters –2 and 4, the percentages are quite similar, with high presence of retired or pensioners (more than 50%), and similar percentage of students and people working in cooperative enterprises. Other characteristic that differs from cluster 1 and 3 in respect with cluster 2 and 4 is the presence of housework respondents in the first two groups mentioned. Therefore, it seems that in terms of working situation, and the consequences related to it, the cluster 3 is the group with lower resources.

As in the case of the other variables measuring demographic characteristics, MONTHLY INCOME has found significant in the classification of the groups. In this case, the notable differences are related to clusters 2 and specially 3 against the other two clusters, as it can be seen in the following charts (Figure 36).

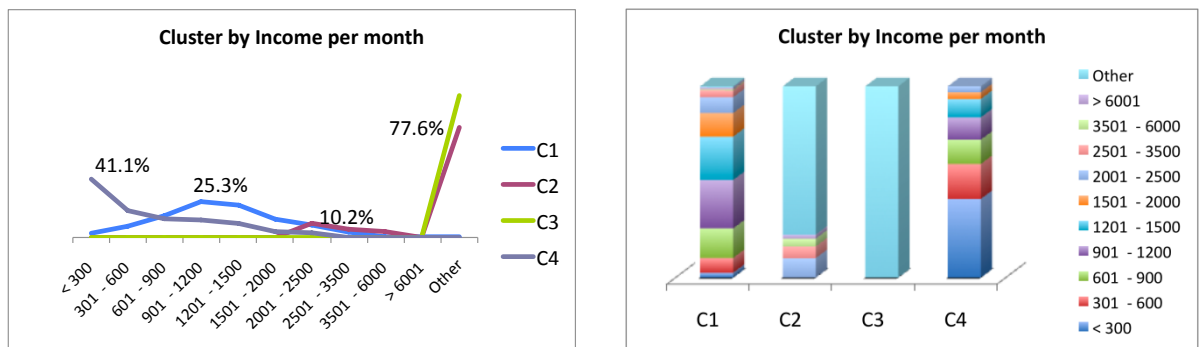


FIGURE 36. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY INCOME

Cluster 1 is the most homogeneous cluster taking into account the income, with people earning monthly around 1000€. Cluster 4 is quite homogeneous as well, but the percentage of people with lower income is more important. In the clusters 2 and 3 the percentage of respondents who has chosen the option “other” is very high –almost the single option, as in the case of the third cluster, what is not strange if we take into account the other characteristics of age, work situation and so on. There are students, which has not income, and therefore, low resources. Cluster 4 it is also characterised by low resources, which is because they are mainly retired or are pensioners.

As in the case of the socio-demographic information, the variable showing NATIONALITY is significant (at $p < 0,01$) in the construction of clusters, with a significance of an f value of 35,864.

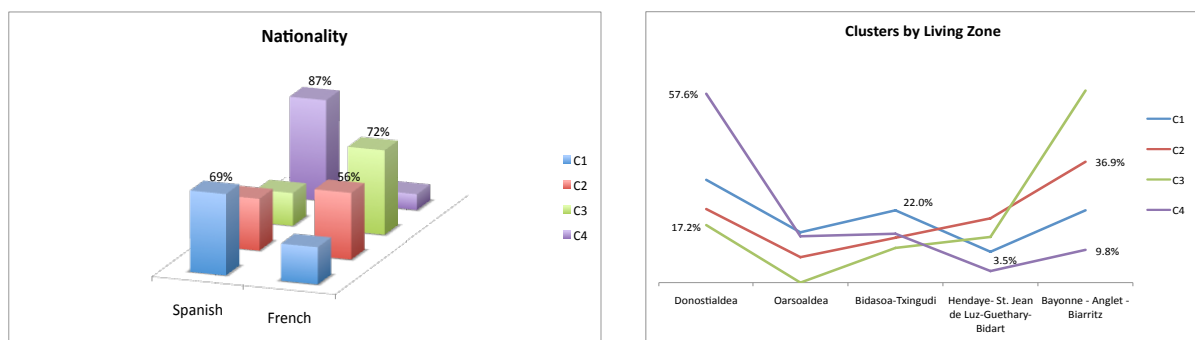


FIGURE 37. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY NATIONALITY AND ZONE

Nationality is the variable giving one of the most important. It can be seen that the cluster 1 is the most regular in terms of nationality and living zones. Mainly people living in the French side compose the cluster 2 (56%), but especially the third cluster (72%), where almost all the group is form there. Oppositely, people from the Spanish side compose the cluster 4 (87%).

In the case of LEISURE PARTICIPATION, the eight variables used to measure the different activities where people living in the cross-border people participate, all the activities obtained a significant level (at $p < 0,01$).

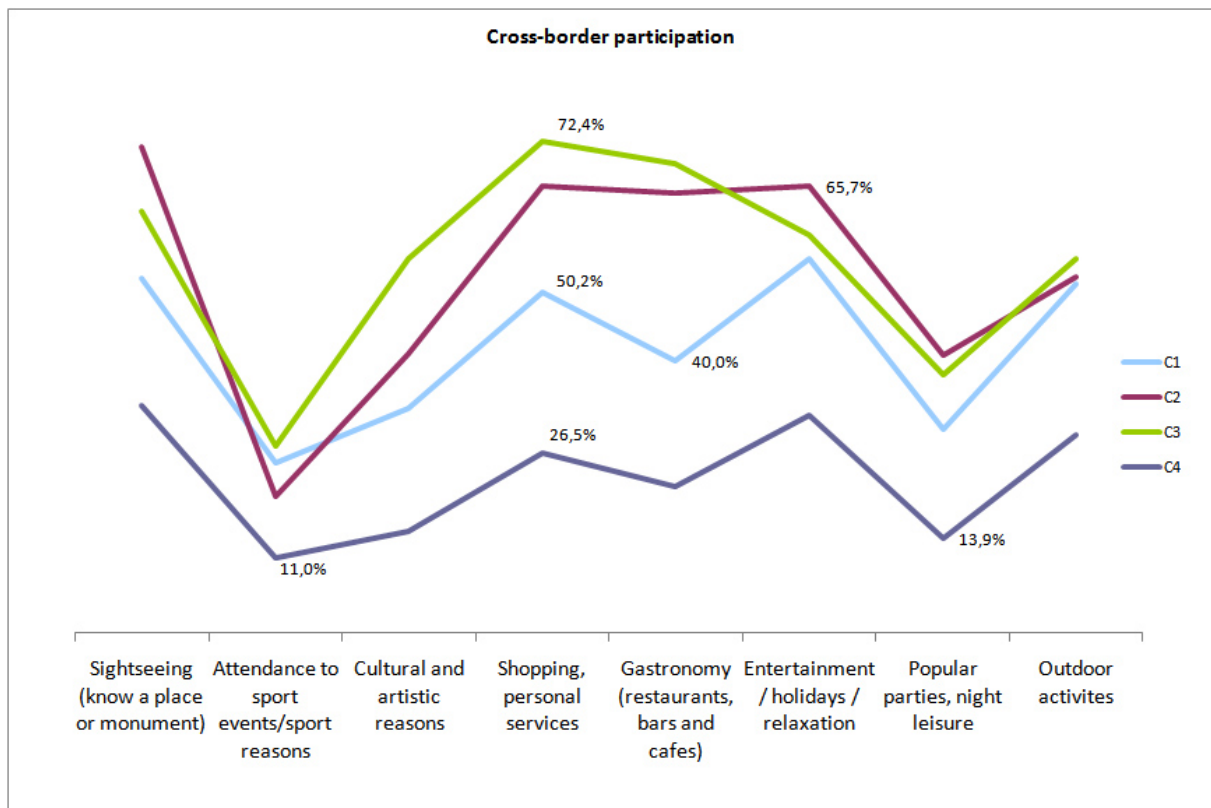


FIGURE 38. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY CROSS-BORDER PARTICIPATION

As it can be seen, the groups that are participating more in both sides indistinctively, are the cluster 2 and 3, while the cluster 1, but especially the cluster 4, participate less than others. The mayor differences are those related to shopping activity and gastronomy where cluster 2 and 3 has higher percentage (above 65%) while the other clusters (1 and 4) are below 30% in the case of the cluster 4 and below 50% in almost all the activities.

This part of the study shows important aspects in the clustering process; because significance level shows us that, the PLACE ATTRIBUTES, the perception of cross-border and the creation of cross-border area are not statistically significant in the creation of the clusters, and therefore, are not important defining the groups. However, the perception of the border was found statistically significant (at $p < 0,05$ level), and therefore, it perception vary among the obtained groups. The analysis of the means of the groups in the perception of border as negative or positive (from 1 lower to 3 higher) shows that cluster 2 is the group that gives more importance to border (with a mean of 1,98), while cluster 3 is the group that valuates the border as less important (mean of 1,61) (see Figure 38).

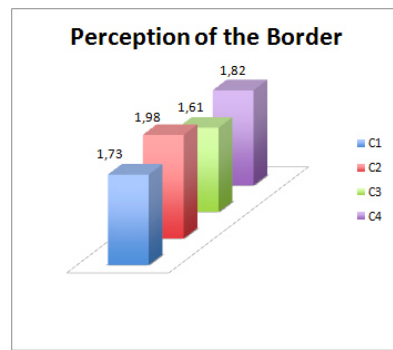


FIGURE 39. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY BORDER PERCEPTION

In the case of the eight variables measuring VALS, “interest in theories and new technologies”, “reticence and lack of consensus to social changes” and “like to make or fix things with my hands” are not statistically significant for the constitution of the groups, and because of their lack of significance, there are not inserted in the graph (Figure 40).

Oppositely, the rest of the measured variables are significant (at different levels) and therefore, they are affecting to the composition of the groups. The differences are remarkable in the case of the consideration of “I like to learn new things although it has not any utility” (statistically significant at $p < 0,01$ level), where the higher value is obtained from the cluster 2 and the lower value from the cluster 3. The other remarkable value is obtained in the variable “Work all possible to through goals”, also significant at $p < 0,01$ level, specially important in the case of cluster 1. The other item which has been found statistically significant at $p < 0,01$ level is the item “Like to try new and different things”, which defines mainly the cluster 1 and 3.

The rest of items “Looking for prosperity and notoriety” and “Interested in and motivated by few things” are also statistically significant but in a lower level (at $p < 0,05$ level), and although they show some differences among the clusters, it is necessary to say that both are considered less important by all the clusters.

Looking to the data, it can be said that the forth clusters 1 and 2 are interested by new things, and like to try new experiences, showing a higher post-modern value. In that sense, those groups would be more likely to cross the border and participate in cross-border activities, as it has been shown before. The results from the interaction of clusters with values, attitudes and life styles tendencies of the clusters are showed in the following figure (Figure 40).

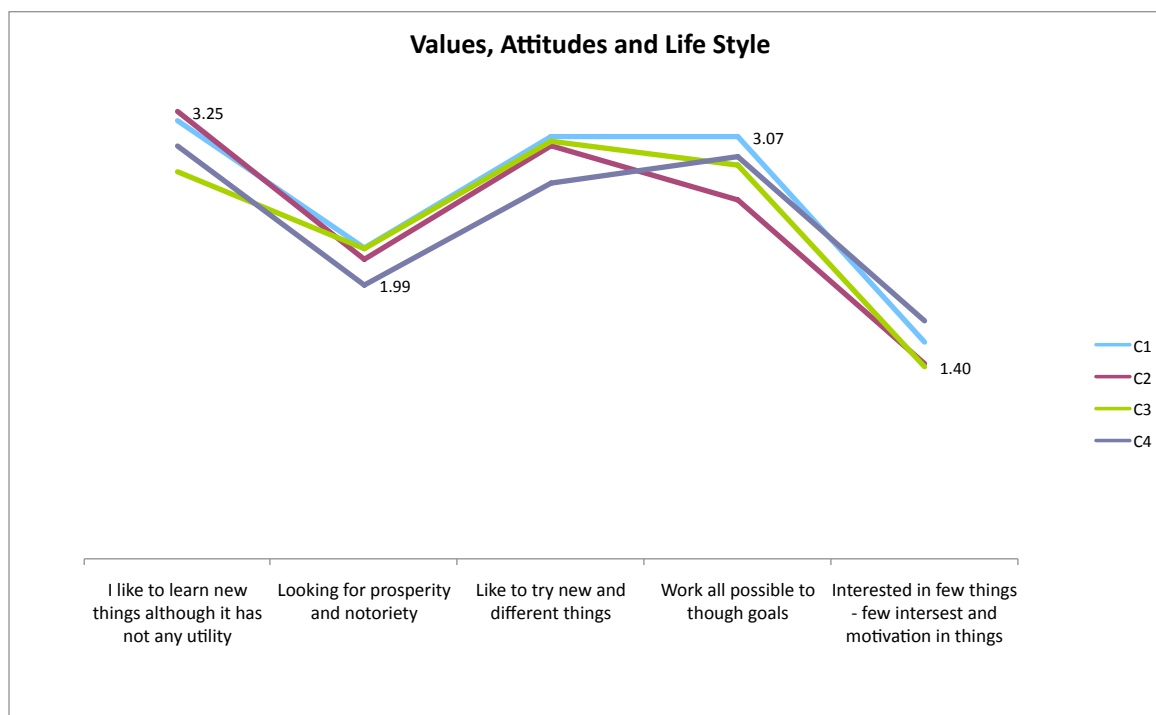


FIGURE 40. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY VALUES, ATTITUDES AND LIFE STYLES (VALS)

The next and final element analysing to characterise clusters are CONSTRAINTS that, although it was not inserted in the cluster analysis because it was affecting the cluster analysis, it has been analysed. From the perceived CONSTRAINTS among the clusters it can be seen that the most significant differences are, first of all, related to time and health or age. In that sense, clusters 1 and 3 perceived “lack of time” as very important constraints, while “health or age related problems” are not important for them. Oppositely, clusters 2 and 4 perceived “lack of health” or “age related problem” as much more important than it is perceived by the other clusters, which is completely normal due to the age range in which the higher percentage of those groups are. Cluster 2 perceived “lack of language skills” as a problem to go to the other side of the border, and they consider that the transport means to go to the other side of the border are insufficient or uncomfortable.

Cluster 3 feels the same about the transport means, but for them, the time commitments such as “lack of time” or “economic problems” are the most important constraints, and which differs this cluster from the rest of clusters. This has been detected before, and argued that the fact of being student and low resources is affecting the perception of constraints. In the case

of the cluster 1, “lack of time” and “lack of identification with the initiatives” are more important than in the case of the other clusters, but also considers that “lack of language skills” and “lack of knowledge of the supply of the territory” are important.

Looking to the data, it can be said that the cluster 4 do not identify any constraints as highly as the other clusters, excepting “health or age problems”, which is logic if the age rate of that cluster is consider.

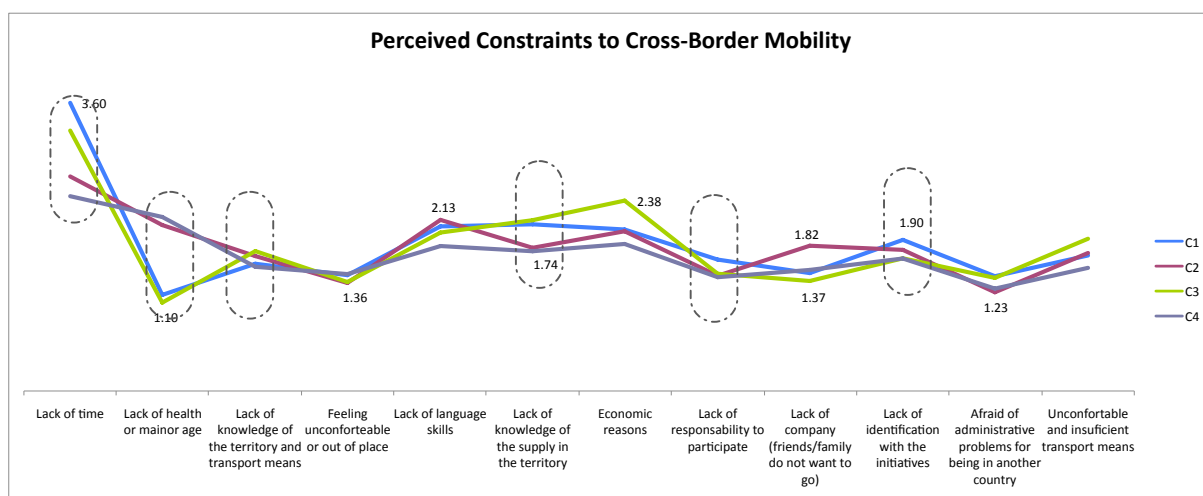


FIGURE 41. NUMBER OF CLUSTERS BY CONSTRAINTS TO CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY
 Circled items indicate statistically significant differences

The analysis of the cluster groups allows testing the hypothesis previously stated.

4.2.2.4. Testing hypotheses through the Clusters

The first hypothesis (H_1) *Different Internal and External factors could create different Mobility Styles and Travel behaviour* is confirmed. This hypothesis has been analysed through several sub-hypotheses, which almost all of them has been also confirmed.

Related to internal characteristics (H_{1a}) *Internal Characteristics defines mobility style* is confirmed. Cluster analysis has proved that internal factor such as socio-economic information measured by age, income, education and working situation are statistically significant in the creation of the clusters. As it has been previously explained, all the socio-economic information used to define the clusters in 4 mobility styles were found statistically

significant, except gender. This way, it is possible to say that Mobility Styles are related to the socio-demographic characteristic, as age, marital status, education, working situation and income. The finding of this analysis confirms the conclusion obtained by (Lanzendorf, 2000) in his analysis of travel behaviour, who stated that travel styles are very correlated to socio demography.

The hypothesis (H_{1b}) *Values and Life Styles are important in the definition of groups* is partly confirmed, because although some variables measuring this dimension are affecting in the classification of the groups, not all of them are statistically significant. The confirmation of this hypothesis is very important, as the dimension of values, attitudes and lifestyles are hardly being used in the analysis of mobility and leisure.

The hypothesis about leisure orientations (H_{1c}) *leisure orientations are important in the definition of groups* is confirmed too, due to the high significance of the activities practicing in both sides of the border indistinctively. Leisure activities are significant defining the four clusters, and therefore, it is not possible to specify which are the most characteristic activities to that definition.

In the same way, and as it was perceived from the beginning of the study, nationality it is also statistically significant in the definition of clusters. This is easy to understand following the perception of the importance of nationality in the definition of cross-border leisure participation, and the fact that clusters are created related to those activities –among others, which is very different from one side of the border to the other. Therefore, the hypothesis (H_{1d}) *Nationality is significant defining groups* is confirmed.

The second hypothesis was related to the impact of constraints in the obtained groups, and although the variables measuring constraints were not included in the cluster solution, the descriptive statistics shows that different profiles composing clusters are affecting differently in terms of type and strengths by the constraints. Thus, it can be said that the hypothesis (H_2) *Constraints have different level of importance depending on the group* is confirmed too, as some constraints are much more important than other constraints: this difference is significant in the case of health as a constraints, time commitments, economic problems and lack of company.

4.2.3. Data Aggregation and Classification: Mobility Motives, Constraints and Cross-border Participation

This part of the study explains the general Factor analysis of the original sets of questionnaire items that was undertaken. First, analysis with an unspecified –not predetermined or forced– number of factors was run and the resulting initial set of factors reviewed. A combination of objective and subjective criteria was used to make the final choice (see Nadirova, 2000; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

The initial factors were subjected to Varimax rotation. As a result, scree plots based on graphed Eigen values of more than 1,0 were used to determine the number of factors. Items with factor loadings of less than 0,40 were dropped from the factor solutions. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability was used to determine the internal consistency for the entire scale and within each factor. In addition, the factors were assessed in terms of their overall meaningfulness and acceptable degrees of generality and fragmentation.

4.2.3.1. *Underlying Dimensions of Mobility Motives*

The mobility motives included nine different variables. With the resulting eight variables, a “Principal Component of Extraction” with the Varimax rotation method was used. From the initial factor analysis a result of four factors were obtained. However, the last classification was a single-item factor (factor 4, item “nothing especial”), which was omitted from the solution in order to eliminate fragmentation –method used previously for the case of constraints by Nadirova (2000).

The factors analysis contained three factors explained the 59,717% of the total variance. The resulting three factors Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the three factors ranged from 0,397 to 0,709. The first and second factors exhibit an acceptable degree of internal consistency, while in the case of the third factor the consistency was weak, but it was accepted because of the weight of the variables forming the factor (761 in the case of the first variable and 741 in the case of the second) (see Table 7).

TABLE 7. MOBILITY MOTIVATIONS ITEMS AND OBTAINED FACTORS

Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis: 8 Motivation Items^a

<i>Factors/Items</i>	F1 Nexperience	F2 VFR	F3 Calm&Confort
<i>Factor 1: Culture and new experience</i>			
Meet new and different people	,761		
To experience new and different life style	,761		
Shopping possibility	,657		
Artistic and cultural attractions-events	,639		
<i>Factor 2: Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)</i>			
Visiting friends and relatives (VFR)		,787	
Second residence		,770	
<i>Factor 3: Calm and comfort</i>			
Entertainment and relax			,758
Nice and clean place to stay			,742
Eigenvalue	2,252	1,263	1,122
% of variance explained	25,042	16,746	16,169
Cumulative % of variance explained	25,042	41,789	57,958
<i>alpha</i> (scale reliability)	,709	,419	,397
Scale mean-score	10,19	3,51	7,64

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

In all the cases, the content of these dimensions is meaningful and consistent, as each of the factors has its own distinctive meaning. For instance, Factor 1, *Culture and New Experience*, contains the motivation: “meet new different people”; “to experience new and different life style”; “artistic and cultural attractions and/or events”; and “shopping possibility”. All the activities show the wish of interacting or consume different things. Factor 2, *Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)*, contains the variables: “visiting friends and relatives (VFR)”; and “second residence”, which in both cases, underlines the connexion of the respondents within the other side of the border. . Factor 3, *Calm and Comfort*, convenes the more passive recreation related to pleasant places to be in: “Entertainment and relax” and “nice and clean place to stay”. Therefore, this factors aggregates de variables explaining motivation for a more passive activities or ways to stay in the other side of the border. This result shows that one of the most tested motivations in the tourism literature is also important in the case of the present study.

4.2.3.2. Underlying Dimensions of Cross-Border Leisure Participation

The aim of this part of the study is to identify the effect of leisure choices in the mobility frequency of the Basque Eurocity cross-border area. With this purpose, a factor analysis of cross-border leisure activities was developed. The underlined factors were used to measure the effect of each factor related on the cross-border mobility frequency.

In the case of leisure participation in cross-border area, eight items measured the cross-border participation. As in the case of motivations and constraints, factor analysis was obtained by means of the “Principal Components of Extraction” with the Varimax rotation method. The analysis with an unspecified number of factors resulted in the extraction of two factors, for the eight measured variables, with 54,647% of the total variance explained.

Two different factors were extracted, with strong Chronbach alpha of 0,732 for the first factor and 0,686 for the second. The obtained factors were agreeable, and were confirming the initial perceptions about cross-border participation.

TABLE 8. LEISURE PARTICIPATION ITEMS AND OBTAINED FACTORS

Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis: 8 Cross-border Leisure Participation Items^a

<i>Factors/Items</i>	F1 Indoor	F2 Outdoor
<i>Factor 1: Indoor consumption</i>		
Gastronomy (restaurants, bars and cafes)	,773	
Shopping, personal services	,735	
Popular parties, night leisure	,719	
Cultural and artistic reasons	,614	
<i>Factor 2: Soft outdoor consumption</i>		
Outdoor activities		,876
Sightseeing (know a place or monument)		,674
Entertainment / holidays / relaxation		,636
Attendance to sport events/sport reasons		,448
Eigenvalue	3,297	1,075
% of variance explained	29,889	24,758
Cumulative % of variance explained	29,889	54,647
<i>alpha</i> (scale reliability)	,732	,686
Scale mean-score	1,36	1,58

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The first factor extracted was identified as *indoor consumption*, aggregates the items that explain the activities that imply the action of consumption, and activities which required to be –at least in the majority of the cases– in an indoor area: “Gastronomy (restaurants, bars and cafes)”; “Shopping, personal services”; “Popular parties, night leisure”; and “cultural and artistic reason”. The second factor *soft outdoor consumption*, composed by: “Outdoor activities”, “sightseeing (know a place or monument)”, “entertainment/holidays/relaxation” and “attendance to sport events or sport reasons”. Those activities have been defined as soft activities, due to their passive nature.

As mentioned, the aggregation and classification of those factors confirmed our first perception about the type of the leisure activities driving people to move to the other side of the border. This way, some will be attracted by indoor activities while others by outdoor activities, and this would likely affect the mobility frequency, as outdoor activities could be seasonal.

4.2.3.3. Underlying Dimensions of Cross-Border Mobility Constraints

The aim of this part of the research is the identification of factors that could be affecting cross-border leisure participation. As it has been explained before, the identification is based on the model *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*, and their adaptation to different contexts (Chik and Dong, 2005) and disciplines (Walker and Virden, 2005; Hinch, Jackson, Hudson and Walker, 2005). We identify the necessity of knowing if the widely used classification of constraint is the same in cross-border territories.

As in the case of motivations and participation, the “Principal Components of Extraction” with the Varimax rotation method was utilised. The analysis with an unspecified number of factors resulted in the extraction of three factors, for the twelve measured variables, each factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1,0 and it was explained the 45,774% of the total variance.

The content of obtained factors indicated satisfactory results, because of the meaningfulness of the dimensions, with a strong degree of internal consistency in the case of the first factor – with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0,703– and with lower but still acceptable Cronbach

alpha in the other two factors (Crombach's alpha coefficient of 0,479 in the second factor and 0,396 for the third factor). Those factors are still satisfactory, since, as Nadirova (2000) stated, there is no common agreement in the existing literature on what score should be an acceptable level of internal reliability. Kuhn and Jackson (1989) considered a score of 0,40 or greater to be acceptable and Nunnally (1967) considered an alpha of 0,50 or greater sufficient for the exploratory analysis.

TABLE 9. CONSTRAINTS TO MOBILITY ITEMS AND OBTAINED FACTORS

Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis: 12 Constraints Items^a

<i>Factors/Items</i>	F1 Structural	F2 Interpersonal	F3 Intrapersonal
<i>Factor 1: Structural Constraints</i>			
Lack of knowledge of the territory and transport means	,683		
Uncomfortable and insufficient transport means	,628		
Lack of language skills	,563		
Economic reasons	,542		
Lack of knowledge of the supply in the territory	,529		
Feeling uncomfortable or out of place	,495		
Lack of company (friends/family do not want to go)	,481		
Afraid of administrative problems for being in another country	,474		
<i>Factor 2: Interpersonal Constraints</i>			
Lack of responsibility to participate		,806	
Lack of identification with the initiatives		,703	
<i>Factor3: Intrapersonal Constraints</i>			
Lack of time			,782
Lack of health or mainor age			,754
Eigenvalue	2,837	1,309	1,221
% of variance explained	20,816	13,033	10,880
Cumulative % of variance explained	20,816	33,849	44,728
<i>alpha</i> (scale reliability)	,703	,479	,396
Scale mean-score	13,54	3,26	4,79

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

First factor has been identified as Structural Constraints, since there are the items related to social situation, geographical isolation, and transportation characteristics. The factors emerged in this study are similar to the factor or “social and geographical isolation” mentioned by Jackson and Henderson (1995), but in this study different items has also been aggregated to the first factor, which has been identified as structural, due to the specific characteristic of the cross-border area. The importance of geographical factors previously

stated by Jackson (1994) emerged as the most important factor related to constraints. This constraints are composed by the items: “lack of knowledge of the territory and transport means”, “uncomfortable and insufficient transport means”, “lack of language skills”, “economic reasons”, “lack of company”, “lack of knowledge of the supply in the territory”, feeling uncomfortable or out of place and afraid of administrative problems for being in another country.

The second factor *Interpersonal Constraints* composed by: *lack of responsibility to participate* and *lack of identification with the initiatives* contains a component of indifference, which seems the result of a lack of cross-border participation interest or a passive position to leisure participation. But also it is the result of a perception of cultural differences related to the people and customs in the other side of the border. The reason why this study has classified those constraints as interpersonal is because it can be said that those are the result of lack of intercultural or interpersonal understanding, which taking into account the research on skiing tourism (Hudson and Gilbert, 1999), as interpersonal constraints was identified “too elitist” and “not glamorous enough” which have the same basis.

The third factor *Intrapersonal Constraints* explains the incapacity of people lack of possibility to participate, because of their *lack of health* or because the *lack of time*. Thus, explains the difficulty of participate in activities. Lack of health has been considered intrapersonal many times (Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh and Eklund, 1999). Time commitments has usually been identify as structural constraints (Hudson and Gilbert, 1999; Raymore, Godbey and Crawford, 1994), but has been identified also as “universal” (Stodolska, 1998). Therefore, there is a lack of clarification on the classification in which time should be. This study considers that time can be intrapersonal as health and time, are internal aspects of the person.

The obtained constraints classification allows to test the earlier stated third hypothesis H_3 *Constraint to mobility can be classified in three different factors*, which has been is confirmed. Therefore, the extracted factors classify constraints to cross-border mobility in Interpersonal, Intrapersonal and structural factors, as the authors Jackson, Crawford and Godbey have stated classified in 1993, and which has been widely proved since then.

Referring to the hypothesis H_{3a} . *Structural constraint factor is significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints*; it is confirmed, as the first and more important factor extracted, which explains the 20,816% of the variance.

The following two hypotheses: H_{3b} . *Interpersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints* and H_{3c} . *Intrapersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints* has also been confirmed, because although they are explaining less variance than the structural constraints, they are still significant, explaining the 13,033% and the 10,880% of the variance respectively.

This way, the initial perception of the study has been proved, since from the twelve items on constraints proposed to the respondents, three factors have been classified. This way, the widely tested classification of constraints into intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural factors has been confirmed in this study. Therefore, this classification it is also valid for the cross-border mobility in leisure time.

4.2.3.4. *Underlying Dimensions of Values and Life Styles*

The data reduction and classification has been used to reduce the variables measuring values, attitudes and life styles of the citizens. As in the case of motivation, constraints and participation, the factor analysis was obtained using the “Principal Components of Extraction” with the Varimax rotation method. From the eight items of the questionnaire, two factors has been identified with Eigen values over 1, explaining the 44% of the total variation.

The Chrombach alpha for the first factor is strong with 0,695, and also the percentage of the variance explained (30,63%). The second factor obtained in the analysis has strong value, however, the scale reliability shows a weak Crombach alpha of 0,008, and explains the 13,37% of the total variance.

TABLE 10. VALUES ATTITUDES AND LIFE STYLES ITEMS AND OBTAINED FACTORS

Varimax Rotation Factor Analysis: 7 Values Attitudes and Life Styles Items^a

<i>Factors/Items</i>	F1 Experiencers	F2 Makers
<i>Factor 1: VALS1. Post-modern experience seeker</i>		
Like to try new and different things	,770	
Interest in theories and New Technologies	,716	
Like to learn new things although it has not any utility	,685	
Looking for prosperity and notoriety	,581	
Work all possible to though goals	,530	
<i>Factor 2: VALS2. Few interested makers</i>		
Interested in few things - not interested neither motivated		,745
Like to make or fix thing with my hands		,577
Eigenvalue	2,454	1,066
% of variance explained	30,630	13,37
Cumulative % of variance explained	30,630	44
<i>alpha</i> (scale reliability)	,695	,008
Scale mean-score	14,08	4,37

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The first factor *post-modern experience seeking* aggregate the items related to work, interest and trying new thing. The grouped items are “like to try new and different things”, “interest in theories and new technologies”, “like to learn new things although it has not any utility”, “looking for prosperity and notoriety”, “work all possible to though goals” and “reticence and lack of consensus to social changes”. Those items are describing a group of people more interested on learning and experiencing, which is very related to post-modern societies. The second factor *few interested makers* aggregate the two items explaining low interest though the item *interested in few things-not interested neither motivated* and makers more than consumers, though the item *like to make or fix thing with my hands*.

4.2.4. Proposed Model on the Cross-Border Annual Mobility Frequency

The dimensions extracted from the factor analysis were applied to measure the dependency of the mobility frequency of the population living in the cross-border area. To measure the significance of the analysis, a General Linear Model analysis was applied. A model explaining mobility frequency –within the last 12 month– of the inhabitants of the Basque Eurocity Corridor has been proposed through this SPSS Analysis.

The model measures the dependence of the variable measuring mobility frequency in the last year. A result explaining a 59% of the reality was obtained ($R^2= 0,590$). In the model, the more powerful variables were inserted. This work estimated a linear model to measure the effect of cross-border leisure participation type, motivation to cross-border participation, constraints to cross-border mobility and the values, attitudes and life styles (VALS) –just the first factor since the second was not consistent enough–, all of them based on the factor regressors and socioeconomic predictors, distance and the variables measuring the consideration of border and cross-border elements on the frequency of visits to the other side of the border (table 11). The fitted model explained about 60% ($R^2= 0,590$) of the existing variance (Adjusted $R^2=0,399$).

TABLE 11. TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Dependent Variable: Number of cross-border visits in the last 12 months – SMEAN (MobFreq Num)						
Source	Type IV Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	1,004E+06	220	4.565,28	3,093	,000	1,000
Intercept	374,334 ^c	1	374,33	,254	,615	,079
Distance	14.858,340 ^c	4	3.714,59	2,517 *	,041	,714
q22A_ValBord	5.078,36	2	2.539,18	1,720	,180	,361
q22B_ValCrBord	1.451,54	2	725,77	,492	,612	,131
q31_Age	35.599,71	6	5.933,28	4,020 **	,001	,974
q32_Gender	174,20	1	174,20	,118	,731	,064
q33_MarStat	14.654,942 ^c	5	2.930,99	1,986	,079	,668
q34_Educ	13.266,38	3	4.422,13	2,996 *	,030	,707
q35a_Job	7.800,47	5	1.560,09	1,057	,384	,379
q36_Income_1	59.470,500 ^c	9	6.607,83	4,477 **	,000	,998
FACMOT1_NewEx	1.814,53	1	1.814,53	1,229	,268	,198
FACMOT2_VFR	9.643,41	1	9.643,41	6,534 *	,011	,723
FACMOT3_Conf	36,30	1	36,30	,025	,875	,053
FACPART1_Ind	21.543,33	1	21.543,33	14,597 **	,000	,968
FACPART2_Outd	8.535,97	1	8.535,97	5,784 *	,017	,670
FACCONST1_Struc	1.160,89	1	1.160,89	,787	,376	,143
FACCONST2_Interp	13.066,85	1	13.066,85	8,853 **	,003	,844
FACCONST3_Intrap	1.210,73	1	1.210,73	,820	,366	,148
Distance * q31_Age	86.101,72	24	3.587,57	2,431 **	,000	,999
Distance * q32_Gender	12.381,05	4	3.095,26	2,097	,080	,623
Distance * q33_MarStat	71.084,63	19	3.741,30	2,535 **	,000	,998
Distance * q34_Educ	26.093,48	12	2.174,46	1,473	,130	,799
Distance * q35a_Job	49.028,34	20	2.451,42	1,661 *	,036	,960
Distance * q36_Income_1	128.427,32	30	4.280,91	2,901 **	,000	1,000
Distance * q22A_ValBord	42.642,43	8	5.330,30	3,612 **	,000	,985
Distance * q22B_ValCrBord	28.107,53	8	3.513,44	2,381 *	,016	,894
Distance * FACCONST1_Struc	16.008,96	4	4.002,24	2,712 *	,030	,751
FAC1_3VALS	32.472,57	1	32.472,57	22,002 **	,000	,997
Distance * FACMOT1_NewEx	8.106,22	4	2.026,56	1,373	,242	,429
Distance * FACPART1_Ind	29.226,35	4	7.306,59	4,951 **	,001	,961
Distance * FACPART2_Outd	7.652,71	4	1.913,18	1,296	,271	,406
Distance * FACCONST2_Interp	18.555,18	4	4.638,80	3,143 *	,014	,819
Distance * FACCONST3_Intrap	19.372,29	4	4.843,07	3,281 *	,011	,837
FACMOT1_NewEx * FACCONST2_Interp	504,85	1	504,85	,342	,559	,090
FACMOT1_NewEx * FACCONST1_Struc	232,09	1	232,09	,157	,692	,068
FACMOT1_NewEx * FACCONST3_Intrap	2.702,71	1	2.702,71	1,831	,177	,272
FACMOT2_VFR * FACCONST2_Interp	3.867,99	1	3.867,99	2,621	,106	,365
FACMOT2_VFR * FACCONST1_Struc	0,44	1	0,44	,000	,986	,050
FACMOT2_VFR * FACCONST3_Intrap	2.640,15	1	2.640,15	1,789	,182	,266
FACMOT3_Conf * FACCONST2_Interp	1.941,46	1	1.941,46	1,315	,252	,208
FACMOT3_Conf * FACCONST1_Struc	484,63	1	484,63	,328	,567	,088
FACMOT3_Conf * FACCONST3_Intrap	184,45	1	184,45	,125	,724	,064
FACPART1_Ind * FACCONST1_Struc	3.890,68	1	3.890,68	2,636	,105	,367
FACPART2_Outd * FACCONST1_Struc	96,15	1	96,15	,065	,799	,057
FACPART1_Ind * FACCONST2_Interp	1.572,79	1	1.572,79	1,066	,302	,178
FACPART2_Outd * FACCONST2_Interp	2.091,89	1	2.091,89	1,417	,234	,221
FACPART1_Ind * FACCONST3_Intrap	59,17	1	59,17	,040	,841	,055
FACPART2_Outd * FACCONST3_Intrap	662,95	1	662,95	,449	,503	,103
FACMOT1_NewEx * FACPART1_Ind	591,35	1	591,35	,401	,527	,097
FACMOT1_NewEx * FACPART2_Outd	12.664,55	1	12.664,55	8,581 **	,004	,832
FACMOT2_VFR * FACPART1_Ind	232,95	1	232,95	,158	,691	,068
FACMOT2_VFR * FACPART2_Outd	2.570,97	1	2.570,97	1,742	,188	,261
FACMOT3_Conf * FACPART1_Ind	25,41	1	25,41	,017	,896	,052
FACMOT3_Conf * FACPART2_Outd	3.901,65	1	3.901,65	2,644	,105	,368
Distance * FAC1_3VALS	44.360,41	4	11.090,10	7,514 **	,000	,997
Error	698.104,59	473	1.475,91			
Total	1,996E+06	694				
Corrected Total	1,702E+06	693				

a. R Squared = ,590 (Adjusted R Squared = ,399)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

c. The Type IV testable hypothesis is not unique.

Statistically significant at *<0'05 **<0'01

Factor Regressor Descriptors: Motivation Factors: FACMOT1_NewEx= Culture and new experience; FACMOT2_VFR= Visiting Friends and Relatives; FACMOT3_Conf= Calm and Comfort. Constraint Factors: FACCONST1_Struc= Structural Constraints; FACCONST2_Interp = Interpersonal Constraints; FACCONST3_Intrap = Intrapersonal Constraint. Cross-border Participation Factors: FACPART1_Ind = Indoor Consumption; FACPART2_Outd = Soft Outdoor Consumption. Values, Attitudes and Life Styles Factors: FAC1_3VALS = Post-modern experience; FAC2_3VALSS = Few interested makers.

The analysis-of-covariance (ANCOVA) showed that, Age (*q31_Age*) and Income (*q36_Income_I*), and the regressor factors and participation in Indoor activities (*FACPART1_Ind*) and the interpersonal constraints (*FACCONST2_Interp*) are statistically significant at $<0,01$ (F value of 4,020, 4,477, 14,597 and 8,853 respectively; all significant at $\alpha=0,01$ level). The variables distance from home to border (*Distance*), Education (*q34_Educ*), and the factor regressor motivation of Visiting Friends and Relatives (*FACMOT2_VFR*), outdoor participation (*FACPART2_Outd*), are also statistically significant at 0,05 level (F value of 2,517; 2,996; 6,534 and 5,784 respectively; all significant at $\alpha=0,05$ level).

From this analysis, the fifth hypothesis (*H₅*) *Socio-demographic characteristic affects to the leisure related cross-border mobility frequency* could be confirmed, as the model shows that all the socio-demographic characteristics with the exception of gender and marital status are statistically significant in the model explaining cross border frequency.

In the same way, the hypothesis of constraints (*H₉*) *Constraints affect negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency* it is partly confirmed, as the model shows that, from the factor regressors of constraints, only the interpersonal constraints is statistically significant. This finding links to the second sub-hypothesis, (*H_{9b}*) *Interpersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency*, which it is confirmed, as Parameter Estimates table shows that the tendency is negative ($t=-0,590$).

Oppositely, the proposed other sub-hypothesis of constraints (*H_{9a}*) *Structural constraints affects negatively and more strongly to the cross-border mobility frequency* and (*H_{9c}*) *Intrapersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency*, has not been confirmed. This finding goes against all the initial perception, since from the beginning, it has been considered that structural constraints would mainly affect the cross-border mobility frequency.

In the same way than in constraints, the hypothesis on motivation (*H₇*) *Motivations affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency*, has been partly confirmed, since from the obtained three factor regressors the factor *Visiting Friends and Relatives* (*FACMOT2_VFR*), is the only motivation affecting in a statistically significantly way to the cross-border mobility

frequency. Regarding to the effect that the factor has in the mobility frequency, the Parameter Estimates shows that the tendency of the mobility is positive ($t=2,556$).

From this analysis, the eighth hypothesis (H_8) *Cross-border leisure participation type affects to the cross-border mobility frequency* can be confirmed. This hypothesis is confirmed, but it has been further identified that while the *Indoor Participation (FACPART1_Ind)* affect in a positive way to cross-border mobility ($t=1,256$), *Outdoor participation (FACTPART2_Outd)* affect negatively ($t=-0,059$). This is not rare, since Indoor Participation as Shopping can be done during the year, with not or less affection of the weather, while Outdoor participation could be more important in spring, summer time.

In the case of distance, the obtained parameter estimates⁵ shows that distance is statistically significant when ≤ 3 km, and the tendency in this case, is positive ($t=2,362$), where in longer distances the effect tendency is negative. This way, it can be said that the shorter distance between home and border shows a positive tendency to the mobility frequency. That is to say, people living closer shows a higher cross-border mobility frequently. In this case, the stated sixth hypothesis (H_6) *Distance -from home to border- impact negatively in the cross-border mobility frequency* can be confirmed, as the analysis shows that the positive effect or tendency when distance is ≤ 3 km while in longer distances the opposite happens. Hence, the tendency to cross the border decreases when the further is the border.

The rest of the variables and factor regressor does not have significant effect on the dependent variable annual mobility frequency. Thus, the tenth hypothesis H_{10} . *VALS affects either positively or negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency* and eleventh hypothesis H_{11} . *The attitude or perception behind Border and Cross-border affects the cross-border mobility* and therefore the two sub-hypotheses H_{11a} . *Border attitude/perception affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency*; H_{11b} . *Cross-Border attitude/perception affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency* has not been confirmed, as the model shows that either of both dimensions are not statistically significant in the model explaining cross-border mobility frequency.

⁵ See Appendix 4. GLM, Parameter Estimates.

The not confirmed hypothesis will be reanalysed when interacts with other variables or factors, due to the results of the Parameter Estimates, which shows a statistically significant effects of those variables or regressor factors that were not *a priori* affecting the mobility. However, through the proposed interaction of the factor regressor with the variables and with the other factor regressors, other statistically significant interactions were found for the mobility frequency. For example, although the variable of *distance* is not the most significant variable in the model, and therefore, impacting in the cross-border mobility, it has been found out that the interaction of distance with other variables is significant in most of the cases.

For example, in the case of age and distance (*Distance * q31_Age*), the interaction is statistically significant (F value= 2.431; p=0,000). In this case the parameter estimates shows that, in terms of age group and distance from home to border, on the is significant when the distance is =3km, and the age is 16-24 (p=0,003) and when the age rate is 25-34 (p=0,02). When the distance is =9km, the significant parameter in the interaction is when the age range is 35-44 years old (p=0,037) and when the range is 55-64 (p=0,049). All the significant interactions show a negative tendency, except in the mentioned last interaction (t=-3,009; =-2,333; =-2,096; and =1,965 respectively). This way, the mobility frequency shows an increasing tendency in the population between 55-64 living in an average distance from home to border of 9km (F value=2,242 1,965).

The interaction of marital status and distance (*Distance * q33_MarStat*) it is also statistically significant (F value= 2,535; p=0,000). In this case, the parameter estimation shows that the statistically significant interaction occurs when the distance is =3km and the marital status is divorced (=4) (p=0,004). The interaction is also statistically significant in the cases where the distance is =3km and marital status is married (=2) and when they have a partner (=3) (p=0,006 and p=0,042 respectively) and also when distance is =9km and marital status is divorced (=4) (p=0,023). In all this cases, the tendency is negative to cross-border mobility frequency.

In the same way, the interaction between distance and income (*Distance * q36_Income_1*) it is statistically significant at alpha=0,01 level (F value= 2,901). In the case of this interaction, the parameter estimation shows statistically significant relation, when the distance is =9km, and income is <300€; 6001€-900€; 901€-1200€ and 3001€-6000€ (significant at alpha=0,01

level). In all the cases, the tendency that this interaction shows is positive to the cross-border mobility.

The interaction of distance with job (*Distance * q35a_Job*) is also significant, but in lower level, comparing with the rest of socio-demographic descriptors (F value= 1,661; p=0,036). Those findings reinforce the fifth hypothesis on the effect of socio-demographic variables in the cross-border mobility frequency.

In the case of the interaction of distance and gender (*Distance * q32_Gender*), although the interaction is not significant (p=0,08), the parameter estimates shows a significant interaction when gender is male (=1) and distance is =3km (t= -2,242; p=0,025). Therefore, the mobility frequency decreases when males are living in short distances.

In reference with the rest of the variables introduced in the model, it is identify significant the relation between distance, with the valuation of both, border (*Distance * q22A_ValBord*) and cross-border (*Distance * q22B_ValCrBord*). The relation between distance and border it is statistically significant at alpha=0,01 level (F value=3,612), while the interaction of distance and valuation of the cross-border is significant at alpha=0.05 level (F value= 2.381). The tendency shown by the interactions is not very clear, since in all the cases the interaction is statistically significant when the valuation is neutral (=2), and the distance 3km or 9km.

In that sense, eleventh sub-hypothesis: *H_{11a}. Border attitude/perception affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency; H_{11b}. Cross-Border attitude/perception affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency* are not confirmed, as it has not been possible to find any positive or negative effect. A significant interaction has been identify just when the perception of both, border and cross-border is neutral, therefore, it is not possible to establish any positive or negative interaction.

It is also significant in the distance interacts with indoor participation (*Distance * FACPART1_Ind*) (F value= 4,951; p=0,001), again, the interaction is significant when the distance is =3km (t=3,417; p=0,001) and shows a positive tendency to mobility. Other significant interaction at alpha=0,01 level (F value= 7,514) is between distance and the regresor factor of values and life styles (*Distance * FACI_3VALS*), with a positive effect on mobility when distance is =9km (t=4,629). Therefore, it can be said that the tendency is

positive to mobility in short distance to those who are innovative and postmodernists and those who are participating in indoor activities. Another statistically significant supporting the impact on activity type in the mobility frequency is shown through the interaction of the motivation of having new experiences and outdoor participation (*FACMOT1_NewEx * FACPART2_Outd*) (F value = 8,581; p= 0,004). However, in this case, the tendency is negative (t=-2,929).

The last statistically significant interaction of distance with the other variables and regressor factors are the interactions of distance and constraints, in all the cases. It is particularly interesting the results of the interactions between distance and the regressor factors of constraints, since, although the results shown interpersonal constraints as the unique constraint factor affecting significantly the mobility frequency, when constraints interacts with distance, all of them are significant. The interaction of distance and structural constraints (*Distance * FACCONST1_Struc*) is significant at alpha 0,05 level, while intrapersonal constraints (*Distance * FACCONST3_Intrap*) and interpersonal constraints (*Distance * FACCONST2_Interp*) are significant at alpha 0,01 level, (F value =2,712; F value= 3,281; F value=3,143 respectively).

In the case of the interaction between distance and constraints, the parameter estimation shows that the interaction is statistically significant when the distance =14 km interacts with the structural constraints (p=0,044; t=-2,022) and in the interactions of distance = 9km with both, interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints factor regressor (p=0,003; t=3,013 and p=0,002; t=3,129 respectively). It is interesting the t value in those cases, since *a priori* it was considered that any kind of constraints would affect negatively, but it was believed that, in the case of mobility frequency, structural constraints would have major negative effect than the other type of constraints.

The parameter estimates shows that in the case of the interaction between distance and constraints, the tendency is negative in the case of structural constraints and 14km distance. Thus, it is possible to say that in both, short and long distances the structural constraints are not affecting negatively, which can be because in short distances it is easy to move to the other side, and in long distances it is not a perception of lack of communication, probably because there is not any tendency of moving in other way that is not taking the car. However,

in medium distances, where it is the perception of having the border very close, it but takes very long to go from one side of the other.

Thought this findings the hypothesis on constraints (H_{9a}) *Structural constraints affects negatively and more strongly to the cross-border mobility frequency* and (H_{9c}) *Intrapersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency*, has been redefined, as although the model has not shown structural and intrapersonal constraints as significant in the analysis of mobility frequency, the interaction of those constraints factors with distance shows that structural constraints affects negatively ($t=-2,022$) when the distance is =14km, which could be because of the lack of proper access to information and transport means in the territories which are nearest, while in medium distances, although it is still considered a place which is near home, the access is not so easy, or it is perceived as more difficult. However, those people living further from the border do not fill their mobility possibilities as a structurally constrained.

The observed power (reported in the last column of the table 11) is close to 1.000 for the significant variables. This value indicates that the probability the F statistic will detect differences between-subject effect equal to those implied by the model will occur every time with a sample of size.

To further understand the effect at each level of gender, age, marital status, higher academic degree and the job status marginal means of cross-border mobility frequency (dependent variable) and plots of these associations were estimated. The estimated marginal means obtained from the analysis are the predicted cell means from the model. The profile plot shows whether the estimated marginal means interacts across levels. Each point of the line plot indicates the estimated marginal mean of the dependent variable –number of visits to the other side of the border– at one level of the socioeconomic factor or predictor when the covariate is at its mean value.

The analysis of the marginal means shows that there is interaction of male and female, in terms of distance and annual mobility frequency. The obtained plot shows that generally speaking, the cross-border mobility frequency is higher when the distance is shorter, and the mobility frequency decreases considerably from 9km to 14 km. In short distances (3km) the

estimated mobility is higher on females, while the mobility of males is higher when the distance is 9 km. Despite of the decrease in 14km, the male’s mobility is generally higher in mobility frequency. In the case of females, the mobility frequency shows a constant decreasing pattern from the beginning, with the exception of the increase when distance is 14km.

To better understand the relation of the statistically significant interaction between the variables and regresor factors in the model, besides the inserted and just analysed box plot, the parameter estimated in each interaction has been also taking into account to see which interactions are most significant in each case.

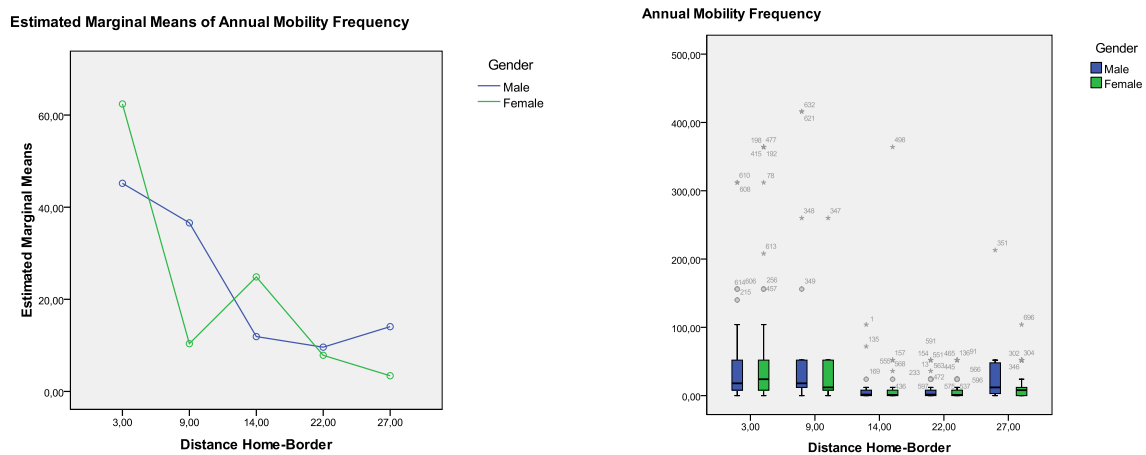


FIGURE 42. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND GENDER IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

The generally lower mobility of woman (see Figure 42) it is because of the lower access to leisure time that constraint researches have demonstrated several times (Jackson and Scott, 1999; Freysinger, 1999). Researches on leisure constraints has find that females are more constrained than males, which in the case of the present research, it can be the reason of a lower mobility frequency.

Regarding of the Estimated Marginal Means obtained from the interaction of age and distance from home to border in terms of *cross-border mobility frequency*, it is possible to say that there is an interaction between the different age groups. Generally speaking, a general decreasing pattern is identifying in terms of distance, since the mobility frequency is lower in long distances than in short distances.

In the analysis of the groups of people, the groups representing younger people are characterised by a general low cross border mobility (see Figure 43). In short distances, the estimated marginal mean is higher in older ages (>65 when distance =3km and 55-64 when distance = 9km), and decreases in longer distances. The pattern of the youth and adult (<16; 16-24 and 25-34 year old) is considerably different from the rest of the groups, since although there are some increases and decreases, the mobility pattern is constantly low. It is not surprisingly that the Estimated Marginal Means decreases from the distance of 3km to 9km in the ages between 25-34 and 35-44 and in older people of more than 65 years old, which could be explained because the mobility can be constrained due to the less capacity to move in longer distances in the case of older people, or due to the family characteristics of having young children, in the case of youths and adults.

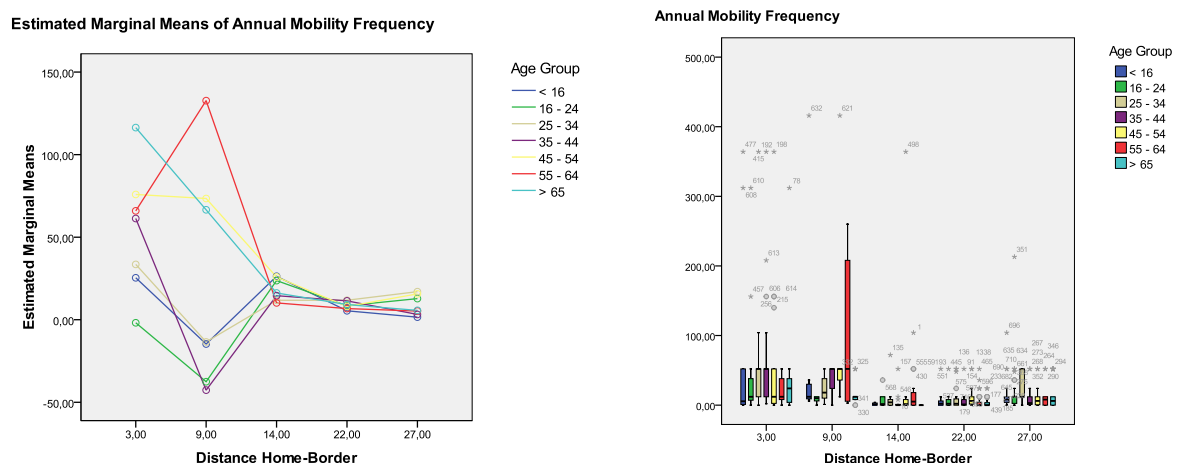


FIGURE 43. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND AGE IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

In the case of the Estimated Marginal Means of Annual mobility Frequency obtained through the combination of Marital Status and distance, there is a decreasing general pattern, and in some cases, an initial U shape can appreciate in the case of the single or divorced people (see Figure 44). From the distances between 3km and 14km, the pattern is a constant decrease in the case of people without partner –even window, single or separate–. The mobility increases from 3km to 9km in the case of coupled people –with partner or married– and a in the case of divorced. A U shape is identified, different from the rest of groups in the case of window people, with a higher mobility in short distances, a big decrease when the distance 14km and with a constant increase from 14km to 27km, with a higher estimated mobility in further

distances (27km). The differences could be related to the facilities in the access across the lifespan (Freysinger, 1999).

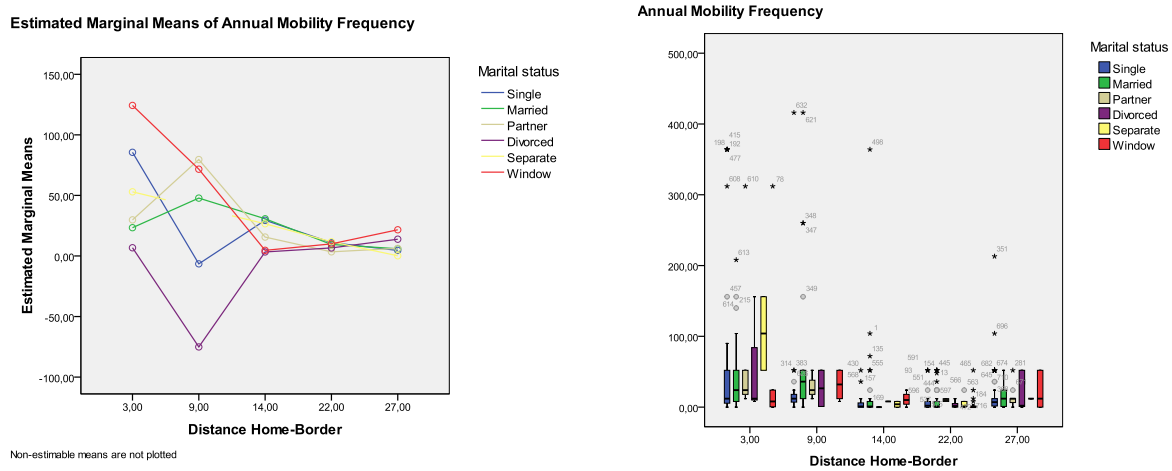


FIGURE 44. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND MARITAL STATUS IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

In the case of the Estimated Marginal means of Annual Mobility Frequency in reference of distance and the higher academic degree obtained, the estimated marginal means of mobility when the distance is lower and higher between home and border is low in the case of the population who are less educated –in terms of degree. That is to say, when they are illiterate or the higher degree obtained is the primary school.

People with higher academic degrees (secondary school and University degree) show higher mobile pattern in the cross-border area (see Figure 45). Those with university degree are showing the highest mobility when the distance is =3km, and when the distance is =9km, the group who has obtained the degree of secondary school and the university degree are showing the higher mobility. In longer distances, again, those who had more studies are showing higher cross-border mobile pattern.

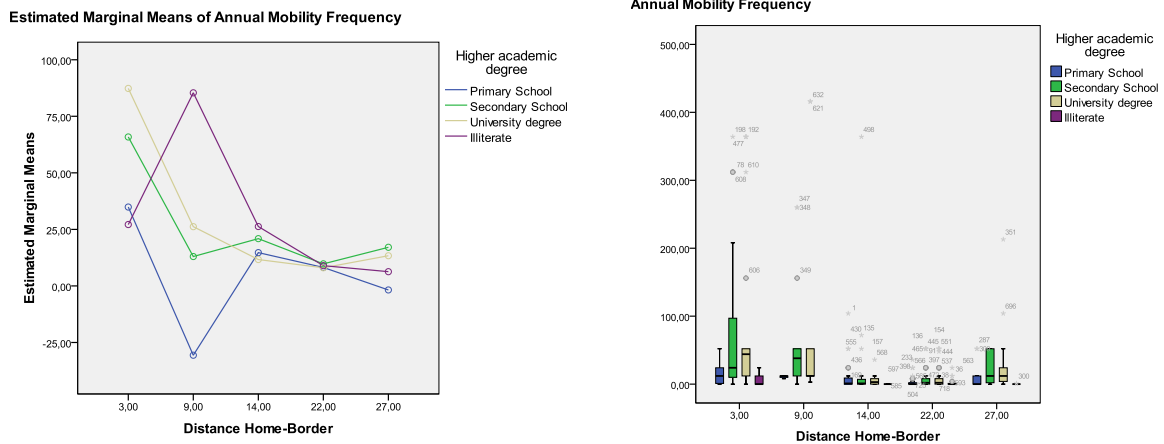


FIGURE 45. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND EDUCATION IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

The Estimated Marginal Means of Annual Mobility Frequency regarding to the Job status and distance between home and border, it is possible to appreciate, as in the case of the other analysed variables inserted on the model, mobility pattern is decreasing, while the distance is increasing (see Figure 46). In reference of the interaction between the groups regarding their job status, the students are more mobile in general while the group of entrepreneur, autonomous and cooperatives are generally less mobile, although in the larger distance (27km) is the more mobile group behind the students.

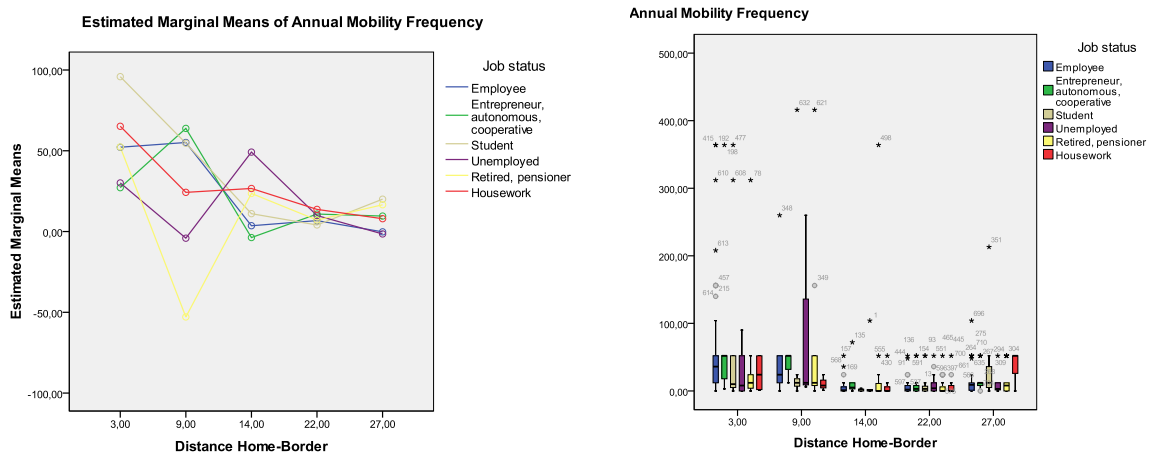


FIGURE 46. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND JOB IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

In relation to income, it is possible to see that, again, the mobility is higher in shorter distances, specially in the cases with monthly incomes between 601€-900€ and 1.501€-2.000€ when distance is =3km and with incomes between 2.001€-2.005 and 3.300€-6.000€ when distance is =9km. The Marginal Estimated Means plot shows a decreasing general pattern from distances up to 14 km.

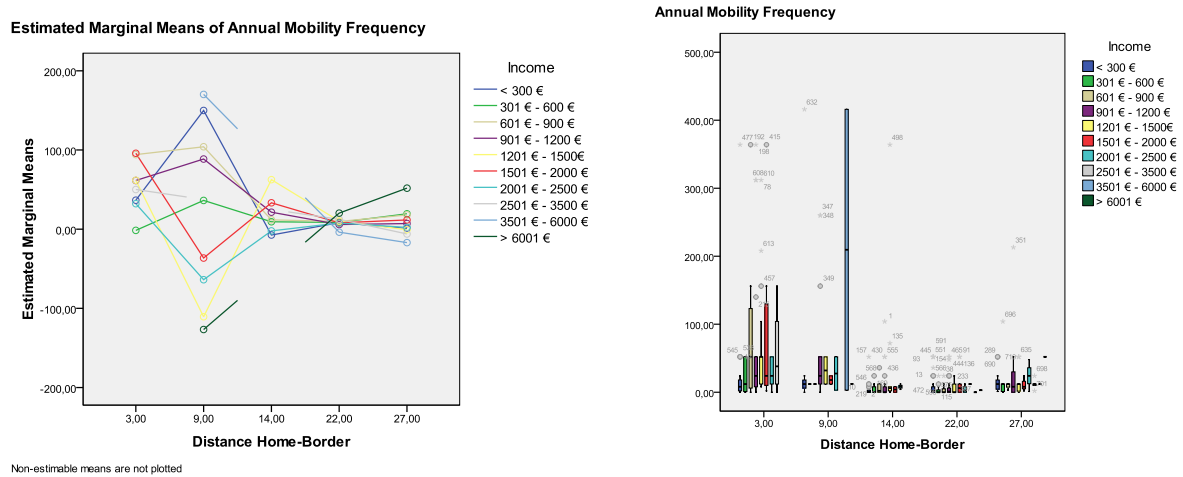


FIGURE 47. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND INCOME IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

In the analysis place attributes have also been inserted. Related to the perception or valuation of the Border and Cross-border elements, the Estimated Marginal Means obtained in the analysis shows that the mobility is higher in those cases where border is considered as negative or neither positive nor negative, while the mobility is lower in the cases which has considered border as positive (see Figure 48). The difference between the mobility frequency among those who considers the border as positive and those who has the opposite perception is especially important in shorter distances.

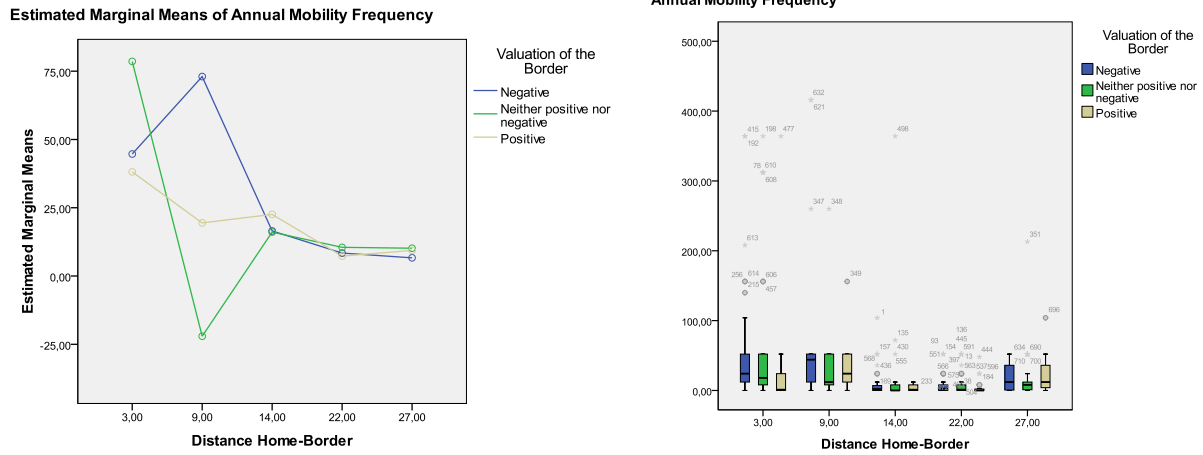


FIGURE 48. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND BORDER PERCEPTION IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

In the case of the relation among the perception of the Cross-border element and mobility, the Estimated Marginal Means shows a similar pattern in those who perceived or valuated border either negative or positive. However, the box plot graphs shows that in all the cases, the mean of the mobility frequency is higher in those who consider the Cross-border as positive. The difference between mobility frequency among those who considers the border as positive and those who has the opposite perception is especially important in shorter distances.

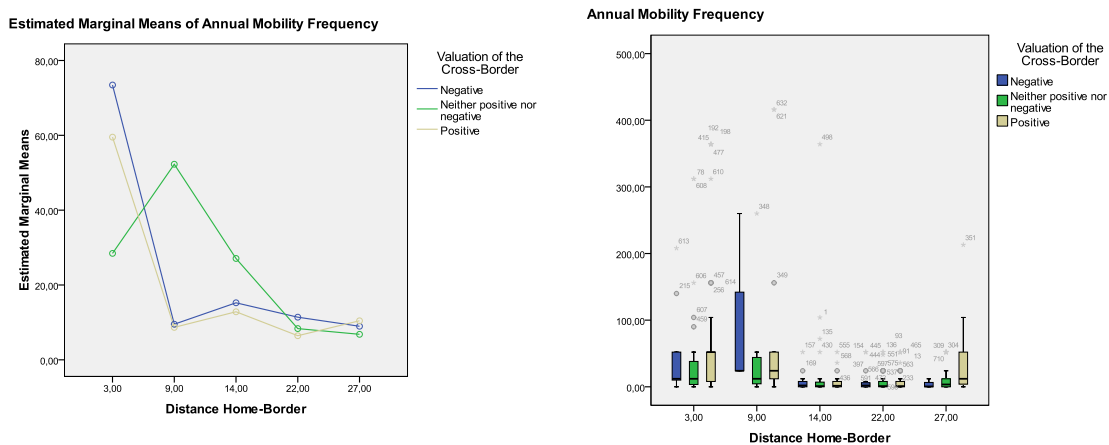


FIGURE 49. INTERACTION OF DISTANCE AND CROSS-BORDER PERCEPTION IN TERMS OF CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY FREQUENCY

Through this analysis, the following model was obtained.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Model: } & \text{Intercept} + \text{Distance} + \text{q22A_ValBord} + \text{q22B_ValCrBord} + \text{q31_Age} + \\
 & \text{q32_Gender} + \text{q33_MarStat} + \text{q34_Educ} + \text{q35a_Job} + \text{q36_Income_1} + \\
 & \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} + \text{FACMOT2_VFR} + \text{FACMOT3_Conf} + \text{FACPART1_Ind} \\
 & + \text{FACPART2_Outd} + \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \\
 & \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \text{Distance} * \text{q31_Age} + \text{Distance} * \text{q32_Gender} + \text{Distance} \\
 & * \text{q33_MarStat} + \text{Distance} * \text{q34_Educ} + \text{Distance} * \text{q35a_Job} + \text{Distance} * \\
 & \text{q36_Income_1} + \text{Distance} * \text{q22A_ValBord} + \text{Distance} * \text{q22B_ValCrBord} + \\
 & \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FAC1_3VALS} + \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} + \text{FACPART1_Ind} \\
 & + \text{FACPART2_Outd} + \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \\
 & \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} * \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} * \\
 & \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} * \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \\
 & \text{FACMOT2_VFR} * \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \text{FACMOT2_VFR} * \\
 & \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACMOT2_VFR} * \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \\
 & \text{FACMOT3_Conf} * \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \text{FACMOT3_Conf} * \\
 & \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACMOT3_Conf} * \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \\
 & \text{FACPART1_Ind} * \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACPART2_Outd} * \\
 & \text{FACCONST1_Struc} + \text{FACPART1_Ind} * \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \\
 & \text{FACPART2_Outd} * \text{FACCONST2_Interp} + \text{FACPART1_Ind} * \\
 & \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \text{FACPART2_Outd} * \text{FACCONST3_Intrap} + \\
 & \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} * \text{FACPART1_Ind} + \text{FACMOT1_NewEx} * \\
 & \text{FACPART2_Outd} + \text{FACMOT2_VFR} * \text{FACPART1_Ind} + \text{FACMOT2_VFR} * \\
 & \text{FACPART2_Outd} + \text{FACMOT3_Conf} * \text{FACPART1_Ind} + \text{FACMOT3_Conf} * \\
 & \text{FACPART2_Outd} + \text{FAC1_3VALS}
 \end{aligned}$$

The relation found in the model has also been presented in the diagram “Cross-Border Mobility Model” in which the confirmed hypotheses is presented. As it can be appreciated, the confirmed hypotheses are drawn by a grey arrow which shows the direct effect of the factor (and/or item) to the cross-border mobility in leisure time. The direction of the arrow shows that the factor affects in the mobility, and the symbol (positive “+” or negative “-”) whether that element is affecting.

The intermittent arrow shows also a significant tendency, but in this case, the tendency is not direct as in the case presented by the other arrows. The intermittent arrows have been drawn because those elements/factors were affecting significantly in the cross-border mobility where they were interacting with other elements/factors. Therefore, the direction of the intermittent lines and arrows shows directs the interaction and the nature of the effect (see Figure 50).

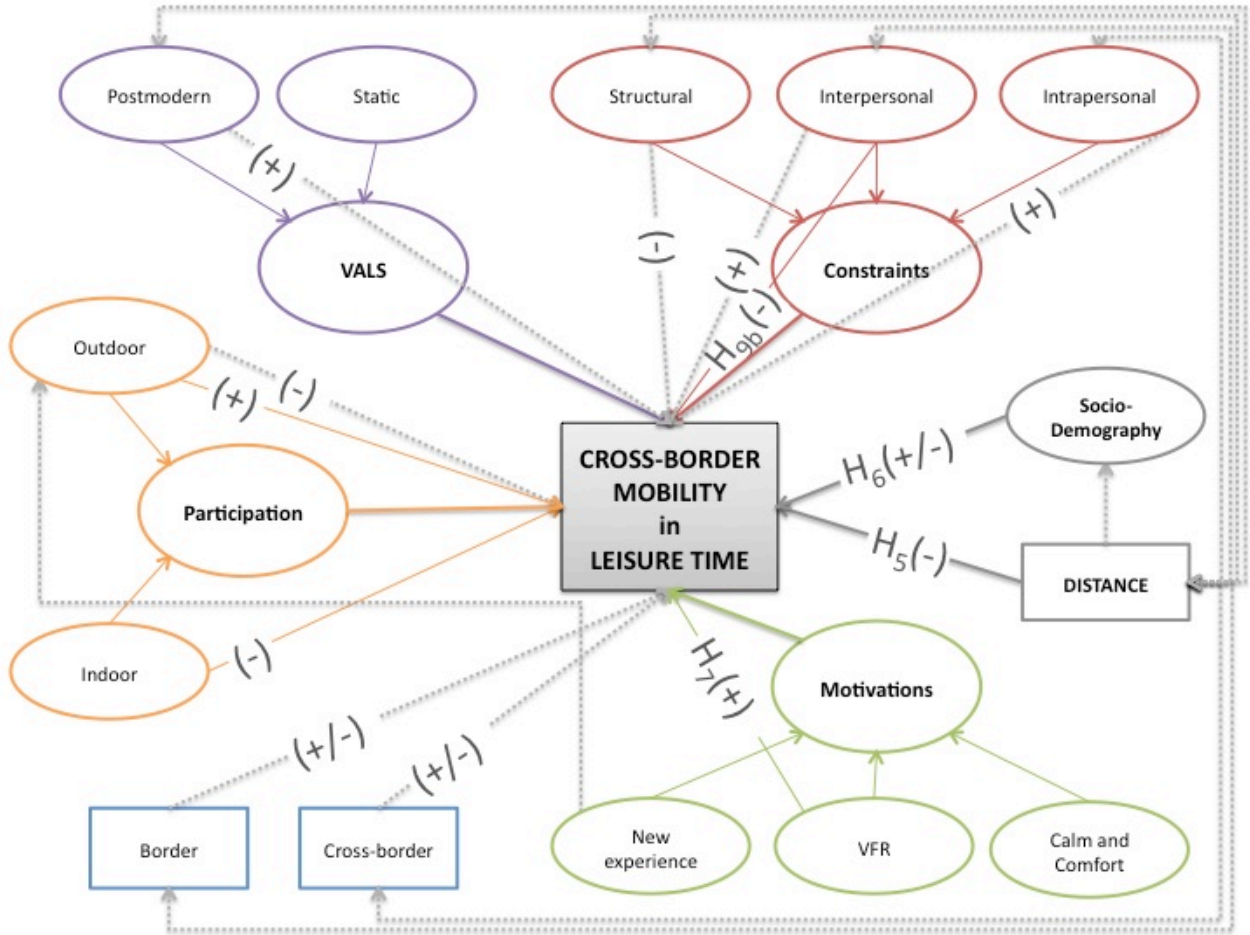


FIGURE 50. CROSS-BORDER MOBILITY MODEL

4.2.5. Summary of the quantitative analysis

The results obtained from the quantitative analysis show the mobility in the area is a very important reality, involving to the 95,2% of the population, which support the our and experts' first perception. The descriptive analysis applied to the data highlighted that the most visited geographic areas where the bigger cities and the territories closer to the city. This indicates that the reason behind mobility and the motivation could be different, depending on the direction of the flow and the visiting territory. Therefore, the applicability cluster analysis was considered interesting, as it could help to identify mobility patterns in the area.

Four groups were obtained from the cluster analysis were distinguished mainly by (1) their nationality, (2) attitude behind border, (3) leisure participation (4) some of the VALS items, and (5) the socio-demographic characteristics –all except gender. With this analysis, the general patterns in the area were highlighted, characterising each group using descriptive analysis. Similarly, the fist and one of the main objectives of identifying mobility patterns was achieved.

The second main objective was the identification of mobility constraints, and contrast the obtained finding with the widely used model of Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1992) *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*. In this case, the perception of the possible classification of the constraint items in three factors was confirmed, classifying constraints in (1) Intrapersonal, (2) Interpersonal, and (3) Structural constraints.

The factor analysis applied to the constraints items to aggregation and classify the data was also applied to the items measuring cross-border participation, motivations and VALS, to prepare the data for the third main objective: the identification of an empirical model on Cross-Border Mobility. For that purpose, the analysis-of-covariance (ANCOVA) was applied to the variables measuring distance between home and border, attitudes behind border and cross-border and socio-demographic information and to the regresor factors of motivations, cross-border participation, constraints and VALS.

The obtained results showed that, age and income, and the regressor factors and participation in Indoor activities and the interpersonal constraints are statistically significant at <0.01 while the variables distance from home to border, Education, and the factor regressor motivation of *Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)* and *Outdoor Participation* are statistically significant at 0.05 level. It was also found that distance from home to border is very significant for the cross-border mobility, since although the significance was lower than in the cases firstly mentioned, its interaction with the factors, specially the structural constraints and indoor participation showed a high significance.

4.3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION OF THE OBTAINED RESULTS

The first approach made through the analysis of the interviews was the starting point of the study. It was believed that this first approach was necessary, since this area has not been very studied, and therefore, it was impossible to get a strong basis for the study. From the beginning of the study, it was the perception that the border could limit mobility, as the literature review shows that the border areas stated that border could act as a constraint (Timothy, 2001). Both this general statement was not supported by the authors studying the area of has stated that border has never been a barrier to the citizens' mobility (Letamendia, cited in Ahedo, Etxebarria and Letamendia, 2004). Furthermore, the European policies are enhancing mobility. This controversy draw the need of studying mobility tendencies, but taking into account the effect of any possible constraints.

In terms of the studied area, there was a lack of empirical studies in the area. In terms of the scientific approach driving the study, the theoretical and empirical evidences of researches merging the new mobilities paradigm (NMP) theories with constraints theories were also hardly found. Moreover, NMP is a new approach that is being theorised widely, but few evidences are based on empirical methods. The innovative character of the theoretical and methodological approach constitutes, therefore, a challenge from the beginning of the study.

The data obtained from both techniques helps to identify the mobility reasons in the area. The main reason making people cross the border is leisure, and in leisure, there is a clear tendency to consume indoor and outdoor activities. Regarding to the constraints, our finding from the

interviews and the questionnaire contrast to the statement of Letamendia (Ahedo, Etxebarria and Letamendia, 2004) because it was identify that people perceive different types of constraints in the area, which are related to the border –directly or indirectly– in some cases.

A further quantitative analysis helped to identify the mobility styles in the area, the aggregation and reduction of constraints in three factors, but also it make possible to create a model explaining the dependent nature of cross-border mobility. In the same way, the data analysis also helped to confirm or neglect the postulated hypothesis. In some cases, the hypothesis has been part confirmed, as the internal reliability of the measured item was diverse. See below the summary of the confirmed, not confirmed and partly confirmed hypothesis.

Confirmed hypotheses

H₁. Different Internal and External factors could create different Mobility Styles and Travel Behaviour

H_{1a}. Internal Characteristics defines mobility style

H_{1c}. Leisure orientations are important in the definition of groups

H_{1d}. Nationality is significant defining groups

H₃ Constraint to mobility can be classified in three different factors

H_{3a}. Structural constraint factor is significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints

H_{3b}. Interpersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints

H_{3c}. Intrapersonal constraint factor is not significant explaining the variance of cross-border mobility constraints

H₄. Mobility frequency is dependent of the effect of a large scale of variables and factors.

H₅. Socio-demographic characteristic affects to the leisure related cross-border mobility frequency

H₆. Distance -from home to border- impact negatively in the cross-border mobility frequency

H_{9b}. Interpersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency

H₈. Cross-border leisure participation type affects to the cross-border mobility frequency

Partly confirmed hypotheses

H_{1b}. Values and Life Styles are important in the definition of groups

H₇. Motivations affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency

H₉. Constraints affect negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency

Not confirmed hypotheses

H_{9a}. Structural constraints affects negatively and more strongly to the cross-border mobility frequency

H_{9c}. Intrapersonal constraints affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency,

H₁₀. VALS affects either positively or negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency

H₁₁. The attitude or perception behind Border and Cross-border affects the cross-border mobility

H_{11a}. Border perception affects negatively to the cross-border mobility frequency;

H_{11b}. Cross-Border perception affects positively to the cross-border mobility frequency

To better identify the nature of cross-border mobility and the factors affecting to the mobility frequency, the previously presented figure is presented. This figure constitutes one of the mayor findings of the study, as it explains the dependent nature of cross-border mobility in leisure time. The factors affecting mobility and the way in which those factors are affecting cross-border mobility frequency are presented (see Figure 50).

Finally, further conclusions and the implications of the study are presented in the following section (section 5, Implications and Conclusions).

5. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The major objective of this thesis was to identify and explain the links between different aspects of leisure related mobility in cross-border areas, and thereby enhance the understanding of mobility behaviour as an integrated process. At the same time, and due to the exploration of the links between personal and contextual aspects related to mobility, the knowledge about specific aspects of leisure constraints and mobility has been advanced, with dichotomous results.

The findings are highlighted in the first two parts of the section and will be directly related to the scientific areas of leisure and tourism constraints and mobility, following the structure of the literature review. The first subsection will explain the findings and conclusions related to the literature review, while the second section will focus more on the methodological aspects of the study.

The conclusions obtained will also help to draw some implications for policy makers, providing recommendations to them based on the conclusions obtained from the resulting analysis. In this last part, the study wanted to go beyond the literature and methodology related theoretical discussions, because the Basque-Eurocity Euroregion project is based on a political initiative, and the initiative behind the realisation of this doctoral thesis is based on a policy related institution. The fourth subsection will give practical implications that focus on future research directions in constraints and mobility research.

5.1. EXTENSION OF THE KNOWLEDGE IN SPECIFIC AREAS OF LEISURE MOBILITY AND CONSTRAINTS

This doctoral thesis has contributed to an increase in the understanding of the areas related to leisure, tourism and mobility through the study of human mobility patterns in cross-border areas. In that sense, the study has contributed to the following specific areas: (1) Mobility styles in cross-border areas; (2) Leisure motivation behind cross-border mobility; (3) Leisure participation in cross-border areas; and (4) Constraints to cross-border leisure. Furthermore, the analysis applied to those specific areas has helped in the development of an empirical model that aids in understanding cross-border mobility frequency.

First, measured items were used to identify different mobility styles by means of cluster analysis, which was based on a database of 642 cases obtained from the factor analysis applied to constraint items. Second, the data were aggregated and classified by means of factor analysis, which was applied –after the initial one applied to constraints– to the items measuring motivations or benefits sought behind leisure cross-border mobility; to the items measuring leisure participation in cross-border areas; to the items measuring values, attitudes and lifestyles; and finally, to the items measuring cross-border and border valuation. With the factor regressors saved from the analysis, the third analysis was applied. The third and last analysis was the General Linear Model (GLM), used to measure the effect of the obtained factor regressors and socio-demographic variables on the dependent categorical variable--the frequency of cross-border mobility during the last 12 months.

An important feature of this study, and what distinguishes it from previous research, is the combination of leisure and tourism theories on constraints and the new mobilities paradigm (NMP), used to try to find leisure mobility styles in the cross-border area and also to identify the factors and elements that affect or explain cross-border mobility frequency in the area.

5.1.1. Mobility styles in cross-border areas

The identification of the existing mobility styles in the cross-border area of the Basque Eurocity corridor was one of the mayor goals of this study. The analysis has highlighted four different mobility patterns based on four groups of populations showing similar motivations, cross-border leisure participation styles and even similar values, attitudes and lifestyles.

Different behaviours and groups are identified in marketing research, with the aim of identifying and segmenting different consumer groups, and consequently, finding out the best product for each of them. This process of identifying and segmenting the population has been used for tourism purposes, since identifying potential tourism groups enables the creation of the best offer to tourists, and to even attract potential tourists.

From a more theoretical perspective, this doctoral thesis is based on Lazendorf (2000), who has applied cluster and factor analyses to identify different mobility styles and travel behaviour from mobility and leisure orientations. This study wishes to go beyond and see how

this methodology works in the classification of population subgroups in terms of leisure orientations, but based on cross-border mobility.

This part of the study contributes to the understanding of leisure orientations and mobility behaviour in cross-border areas by providing a complex outlook of the different socio-demographic characteristics, personalities, motivations and leisure orientations of the inhabitants in cross-border areas. In this orientation, the importance of nationality in the identification of different leisure patterns has been identified, which sustains our first thought of differences in motivation and in participation of the people going from one side of the border to the other: the French are more oriented towards shopping, and Spanish motivation is related to relaxation and outdoor experiences. Similarly, socio-demographic characteristics have also been significant in the definition of clusters, which confirms the statement of leisure and constraints theorists (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey, 1993; Nadirova, 2000) who describe the impact of socio-demographic variations drawing different leisure patterns.

5.1.2. Leisure Orientations behind Cross-border Mobility

Leisure motivation and benefits sought have been widely studied by both leisure and tourism researchers. The most important features of this study are: (1) the identification of such motivations in the cross-border areas, and (2) the identification of the motivations applied to a mobile context.

The works on the Basque Eurocity area (Ahedo, Etxebarria and Letamendia 2004) state that mobility has always been economy related. However, and although mobility has somehow been analysed in those studies, there is no empirical evidence of that. Those studies are more focussed on the historical analyses, which have been used, in combination with the general European tendencies and the overview of European projects, to provide current cross-border interaction perspectives. However, those interactions are more focussed towards identifying the possible consequences to the cross-border areas' citizens. In the same way, the identification of the flows has been considered important in other studies wishing to find out the answer to the problems behind transportation.

The leisure orientations in the cross-border areas have hardly been analysed. Leisure has been used as a simple explanation of the flows of some people living in the area. However, the leisure orientations themselves have never been identified.

The present study has classified the motivation and participation behind cross-border mobility. First of all, and related to motivations behind cross-border mobility, the study has identified three main motivations: *culture and new experiences*, *visiting friends and relatives (VFR)* and *Calm and comfort*. This way, in some cases, the motivation is based in an existing relationship, with someone living or staying on the other side of the border –in the case of visiting friends and relatives for example– while in other cases the main motivation is the search for a benefit that the other side of the border can provide. In some cases, the benefits sought are a search for new experiences or contact with a different culture, and other times the reason is just the opposite: the search for calm. Thus, it can be said that the search for something that the other side of the border can provide to the citizens is affecting motivations. For this classification, then, it seems that the differences between the two nations is having a positive effect.

Secondly, and regarding leisure participation of the cross-border area inhabitants, two main factors were identified from the eight leisure items on the questionnaire. Those factors were identified as *indoor consumption* and *soft outdoor consumption*. Indoor consumption is grouping the activities practiced or consumed inside a building or closed area, as for example, shopping or gastronomy related activities. Soft outdoor consumption is grouping activities practiced in open areas that do not require much effort or those that do not require active participation.

The identification of the above-mentioned factors supposes an advance in the knowledge of the leisure orientation theory, since leisure orientations have not been analysed much in relation to mobility, and still less in the case of cross-border mobility.

5.1.3. Constraints to cross-border leisure

Cross-border mobility has been studied in terms of leisure orientations. However, the insertion of leisure constraints related theories into mobilities research based on the New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP) is the most important contribution of this doctoral thesis to the existing knowledge.

Once the population subgroups based on the leisure orientations were identified, other possible elements that can be acting as constraints to cross-border mobility were also identified. These possible elements were based on the literature of leisure constraints of Jackson and Scott (1999), Jackson and Henderson (1995), Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1991) and Nadirova (1999). The insertion of leisure constraints theories was considered necessary, since border related literature (Timothy, 2001, 2006) states that the border can act as a barrier. The research on borders has shown a wide range of investigations and results of case studies –based mainly on the border of the United States and Mexico– showing that the border can constrain people's flows from one state to the other.

However, the effect of the border on Europeans' mobility has been analysed less than the US border, for example. Moreover, with the openness of the border, there is no physical barrier between the Spanish and French nations; however, it was not clear if the historical physical border was still affecting the area. It was not even clear if the physical border, which was active until the 1990s, has affected the mobility behaviour of the citizens, since the work of Letamendia (Ahedo, Etxebarria and Letamendia, 2004) has stated that the border has never been a barrier to the citizens' mobility.

Due to the attention that this work has paid to the constraints theory, another objective of this thesis was to identify if the classification of leisure constraints used on *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*, proposed by Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993), was working to analyse leisure related mobility in cross-border areas.

The study has shown, first of all, that the previously mentioned classification of leisure constraints is working in the Basque Eurocity cross-border area, since the factor analysis

applied to the items measuring constraints has classified constraints into three factors: (1) *structural constraints*; (2) *interpersonal constraints*; and (3) *intrapersonal constraints*, as in the case of *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*. Therefore, the initial perception of the applicability of the leisure constraint theories was confirmed. Moreover, the factor classified as *structural* has been considered especially important for the analysis of leisure participation when mobility is required, since the structural constraints have been identified as a factor explaining almost 25% of the variance of the factor solutions. Furthermore, it has been found that the structural constraints are acting on the mobility frequency of the citizens, as will be explained in the next subsection.

5.1.4. Model explaining Cross-border Mobility

With the identification of the constraints in cross-border areas, the identification of the model explaining cross-border mobility is the most important contribution of this doctoral thesis.

This study takes into account the aspects and methodologies applied in other similar research, but it is based also on mobility and tourism theories, from where other items, such as distance, have been identified as important aspects behind mobility frequency and leisure participation. The proposed model was initially based on the leisure constraints theories, especially those in *A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints*, but also on the developed model proposed by Walker and Virden (2003, 2005), *Revised leisure constraints model*, which was applied as well to sport tourism by Hinch et al. (2005). Based on these two models, this study proposed another model, maintaining the motivation and constraints proposed in the first two models and adding some internal and external factors related to the socio-demographic information – and participation– but also values, attitudes and lifestyles. In the later model, another additional variable was inserted, identifying the average distance from home to border.

The findings show that, with the social characteristics of age and education, distance is also statistically significant in the explanation of mobility frequency. In the same way, some of the regressor factors obtained from the factor analysis were found statistically significant: for example, the motivation *visiting friends and relatives (VFR)*; both factors explain *cross-border participation* and *structural* and *interpersonal constraints*, and from the regressor factors explaining the values, attitudes and lifestyles (VALS), and cross-border and border

considerations, the VALS that show a closeness with the postmodern way of life were also statistically important. In the same way, and as has been widely analysed in the results section, some interactions between variables and regressor factors, and between two different regressor factors, were also found significant. *Distance from home to border* has been identified as the most significant variable of interaction, as the statistical significance explaining cross-border mobility increases when constraints –and other variables and regressor factors–interact with distance.

The main contribution from those findings is the identification of a model explaining cross-border leisure mobility, which distinguishes this study from previous research.

5.1.5. The effect of distance on cross-border mobility frequency

Following the model, it was considered important to insert the distance dimension into the study of constraints. Distance has been used to explain the mobility type and to restrict the scientific area, such as to leisure studies, tourism, migration, etc., which has studied people's mobility in specific distances and also in relation to time, but this research goes beyond that classification and studies cross-border mobility frequency in relation to the distance between home and border.

This research also considers the necessity of taking into account the dimension of distance in constraints research because distance was considered statistically significant in the explanation of cross-border mobility during the last year. Some authors (Hall, 2005a; Smale, 1999; Timothy, 2001) discussed the negative effect of distance –the further you are from the border the less you go. However, this conception has been mainly a theoretical discussion since such effect has hardly been empirically tested. This study has proven the effect, but it is necessary to keep testing the effect of distance on mobility in other research on mobility and constraints.

In terms of interactions, the most statistically significant interaction is between distance and other variables or factor regressors. The interaction between distance and structural constraints has been very interesting, as an effect of distance within the rest of the constraints factors, since the results showed that the interaction negatively affects cross-border mobility

frequency. This was especially important since the effect of constraints increased in significance when it was inserted in the model on interaction with distance. Finally, although consideration of the border and cross-border elements was important to the analysis, the results show that the perception does not affect cross-border mobility frequency.

In the same way, the insertion of socio-demographic variables and other factors explaining the values, attitudes and lifestyles have been identified. These variables –specially the socio-demographic ones– have been used to differentiate research in which the most significant constraints for each case were identified. This study goes beyond the perception of constraints, helping to analyse limiting factors to leisure participation on certain groups of populations to starting to consider the possible constraints in the territory and how they affect social characteristics.

5.2. EXTENSION OF THE METHODOLOGY

As previously mentioned, the combination of both theories within the same study is the most important contribution to the theory, as well as to the methodology. However, the combination of both parts has made the subsection of the methodology related conclusions somewhat dual in nature, since the theories of this research have been based, on the one hand on constraints related theories, and on the other hand, on the new mobilities paradigm (NMP), which is increasingly mentioned in the sociology and tourism literature.

5.2.1. Constraint to leisure

The obtained findings showed that the leisure constraint theories could be applied to cross-border territories. It has been discovered that the classification of constraints widely identified and used in *The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints* is working in the case of constraints to mobility in cross-border areas. Through the obtained classification, a structural constraint has been identified as the most important constraint, where the analysis is based on cross-border leisure related mobility. This way, the necessity to deeper analyse the structural constraints has also been identified, and future researchers should further analyse and apply the constraints methodology in cross-border areas.

The obtained third factor of the constraints also needs to be analysed more in- depth, since although it has shown a strong correlation (above 0,7) of the items and also an acceptable Eigen value (1,221), it has a weak Chrombach alpha coefficient (0,396). Therefore, it needs to be studied in a similar context. In the same way, the socio-demographic information and the information related to values, attitudes and lifestyles (VALS), previously applied to consumer researchers (Strategic Business Insights, 2009-2010), are having an impact on the model. Those factors need to be developed and better studied, specially in reference to the second factor obtained in the study, which shows a lack of internal consistency (0,7445 and 0,577) and a weak Chrombach alpha coefficient (0,008).

5.2.2. Model explaining Mobility Frequency

The model resulting from the General Linear Model (GLM) has made it possible to identify the effects of internal and external elements in explaining mobility frequency. However, this method has the limitation of identifying a more complex model. The data were not strong enough to analyse the relationship and effects of the variables on the dependent variable of mobility annual frequency through a Structural Equation Model (SEM). Thus, it is considered that further research is necessary to create a model explaining continuing relationships between different level constructs and variables.

Although the theories explaining mobility are increasingly important, no empirical model has been found explaining the elements behind this mobility. This study wishes to answer the necessity of having a deeper understanding of people's mobility, since mobility, as Castells, (2000), Urry (2000, 2007), Hannam, Sheller and Urry (2006), Hannam and Knox (2010) and other authors have mentioned, has become the basis of society today.

5.3. KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY MAKERS

The starting point of this study was the regional government's awareness of the mobility in the area. The Basque Eurocity project was based on the idea of the possibility of the formation of a poli-nuclear metropolis in the cross-border area between and beyond the main cities of the corridor Donostia-San Sebastian and Bayonne. However, there was no deep knowledge of the social practices involved, and people's perceptions of this reality were not

clear. The main point was to know if the Basque Eurocity Euroregion was known, and if so, if it was perceived as a political initiative, or on the contrary, if it was perceived as a familiar area. It should be mentioned that the Basque Eurocity was a socially constructed territory.

The experience and the knowledge of the area showed that mobility was a real element of it, but it was not the empirical evidence necessary to show the importance of the social flows in the area. Moreover, some in-depth interviews were conducted to analyse the perception of the people working in contact with the cross-border reality. The second hand resources used for the observation and revision of the existing works that analyse the area and the in-depth interviews showed that leisure related flows were very important in contrast to work and studies related mobility. The identification of leisure as the major reason to move across the border from the interviews and following the literature review stating that people's leisure time patterns help to understand people's desired behaviour guided this study to analyse leisure mobility in the area.

Analysis of mobility behaviour showed a very high cross-border mobility. The local government was aware of the necessity of developing the transport means, but it was not clearly proven. The resultant findings have shown that the basic means of transport used is the car. The use of the public transport means is basically anecdotal in this cross-border area and is used to improve the transport there.

Furthermore, the findings show that structural constraint is a very important factor in explaining mobility frequency. The structural constraints are the result of the aggregation of a *lack of knowledge of the territory and transport means* and the *insufficient and uncomfortable transport means*. From this result, it is considered that policy makers should improve the transport means in the cross-border area. Currently, to move from one side of the border to the other side, there is better communication among the territories that are closer to the border. However, to travel from a majority of the municipalities, it is necessary to change transport means at least twice, as just one train crosses the border and goes just to Hendaye, the first municipality on the other side of the border, making necessary another change of transport to go a bit further. Furthermore, each means of transport is different, and there is no deal or facility connecting one with the other. Moreover, public institutions should help overcome other constraint items, such as the *lack of knowledge of the supplies of the territory and the*

fear of administrative problems from being in another country. This would give better and more in-depth information about the offers on the other side of the border and also about the administrative characteristics of it. It is necessary to identify which are the most efficient market or policy regulations that may help to overcome this constraint.

In that sense, two years ago an initiative regarding the news was made. Every month, a cross-border newspaper was published showing the most relevant news and events happening on both sides of the border. However, the impact of this news on the population has not yet been measured, thus further analysis needs to be implemented identifying the effects of this newspaper on the mobility behaviour of the Basque Eurocity Euroregion inhabitants.

To obtain fluent information of transnational events, it is necessary to improve the interrelationship between the agencies on both sides of the border. This is necessary in terms of leisure participation, but also in terms of the labour market because it is very difficult to obtain job related news from one side of the border to the other, although the distance between both places is short –less than 50 km.

The improvement of the information and transport means will be very important to those who wish to go from one side to the other for any reason, but also for those “living” and working on one side and sleeping on the other. This is the case of the Spanish who decided to buy a house –a first or second home– on the French side of the border because of the lower housing prices. It is considered that better interrelation and interaction would help the development of the economies on both sides of the border.

The analysis of those Spanish born inhabitants would be very interesting in identifying their mobility, as they make up a very high percentage of the inhabitants in the French municipalities that are closer to the border. However, this analysis would require a more in-depth analysis of a population with a cross-border or transnational way of life.

To better identify those cross-border people’s characteristics and to deeper analyse the transactional flows, better regional statistics are required. Currently, the flows are measured and published by Frontur, and although it is very helpful in the identification of the general flows, these data are not specific enough to identify the mobility behaviour in the area. Thus,

it is necessary to improve the regional statistics so as to provide more accurate data of the cross-border flows in the area.

5.4. FUTURE RESEARCH AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The disciplines of leisure and travel constraints and mobility that have structured the literature review of this doctoral thesis will also be used to direct this subsection. In reference to the analysis of leisure and travel constraints, a more in-depth study of constraints in reference to tourism and mainly mobility is necessary. The leisure constraints theory has started to be applied to current research on tourism but the studies conducted are insufficient, and further testing of the theory is desirable. Absence of mobility needs to be identified with precision and comprehended further.

Additionally, an empirical analysis of the processes involving mobility is required. The present doctoral thesis has tested the effects of the internal and external factors affecting cross-border mobility frequency, but it is necessary to further test the effect of such factors in other contexts apart from the cross-border territories. This will help to explore in-depth the conception of proximity measured by distance. The given analysis should be taken in both scenarios, within and without the border to understand whether the historical borders do affect the perception of distance in the European context. It is believed that “many connections with people and social grouping[s] are not based upon the propinquity” (Urry, 2006: 47). In the analysis of current societies, distance is not only perceived as a disaggregating factor. Hence, in multicultural regions with a variable geography, some of the findings of the present work could be used as a new starting point to provide an empirical ground to new theoretical propositions.

It would be of a great interest to link the mentioned empirical work to the new sociology lead by authors such as Urry (2006) and the proposed *New Mobilities Paradigm (NMP)*. The NMP framework (Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2006; Urry, 2006) states a classification of five different types of mobility: (1) corporeal travel; (2) physical movements; (3) imaginative travel; (4) virtual travel; and (5) communicative travel. The *corporeal travel* and the *physical movements* are dealing with distances, and help with face-to-face interaction. However, the no less important *imaginative*, *virtual* and *communicative* travels are developing networks at

different levels, and, therefore, they are redefining social reality, but differently than the first two mobilities mentioned. These travels are characterised by their “time-space immobilities” (Graham, Marvin 2001; Adey 2006b, cited in Urry, 2006: 54).

This thesis facilitates the study of the lack of mobility or absence of mobilities, which is also a reality to be studied in another complementary approximation to enrich our understanding of mobilities and their relation to the concept of proximity. A better understanding of the reasons behind people’s absence of mobility could help to gain a fresh perspective, as well as envisioning a novel path to develop the proposed framework under the NMP.

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APPENDICES
