Second Home Ownership:
The Case Of Whistler Resort, British Columbia

by

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Second Home Ownership: The Case Of Whistler Resort, British Columbia

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Second homes, classified in the social science literature as residences reserved primarily for leisure-time use, play an important role in the recreational pursuits of Canadians. For the most part, however, existing studies on second homes offer findings that are too general, or limited, for greater understanding of the geographical implications of their acquisition and use. To this end, this thesis investigates the changing utility of second home ownership in a resort environment.

Two research hypotheses, derived from models in behavioural geography, are used to examine those factors which affect the changing utility of second home ownership. The first hypothesis states that change in the contextual environment is a significant factor in influencing second home decision making, while the second hypothesis states that second home owners at differing stages of the family lifecycle make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home.

The study area chosen to test these research hypotheses is the Resort Municipality of Whistler, British Columbia. Whistler Resort is a four-season mountain recreation resort situated 120 kilometres north of Vancouver. With a second home population of approximately 5,000 expected to double within ten years, Whistler Resort is one of the most dynamic second home markets at a provincial and arguably a national level.
An analysis of the development history of Whistler Resort was conducted in order to examine the influence of changing external forces on decision making concerning the acquisition and use of second homes. This examination addressed the first hypothesis of the thesis. Data gathered from a questionnaire administered to a random sample of second home owners at Whistler Resort provided information on owners' evaluations and use of their second homes, as well as demographic and psychographic characteristics. These data were used to investigate the relationship between stage of lifecycle and second home utility addressed in the second hypothesis.

The examination of the changing role of second home ownership resulted in two main findings. First, change in the contextual environment was found to be a significant factor in influencing second home decision making. Second, it was found that lifecycle stage was only weakly related to second home decision making processes at Whistler Resort.
DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work in memory of my father,

Alexander Robertson Clark, to my mother, Eileen and to my

stepfather, David Stark.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Second homes have played and continue to play an important role in the leisure environments of Canadians. These homes have been described as residences that are reserved primarily for leisure-time use by persons with permanent residences elsewhere (Downing and Dower, 1973; Robertson, 1977). About 551,000 households in Canada are reported to own secondary residences (Statistics Canada, 1987). On a world-wide scale only the United States, Spain, France and Sweden can claim to have greater second home ownership populations. Furthermore, with 551,000 households reporting second home ownership and with the average household size in Canada currently standing at 3.1, a crude estimate might be suggested that over 1.7 million Canadians have direct access to a second home. Additionally, with second home owners availing their property to less immediate family, friends, acquaintances, business colleagues and rental pool clients, it may well be that about 2.5 million people, roughly 10 percent of Canada’s population, make use of secondary residences.

The widespread ownership of second homes in Canada has been viewed as an important expression of commitment to the structured use of the significant leisure time available in twentieth century society (Coppock, 1977). However, this Canadian (and world) leisure phenomenon has been little studied. Although second homes received academic attention over fifty years ago (Ljungdahl, 1938), it would appear that the role of second homes in society is a subject that is still poorly understood. For the most part, the
existing literature presents findings that offer only limited explanation of the geographical implications of second home acquisition and use (Ragatz, 1970b). In an attempt to address the need for a more critical approach to second home research, this thesis investigates aspects of decision making relating to the role of second home ownership in a dynamic resort environment.

1.1 Research objectives

This research seeks to identify the factors which affect the changing utility of second home ownership. More specifically, the thesis examines two aspects of change: firstly, changes in the contextual environment of second home owners and secondly, differences in the changing utility of second home ownership with lifecycle stage. Formally stated, the two research hypotheses to be examined are:

(1)  *Change in the contextual environment is a significant factor in influencing second home decision making*

This hypothesis is derived with reference to the current transactionalist model in behavioural geography which asserts that change in personal circumstances and/or the external environment (i.e "the contextual environment") results in an individual assessing the effects of such change on their future decision making (Aitken and Bjorklund, 1988).

(2)  *Second home owners at differing stages of the family lifecycle make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home*

This hypothesis is also derived with reference to the transactionalist model but more
specifically evolves from the schematic model developed by Robertson (1977), which suggests that stage in the family lifecycle is the most important factor in second home decision making processes.

1.2 Study area and methods

The study area chosen to test these research hypotheses is the Resort Municipality of Whistler, British Columbia. Whistler Resort is a four-season mountain recreation resort situated 120 kilometres north of Vancouver (Fig. 1.1). Since its inception as Canada’s first Resort Municipality in 1975, Whistler Resort has developed from a small valley settlement into one of North America’s premier mountain destination resorts. Rapid construction in the resort has resulted in the development of 28,496 residential bed units (Resort Municipality of Whistler, 1990). Beyond housing provision for the 4,500 permanent residents, most of the remaining residential units have been bought up as second homes. With approximately 5,000 second home owners in Whistler Resort presently, and with a further 26,500 residential bed units already committed for development in the resort by the year 2000, the number of second home owners at Whistler Resort appears ready to escalate. It is clear then that Whistler Resort represents one of the most dynamic second home markets at a provincial and arguably a national level.
Fig. 1.1 Location Map of Whistler Resort, British Columbia
An analysis of the development history of Whistler Resort was conducted in order to examine the influence of changing external forces on decision making concerning the acquisition and use of second homes. This examination of the relationship between change in the contextual environment and its influence on second home decision making at Whistler Resort addresses the first hypothesis of the thesis. The key second home development stages investigated at Whistler Resort were: early resort development (1914-1966); spontaneous growth (1967-1974); early years of legislative authority as a Resort Municipality (1975-1980); recessionary impact (1981-1984); economic recovery and resort rebirth (1985-1989) and maturity as a four-season mountain recreation resort (1990-1992).

Data gathered from a questionnaire administered to a random sample of second home owners at Whistler Resort provided information on owners' evaluations and use of their second homes, as well as demographic and psychographic characteristics. These data were used to investigate the relationship between stage of lifecycle and second home utility addressed in the second hypothesis of the thesis.

1.3 Organizational structure

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter Two establishes the context of the present work by reviewing relevant background literature on second homes. Chapter Three presents methodological approaches used in
this research and describes the research design and data collection techniques. In Chapter Four, an investigation into the evolution of second homes at Whistler Resort establishes the role of changing external forces in influencing second home decision making in Whistler Resort. The survey data presented in Chapter Five quantifies the relationship between the stages in Whistler Resort’s development history and decisions made on second home utility at those specific points in time. Chapter Six provides a demographic profile of survey respondents and an analysis of data gathered on the role of lifecycle stage in second home decision making in Whistler. Chapter Seven offers conclusions derived from the research.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 The changing leisure environment

The second home phenomenon is one feature of a changing leisure environment in Canada. A discussion of changes in available leisure time since the early 1900s provides the context in which to consider second homes in the broader perspective of changing leisure patterns in Canadian society. Gains in leisure time can be attributed to a series of social and technological initiatives introduced in this present century.

In the early 1900s, the six day, 70-hour work week was still not uncommon in Canada. However, the installation of a six day, 48-hour work week just after the First World War had a significant effect on early twentieth century society. For the first time, employees were released from work site duties for significant daily time periods. While further gains in leisure time were not experienced by Canadian society in general for the next forty years, the introduction of the five day, 40-hour working week in the late 1950s/early 1960s gave rise to leisure time concentrations at the weekend. Although the widespread adoption of the four day, 40-hour work week has not materialized as once anticipated, a significant number of Canadian firms have experimented with the concept. Since the turn of the century then, an average of approximately 30 hours have been removed from the actual hours spent at the workplace per week. Consequently, leisure time periods have become much longer in general and are most commonly expressed in two day blocks per
Another social initiative which has resulted in the gain of leisure time has been the establishment of vacation entitlements. At the turn of the century, only a few statutory holidays (usually daily) were observed. Presently, nine daily statutory holidays are observed in Canada. Five of the nine daily statutory holidays are always observed on a Monday, creating at least five 3-day weekends per year for Canadians. In addition, by the 1960s, two weeks holiday with pay had been introduced as the normal vacation allowance for the general work force. By the mid 1980s, four weeks vacation with pay became the norm for employees of longer standing with their companies. Therefore, in following a five-day work week with between two to four weeks paid vacation time and nine daily statutory holidays, the general work force in Canada is typically entitled to between 123 to 133 days of discretionary time in a working year.

Although there is widespread recognition of the influence of shorter work periods and increased vacation entitlements to the pursuit of leisure, it has been proposed that the most dramatic leisure gains have resulted from a shrinkage in the number of years devoted to formal labour (Glyptis, 1983). Glyptis suggests that this reduction in the formal working life is the result of three complementary forces. Firstly, perhaps partly as a reflection of a more limited, more specialized job market, a greatly increasing number of the young are pursuing an extended education. By attending Grade Twelve in high school and possibly entering a degree or diploma program at university or college,
the majority of Canada’s 16-21 year olds now delay their entry into the formal work force (Province of British Columbia, Planning and Statistics Division, 1990). With total responsibility for the timetabling of university or college study, the student generally affords him/herself more generous and less structured leisure allowances than that of an employer.

Secondly, the working life has been truncated by a societal shift towards earlier retirement. As well as a dramatic decrease in the numbers of people working beyond pensionable age, early retirement before the statutory retirement age has been a growing trend since the mid 1970s in Canada. As a move promoted by employers wary of an excess work force in harsher economic times and facilitated by widespread occupational pensions, early retirement has significantly reduced the percentage of 55-64 year olds in the work force (Province of British Columbia, Planning and Statistics Division, 1990).

Thirdly, the working life has been reduced relative to increased life expectancy. At a time when retirement was essentially unheard of, average life expectancy at the turn of the century in Canada was 48 years for men and 52 years for women. Today, as a result of improved health care, more considered dietary and hygiene practices and better living conditions, average life expectancy is 71.4 years for men and 77.2 years for women. A male worker reaching the statutory retirement age of 65 has on average 13 years of uncommitted time at his disposal while a female retiring at 65 is expected to enjoy a 16 year retirement (Province of British Columbia, Planning and Statistics Division, 1990).
Both early retirement and increased life expectancy have contributed to the unprecedented average time period in which retired persons can actively pursue rich and rewarding post-work leisure lifestyles.

During retirement, the universality of national pension plans, widespread occupational pensions and an increased propensity to invest in retirement saving plans have combined to significantly increase the real value of Canadian pensioners’ incomes. This has resulted in a significant reduction in the gap between the disposable income of pensioners and non-pensioners in the last 30 years. Therefore, an increasingly aging population with greater collective disposable incomes poses as much of a challenge to a nation’s leisure service provision as it does to its health and community care systems.

In addition to leisure gains from formal labour, the dramatic rise in wage levels relative to the cost of living has brought indirect gains from informal labour practices. With greater amounts of discretionary income, consumers have generally endeavoured to release the time from the informal labour of domestic work by the widescale purchase of labour-saving devices. Modern domestic appliances have reduced household work substantially with time savings for the most part being transferred to leisure pursuits. As well as allowing for time gains from domestic work, discretionary incomes also have had a bearing on changing the basic patterns of contemporary leisure pursuits. For example, higher incomes have greatly increased the likelihood of car ownership. Widescale purchase of a private automobile has released the majority of households from the
regulated timetabling of public transport, allowing for greater flexibility and increased mobility in designated leisure periods.

In summary, the leisure time gains in contemporary Canadian society at the expense of formal and household labour is greater than at any time since the Industrial Revolution. Although leisure researchers anticipate no major alterations to work patterns and habits over the next ten years, it is clear that the dramatic changes already made to the available leisure time of Canadians has been one of the fundamental forces shaping twentieth-century society.

2.2 The emergence of behavioural studies of leisure activity

With the rise of "mass leisure" in the late 1950s and early 1960s in North America and Western Europe, many recreational resource areas suffered from overcrowding and environmental degradation. Resource managers became increasingly concerned with resource depletion and sought to introduce environmental protection policies that would be acceptable to the general public. This required eliciting public opinion, and managers turned to the academic community to co-ordinate research. Early reports, written in response to resource management problems, (Bultena and Taves, 1961; LaPage, 1963; Lucas, 1964), proved to be the catalyst in stimulating an enormous amount of research on leisure behaviour and recreational decision making processes. The seminal studies of wilderness management were followed up by investigations into the applicability and
measurability of the concepts of social and psychological carrying capacity (Wagar, 1964; Lime, 1970; Lime and Stankey, 1971; Stankey, 1972, 1973; Burton, 1974; Lime, 1975). However, over ten years of case study research did not result in the development of generalizable theories of leisure. Some progress was made, however, such as in the notion of substitutability (i.e. the interchangeability of recreational activities in satisfying particular motives, needs and preferences). This brought a new conceptual development to the behavioural approach and encouraged wide discussion in the academic literature (Hendee and Burdge, 1974; O'Leary et al., 1974; Beaman, 1975; Becker, 1976; Christensen and Yousting, 1977; Meyer, 1978). At the same time, discussion unfolded on the psychological structure of leisure with a detailed cataloguing of leisure activity types and typologies of recreational activity preferences (Newlinger and Breit, 1969; Bishop, 1970; Newlinger and Breit, 1971; Romsa, 1973; Ditton et al., 1975; Ritchie, 1975; London et al., 1977).

However, this activity approach to the investigation of leisure behaviour provides little understanding of perception, needs and decision making within leisure. Due to its alignment to resource management initiatives, research into activity types and the substitutability concept focused on equating users' distinctive recreational patterns with resource allocation. This meant that resource managers could evaluate the relationship between recreational resource supply and recreational demand. In essence, a description of recreational use patterns as an expressed impact on the landscape was seen as more important than the underlying reasons for such usage patterns. As more and more papers
were published in this vein, there was a growing realization that this emerging body of knowledge still lacked the theoretical grounding crucial for focused analysis (Patmore and Collins, 1980, 1981). But even after a period of self-criticism on the lack of analysis in the 1970s (Brown et al., 1973; Patmore, 1977; Mercer, 1979), an examination of leisure research’s theoretical foundation was again overlooked in favour of introducing new themes in the study of leisure or describing new approaches to existing themes in the leisure literature. This tendency to describe new approaches to existing themes in the general leisure literature has been paralleled to some extent in the second home literature.

2.3 Methodological approaches to the study of second homes

The first studies of second homes date from the late 1930s, with the traditional theme of evolutionary second home settlement patterns bringing new descriptive approaches but little theoretical development over the years. In his seminal work, Ljungdahl presented a spatial analysis of second homes in the Stockholm region, Sweden (Ljungdahl, 1938). However, his treatment of second homes emphasized a description of his research setting. He assumed that the decision made by owners with regard to second home acquisition was a purely locational one. According to Ljungdahl, the only consideration for prospective second home owners is that the property be sited in the "optimal" location in terms of proximity to natural recreational resources or resort amenities. Although present day second home locational studies frequently cite Rushton’s 1969 work on revealed site preference, notions of locational determinism have their roots in Ljungdahl’s
observations. In the half century that has elapsed since this Swedish case study, few analytical constructs or theories have been established with reference to second home decision making and thus the resulting second home literature generally consists of isolated case studies lacking clear linkages or a common direction.

In Sweden, where the ownership of second homes is common, Ljungdahl's *a priori* notions of second home settlement were followed up by geographers drawing influence from the work of Hägerstrand in 1953. Recreational geographers at the University of Uppsala began implementing settlement pattern modelling in their second home research. One of the most prominent contributions was the work of Aldskogius in the Siljan region (Aldskogius, 1967). Aldskogius assumed that people choosing second homes evaluate their potential acquisition in terms of a maximization of "recreational place utility". Recreational place utility consisted of the sum of eight specific place characteristics which a second home owner at Lake Siljan considered in an assessment of the optimal recreational environment in which to locate a property. These eight place characteristics were: relief; proximity to water bodies and shorelines; proximity to Lake Siljan; open land; previous settlement; accessibility by road; access to grocery stores and access to higher order service centres. With second home settlement as the dependent variable and each of the eight place characteristics as independent variables, Aldskogius implemented stepwise regression to describe the level of association between actual settlement patterns and his chosen site characteristics. By then developing a simulation model using these site characteristics, he generated a theoretical second home settlement pattern for the Siljan
region which approximated to the actual development. Although his simulation model proved operational, Aldskogius recognized that the perceptual and behavioural basis crucial to decision making was overlooked in favour of a purely locational analysis, and noted that: "The solutions to several such theoretical and operational (behavioural) problems have had to be highly generalized, tentative, and in some cases are clearly inadequate" (Aldskogius, 1967: 93). He further conceded that the regression model proved to be a deterministic and static framework for analysis of the decision making process involved in second home development. However, this view was not shared by the North American researchers of the late 1960s and early 1970s, who saw sophisticated modelling techniques as a useful methodology in the study of second homes. David (1968a), in one of the earliest of such studies, used regression analysis in an investigation of how various site characteristics influence property values of lakeshore homes. In an analysis of second homes in the Great Lakes, Tombaugh (1970) found that the socio-economic profile of a second home owner and the distance he/she is willing to travel were poor predictors of the actual location of the second home. Burby, Donnelly and Weiss (1972) tested models of urban residential development on second home growth patterns around Appalachian reservoirs.

Later papers on methodological approaches to the study of second homes have moved from a concentration on locational analyses to the development of planning policy frameworks. Ragatz (1977), for example, proposed a model predicting distribution and occupancy rates for second homes in rural America. Addressing the issue of Canadian
second home planning for the future, Martin and Brennan (1984) assessed the validity of planning policies using the Delphi technique as a framework, while Smith (1987) described a procedure for defining regions on the basis of county level resource patterns.

2.4 The environmental implications of second homes

The call for more rigorous planning frameworks in the methodological literature on second homes is partly a reflection of growing international concern over uncontrolled second home development and its effect on the environment. Sweden was one of the first nations to enforce stringent policies on second home development in an effort to address environmental degradation. Among other measures, Sweden introduced a ban on new second home development above the tree-line in forested areas and within 300 metres of coastal areas (Bielckus, 1977). As a counter attack on pollution, second home developments are not permitted unless they have their own waste disposal system. Since the main locational attractions for second homes seem to be proximity to fragile forest and lacustrine environments, most of the recent Swedish literature on the environmental impact of second homes has dealt with the evolution and spatial expression of settlement patterns in these potentially problematic areas.

Protective measures to maintain the amenity value of the landscape, whilst meeting the demand for second homes, has also been noted in the case of second homes on the island of Arran in Scotland (Pacione, 1979). Pacione suggests that the Swedish model of
appropriate development in environmentally sensitive areas could be applied to the British situation. He identifies the respective Town and Country Planning Acts of Great Britain as the most effective medium to enforce strict second home building regulations in the preservation of Britain’s natural heritage.

While over 600 papers have appeared on second homes in the U.S., almost 60 have concentrated exclusively on their environmental impact (Ragatz and Cordell, 1980). Gartner (1987) proposes two main commonalities in second home development which are presently damaging fragile environments. Firstly, Gartner cites the lack of tough governmental regulations on development issues usually due to a fear of losing tourist expenditures and property taxes. The second commonality is that second home developments are most often situated in fragile lacustrine and mountain environments. In such environments, small change or even controlled change with a limit on settlement may still prove detrimental. This dilemma is explored by Kariel and Kariel (1988) in their analysis of second home development in the Kananaskis Valley, Alberta.

Concern for the environment in the face of second home development is also apparent in Spain. Second homes, as the exclusive preserve of a rich minority at the turn of the century, have been replaced in more contemporary times with second homes as a luxury commodity of an increasingly widespread sector of the urban middle class. The number of second homes in Spain went from approximately 800,000 in 1970 to just under 2,000,000 in 1981, a staggering growth rate of 147 percent in eleven years (Barke and
France, 1988). Most of these second homes are concentrated in Gerona, Tarragona, Avila and Guadalajara and concern is expressed that by the time legislation is in place, the landscape resource will have been further eroded (Morris and Dickinson, 1987). In each of these provinces, already 30 percent of available local housing stock is second homes which may pose sensitive questions for the consideration of Spain’s regional planners in the near future.

2.5 The socio-cultural implications of second homes

Significant growth in the external ownership of accommodation in a limited housing market, resulting in space for local residents becoming ever more scarce, is an acute socio-cultural problem identified in the literature. Coppock has shown for Wales that purchases of second homes by principally English owners drove up local house prices, preventing young locals from acquiring houses and has contributed to a disturbing pattern of depopulation. With the outmigration of young Welsh and an influx of wealthy English into small rural communities, many fear the destruction of Welsh culture and language. In fact, there has been so much resistance to externally owned second homes that two national housing associations, Adfer and Cwmdeithas Tai Gwynedd, have been formed to buy potential second home properties and rent them out only to local people (Coppock, 1977). In another analysis of conflict between locals and second home owners, Alberre (1977) has shown for some areas of Belgium that a large percentage of wealthy second home owners in more populous areas of mixed farming and livestock rearing has
disrupted traditional lifestyles through land and house price increases, infrastructural changes bringing greater taxes, and opposition to traditional agricultural practices in proximity to second home areas.

Similar problems have occurred in the Lake District, England, which as a National Park has autonomous planning authority to regulate the degree of housing development considered appropriate for a designated natural heritage area. In this restricted housing market, potential second home owners compete with local residents for the few existing properties and such demand has sharply increased local house prices. Typically, the second home owner has outbid native Lakelanders which has led to local resentment and hostility (Clark, 1981). On top of this, there has been a dramatic shrinkage of low-cost rental accommodation because such properties have been sold off as second homes (Shucksmith, 1983). With reference to land use decision making, two case studies in the North Kawartha planning area, Ontario, revealed intense conflicts between the aspirations of cottagers, permanent residents, local recreationalists and resource extraction industries (Marsh, 1983). Furthermore, research concentrating on second homes in Switzerland has looked at how development of "parahotellerie" (second homes and their infrastructure) well in excess of locally-owned accommodation in ski resorts is indicative of an intensifying external demand for housing overpowering local planning controls (Messerli, 1987).

Second homes are increasingly seen as a desired material possession in advanced
capitalistic societies. However, a literature exists which reveals that second homes have played a significant role in the leisure profiles of socialist societies such as the countries of Eastern Europe. Second homes are common in Hungary and Poland, while Gardavsky (1977) shows the widespread nature of second homes in both the Czech and Slovakian socialist republics and identified some 166,000 second homes for the whole of Czechoslovakia. In the former Soviet Union, second homes were one of the limited property types that could be privately owned. Their importance under the communist regime is stressed by Filipovich (1979) who estimated that in the Moscow region alone some 286,000 people took vacations in summer homes or garden co-operatives.

2.6 Robertson’s model of second home decision making processes

As previously suggested, further understanding of second homes has been reached on a number of topics from planning perspectives through environmental issues to socio-cultural conflict. Nonetheless, the lack of generalizable theories within second home research has resulted in a stunted conceptual development of the subject and the non-applicability of findings from one research setting to another. One second home model developed by R.W. Robertson has essentially been overlooked since it was introduced into the literature in 1977. Robertson’s model rose out of a concern for the second home literature’s tendency to make assumptions at the outset about prospective second home owners and their reasons for acquiring second homes. The majority of investigations into second home decision making processes have tended to involve the environmentally
deterministic notion that preference for a specific site was the overriding influence in an owner’s decision (Aldskogius, 1969; Burby, 1971). Researchers until then had widely accepted Aldkogius’ strictly locational notion that all prospective second home owners sought to maximize recreational place utility.

In order to address the untested acceptance of Aldskogius’ decision making concept, Robertson devised a schematic model of the second home decision process. One disadvantage in using Aldskogius’ strictly locational approach in the investigation of second home decision making is that it overlooks social, economic, political and cultural factors which may act as constraining elements to second home choices. Robertson tackles this shortcoming in his model by taking a probabilistic standpoint in recognizing that second home owners choose or are forced to choose specific courses of action due to the constraining elements of the influencing environment. The second disadvantage with Aldskogius’ strictly locational approach is that a cross-sectional study of second home site preferences taken at static time intervals can never fully represent the dynamic nature of the second home decision process. To counter this failing, Robertson, although acknowledging the important but overstressed spatial dimension of second home decision processes, adds a specific time dimension to his decision model. He proposes that an ongoing evaluation of the viability of the second home acquisition is made by owners as they advance through the lifecycle.

In a study of second home communities in southern New South Wales, Australia,
Robertson applied his model in an attempt to identify those points in the decision process at which prospective owners make distinguishable property judgements (Robertson, 1977). Such judgements, according to Robertson, have a distinct spatial and temporal dimension. In terms of spatial characteristics, three sets of factors - locational, situational and site - are considered influential to any second home utility evaluation. The primary locational characteristic of concern to a prospective buyer is the distance between principal and second homes. Situational factors assessed are the levels of access from the property to the various natural and/or built amenities which make up the recreational environment. Major site components evaluated are direct property features such as view and tree cover, which contribute to the quality of the immediate setting.

The temporal dimension of the decision making process identifies a buyer's consideration of the anticipated, actual and projected utility of the second home. Anticipated utility relates to an individual's expectations of the uses and functions of the recreational property he/she has recently purchased. The actual utility stage records the activity and visitation patterns decided upon by the owner through his/her increased knowledge of the second home and surrounding environment. Projected utility refers to the second home's future potential by an owner making an informed judgement by virtue of a more intimate knowledge of the property.

Robertson's examination of the utility evaluations of second home owners in Kiama, Eurobodalla and Imlay coastal shires, New South Wales, resulted in one main finding.
Although noting site, situational and locational change as factors in second home decision making, Robertson concluded that the primary influence in the continuing evaluation of second home utility is an owner’s stage in the lifecycle. Robertson presented what he regarded as a typical second home scenario for an owner’s family moving through the lifecycle. Firstly, owners with a young family may frequent the second home on holidays and weekends. As the children reach their teens and school/local community activities consume more family time, weekend visits become rarer. As late teenagers, the children began striving for greater independence and may rarely visit the cottage with their parents. As empty nesters, the parents may again begin to visit the cottage at weekends; later as grandparents, the second home may become a focal point for the family to come together and later still may become a retirement property. In this scenario, Robertson assumes for the sake of his example that at no given time was the second home viewed as obsolete by the family. However, as Robertson later points out, a critical evaluation takes place at each lifecycle stage as to the continued viability or obsolescence of the recreational property.

Although the role of lifecycle is well documented in a substantial literature on primary home decision making (Rossi, 1955; Wolpert, 1965; Brown and Moore, 1970; Preston and Taylor, 1981a; Kendig, 1984), Robertson’s work is one of only two studies to date that have investigated the influence of lifecycle on second home decision making (Robertson, 1977; Godbey and Bevins, 1987). The study by Godbey and Bevins (1987) used Robertson’s lifecycle notions to examine the cycle of involvement second home
owners had with their policy making owner’s association. An extensive survey of former
and present property owners at Laurel Acres, Pennsylvania led to the development of a
schematic model depicting the lifecycle of second home ownership. Godbey and Bevins
recognized three critical decision periods with regard to the individual’s cycle of
involvement at Laurel Acres: the decision of whether to build a second home on the
undeveloped lot they had purchased; the decision of whether to sell their second home
when the children lose interest; and, if they did not sell at that time, the decision of
whether to retire to Laurel Acres. At each stage of this cycle, owners formed
constituencies and collectively expressed specific concerns to Laurel Acres Community
Association. Owners of undeveloped lots, typically young families, were dominant in the
decision making process, and voiced strong opinion in either pro or anti-development
factions. Post-parental family users looked for more community/social events, became
increasingly concerned with teenage behaviour and lobbied for stricter security and law
enforcement. Retirees and other full-time residents were concerned about the lack of
community infrastructure and services (e.g. hospital, shopping centre) and criticized the
Association for mainly serving the interests of the second home owners.

The overall findings of Godbey and Bevins confirm Robertson’s conclusions that inputs
to the continuing evaluation of second home utility vary as owners move through the
lifecycle. Laurel Acres Community Association was continually tackling the problems
posed by homeowners at various lifecycle stages evaluating the utility of their investment
(Godbey and Bevins, 1987). However, Robertson’s lifecycle concept served only as a
benchmark from which a general description of second homes in a different setting could be elicited (Godbey and Bevins, 1987). In essence, Godbey and Bevins's work, exploratory in nature, refers to Robertson's model but fails to test it. To date, the appropriateness of Robertson's model in identifying the causal factors behind second home property decisions has yet to be examined in the literature. For this reason, the present research will statistically examine the specific effects of lifecycle on second home utility evaluations posited by Robertson's model. By using this framework to investigate the relationship between lifecycle stage and second home decision making, as stated in the second hypothesis of the thesis, the present research contributes to an examination of the utility of Robertson's model.
Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 The Transactional Approach

The transactional approach employed by some behavioural geographers was chosen as the methodological framework within which to investigate the two hypotheses of the thesis. Transactionalism provides a theoretical explanation which views change in the person-in-environment relation as the crucial focus (Aitken and Bjorklund, 1988). Transactionalism holds that the relationship between the dynamics of human behaviour and the dynamics of the environment can best be analyzed by monitoring behavioural events as they occur over space and time. The person/environment interaction is viewed as a continuously changing relationship, with change in the external environment and in personal circumstances resulting in an individual assessing the effects of such change on his or her future behaviour. This assessment is made through application of mental schemata - a concept of organization which examines the relevance and meaning of contextual changes experienced as the individual progresses through the various stages of the lifecycle. Therefore, the transactionalist perspective is a suitable framework for an examination of the two aspects of change outlined in the research hypotheses: firstly, change in the contextual environment of second homes as a significant factor in influencing second home decision making and secondly, the influence of lifecycle stage on the changing utility evaluations made during second home ownership. Although not conceptualized as a transactional approach, Robertson’s modelling of lifecycle stage changes as a dynamic influence in the decision process of second home owners, is nevertheless in keeping with
this perspective. Therefore, Robertson's model is retained as the heuristic device by which the second hypothesis is tested.

Although the transactional approach has only been articulated recently, behavioural geographers have informally applied transactionalism to the study of landscape depiction and perception (Zonn, 1984). This research has relied heavily on qualitative methods in its examination of changing person/environment contexts. However, Altman and Rogoff (1987) propose that the transactional approach can be operationalized quantitatively using wide ranging research methods if consideration is given to six basic principles. First, research should be specific to a particular set of changes within the person/environment interaction, as no context should be assumed generalizable. The second principle, which is at the heart of all transactional study, cites the need to focus on person/environment change. Third, the research should strive to reveal the uniqueness of a behavioural phenomenon rather than produce generalities to enable replication of results. Fourth, researchers should consider the adoption of several data sets and methods in order to draw appropriate and well-balanced conclusions to research questions. Fifth, the perspective of participants should be incorporated into an interpretation of behavioural responses to contextual change. Typically, when the analysis is complete, the researcher sets up personal interviews to discuss the results in an effort to reduce the potential bias of researchers' preconceived notions of behavioural phenomena. Lastly, the researcher, as behavioural observer, should recognize his/her role as participant in the phenomena being studied. This may also lead to the identification of investigator bias.
Altman and Rogoff's six principles were considered in pursuing the present research in order to ensure that the transactional approach was properly operationalized. The first condition - no context to be assumed generalizable - was met as the research hypotheses were specifically designed to examine the influence of the external environment and lifecycle stage on an owner's changing utility evaluation of his/her second home at Whistler Resort. The focus of the second principle on person/environment change was satisfied in the examination of how change, both in the socio-economic and physical settings of Whistler Resort and the lifecycle stage of second home owners, influenced second home decision making processes. The third principle, of looking for unique qualities before seeking generalizations, was met by using both qualitative and quantitative methods to extract indicators and trends relating exclusively to second home owners at Whistler Resort. The fourth principle, methodological eclecticism, was met by both qualitative analysis (key informant interviews and secondary data collection at Whistler Resort) and quantitative analysis (through questionnaire study of second home owners).

The fifth and sixth principles, which essentially encourage greater involvement between participant and researcher, were not applicable in the case of the present study. As Robertson's model was used to test the relationship between lifecycle stage of owners and second home utility evaluations, as outlined in the second hypothesis, it was deemed appropriate to use Robertson's data collection technique in sampling second home owners. Therefore, in similar fashion to Robertson's research methods, a self
administered questionnaire was sent to the principal residence of a sample of Whistler Resort’s second home owners. A mailed survey of second home owners at Whistler Resort resulted in a Canadian and American sample base. Through mailing, the nature of the relationship between researcher and participant was kept at observer and observed. Any face to face discussion of results with survey participants was seen as logistically impossible with respondents originating from northern British Columbia to southern California, from as far west as Vancouver Island to as far east as Baltimore, Maryland.

3.2 Data Collection Techniques

Both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques were employed in the testing of the two research hypotheses. With respect to the first hypothesis, qualitative methods of data collection were adopted in order to investigate change in Whistler Resort’s socio-economic and physical setting and its influence on second home decision making. The archival map and document collection of the Whistler Museum and Archives Society was used in assembling the history of the resort. More recent resort developments were traced using Resort Municipality of Whistler planning documents and British Columbia Enterprise Corporation development plans. Bosa Developments and Intrawest Development Corporation were also consulted as two of the most prominent property developers on the Whistler Resort market. Other sources used in detailing Whistler Resort’s general growth include the Vancouver Business Report (September 1988 and June 1989) and British Columbia Television’s five-day documentary series on the resort
Specific information on second home developments was charted with the assistance of three real estate companies operating within Whistler Resort. Past and present property documents and real estate guides were instrumental in the assessment of the property market. The changing nature of both the property and rental housing markets was also documented with reference to Whistler Resort newspaper archives housed in the Whistler Public Library. Management staff at both the Resort Municipality of Whistler and the Whistler Resort Association were consulted to provide details of the specialized government structure of British Columbia's only resort municipality. Additionally, information from key informant interviews and secondary sources was organized to provide a profile of the changing context of the socio-economic and physical environment within which Whistler Resort's second home owners make property evaluations.

Quantitative methods were adopted in order to test the second hypothesis of the thesis. The relationship between an owner's lifecycle stage and his/her second home utility evaluations was explored using data gathered from a questionnaire administered to owners of second homes in Whistler Resort (see Appendix). The questionnaire was designed to cover the key components of Robertson's model while allowing for a statistical analysis of the hypothesis. The questionnaire addressed two main categories: firstly, utility evaluations of the second home and secondly, owner's stage in the lifecycle. With regard to the temporal aspects of an owner's utility evaluation, respondents were asked to chart
their decision path from the anticipated utility of their second home through actual use
to their projected use of the property. Inquiries were also made into the locational,
situational and site attributes of the second home in order to incorporate the spatial
aspects of utility evaluation.

Lifecycle stage of owners was compiled from questions using Robertson’s classification
on age of household head, age of the youngest child (if there are any children living at
home) and the number of people living in the household (Table 3.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Age of Household Head</th>
<th>Age of Youngest Child</th>
<th>No. In Household</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>No children</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>18-35</td>
<td>&lt;6</td>
<td>2+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>25-55</td>
<td>6-17</td>
<td>2+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>35-65</td>
<td>&gt;17</td>
<td>2+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>25-45</td>
<td>No children</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>46-65</td>
<td>No children in household</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>66+</td>
<td>No children in household</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Other

* Any household which will not fit into the above categories, including several where the second home was jointly owned by several households (Robertson, 1977: Note 2, p 128)

Robertson proposes that for three persons or more per household, the age of the youngest
child determines the lifecycle classification as this is seen as a greater influence in the
decision process than age of household head. In order to gauge the potential influence of other variables in the second home decision making process, respondents were also asked questions concerning property type, ownership type, housing markets and interest rates, tenancy of the second home, market value of permanent home and socio-economic status.

A sampling frame of second home owners at Whistler Resort was drawn from the 1988 British Columbia Assessment Authority Property Tax Roll housed in Whistler Municipal Hall. This method of identifying second home owners by using property tax registers is common in the literature (Aldskogius, 1967; Robertson, 1977; Pacione, 1979). From a total of 6,493 roll entries, Whistler Resort’s second home ownership population was isolated using three principal parameters. First, all residential properties in Whistler Resort were extracted from the tax rolls by following the code allotted to residential housing stock from the property classification system. Second, each roll entry displays the property tax value and details the present value of land and/or building holdings of the owner. Roll entries assessed only as land holdings were eliminated, as the present research is concerned with second homes. Third, consultation with the Resort Municipality of Whistler’s Tax Department indicated that second home owners do not use their Whistler Resort addresses when conducting tax business. Roll entries at a Whistler Resort address were dismissed as properties belonging to full-time Whistler Resort residents. By applying these three parameters to the 1988 Assessment roll, a second home population of 4,646 was established.
A random sample of 200 second home owners (4.3% sample size) was chosen to keep the data collection in manageable proportions. In considering types of sampling designs, the property tax assessment roll (as the sampling frame) was examined for any numerical ordering. When it was determined that there was no numerical ordering of elements, a systematic sample (with a random start) was chosen for its speed and efficiency. The sampling interval of isolating 200 cases from 4,646 second home owners in the tax roll is approximately 23. On choosing one random number between 1 and 23 as the standard distance between elements selected from the sampling frame, a representative sample of 200 second home owners was then generated.

The place of permanent residence of these 200 second home property owners at Whistler Resort gave rise to a very distinctive geographical pattern (Table 3.2). Almost ninety percent of the sample have primary homes in the Greater Vancouver Regional District and consistent travel times between their permanent and second homes. Due to such a strong geographical bias, it was inappropriate to investigate Robertson's locational utility which sees different travel time and distance factors between primary and secondary homes as an influence on second home property evaluation.

Following Robertson's survey distribution technique, a self-administered mail survey was chosen as the method by which to reach the sample group. Individual mailed packages included the questionnaire, a cover letter explaining the research project and a stamped addressed envelope for returns. The 200 letters were posted on February 14, 1989.
Seventy five usable responses were received by March 14, a return rate of 37.5 percent. A follow up mailing was posted on March 18, 1989. Due to the fact that all questionnaires were anonymous to ensure respondent confidentiality and to promote a greater response rate, the second mailing consisted of a follow-up letter sent to all members of the sample thanking those who may have already participated and encouraging those who had not responded to do so. The second mailing triggered a further 24 responses. In total, 99 usable questionnaires were completed and returned, a response rate of 49.5 percent. Furthermore, with 34 questionnaire packages returned unopened by the postal service, 17 percent of the sample population could not be contacted due to address changes. Thus, 66.5 percent of the sample is accounted for by completed or unopened returns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Residence</th>
<th>No. of Respondents</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greater Vancouver Regional District</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>89.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington State</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontario</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manitoba</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other B.C.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The SPSS.X statistical package was used to analyze the data collected from the survey. Along with frequency distributions for all variables, the most meaningful descriptive test was crosstabulation which paired year of purchase and stages in the lifecycle against specific second home utility evaluations. The trends produced by such crosstabulations were used to address the research hypotheses.

By not assuming that the sample was normally distributed and recognizing that most of the data were nominal or ordinal, non-parametric testing was chosen as the most appropriate data analysis. In order to test the research hypotheses, a Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance was used to assess the degree to which owners who purchased property in certain years and who belong to specific lifecycle stages exhibit variance in their second home utility evaluations.

The qualitative data sources outlined in this present chapter form the basis of the discussion in Chapter Four on Whistler Resort’s evolution and the influence of this resort development on second home owner’s decision making processes. The statistical methods described in this chapter form the backbone of the quantitative analysis on second home owner’s utility evaluations found in Chapters Five and Six.
Chapter 4: Contextual Change in the Geographical Environment

The environmental context within which decisions concerning second homes has been made has changed considerably over the past twenty-five years. In this chapter the external conditions present at each stage of Whistler Resort’s second home development and the degree to which these conditions influenced owner’s evaluations of second home utility are discussed. Whistler Resort’s second home community has evolved and been shaped by influences arising from what appear to be six distinct periods in the resort’s history. These stages are: early resort development (1914-1966); spontaneous growth (1967-1974); early years of legislative authority as a Resort Municipality (1975-1980); recessionary impact (1981-1984); economic recovery and resort rebirth (1985-1989); maturity as four-season mountain recreation resort (1990-1992). It is suggested that these development phases in the resort’s evolution produced external factors which brought about contextual change in the decision making environment of second home owners at Whistler Resort (Fig. 4.1).

4.1 Stage One: Early Resort Development (1914-1966)

The birth of Whistler as a resort community can be traced back to April 1st 1914. On that day, 25 men arrived at the newly completed Rainbow Lodge at the north-eastern corner of Alta Lake for a one-week fishing trip. They journeyed to and from the fishing lodge on the newly established Pacific Great Eastern Railway which ran from Vancouver
Fig 4.1 Residential Subdivisions within the Resort Municipality of Whistler
to the Interior. For the next fifty years, this Vancouver-Alta Lake train was to carry
Vancouver citizens seeking summer tranquillity and the mountain air. As a summer
retreat, Whistler Resort's (or Alta Lake Resort as it was then known) heyday was in the
early 1940s. By this time, the commercial lodge business was booming. The Alta Lake
Hotel, along with Jordan's Lodge, Harrop's Lodge and Hillcrest Lodge had joined
Rainbow Lodge in offering week-long packages including such activities as fishing,
hiking, horse-back riding and sailing. The original property, Rainbow Lodge, was
especially successful and commanded a reputation as one of the finest lodges in Western
Canada. Although the majority of the travellers brought family and friends to spend their
annual vacation at Alta Lake year after year, little thought was given to owning a summer
cabin on the lake. Lakeside second homes were virtually non-existent at this time with
people simply patronizing their favourite lodges, a pattern which existed up until the late
1950s.

By the late 1950s in Canada, greater discretionary income had resulted in a large car-
driving population eager to explore its new-found independence. People who previously
had taken the Vancouver train to stay at their preferred lodge for one or two weeks were
now arriving at Alta Lake, lodging for only a few nights, then leaving to tour elsewhere
for the rest of their vacations. This change in the Vancouver market did not necessarily
mean that the lodges suffered reduced occupancy levels as the Alta Lake area became
much more accessible for inclusion in tour itineraries of the car-driving public from the
rest of Western Canada. However, there was now a reduction in the total commitment
of vacationers to lodge at one Alta Lake commercial property for the duration of their summer vacations.

At about the same time as this break in summer vacation habits at Alta Lake in the late 1950s, a group of Vancouver businessmen took out winter lodgings at Hillcrest in order to conduct preliminary feasibility studies on the area’s potential as a ski development. Although small rope tows served downhill skiers at Hillcrest and Cypress, and both skating and cross-country skiing were not uncommon, winter at Alta Lake was traditionally a time for the community to turn its attention to the repair or improvement of interiors in existing lodge structures for the next summer season. However, under the direction of Canada’s Olympic Committee, moves were afoot in British Columbia to find a potential site for the 1968 Winter Games. Having failed in their efforts to find a suitable mountain on Vancouver’s north shore, the business group relocated to the Garibaldi Park region with hopes of greater success. Early surveys had proved extremely encouraging, so much so that they formed the Garibaldi Olympic Development Association (GODA) in order to formalize their commitment to the project. After extensive evaluation of the area on land and by helicopter, Whistler Mountain was chosen as the optimum site. Rising to 2,178 metres with a 1,503 metres slope to the valley floor, it offered an enormous and diversified terrain reminiscent of mountains chosen for past Olympic events at the principal European resorts. Whistler Mountain also received substantial average annual snowfalls of 1200 centimetres, which resulted in winter snowpack averages of 228 centimetres and a potential six month ski season from
November to April. Additionally, the location of Whistler Mountain was practical. Accessibility from Vancouver, 120 kilometres south, had been secured in 1914 with the establishment of the PGE rail link and the Provincial Ministry of Transportation and Highways was under increasing pressure to extend the Vancouver-Squamish corridor road as far as Pemberton, an established logging and farming community to the north of Whistler Resort.

The Garibaldi Lift Company (GLC) was formed in 1960 as an offshoot of GODA with a mandate to oversee the development and operation of chairlifts at Whistler Mountain. GLC contracted Willi Schaeffler, an internationally respected ski-area specialist, as technical consultant. Schaeffler, who had planned the runs for the 1960 Squaw Valley Olympics in California, produced a feasibility report in 1962 which outlined Whistler Mountain's suitability as an Olympic site and its potential to become a major recreational skiing area. With their proposed development situated entirely on crown land, the GLC approached the provincial government for approval. The initial proposal to develop a three-stage lift up the north side of Whistler Mountain (where the present 10-person Whistler Express gondola runs) was turned down because there were previous mineral claims on the site. However, the government gave the go-ahead on February 15th, 1963 to a 10 year lease of 129 hectares of crown land on the west side of the mountain. The GLC had an option to apply to buy the property at the end of five years while the government retained the right to terminate the lease if dissatisfied with the project. The development option on the west side of the mountain, although of lesser potential than
the north side, was nevertheless an attractive proposition as a two-stage lift operation was found more suitable for this site and thus would substantially reduce costs.

As well as pursuing financing for lift construction through public share capital, the GLC also lobbied the Provincial Ministry of Transportation and Highways in 1963 for the extension of the Vancouver-Squamish road (Fig.1.1). With rapidly increasing car ownership in British Columbia, GLC viewed this route, originating as it did from Vancouver, a city of approximately 0.5 million inhabitants at that time, as a vital component to the success of Whistler Mountain. By 1964, a gravel highway was in place. In 1966 the road was paved, turning an arduous four-hour trip from Vancouver into a more comfortable two and a half hour journey for Whistler Mountain’s first day of operations on February 15, 1966.

In anticipation of a large weekend market from Vancouver, new accommodation was in place by 1965. Two commercial properties, the Highland Lodge and the Cheakamus Inn, were located at close proximity to the 4-person gondola at the foot of Whistler Creek. The Highland Lodge, a luxury motel property, offered 5 day packages (accommodation, lift use and ski instruction) from $56 per person, or 7 days for $79 per person. The Cheakamus Inn, a 32 room building, offered 7 day packages (accommodation, meals, lift use and ski instruction) from $99 per person.

More significantly, the first condominium complex in Canada was constructed close to
the gondola base. Targeted specifically to the second home market, the 34 Alpine Village condominium units were rapidly bought by Vancouver residents. Each unit was available for $9,500. Many of the new second home owners were professionals formerly involved in the legal and financial establishment of the Garibaldi Lift Company.

Whistler Resort’s pioneer second home owners were essentially people of means who believed that the mountain and environs offered outstanding and exclusive recreational experiences in winter. As avid skiers, their property at Whistler Mountain, while viewed as a place to enjoy skiing with family, friends and business acquaintances, also gave expression to a more privileged lifestyle. As greater and greater numbers of wealthy ski enthusiasts discovered Whistler Mountain, a demand for private weekend properties developed. The seventy-five lots released as cabin sites in 1966 were quickly snapped up. The almost instantaneous occupancy by Vancouver-based home-owners at the Alpine Village condominium complex was paralleled at the new Tamarisk, Whistler Highlands, Whisky Jack and Adventures West developments. As with the pioneer second home owners, these buyers used their second homes as exclusive retreats from the city and as bases from which to pursue their love of skiing.

Although, in a general sense, early second home owners utilized their Whistler valley properties much more frequently in winter than in summer, the year-round utility of their property soon became an extremely attractive feature. In the winter season of 1966/67, the year-round recreational experience of Whistler valley became a major selling point.
to prospective second home buyers, "The trend in B.C. is not just towards two cars, but
towards two homes, and the second one is often a summer or winter cabin, or if you are
lucky enough to have a piece of property near a resort like Alta Lake's Whistler
Mountain, it could be both" (Whistler Mountain Supplement, Jan. 26, 1967).

4.2 Stage Two: Spontaneous Growth (1967 - 1974)

By the end of the first ski season in 1966/67, a number of private cabins were clustered
in close proximity to the gondola base. To ease potential congestion, the next cabin site
parcels were released 10 kilometres directly northeast of the Whistler Creek lifts. This
development, Emerald Estates, offered clear title sites from $2775 to $4250 (Whistler
Mountain Supplement, Jan. 26, 1967). At the same time, a few building companies based
in Vancouver began marketing component-construction cottages and cabins ranging from
2 to 5 bedroom "A-frame" models. A straightforward assemblage of these pre-fabricated
component homes resulted in an almost total do-it-yourself construction by A-frame
owners themselves which led to a dramatic increase in demand. The Whistler area's
local professional building sector - effectively excluded by new lot owners choosing pre-
fabricated assemblage over permanent construction as the method to build a second home
- even found difficulty gaining contracts to assist with A-frame assembly.

The relative elimination of the local professional building sector through this A-frame
development and do-it-yourself house construction using inexpensive pre-fabricated
component parts, led to a dramatic reduction in the costs associated with second home ownership in the Whistler area. Subsequently, increasingly large numbers of middle-income households from Vancouver became second home property owners. In strong contrast to Whistler Resort's pioneer second home owners who viewed their property as one expression of a more exclusive lifestyle, the new middle-income owners saw their second home as a convenient and cost-effective weekend retreat whose immediate environs offered the opportunity to pursue popular pastimes with family and friends.

With no overall planning legislation in place, this accelerating demand from middle-income households for second home sites in the Whistler valley essentially dictated the spontaneous release of land parcels. Cabins and pre-fabricated A-frames were spreading quickly and chaotically along the valley. The lack of a professional building code meant that widespread use of substandard construction materials went unchecked and presented an extreme fire risk to a rapidly expanding community still without a fire department. Furthermore, second homes and septic tanks stood side by side as a testament to piecemeal sewage systems created at an individual household level as opposed to a complete infrastructural service designed at a neighbourhood or municipal level. However, these severe growing pains went largely unnoticed at the Squamish-Lillooet Regional District Council, established in October of 1968 to govern the Squamish, Whistler, Pemberton and Lillooet "corridor" communities. Whistler Resort's boom-town problems were not shared by the economically depressed communities of Squamish, Pemberton and Lillooet and with more attention paid to the collective concerns of these
three principally logging towns, Whistler Resort's unique concerns were not always addressed.

But the scale and energy of Whistler Resort's spontaneous development did not go unnoticed at the provincial level of government. In the early 1970s, the New Democratic Party (NDP) government proposed a set of development strategies for B.C. tourism, taking special interest in Whistler Resort's dynamism and potential as a destination ski resort. A subsequent situational analysis of Whistler Resort identified the need to enforce planning regulations in an area witnessing an unplanned spiral of growth. As a result of these recommendations, the province declared a land freeze on the Whistler valley in 1974. With all development outlawed and strict controls now in place, the provincial government could more effectively assess Whistler Resort's specific concerns, including its membership in the Squamish-Lillooet Regional District Council.

By November of 1974, the Provincial Ministry of Municipal Affairs had produced a report which identified the need to provide a high level of municipal services to cope with the stresses of a large winter population residing in a previously unplanned area. One of their first recommendations was the installation of an extensive sewage system which could accommodate the population influx of vacationers, second home owners and service personnel during the ski season. Another proposal, recognizing the potential social problems of disjointed, sprawling subdivisions served by only a few basic amenities, called for the construction of a town centre complex at Whistler Resort offering diverse
shopping opportunities and complete community services. It was felt that a commercial/service nucleus would foster the development of a community spirit while providing a greater balance between residential areas and supporting amenities at Whistler Resort.

4.3 Stage Three: Early Years of Legislative Authority as a Resort Municipality (1975-80)

By considering these infrastructural concerns in relation to Whistler Resort’s seasonal swings in total numbers of vacationers, second home owners and service personnel, the provincial government realized that the Whistler Resort community faced a set of circumstances quite unlike those of the Squamish, Pemberton and Lillooet communities. With Whistler Resort’s unique concerns now clearly recognized by the province, governmental legislation was designed to reflect its political and economic distinctiveness in the Squamish-Lillooet corridor. On September 6th, 1975, the Resort Municipality of Whistler (RMOW) was established by an act of the provincial legislature. This act, designating Whistler Resort as B.C.’s first resort municipality, followed the municipal model of government but contained clauses addressing planning policy for a resort community.

Barely two months after the inception of the RMOW, the NDP government lost the provincial election to the Social Credit opposition. With Whistler Resort’s slated infrastructural improvements so dependent on provincial funding, the newly elected
government had to be convinced of the NDP's belief that investment in the resort would result in major economic benefits for the whole province. Fortunately for Whistler Resort and those who had invested in it, a few months of intensive negotiations with the resort's municipal council resulted in the Social Credit government approving the development plans and granting the release of funding.

While the sewerage project sponsored by the provincial government got under way early in 1976, the municipal council began the task of articulating strict planning policies for Whistler Resort. Local zoning regulations were established by September 1976 and the Official Community Plan (OCP) was endorsed in December of the same year. The OCP encouraged a down-scaling of development at the original Whistler Creek gondola site and a concentration on establishing a village core at the north side of Whistler Mountain. With a series of planning by-laws firmly in place, the uncontrolled development of cabin communities was effectively curtailed.

After more than twelve months of professional and public consultation, the development strategy for Whistler Village was finally approved by municipal council. The town centre, providing substantial local and visitor amenities, was to be built on the crown land formerly reserved as the proposed site for a future Olympic village. The newly formed Whistler Village Land Company was charged with ensuring that Whistler Resort's land management objectives were followed. Created by the Social Credit government as a municipal development corporation, the Whistler Village Land Company's mandate was
to sell village land parcels to developers while enforcing strict building codes. In recognition of its role in developing a destination resort, the Whistler Village Land Company received a $9.2 million grant from the Travel Industry Development Subsidiary Agreement (TIDSA). This grant, provided by a federal and provincial cost sharing program for tourism, financed basic village infrastructure and created sound economic conditions for future investment.

With this financial backing, the land company then established specific design principles to ensure that the character of the proposed village would be upheld. One of the key principles stated that the village could be fashioned into a vibrant centre-piece of the resort if street level interaction of locals and visitors was promoted. This principle was adopted through the provision of pedestrian precincts and by maintaining commercial properties at street level through the financial assistance provided by strata units on the upper floors. An additional planning principle stated that all resort visitors had to be given certain opportunities to occupy village units for the duration of their vacations. This principle was met by developing a rental pool covenant for village properties. During Phase One of village development, a restrictive covenant was registered against property title. When not in use by the owner, any Phase One units were required to be placed or listed with a rental pool through which they were made available for rent to the public. All units developed in Phase Two of the village plan have a less flexible covenant registered against the title. In this case, all properties are required to be placed or listed with a rental pool. Owners are allowed to occupy their units for only 56 days
of the year: 28 days during the winter and 28 days during the summer.

In addition to town-centre developments and planning policies, Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation (formerly Garibaldi Lift Co. Ltd.) made a commitment to build three northside lifts in order to link Whistler Mountain to the future village site. Following the Whistler Mountain proposal came the announcement that the adjacent mountain, Blackcomb, was to be developed by Fortress Mountain Resort Ltd. This organization, representing an alliance between the Federal Business Development Bank and Aspen Skiing Corporation, had transformed the fortunes of Fortress Mountain, Alberta and were looking to expand their interests to other areas. Blackcomb Mountain was widely recognized at that time as one of the best sites in North America for new ski development opportunities and Fortress made a bid on the proposal call. Recognizing the combined assets of both partners in Fortress Mountain Resort Ltd. at that time, and Aspen’s reputation as a developer of successful ski resorts since 1946, it was not surprising that Fortress’ development proposal for Blackcomb Mountain was readily accepted.

With Blackcomb Mountain’s new management wishing to position themselves as resort partners along with the original Whistler Mountain operation, the first phase of Blackcomb Mountain’s development was coordinated with the growth of the town centre. In the summer of 1980, the first sod was turned on the proposed village site. Construction began on the 21 land parcels represented by the Phase One and Two building projects. Blackcomb Mountain, which had offered limited-access skiing in 1979,
installed five chair lifts in order to have public skiing in full operation by the winter of 1980. The cohesive nature of these planning procedures was in direct contrast to the chaotic development of the mid to late 1960s.

The Aspen Skiing Corporation's involvement with the Resort Municipality of Whistler led to another significant development: the formation of the Whistler Resort Association (WRA) in March 1979. At Aspen's insistence, the WRA was established as the marketing agency of the resort. Modelled after Aspen, Vail and Snowmass Resort Associations, the WRA would promote, facilitate and encourage the development, maintenance and operation of the designated Resort Lands. All village businesses were required by legislation to join the WRA while other Whistler Resort businesses could join if they so wished. The WRA would be funded by members' mandatory contributions. In return, the membership would benefit from a central information service, a central reservations and billing system for all commercial accommodations as well as a coordinated promotion and advertising campaign directed to regional, national and international markets.

A special clause in the Resort Municipality of Whistler's legislation allowed the release of prime site land parcels to both mountain operations in the event of improvements and upgrades to lifts and mountain facilities. Such mountain improvements would increase the quality of resort amenities for the visitor, furthering the status and attractiveness of Whistler Resort in the ski-destination marketplace. Both Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises
and Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation’s initial "front-end" financing on mountain improvements would be recovered through real estate transactions on the allotted lands. Selling almost exclusively to clients looking to acquire second homes, the mountain enterprises would profit in this scheme and subsequently would be encouraged to further develop their facilities.

Blackcomb was the first of the two mountains to be developed under the provincial government’s Ski Development Policy which gave base mountain development rights on crown land in return for the construction of lifts. Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises were granted a crown land lease for thirty-five years, during which time they would be entitled to construct one accommodation bed unit for every increase in lift capacity of two skier days. The earning of bed unit development rights in return for lift construction was the foundation of both lift company contracts. It was used as a technique to entice the respective mountain operations to provide the public recreation facilities (lifts) in advance of developing the revenue producing property. It used as an incentive future benefits to be gained by real estate development opportunities at the Benchlands area for Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises and Whistler Creek for Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation (Fig.4.1).

Before 1975, Whistler Resort was a ski area of great potential undergoing spontaneous and damaging development. However, the period 1975-80 was witness to a dramatic turnaround in the fortunes of the resort. The unique social, economic and political conditions of Whistler Resort in the Squamish-Lillooet corridor were recognized in the
provincial legislature, culminating in the designation of Resort Municipality. Now armed with legislative powers, the RMOW set up stringent by-laws to strongly counter a chaotic escalation of both residential and commercial development. With proper planning procedures in place, the RMOW focused on establishing a village core which would offer services and amenities required by destination skiers. With the co-operation of Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation and Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises, the village site was to be complemented by adjacent chair lifts and mountain facilities. Additionally, Whistler Resort Association initiated an extensive promotional campaign on behalf of the resort in regional, national and international markets. The foundations of a mature, fully-functioning resort complex had been set in place.

With stringent planning policies at the forefront of the municipality by-laws, residential construction became much more regulated. Before 1975, cabin communities spread rapidly as they kept pace with demand. With no parallel infrastructural development, these sprawling settlements were left with no basic services and amenities. In contrast, spontaneous development was checked by strict legislation from 1975-80. In this period, the pace of second home development at Whistler Resort was not dictated by demand but was kept in step with the construction stages of the new village and its community facilities.

However, the regulatory nature of both residential and commercial construction in the new resort municipality was more a response to a series of development cost concerns
than merely a strict imposition of planning legislation. Firstly, commercial lenders were unwilling at the outset to commit long term funding to what they perceived to be a high-risk recreational development. Further development cost implications were brought about by significantly higher costs for labour and materials in this non-urban location and a Labour Relations Board decision to designate the Whistler Resort development as a union job site. Additionally, the development cost problem was aggravated by weather restricted building seasons. These factors and the (then) growing popularity of real estate tax shelters led Whistler Resort’s developers to finance resort construction through condominium sales to individual buyers.

These condominium units were offered to the second home market on a pre-construction basis, whereas a threshold sales level of 60 percent would be required for banks to provide interim financing. Virtually all development at that time offered strata title suites involving individual-fee simple ownership with the developer retaining the final strata unit containing the ground and lower floor commercial space which would be operated by the developer or leased. These parcels were designed by the Whistler Village Land Company as combination accommodation/retail/commercial because economic evaluations dictated the need for each parcel to have some upper floor accommodations to make strata title financing possible and to improve economic viability.

These strata title properties were open to persons or firms qualifying as "sophisticated investors" based on criteria of the British Columbia Superintendent of Brokers. This
allowed Whistler Resort's developers to make a public offering without going through the more rigorous requirements of the Securities and Exchange Commission where eligible investors are screened as to their personal net worth and/or investment experience. Most significantly, each strata title owner acquired the property for the purpose of earning income as a partner in the operation of a hotel. The units would be managed by a hotel management company with each owner entitled to a percentage of earnings from hotel operation. Personal use was anticipated to be incidental and was limited by the 56 day maximum-use restrictive covenant.

This financing method allowed developers to secure the necessary funds for construction at affordable costs while providing strata title unit owners with a tangible asset having capital appreciation potential, a cash flow to offset initial purchase, and a qualifying tax shelter. The importance of the tax shelter aspect was critical to financing Whistler Resort through the multi-developer method. Canadian tax laws of the day allowed investors to substantially reduce their taxable income by deducting their portion of development "soft-costs" (non-building construction costs). Since a new residential property owner at the resort did not necessarily have to pay the full unit purchase price at the time of sale, a deduction from other taxable income was often greater than the initial investment. This tax saving attraction meant Whistler Resort did not have to sell itself entirely on its investment value, but on the initial tax savings provided an investor (Whistler Question, December 21, 1977).
This complex "front-end" financing strategy, while ensuring that Whistler Resort's development costs were met, had a dramatic impact on the type of second home housing stock constructed at the resort and, secondly, the motivations behind second home property acquisition at Whistler Resort. Before 1975, the majority of the second homes at Whistler Resort were single family dwellings, A-frames or cabins which were owned outright and were situated on privately held lots. In contrast, the period 1975-80 brought development parcel financing that was driven by second home owners taking out strata title ownership in condominium units.

In terms of the motivations behind second home ownership at Whistler, the pre-1975 period saw two distinct groups acquiring property in the resort. The pioneer second home owners, mainly wealthy professionals from Vancouver, viewed their acquisition primarily as a means in which to enjoy exclusive outdoor recreational experiences. The second group, made up of middle income households and also mainly from Vancouver, saw their second home property as an inexpensive weekend "getaway" offering the opportunity to engage in popular recreational pursuits. Although both these groups had different views upon property acquisition as to the overall utility of their second home, they both saw their second home principally as a recreational property. In direct contrast, those individuals buying in to strata titled condominium units at Whistler Resort from 1975-80 saw their second home as a commercial sector rental suite generating income to offset initial purchase, which qualified as a tax shelter and provided an investment asset with capital appreciation potential.
4.4 Stage Four: Recessionary Impact (1981-1984)

The period 1979 through to 1981 was a time of intensive development at Whistler Resort. Twenty-seven sites were completed or under construction ranging from small, mixed accommodation/retail developments to a 160 unit hotel. By late 1981, almost 400 rental units were completed and in use, including a mixture of hotel rooms, studios, and one, two and three bedroom units. Residential construction in the valley, mainly second home properties, was valued at $56 million (Resort Municipality of Whistler, 1988).

However, the introduction of the federal budget proposal on November 12, 1981 had a severe impact on property investment opportunities at Whistler Resort. Many of the national tax write-off and national tax deferral schemes driving development parcel financing in the resort were eliminated by this legislation. The investment uncertainty caused by this budget, and the start of the economic recession of the early part of the decade, caused a virtual halt to both commercial and residential construction activity in the village centre. Within weeks, recessionary market conditions led to plummeting real estate prices and bleak investment opportunities in strata title condominium units. These two factors made development parcel financing difficult to secure for Whistler Resort. It came as no surprise, therefore, that by the spring of 1982, the nine land parcels making up Phase Four of village development had received no bids. This lack of property sales led to the collapse of the Whistler Village Land Company. Since its only revenue was generated from land sales and the last property sales had been in mid 1981, by early 1982
the Land Company was in severe financial difficulty. By the summer of 1982, it was effectively insolvent and no longer operating.

During this period the Board of Directors from Whistler Resort’s municipal council, who had taken over the Land Company’s operations, looked at a variety of possible solutions to Whistler Resort’s problems. This included legalized gambling, sale to private owners and government take-over. While the likelihood that gambling would be legalized was extremely remote, the possibility of a private buyer takeover of Whistler Resort was very real. The Board of Directors received three written offers to purchase the Land Company’s interest, ranging between $6 and $7 million and the municipality did, in fact, enter into a conditional agreement to purchase with one of the companies.

In an internal financial review, it was concluded that $7 million was a fair estimate of the market value of the Land Company’s assets. These assets included developable land in the village centre, golf course land, various common land improvements, plus some option to purchase revenue. The developable land had been appraised at $20 million a year earlier. Aside from this decline in real property value, failure of the Whistler Resort as a going concern development, was going to have a number of direct and spinoff effects. Some of the more serious included: decline in Whistler Resort property values; loss of management and control of the resort resulting in a likely emphasis on real estate development rather than the resort concept and; diminished investor confidence, domestically and internationally. The degree of impact of each of these issues had a
tremendous range of possible implications, with the worst possible scenario being the total financial collapse of Whistler Resort. As a result of the seriousness of these issues, the provincial government was convinced by municipal council to step in and rescue Whistler Resort. The take-over vehicle used was WLC Developments Ltd.

WLC Developments Ltd. replaced Whistler Village Land Company Ltd. in January 1983. Like its forerunner, WLC Developments Ltd. was to be a privately incorporated company, but unlike the earlier Land Company, all its shares were owned by the province through the Ministry of Lands, Parks and Housing. It took over all the Whistler Village Land Company Ltd. assets and liabilities for $1. When WLC Developments Ltd. assumed responsibility for the village centre, it took over a significant load of debt. Liabilities totalled an estimated $27 million including both balance sheet items and contingent liabilities. Actual debts included $10.5 million to the Travel Industry Development Subsidiary Agreement, $4 million to the Royal Bank of Canada and $1.5 million to Yorkshire Trust. Contingent liabilities included completion of the convention centre, an operational fund for the golf course, and infrastructure obligations. These liabilities were balanced by an asset value of $7 million leaving a shortfall of $20 million.

One of WLC Development Ltd.'s first tasks was to pay off about $700,000 in debts to unsecured creditors. The Land Company assumed responsibility for the golf course and spent approximately $200,000 preparing it for the June 1983 official opening. It also
took over unfinished landscaping, paving and curbing projects within the village centre. Its major project, however, was the recommencement of construction of the Whistler Conference Centre. This facility, originally conceived as a recreation centre, was only half completed due to lack of funds. It stood as an uncompleted shell for nearly two years until the project was redesigned and construction reactivated in June 1984. The undertaking of these projects was funded through a $21 million line of credit arranged through Victoria and Grey Trust Company and guaranteed by the provincial government.

This loan would be paid back by WLC Developments Ltd. through future land sale revenues. The lands designated for sale when economic conditions had stabilized were the undeveloped parcels in the village and the Village North Lands, adjacent to the village. The actions taken by the Social Credit government, using the vehicle of WLC Developments Ltd., were enough to provide a certain measure of assurance to Whistler Resort's newer second home owners that their property investment had good capital appreciation potential once the recession had lifted. So Whistler Resort's second home investors "dug in" till early 1985, awaiting the end of the recession.


By 1985, the recession had cleared and investment activity, albeit cautious, began to take place again at Whistler Resort. As business and consumer confidence grew, real estate prices in the resort stabilized and then began to rise. Whistler Resort's three-bedroom properties valued at $100,000 in 1980 and priced at $68,000 during the recession had
climbed to $125,000 by 1985. In the same year, 150 residential building permits were issued at a value of $20 million.

The change in ownership of both mountain operations at Whistler Resort led to much of the staggering infrastructural and residential development that took place from 1986-1990. In the case of Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises, Aspen Skiing Corporation sold its 50 percent interest in June 1986 to Intrawest, a Vancouver-based development company. In accordance with the "lands for lifts" Ski Development Policy that had encouraged the early lift facilities at Blackcomb Mountain, the take-over gave Intrawest the rights to package and sell land parcels at the Blackcomb Benchlands. By the following year, Intrawest had opened up the 254 acre Benchlands and immediately sold 120 condo-hotel strata titled units (average price of $140/square foot) mainly to the Vancouver second home market. At the same time, Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises invested $26 million in the construction of high speed lifts, the relocation of the base lodge and a major expansion of the summit lodge (Vancouver Business Report, September 1988). These mountain developments were ready and operational in less than one year.

With a 75 percent increase in skier-visits resulting from these improvements, Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises surpassed Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation in winter attendance for the first time. Again, due to the resort’s "land for lifts" policy, Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises’ "front-end" financing of new mountain improvements was compensated for by the release of more land parcels in the Benchlands. In 1988, Intrawest built and sold 345 strata title condo-hotel units at an average of $200 per square foot, representing a
$60 increase per square foot in one year from 1987. In 1989, 456 strata title units were built and sold for $300 per square foot, a staggering $100 per square foot increase in one year. Up to the summer of 1990, 85 units had been built and sold for $353 per square foot (Table 4.1). Within three years, the new Blackcomb properties more than doubled in value, increasing 250 percent per square foot. Driven by the remarkable capital appreciation offered by Blackcomb Benchlands properties during this period, second home buyer demand was so great that almost all condo-hotel developments sold out well before construction (Table 4.2). The entire $300 million Blackcomb Benchlands project is expected to be finished by 1994.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Units Built/Sold</th>
<th>Avg. Condo-Hotel Square Foot Price($)</th>
<th>Avg. % Growth In $/Square Foot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Intrawest Developments, 1990)

Big changes were also happening at Whistler Mountain. Operating at a loss since the northside expansion in 1980, Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation had accrued a debt of $12 million and was up for sale. Intrawest immediately submitted a bid but Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation’s Board of Directors, being committed to the idea that two independent mountain operations serve the resort, turned them down. Minority share holders Bartrac Holdings and Marin Investments produced a $20 million package to the Board, and this was accepted. On March 29, 1988 the successful bidders acquired the
TABLE 4.2: TYPICAL CAPITAL APPRECIATION - BLACKCOMB BENCHLANDS PROPERTIES (TO MID 1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Original Sale Price</th>
<th>Last Re-sale Transaction</th>
<th>% Growth In $/Square Foot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cedar Ridge (parcel #3B)</td>
<td>$165/sq.ft. (1987)</td>
<td>$362/sq.ft.(1990) #3 - 1450 sq.ft.</td>
<td>119%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Villas (parcel #26-28)</td>
<td>$152/sq.ft. (1988)</td>
<td>$222/sq.ft.(1990) Wintergreen #9 - 1247 sq.ft.</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greystone (parcel #18)</td>
<td>$213/sq.ft. (1988)</td>
<td>$315/sq.ft.(1990) #46 - 1182 sq.ft.</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Intrawest Developments, 1990)

interests of former partners Hastings West Investment and Intercan Holdings. Within four weeks, the new corporation announced major upgrades to aging equipment and the installation of a 10-person gondola as a direct competitor to Blackcomb Skiing Enterprises’ high speed 4-person chairs. The Whistler Express gondola now bypasses the long three-chair haul, transporting skiers and sightseers to the alpine region in 15 minutes. The degree of competition, and the "high stakes" that had emerged, may be surmised by noting that these improvements cost some $18 million to install. But following these improvements, Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation was granted real estate development rights on the northern flank of Whistler Mountain overlooking the village and on the original gondola site at Whistler Creek. Whistler Mountain Ski Corporation has not yet fully exercised its residential development options.
Recent residential development has not been the sole preserve of both mountain operations and their real estate divisions. In 1987, 725 units were built in the resort municipality with a construction value of $65 million. In 1988, 1400 new units were built valley-wide and construction values leapt to $106 million. In both years market demand for all type of residential properties at Whistler resulted in significant increases in total real estate expenditures at the resort (Table 4.3). In 1989 to 1990, the increased national and international awareness of Whistler Resort and a scale-down in the supply of new residential property, combined with a steady, strong economy (up to 1990), brought even greater levels of market demand. In a similar pattern to second home ownership on the Blackcomb Benchlands, second homes in Whistler Resort were driven by considerable capital appreciation rates (Table 4.4).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Avg. Price (Chalets)</th>
<th># Sold</th>
<th>Total Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>$126,127.00</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>$757,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>$133,270.00</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>$12,127,609.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>$140,714.00</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>$13,508,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>$149,086.00</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>$19,083,000.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>$187,546.00</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>$23,818,325.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3b.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Avg. Price (Condos)</th>
<th># Sold</th>
<th>Total Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>$ 92,762.00</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>$ 9,461,699.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>$ 83,302.00</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>$ 25,740,302.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>$ 83,597.00</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>$ 20,899,361.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>$ 105,673.00</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>$ 44,382,303.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>$ 139,319.00</td>
<td>724</td>
<td>$ 100,366,837.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Avg. Price (Lots)</th>
<th># Sold</th>
<th>Total Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>$ 40,529.00</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>$ 567,400.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>$ 51,252.00</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>$ 6,201,550.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>$ 50,995.00</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>$ 6,731,356.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>$ 62,177.00</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>$ 9,761,716.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>$ 102,718.00</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>$ 11,504,428.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Whistler Information Services Ltd., 1990)

**TABLE 4.4: TYPICAL CAPITAL APPRECIATION IN THE WHISTLER VALLEY (1989 - 1990)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>$ Value (Jan 1989)</th>
<th>$ Value (July 1989)</th>
<th>$ Value (Jan 1990)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lot: Whistler Cay Heights</td>
<td>120,000</td>
<td>160,000</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lot: Alpine Meadows</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>95,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Townhouse: The Villas ($ per sq. ft.)</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Townhouse: Smoke Tree ($ per sq. ft.)</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condo: Glacier Lodge ($ per sq. ft.)</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condo: Lake Placid Lodge ($ per sq. ft.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condo: Tamarisk ($ per sq. ft.)</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Family House: Alpine Meadows</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>280,000</td>
<td>330,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Sno-E Canada Consultants Ltd., 1990)
4.6 Stage Six: Maturity as a Four Season Destination Resort (1990-1992)

With Whistler Resort fast approaching the limits of the Official Community Plan boundaries, all new commercial and residential development proposals must address stricter criteria recently established by the RMOW, criteria pertinent to the long term well-being of a year-round destination resort and its community. To find a solution to reduce the seasonality of the resort is a major preoccupation of municipal planners. With average summer hotel occupancy rates at 41 percent and winter occupancies averaging 66 percent, commercial and residential development proposals incorporating golf, tennis and other summer use facilities are favourably viewed. Secondly, due to an acute shortage of affordable employee housing, all new developments must now build employee housing units to the value of the number of jobs the development may create.

These two planning clauses, encouraging both summer facility development and community development, are among the first formal attempts by the RMOW to tackle the issue of Whistler Resort’s sustainability. A prime example of a recently approved project fulfilling criteria under the new Official Community Plan development proposal call is the Bjorn Borg Whistler Resort Complex. The resort complex, scheduled for a 1994 completion date, is an $80 million project featuring a 350-room Hyatt hotel with strata title unit options, 125 market townhouses, 184 employee housing suites, 16 tennis courts, a golf teaching facility and a natural history interpretation centre.
Although rising interest rates in 1991 dampened Whistler Resort’s commercial and residential development, residential units continue to be constructed at the resort. With the province recently selling off the last of the Whistler Village parcels through WLC Developments Ltd., all attention is focused on the development options on the Village North Lands. This 60 acre site adjacent to the Whistler Village has been divided up into 28 land parcels and zoning is already in place. Village North, when complete, will double the size of Whistler Village and provide the resort with more commercial and residential accommodation as well as much needed community space.

With both mountain companies continually upgrading their on-mountain operations and facilities, while the RMOW focuses on summer facility development and the provision of affordable housing for a year-round work force, Whistler Resort’s commercial sector (under the auspices of Whistler Resort Association) is presently endeavouring to promote the area as a viable, vibrant and rapidly maturing four-season mountain recreation destination resort. This latest resort development strategy has begun to influence evaluations of second home use made by property owners at Whistler Resort. Whistler Resort’s growing status as a four-season destination resort has led to a reduction in the financial risks involved in second home investments at Whistler Resort. With the resort now attracting large visitor volumes in both summer and winter, 499,082 visitors in summer 1991 and 554,622 in winter 1990/91 (Whistler Resort Association, 1991), second home units placed in the commercial rental pool have more consistent occupancy rates throughout the year and accrue far greater revenue for their owners. Additionally, a
growing permanent work force seeking long-term tenancy agreements have virtually
guaranteed year-round income generation for those second home owners leasing part of
their property as a private rental suite. In general, Whistler Resort's present second
home owners now profit on their investment by generating rental revenues (from either
short-term vacationers or long-term tenants) which exceed monthly mortgage payments
made on the property. As well as bringing shorter-term profits to current owners in a
rental capacity, Whistler Resort's second homes offer extremely favourable capital
appreciation potential with the area rapidly maturing as a four-season mountain recreation
destination resort.

It is clear from this chapter that the six stages in Whistler Resort's evolution produced
external conditions that influenced second home owner's decisions about the utility of
their property. In the mid 1960s, the last years of the early resort development stage
(1914-1966), news of extensive recreation masterplans for lift-served Olympic-level ski
runs on Whistler Mountain brought Whistler Resort's first second home owners to the
area. Principally wealthy citizens of Vancouver, Whistler Resort's pioneer second home
owners bought their properties as sites from which they pursued exclusive recreational
experiences in winter. As part-time winter residents of a new, Olympic-level ski
development, these second home owners viewed their property as an expression of a
more privileged lifestyle. In the spontaneous growth stage (1967-1974), successful
marketing of inexpensive pre-fabricated component "A-frame" cottages and cabins by
building companies in Vancouver brought hundreds of middle-income second home
owners to Whistler Resort. In contrast to Whistler Resort’s pioneer second home owners who sought status and exclusivity from their property acquisition, the later middle-income owners viewed their property as an accessible and economical weekend getaway.

In the early years of legislative authority as a Resort Municipality (1975-1980), cost concerns led Whistler Resort’s developers to finance resort construction through condominium sales to individual buyers in the second home market. During this stage, second home owners acquired strata title units in condominium complexes at Whistler Resort for the purpose of generating income as a partner in the operation of a commercial lodging establishment. The units purchased were used as commercial rental suites by property management companies, who then shared rental revenues with the second home owners. Unit owners were limited by a restrictive covenant to 56 days of personal use per year, with the suite available for rent to Whistler Resort visitors for the remaining 309 days in the year. These owners saw their second home as an investment property which provided rental revenues as a cash flow to offset initial purchase, which was a qualifying tax shelter and was a tangible asset having favourable capital appreciation potential. This view of second home ownership contrasts with second home acquisitions made in Whistler Resort between 1966 and 1974, where the majority of second home owners bought into full title ownership of their property and the lot in which it was situated, and considered their second home as a private recreational property.

In the recessionary impact stage (1981-1984), plummeting real estate prices and bleak
investment opportunities in both full title housing stock and strata title condominium units at Whistler Resort effectively halted all new residential construction and thus all new second home property acquisitions. However, with the provincial government replacing a now insolvent Whistler Village Land Company with WLC Developments in a $27 Million financial "bail-out" for the resort in January 1983, both early and later stage second home owners at Whistler Resort re-evaluated the utility of their properties, viewing them as an asset with favourable capital appreciation potential once the recession had lifted. In the economic recovery and resort rebirth stage (1985-1989), the scale-down in the supply of new residential property (as a direct result of the resort construction freeze imposed during the recession), a strong economy and increased national and international awareness of Whistler Resort, resulted in high levels of demand from the second home market. Such demand drove property prices to record levels, so much so that from 1987 to 1989, prospective second home owners sought to take advantage of staggering capital appreciation in resort property, typically in the order of 250 percent over three years for condominium units in dollars per square foot.

In stage six, maturity as a four - season destination resort (1990-1992), large visitor volumes in both summer and winter ensure that second homes placed on the commercial rental pool on a year-round basis now accrue far greater revenues for their owners. In addition, with a growing permanent work force in the resort seeking long-term tenancy agreements, owners who view their second home as a private recreational property now generate rental revenue from long-term tenants occupying suites in the basement or
ground-floor of their property. Whistler Resort's present second home owners profit on their property acquisition by generating rental revenues, from short-term visitor stays in commercial rental pools or long-term tenants in private recreational properties, which exceed mortgage payments made on the second home. Beyond these shorter-term rental profits, Whistler Resort's second homes offer capital appreciation potential with the growing maturity of the area as a four-season mountain recreation destination resort.
Chapter 5: The Relationship Between Second Home Decision Making and the Contextual Environment

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the questionnaire administered to the sample of second home owners at Whistler Resort. In specific terms, results pertinent to the testing of the hypothesis that change in the contextual environment is a significant factor in influencing second home decision making are examined. As respondents identified the year between 1967 and 1988 in which they purchased their second home at Whistler Resort, they can, in light of the preceding discussion, be categorized according to a distinct stage in the resort’s evolution. Each distinct stage brought a series of unique external conditions and thus a distinct contextual environment which influenced these second home owner’s decisions about the utility of their property.


In an attempt to elicit any clear differences in second home property evaluations that were influenced by the distinct external conditions indicative of these resort development stages, these purchasing periods were crosstabulated with owner’s anticipated utility,
5.2 Relationship Between Year of Purchase and Utility Values

5.2.1 Anticipated Utility

As described in Robertson's model in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, "anticipated utility" relates to an owner's expectations of the function of the second home he/she has recently purchased. Table 5.2 displays some inferential trends between time frame within which a decision was made to purchase a second home and the year that the property was purchased. With 79 percent of owners who bought between 1967 and 1974 taking less than two months to consider and buy their second home, it is apparent that this period of spontaneous growth in Whistler Resort's history was characterized by rapid acquisition

---

**TABLE 5.1: SURVEY RESPONDENTS' YEAR OF SECOND HOME PURCHASE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-1974</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-1980</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-1984</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-1989</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

actual utility, projected utility, situational utility and site utility evaluations respectively to identify if any inferential trends existed between variables. The Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance test was then applied to establish any significant levels of variance between resort development stage and second home decision making.
of second home property. The early period of legislative authority as a Resort Municipality from 1975 to 1980 brought stricter planning guidelines to the resort and a slowdown in the availability of new property. This reduced the rate of real estate transactions, as displayed by 59.6 percent of owners taking less than two months to purchase their second home, 31.7 percent taking between 2-6 months and 8.7 percent taking between 6-12 months. With 40 percent of owners purchasing a second home between 6-12 months from initial consideration and 15 percent taking longer than 1 year, the period 1981-1984 shows the level of uncertainty created by the impact of the recession at Whistler. The period 1985-89 saw economic recovery, resort rebirth and facility development that brought four-season destination status to Whistler Resort. Second homes at Whistler Resort were again perceived in the marketplace as a strong investment, reflected in 84.4 percent of owners purchasing property at that time in less than two months from initial decision.

Table 5.3 outlines the anticipated utility or the key initial decisions made regarding the property, by year of property purchase. No clear inferential trends exist between year of purchase and general recreational opportunities, personal investment factors and prestige. However, a marked difference exists between the relative importance of financial considerations for the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 ownership groups while there is a reduced importance of financial considerations during 1967-1974 and the lack of investment considerations during the recessionary period 1981-1984.
TABLE 5.2: TIME FRAME FOR PURCHASE OF SECOND HOME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>&lt; 2 Months</th>
<th>2 to less than 6 Months</th>
<th>6 to less than 12 Months</th>
<th>1 Year +</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5.3: MOST IMPORTANT INITIAL DECISIONS CONCERNING PROPERTY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>General Recreation Opportunity</th>
<th>Purely Financial Investment</th>
<th>Personal Investment</th>
<th>Prestige</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>55.2%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>58.0%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>55.2%</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.2 Actual Utility

Beyond the acquisition of the property, the owner household settles into a distinct pattern of property use. This is the actual utility stage of second home decision making in Robertson's model. Tables 5.4 and 5.5 chart year of second home purchase by most important winter and summer activities respectively - two key factors in evaluation of actual utility. The most prominent inferential trend exists between year of purchase and investment oriented activities in winter and summer. These investment-oriented
TABLE 5.4: MOST IMPORTANT WINTER ACTIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>Active Recreation</th>
<th>Passive Recreation</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>34.3%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5.5: MOST IMPORTANT SUMMER ACTIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Purchase</th>
<th>Active Recreation</th>
<th>Passive Recreation</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>No Summer Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>67.4%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

activities relate to external and internal alterations to property to increase its resale value. Such alterations are important to those who bought in to second homes during the periods 1975-1980 and 1985-1989. Investment-oriented activities are of lesser importance to owners who bought their property between 1967-1974 and to owners who purchased during the recessionary times of 1981-1984.

Tables 5.6 and 5.7 show the crosstabulation between two related actual utility factors - average number of trips to second home per annum and average number of days spent
at the second home per annum. There are no clear inferential trends between year of purchase and average number of trips to property per year and year of purchase and average number of days spent at the second home per annum. However, only 3.6 percent of all second home owners who purchased between 1975-1980 stayed between 61-90 days in their property, most likely due to the majority of Whistler Resort owners operating their second home as a commercial rental suite and subject to a maximum of 56 days of personal use by a restrictive covenant on their property.

**TABLE 5.6: AVERAGE NO. OF TRIPS TO SECOND HOME PER ANNUM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>1-10 Trips</th>
<th>11-20 Trips</th>
<th>21-30 Trips</th>
<th>31+ Trips</th>
<th>No Trips</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
<td>30.5%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 5.7: AVERAGE NO. OF DAYS SPENT AT SECOND HOME/ANNUM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>1-20 Days</th>
<th>21-40 Days</th>
<th>41-60 Days</th>
<th>61-98 Days</th>
<th>99-199 Days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>34.3%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
<td>31.3%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.8 shows the crosstabulation between owners who have bought second homes at specific periods within the resort's history and their propensity to rent out their property.
for revenue generation. It is clear from the table that all groups display a high tendency to rent out their second homes, with the most significant non-rental group accounting for only 4.1% of the 1967-1974 owner base. Similarly, Table 5.9 shows for the crosstabulation between owner’s year of purchase and time of year second home is rented that while a small number rent their property only from November to April, over 90 percent of all groups maximize their revenue potential by renting their property on a year-round basis.

### TABLE 5.8: SECOND HOME AS RENTAL PROPERTY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>Second Home Used as Rental Property</th>
<th>Second Home Not Used as Rental Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>95.9%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>98.6%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>96.7%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>98.9%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 5.9: TIME OF YEAR SECOND HOME IS RENTED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Of Purchase</th>
<th>Nov-April</th>
<th>Year Round Basis</th>
<th>Do Not Rent Out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>91.0%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>92.5%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>91.0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3 Projected Utility

From Robertson’s model, once a distinctive pattern of second home use has been
established by the owner household, focus turns to the future uses and functions of the second home. This is the projected utility stage of second home decision making. In the investigation of the relationship between projected utility evaluations of property (or the owner's future intent in regards to the second home) and the year in which the second home was purchased, Table 5.10 presents some clear inferential trends between variables. A marked difference exists between those owners who bought their second home between 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 and those owners who either bought during the spontaneous growth stage of 1967-1974 or during recessionary times between 1981 - 1984. The majority of owners who bought between 1967-1974 and 1981-1984 plan to leave their second home in a completely unaltered state. In contrast, the greatest percentage of owners who have plans to improve their property for resale purposes belong to the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 ownership groups. In addition, 22.9 percent of the 1975-1980 group and 27.5 percent of the 1985-1989 group indicated that their future intentions for the property are purely investment-oriented and plan to sell when the real estate market provides the opportunity to capitalize on this investment.

### Table 5.10: Future Plan Scenario

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Retire</th>
<th>Unaltered</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>Obsolete/Dispose</th>
<th>Burden/Dispose</th>
<th>Improvement</th>
<th>To Kids</th>
<th>D/K</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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5.2.4 Situational Utility

Beyond the examination of the relationships between year of property purchase and the temporal dimensions of anticipated, actual and projected utility, crosstabulations were employed between year of property purchase and the spatial dimensions of decision making - situational and site utility. Situational utility in second home decision making refers to the owners' evaluation of the degree of accessibility from the second home to the various natural and or built amenities which make up the recreational environment.

Table 5.11 shows the relationship between year of property purchase and decisions relating to situational criteria of the second home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Purchase</th>
<th>Proximity to Recreational Amenities</th>
<th>Suitability/ Cost Constraints</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>71.7%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>85.2%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>70.3%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>88.8%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a general sense all groups regard proximity to recreational amenities as the key consideration of second home situational choices. However, there is a marked difference in the importance of this variable for the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 groups compared to the 1967-1974 and 1981-1984 groups. Over 85 percent within both the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 groups chose proximity to recreational amenities as the principal situational criteria, while 70 percent on average within the 1967-1974 and 1981-1984 groups chose
this factor as the principal situational component. It can be inferred from this that the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 second home owner groups place greater emphasis on their proximity to recreational amenities as it offers an extremely desirable feature as a commercial rental suite which may maximize profit aspirations upon resale.

5.2.5 Site Utility

Site utility in second home decision making refers to the evaluation of direct property features of the second home, such as view and tree cover, which contribute to the quality of the immediate setting. Table 5.12 reveals the relationship between year of property purchase and decisions made by owners on the site criteria of their second homes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Purchase</th>
<th>Exterior Qualities</th>
<th>Interior Design</th>
<th>Safety/Privacy/Security Issues</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967-74</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-80</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-84</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>53.8%</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, a clear inferential difference exists between the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 groups and the 1967-1974 and 1981-1984 groups. The exterior qualities of the second home and the interior design of the property are extremely important site considerations for the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 groups and of much lesser importance to the 1967-1974 and 1981-1984 groups. It might be inferred then that the greater onus placed on specific
exterior and interior features of the second home by the 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 groups relates to the desirability of these features to prospective second home buyers upon reselling and subsequently the price commanded for the property at that time.

5.2.6 Significance of Utility Values

The previous crosstabulations have identified, to a certain extent, specific inferential trends between change in the unique external conditions characteristic of distinct resort development stages and subsequent decision making behaviour of second home owners at Whistler Resort. The Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance method was applied in order to test the research hypothesis that significant levels of variance did exist between a changing contextual environment and second home decision making patterns. The null hypothesis states that change in the contextual environment is not a significant factor in influencing second home decision making. Following convention in the statistical testing of hypotheses, the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.05 level if at least one variable within all utility categories displayed a significant level of variance with change in contextual environment. Table 5.13 provides summary results from this testing.

With respect to the anticipated utility variables, there is a significant level of variance between change in the contextual environment within which second homes are acquired and the time frame for initial property purchase, and between change in the contextual environment and the most important reason for property purchase. For actual utility
variables, a significant level of variance exists between change in the contextual
environment within which second homes are acquired and the most important winter and
summer activities presently pursued at the second home.

A significant level of variance also exists between change in the contextual environments
within which second homes are acquired and the owner's projected utility or future plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utility Variables</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Significance Of Relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anticipated Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Frame for Initial Purchase</td>
<td>0.0397</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Reason for Purchase</td>
<td>0.0417</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Actual Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Winter Activity</td>
<td>0.0400</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Summer Activity</td>
<td>0.0500</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average No. of Trips to Property Per Annum</td>
<td>0.2173</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average No. of Days Spent at Property Per Annum</td>
<td>0.2173</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propensity to Rent Out Property</td>
<td>0.4430</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of Year Property is Rented</td>
<td>0.4430</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Projected Utility Variable:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Appropriate Future Plan Scenario for Property</td>
<td>0.0401</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spatial Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational Utility of Property</td>
<td>0.0500</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site Utility of Property</td>
<td>0.0500</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5.13: KRUSCAL-WALLIS ANOVA TESTING OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN YEAR OF PURCHASE AND PROPERTY EVALUATION
for the second home. In addition, there is a significant level of variance between change in the contextual environment and both situational and site attributes favoured by owners at the second home.

The relationship between change in the contextual environment and both anticipated utility variables, two actual utility variables, the projected utility variable and both spatial utility variables displayed a significant level of variance upon Kruscal-Wallis testing. As at least one variable within all utility categories displayed a significant level of variance with change in contextual environment, the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the research hypothesis that change in the contextual environment is a significant factor in influencing second home decision making, was accepted at the 95 percent confidence level. This conclusion supports observations made throughout Chapter Four that different external conditions are characteristic of unique development stages at Whistler Resort which in turn influenced evaluations of property utility by second home owners.
Chapter 6: The Relationship Between Lifecycle Stage And Property Evaluation

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a set of demographic data on the sample of second home owners at Whistler Resort is first presented. These data are then grouped according to Robertson's lifecycle stage classification scheme and used to test the second hypothesis that second home owners at different stages of the family lifecycle make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home. In order to demonstrate differences in second home property evaluations for second home owners at different stages of the lifecycle, lifecycle stage was crosstabulated with owners' anticipated utility, actual utility, projected utility, situational utility and site utility evaluations respectively to identify if any inferential trends exist between variables. The Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance test was then applied to establish any significant levels of variance between lifecycle stage and second home decision making.

6.2 Demographic Profile Of Survey Respondents

This section provides pertinent demographic data on the sampled group of Whistler Resort's second home owners. Table 6.1 presents frequency distributions on age, education and marital status of survey respondents.
In terms of the age breakdowns of Whistler Resort’s second home owners, the majority of respondents fall into the middle-aged category. Thirty-nine percent are between the ages of 35-49, with an additional 39 percent between the ages of 50-64. While 6 percent of second home owners were in their retirement years (65+), 6 percent were between the ages 18-24. One possibility for explaining this young ownership phenomenon at Whistler Resort may be that parents/other family members could be the financial backing to a second home property in which younger family members oversee the property and thus the investment. Second home owners at Whistler Resort have attained high levels of
formal education. Thirty-three percent of respondents hold postgraduate degrees, 33 percent hold undergraduate degrees while 22 percent have had some university training or some form of further education. The majority (85 percent) of second home owners are married or are in a common-law living arrangement. Only 9 percent of second home owners are single while 5 percent are divorced, separated or widowed.

Table 6.2 outlines the occupational categories found within second home owner households, and the total income attributed to these households. In terms of household occupations, the majority of second home owners are in households where both partners are employed. Only 11 percent of respondents (4 percent housepersons, 7 percent retired) and 25 percent of respondents' partners (18 percent housepersons, 7 percent retired) are not earning a salary. In addition, the majority of jobs held by these two career households are in professional fields - 42 percent of all respondents are professionals, while 31 percent of respondents' partners are professionals. As before, the typical second home owner's household comprises both partners working in professional fields. This double salary from the professions results in the majority of second home owner households earning extremely high incomes. In fact, 43 percent surveyed earn $100,000+ per annum.
6.3 Robertson's Lifecycle Stage Classification Scheme

In order to test the second hypothesis of the thesis, it was necessary to identify from the present data those lifecycle stages which make up the sample group of second home owners. Using Robertson's lifecycle classification scheme outlined previously in Table 3.1 of Chapter 3, Whistler Resort's second home owners were categorized as illustrated in Table 6.3.

The most common lifecycle stage, representing 31 percent of the sample group, is the school-age family. To recap on Robertson's lifecycle classification scheme, school-age families are categorized by household head(s) between 25-55 years old, providing for

TABLE 6.2: OCCUPATIONAL TYPE AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation of Respondent</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Occupation of Partner</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Household Income</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>20 - 39 K</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>40 - 59 K</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial/tech</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>Managerial/tech</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>60 - 79 K</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manual Labourer</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>Manual Labourer</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>80 - 99 K</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Houseperson</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>Houseperson</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>100 - 149 K</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>150 + K</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no response</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>no response</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>no response</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(n=99)
children in their primary home, where their youngest child is between 6-17 years old. The middle-aged couple, accounting for 21 percent of the sample, is the second most common lifecycle stage among Whistler Resort’s second home owners. The middle-aged couple is characterized by household head(s) between the ages of 46-65, whose children have left the primary home. Another statistically significant group, representing 19 percent of the sample, is the older family component. The older family is made up of household head(s) between 35-65 whose youngest child is over 17 and is still being provided for in the primary home.

### TABLE 6.3: LIFECYCLE STAGE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-Age Family</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-aged Couple</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>100.1%</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4 Relationship Between Lifecycle Stage and Utility Values

6.4.1 Anticipated Utility

The anticipated utility component of second home property evaluation in Robertson’s
model refers to a second home's proposed function upon acquisition. According to Robertson, an owner's anticipated utility of his/her second home would vary due to the influence of that owner's stage in the lifecycle. Using the Whistler Resort sample, second home owner lifecycle stage was crosstabulated with the time taken to acquire their properties (Table 6.4) and the most important initial decisions concerning the use of the property (Table 6.5) in order to identify any inferential trends between these variables.

Table 6.4 presents the crosstabulation between lifecycle stage and the time period taken for consideration and acquisition of the second home. The table demonstrates a general uniformity in the data and reveals no inferential trends with regards to lifecycle stage and typical time periods necessary for second home purchase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>% of Respondents Purchasing Property within two months of Considering Ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>74.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age family</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>72.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>73.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-aged Couple</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 6.5, no clear inferential trend exists between the various lifecycle stages and general recreational opportunities. With respect to financial investment, such considerations play more of a role in young households, young families and childless couples. However, consistent percentages of around 12 percent from school-age families, older families, middle-age families and elderly couples on the financial element of the decision reveals that financial motivations in initial decision making has an influence across all age categories and is not lifecycle-stage dependent. In terms of personal investment decisions, young households, young families and childless couples are less inclined to regard their second home as a family retreat while more emphasis is placed on this family aspect by school-age families, older families, middle-age couples and elderly couples.

### Table 6.5: Most Important Initial Decisions Concerning Property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Recreational Opportunities</th>
<th>Financial Investment</th>
<th>Personal Investment</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>52.4%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>50.5%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>52.6%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>54.3%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4.2 Actual Utility

After the initial acquisition of the second home property, the owner household then settles into a pattern of property use. As with the anticipated utility stage of his model, Robertson states that the actual utility stage of property decision making varies with an owner's stage in the lifecycle. Accordingly, lifecycle stage of the Whistler Resort owner was crosstabulated with actual utility factors in order to establish if any inferential trends exists between these particular variables. The actual utility factors examined were: most important winter activity at second home, most important summer activity at second home, average number of trips to second home per annum, average number of days spent at second home per annum, propensity to rent second home and time of year in which the second home is rented.

With respect to an owner's most important winter and summer activities at the second home (Tables 6.6 and 6.7 respectively), there is little variance between lifecycle stage and the importance attached to active recreation at Whistler Resort. Typical pursuits would include skiing and snowboarding in winter and mountain biking and windsurfing in summer. Distinct differences emerge, however, in both tables with regards to passive recreational home-based pursuits at Whistler Resort. Young households, young families and childless couples see passive pursuits as less of a priority, while older families, middle-age couples and especially school-age families and elderly couples place more value on passive recreation at Whistler Resort. It is also interesting to note from both tables that young households, young families and childless couples have a greater
TABLE 6.6: MOST IMPORTANT WINTER ACTIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Active Recreation</th>
<th>Passive Recreation</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>41.1%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.7: MOST IMPORTANT SUMMER ACTIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Active Recreation</th>
<th>Passive Recreation</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>No Summer Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>70.2%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

propensity to pursue investment oriented activities at the second home (interior and exterior alterations to increase property value) than older families and elderly couples. Young households, young families and childless couples, attaching greater value to
investment oriented activities than home-based passive recreational activities, see their second homes as more of an investment acquisition and do not display the "lifestyle" orientation of the other lifecycle stages.

Table 6.8 shows the average number of trips taken to the second home per annum by owners at the various stages of the lifecycle. This relationship clearly shows the influence of lifecycle stage on mobility and level of commitment to second home. Both the young household and the young family are highly mobile and highly committed, with the great majority of both these lifecycle groups averaging between 21-30 trips per year. The majority of school-age and older families make between 11-20 trips per year, experiencing greater constraints with regard to school schedules and decision making.

**TABLE 6.8: AVERAGE NO. OF TRIPS TO SECOND HOME/ANNUM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>1-10 Trips</th>
<th>11-20 Trips</th>
<th>21-30 Trips</th>
<th>31+ Trips</th>
<th>No Trips</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
<td>35.8%</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>54.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
influenced by shifting recreational and social priorities of the children. With no dependents, the childless couple display a high degree of mobility and commitment, with 54.4 percent of the group averaging 21-30 trips to Whistler Resort per year. While the majority of the middle-age couples make between 11-20 trips per year, elderly couples exhibit the least mobility, with 73.3 percent taking between 1-10 trips to the second home per year.

Table 6.9 charts the average number of days spent at the second home by owners at different stages of the lifecycle. This table closely resembles the distribution patterns revealed in Table 6.8 - the greatest average number of days spent at Whistler Resort by the less constrained lifecycle groups (young household, young family and childless couple), followed by the school-age, older and middle-age family groups, with the least number of days spent at the second home by elderly couples. Comparing Table 6.9 to Table 6.8, the number of days spent at the second home is, on average, twice that of the number of trips to the second home. This pattern indicates the commonality of the two-night stay per trip, taken for the most part as a weekend getaway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>1-20 Days</th>
<th>21-40 Days</th>
<th>41-60 Days</th>
<th>61-98 Days</th>
<th>99-199 Days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-aged Couple</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.10 details the propensity for owners at different lifecycle stages to use their second home as a revenue source through commercial rental. In a significant number of cases, owners who use their second home as a private recreational property at Whistler Resort have rental suites in the basement or ground floor of their properties. Owners who place their second home in a commercial rental pool must rent their property for 309 days, if they are subject to a Phase Two restrictive covenant. It is clear from the table that owners of all lifecycle stages have an extremely high propensity to rent out their property for the generation of revenue. Elderly couples at Whistler represent the highest percentage of non-renters at 7.9 percent. The rental patterns of the sampled owners is further illustrated by Table 6.11 which shows the time periods that Whistler Resort’s second home properties are available for rent. While 7.7 percent of school-age couples, 5.8 percent of older families, 6.8 percent of childless couples, 3.8 percent of middle-age couples and 10.4 percent of elderly couples only make their second homes available for rent during the winter season (Nov - April), the great majority of owners of all lifecycle stages rent their properties on a year-round basis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Second Home Used as Rental Property</th>
<th>Second Home Not Used as Rental Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>96.5%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>98.9%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>97.3%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>92.1%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.10: SECOND HOME AS RENTAL PROPERTY
TABLE 6.11: TIME OF YEAR SECOND HOME IS RENTED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Nov-April</th>
<th>Year-round Basis</th>
<th>Do Not Rent Out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>89.7%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>90.7%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>92.1%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>81.7%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.3 Projected Utility

Over time, once a pattern of property use has been clearly established by owner households, Robertson attests that owner’s thoughts then turn towards an evaluation of the projected utility (or future use) of their second home. Again, Robertson states that the projected utility stage of second home property decision making varies with an owner’s stage in the lifecycle. Therefore, lifecycle stage of the Whistler Resort owner sample was crosstabulated with projected utility of the second home in an investigation of any inferential trends that exist between these particular variables.

Table 6.12 provides the future plans (or projected utility) of the sampled second home owners in terms of their properties at Whistler Resort. In this case, some marked differences emerge between the various lifecycle groups and their views on the future viability or obsolescence of their property. The greatest percentage of young households (71.4 percent), young families (50.0 percent) and childless couples (43.3 percent) see
their second home as an asset to be sold at an opportune time in the future for financial gain. With no dependents in the case of young households and childless couples, and young families responsible only for infant dependents, it may well be that with limited or no immediate family life in the second home, these lifecycle groups lack a personal attachment to the home and therefore view their property as more of a financial asset than a family asset. The largest percentage of school-age families (25.8 percent), older families (26.3 percent) and middle-age families (38.1 percent) felt that the second home will remain unaltered in the foreseeable future, most likely due to the second home’s prominent position as a family getaway for these particular lifecycle stages. Lastly, it is not surprising that the greatest percentage of elderly couples (83.3 percent) who own second homes at Whistler Resort wish to pass the property on to their children as a family retreat and a secured investment.

### TABLE 6.12: FUTURE PLAN SCENARIO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LC Stage</th>
<th>Retire</th>
<th>Unaltered</th>
<th>Investment</th>
<th>Obsolete/Dispose</th>
<th>Financial Burden/Dispose</th>
<th>Improve</th>
<th>To Kids</th>
<th>D/K</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Family</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4.4 Situational Utility

In addition to the temporal dimension of anticipated, actual and projected utility, Robertson theorizes that second home decision making also has an expressed spatial dimension. In this case, Robertson asserts that owners of different lifecycle stages have distinct situational and site preferences with respect to their second homes. As before, crosstabulation of lifecycle stages with both situational and site utility factors was used to identify any inferential trends between the respective variables. Table 6.13 presents the situational criteria relevant to second home choice of the various lifecycle groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Proximity to Recreational Amenities</th>
<th>Suitability/Cost Constraints</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>75.2%</td>
<td>24.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>71.1%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>80.5%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>76.1%</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>85.2%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>70.9%</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situational considerations focus on the attributes of the environment surrounding the second home. It is clear that proximity to recreational amenities is of paramount importance to owners of all lifecycle stages. Suitability/cost constraints refers to the availability of suitable property at the time of search as well as cost limitations, desire
for a secluded/isolated orientation and nearness to friends/relatives. These factors were of lesser importance than the over-riding desire to be located at close proximity to recreational amenities such as the ski-lifts, Whistler Golf Course, the various lakes, the mountain bike/hiking trails and Whistler Village itself.

6.4.5 Site Utility

Table 6.14 shows the site utility characteristics relevant to second home choice of all lifecycle groups. Site utility refers to the more detailed features of the second home's immediate setting. The three key site features mentioned by second home owners were the exterior qualities of the property, the interior design of the property and a combination of related safety/privacy/security issues concerning the property. The most significant pattern in this table is the importance placed on exterior and interior qualities of the second home by young households, young families and childless couples, while they place a much lower priority on safety/privacy/security issues. As these three lifecycle groups have previously displayed a strong interest in the investment opportunities arising from second home ownership, it may well be that young households, young families and childless couples place the greatest value on specific exterior and interior qualities of a second home as these features determine the range that can be set for an asking price upon resale of the property. Alternatively, as young households, young families and childless couples have been identified as the least constrained lifecycle groups (greatest number of trips and greatest average number of days spent at second home per annum respectively), it may well be that matching the suitability of the exterior
and interior features of the second home to the needs of the household have an added importance to lifecycle groups who use their properties frequently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lifecycle Stage</th>
<th>Exterior Qualities</th>
<th>Interior Design</th>
<th>Safety/Privacy/Security Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Household</td>
<td>50.5%</td>
<td>44.8%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Family</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
<td>52.8%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age Family</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Family</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childless Couple</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-age Couple</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Couple</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The crosstabulation method employed has identified, to a certain extent, some inferential trends between owners at specific lifecycle stages and their patterns of second home evaluation and use. However, crosstabulation of lifecycle stage and property evaluation can only infer relationships and cannot test the significance and strength of relationships which are central to the proof or disproof of the hypothesis.

6.4.6 Significance of Utility Values
The Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance method was applied in order to test the research hypothesis that significant levels of variance do exist between specific lifecycle groups and their evaluations of second home utility. The null hypothesis states that second home
owners at differing stages of the family lifecycle do not make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home. Following convention in the statistical testing of hypotheses, the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.05 level if at least one variable within all utility categories displayed a significant level of variance with change in stage of the family lifecycle. Table 6.15 provides summary results from this testing.

### TABLE 6.15 KRUSCAL-WALLIS ANOVA TESTING OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFECYCLE STAGE AND PROPERTY EVALUATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Home Utility Variables</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Significance of Relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Anticipated Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Frame for Initial Purchase</td>
<td>0.8405</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Reason for Purchase</td>
<td>0.3477</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Actual Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Winter Activity</td>
<td>0.2134</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Important Summer Activity</td>
<td>0.6629</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average No. of Trips to Property Per Annum</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average No. of Days Spent at Property Per Annum</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propensity to Rent Out Property</td>
<td>0.3447</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of Year Property is Rented</td>
<td>0.2134</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Projected Utility Variable:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Appropriate Future Plan Scenario for Property</td>
<td>0.5933</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spatial Utility Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational Utility of Property</td>
<td>0.6234</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site Utility of Property</td>
<td>0.0113</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the actual utility variables, the Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance established a significant level of variance firstly between lifecycle groups and the average number of trips to property per annum, and secondly lifecycle groups and the average number of days spent at the property per annum. This strengthens the inferences made with the crosstabulation of these variables - that specific lifecycle groups display significant differences in their degree of mobility and the amount of time they spend at the second home.

From the site utility variable, the Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance established a significant level of variance between lifecycle stage and specific site attributes of the second home. This strengthens the inferences made with the crosstabulation of these variables - that lifecycle groups display significant differences in their selection of second home criteria such as exterior qualities of the property, interior design of the property and a combination of related safety/privacy/security issues.

Kruscal-Wallis testing identified significant levels of variance between lifecycle stage of owners and two actual utility variables notably, the average number of trips to property per annum and the average number of days spent at the property per annum, and one spatial utility variable, notably site utility of the second home. These findings suggest that variance in the decision making process associated with lifecycle stage and the two aspects of actual utility is a function of time and mobility constraints operating at specific stages of the lifecycle. Two distinct groups can be identified: first, those households with less time/mobility constraints (the young household, young family and childless couple
grouping) and second, those with time/mobility constraints (the school-age family, older family, middle-aged couple and elderly couple grouping). The group with less time/mobility constraints use their second homes more frequently. Consequently, it appears that this group engage in a more detailed search to match the exterior and interior features of the property with the distinctive needs of their households. Conversely, the group with time/mobility constraints appear to place less importance on the exterior and interior features of the second home and more importance on safety/privacy/security issues, perhaps reflecting their less frequent use of their second home.

However, while there appears to be some relationship between stage in the family lifecycle and second home utility relating to time and mobility constraints, no statistical association was found to exist between lifecycle stage and anticipated utility, the remaining four actual utility variables, projected utility or situational utility. As there is not at least one variable within all utility categories which displayed a significant level of variance with change in stage of the family lifecycle, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected at the 0.05 level. Therefore, on the basis of the data available, there is insufficient evidence to assert that second home owners at differing stages of the family lifecycle make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home.
Chapter 7: Conclusions

7.1 Summary

The examination of second home ownership has resulted in two main findings. First, upon Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance testing, the research hypothesis that change in the contextual environment is a significant factor in influencing second home decision making was accepted at the 95 percent confidence level. Therefore, there is significant evidence to assert that change in external conditions and thus the contextual environment, brought about by movement through the six unique stages of resort development, was a significant influence on subsequent property evaluations made by second home owners.

Second, upon Kruscal-Wallis analysis of variance testing, the influence of lifecycle stage on second home decision making was found to be limited to specific aspects of the property. Significant relationships were only identified between lifecycle stage of second home owners and two actual utility variables - the average number of trips to the property per annum and the average number of days spent at the property per annum - and one spatial utility variable - site utility. It was suggested that the variance between lifecycle stage and the two features of actual utility was a function of time and mobility constraints operating at specific stages of the lifecycle. Aspects of time and mobility also played a role in decisions made by specific lifecycle groups with regard to site utility of the second home. In this case, it appeared that households with less time/mobility constraints (young
households, young families, and childless couples) who thus used their second homes more frequently undertook a more detailed search to match the exterior and interior features of the property with their distinctive needs. Conversely, households with time/mobility constraints (school-age families, older families, middle-aged families and elderly couples) appeared to place less importance on exterior and interior features of the second home and more importance on safety/privacy/security issues, perhaps reflecting their less frequent use of their second home.

However, while there appeared to be some relationship between stage in the family lifecycle and second home utility relating to time and mobility constraints, no statistical association was found to exist between lifecycle stage and anticipated utility, the remaining four actual utility variables, projected utility or situational utility. As there was not at least one variable within all utility categories which displayed a significant level of variance with change in stage of the family lifecycle, the null hypothesis could not be rejected at the 0.05 level. Therefore, on the basis of the data available, there was insufficient evidence to asset that second home owners at differing stages of the family lifecycle make significantly different evaluations about the utility of their second home.

The only other investigation into the applicability of Robertson’s model to second home communities (Godbey and Bevins, 1987) used Robertson’s lifecycle notions in an examination of the cycle of involvement between owners in a Pennsylvania second home development and their policy making owners association. However, the findings of
Godbey and Bevins’ study confirmed those of Robertson - that inputs to the continuing evaluation of second home utility varied as owners moved through the lifecycle. It is suggested that further testing of Robertson’s lifecycle model is necessary, using other distinctive second home communities as case studies, before definitive conclusions can be made about its general applicability.

In terms of methodology, the transactional approach from behavioural geography proved to be a useful organizational framework from which to investigate the two hypotheses of the thesis. This perspective, which views change in the external environment and in personal circumstances as the key determinants of change in human behaviour, was a suitable heuristic device from which to examine the two aspects of change outlined in the thesis: firstly, change in the contextual environment of second homes as a significant factor in influencing second home decision making and secondly, the influence of lifecycle stage on the changing utility evaluations made during second home ownership. Although the emerging transactional approach has not been widely accepted as yet by the discipline, transactionalism appears to be an appropriate epistemological base from which to conduct research on the dynamics of change in the person/environment relationship.

7.2 Implications of Findings

The findings generally suggest that context plays an important role in the nature of second home decision making. Whereas previous studies have largely been undertaken in more
"traditional" areas of second home development, the present study in Whistler Resort offers a distinctive setting. The resort is relatively new and rapid growth has essentially been developer-driven, with highly planned developments superimposed on the more traditional cabin communities.

The various stages of second home development are products of distinctive stages of resort development and this is reflected in the location and character of the second home landscape. Upon the installation of lifts for public skiing at Whistler Mountain in 1966, cabin communities rapidly developed in close proximity to the gondola base. With the gondola base sites soon exhausted and with no overall planning legislation in place, the accelerating demand from middle-income households from Vancouver for recreational property sites in the Whistler valley dictated the spontaneous release of clear title land parcels. Cabins and pre-fabricated A-frame component homes spread quickly and chaotically along the Whistler corridor. With no parallel infrastructural development, these sprawling settlements were left with no basic amenities and services. A landscape of disjointed and idiosyncratic cabin and A-frame communities occupying clear title parcels prevailed in the Whistler valley from 1967 to 1974. This type of second home development appeared to be similar to the traditional cottaging landscape of northern Ontario.

Provincial government initiatives to develop the Whistler area as a destination ski resort identified the need to enforce planning regulations in an area witnessing an unplanned
spiral of growth. As a result of these recommendations, the province declared a land freeze on the Whistler valley in 1974. With further growth outlawed and strict planning controls firmly in place, the uncontrolled development of cabin communities in the Whistler valley was effectively curtailed. The designation of Resort Municipality in 1975 brought a municipal model of government and specific legislation addressing planning policy for a resort community. The resort development strategy was engineered by Whistler Village Land Company, whose mandate was to sell village parcels to developers while enforcing strict building and architectural codes. This combination of development-driven initiatives and enforcement of resort design principles led to the emergence of second home communities more representative of exclusive urban residential landscapes than "cottage country" landscapes. This emergence of second home communities in the form of condominium projects which evoke an exclusive, urban residential landscape was initially a response to a series of development cost concerns faced by Whistler Village Land Company.

Each strata title owner acquired the property for the purpose of earning income as a partner in the operation of a hotel. The units would be managed by a hotel management company with each owner entitled to a percentage of earnings from hotel operation. Personal use was anticipated to be incidental and was limited by the 56 day maximum-use restrictive covenant. This multi-developer financing method allowed Whistler Village Land Company to secure the necessary funds for resort construction at affordable costs while providing strata title condominium unit owners with a tangible asset having capital
appreciation potential, a cash flow to offset initial purchase, and a qualifying tax shelter.

The economic recession from 1981 to 1984 led to the virtual collapse of development activity at Whistler Resort. As the recession cleared in 1985, resort development financing was again generated by individuals taking out strata title ownership in second home condominium units. However, in this case, construction of new second home condominium neighbourhoods was driven by a "lands for lifts" clause in RMOW legislation, which gave development rights of prime site land parcels to both mountain operators in return for mountain improvements.

This complex multi-developer "front-end" financing strategy adopted by Whistler Resort between 1975-1980 and from 1985-1989, while ensuring that development costs were met, had a dramatic impact on the type of second home housing stock constructed at the resort and thus the resultant built landscape. Before 1975, the majority of second homes at Whistler Resort were individually owned single family dwellings, A-frames or cottages forming unplanned, disjointed cabin communities on privately held land in Whistler valley. In contrast, the periods 1975-1980 and 1985-1989 brought developer parcel financing that was driven by individuals taking out strata title ownership in second home condominium complexes fashioned after exclusive, urban residential neighbourhoods.

In conclusion, this study suggests that there is a need to reconsider the role of second homes in our contemporary society as changes in the utility value placed on second
homes appears evident. However, in this study second home ownership in a distinctive resort setting has been studied and thus, further research is called for to consider how geographic context affects the nature of second home development. Further, while this study has focused on decision making, the discussion of the changing character of the second home also calls for a more detailed examination of the nature of second homes as elements in tourist landscapes.
Appendix

Survey Instrument and Frequencies
SECTION 1: DECISIONS MADE CONCERNING THE WHISTLER RESORT PROPERTY

In this section I am primarily interested in finding out about the factors which influenced the decisions made in acquiring your property at Whistler.

1. In what year did you purchase your property at Whistler? ________________

2. What type of property do you have?
   a) single-family residence 34%
   b) condominium 63%
   c) time-share unit 2%
   d) other (please specify) 1%

3. What type of ownership do you have?
   a) full-ownership 79%
   b) part-ownership 15% with how many others? __
   c) time-share 2% with how may others? __
   d) company/business ownership 4%

4. What was the approximate market value when you bought the property? ______

5. What was the approximate interest rate when you bought the property? ______

6. What interest rate, if any, would render your investment such a financial hardship that you would quit the property? ______

7. How long, from initial consideration, did you take to make your final decision to acquire the property?
   a) less than two months 77%
   b) two months or more but less than six months 11%
   c) six months or more but less than one year 9%
   d) one year or more 3%
8. How did you find out about the property?
   a) newspaper ads 10%
   b) realtor contact 31%
   c) friends/relatives/acquaintances 25%
   d) saw "for sale" sign on property 26%
   e) other (please specify) 8%

9. Which real estate company were you dealing with?
   a) Re-Max (formerly McWhyn Realty) 16%
   b) Sea to Sky (formerly MacAuley Nicolls Maitland Co.) 20%
   c) Whistler Real Estate Company (formerly McGregor Pacific) 30%
   d) private sale 34%

10. Reason for real estate company choice?
    a) most reputable 1%
    b) personal/professional contact 20%
    c) real estate company oversaw property you desired 29%
    d) incentives/attractions within the property package 3%
        (please specify)
    e) other (please specify) 47% (missing values)

11. Check any of the following criteria that were relevant in your initial decision to acquire the property. Mark "X" against those factors which were not important to you. Then rank from 1 to 3 (with 1 as most important) the three factors most important to your choice.
    ___ a) wanted a base from which downhill ski opportunities could be enjoyed
    ___ b) wanted a base from which other winter sports could be enjoyed
    ___ c) wanted a base from which summer sports could be enjoyed
    ___ d) wanted a base from which four season recreational pursuits could be enjoyed
    ___ e) the property is purely a financial investment
    ___ f) friends/relatives/acquaintances have property in Whistler Resort
    ___ g) the property is a personal investment: an area where the family can get together
    ___ h) attracted to the natural setting of the Whistler Resort area
    ___ i) attracted to the Whistler Village atmosphere: tourist resort experience i.e. shops, services, entertainment etc.
    ___ j) place to retreat to at the weekend
    ___ k) place to retreat to for annual vacation
    ___ l) expression of personal/professional success and prestige
    ___ m) place to retire to
    ___ n) other (please specify)
12. Check any of the following locational criteria that were relevant in your choice of property. Mark "X" against those factors which were not important to you. Then rank from 1 to 3 (with 1 as most important) the three factors most important to your choice.

   a) proximity to ski slopes
   b) proximity to lake
   c) proximity to hiking trails/paths
   d) secluded/isolated orientation
   e) near friends/relatives/acquaintances
   f) proximity to amenities of Whistler Village
   g) only suitable property available at time of search
   h) cost of property
   i) other (please specify)

13. Check any of the following criteria concerning specific site features which were relevant in your decision to acquire the property. Mark "X" against those factors which were not important to you. Then rank from 1 to 3 (with 1 as most important) the three factors most important to your choice.

   a) aesthetic architectural type
   b) scenic view
   c) patio/balcony
   d) privacy of site
   e) well-lit road/block
   f) size of property
   g) number of bedrooms
   h) number of bathrooms
   i) en-suite bathrooms
   j) double-glazing
   k) fireplace
   l) sauna/hot tub
   m) satellite service
   n) microwave
   o) other (please specify)

SECTION 2: USE OF THE WHISTLER RESORT PROPERTY

In this section I am interested in finding out about the way in which you use the Whistler Resort property and also the frequency and duration of those visits.

14. Check any of the following activities which you pursue IN WINTER (November to April) while at Whistler Resort. Mark "X" against those factors which were not important to you. Then rank from 1 to 3 (with 1 as most important) the three factors most important to your choice.

   a) downhill skiing
   b) cross-country skiing
   c) heli-skiing
   d) telemark skiing
   e) horseback riding
   f) ski schools
   g) hay rides
   h) spectating at ski events
   i) improving interior of property
   j) improving exterior of property
   k) indoor activities/T.V./music
   l) walking/shopping around Village
   m) enjoying Whistler Resort's natural beauty
   n) bars/restaurants/Apres Ski
   o) attending winter festivals
   p) using conference centre facilities
   q) other (please specify)
15. Check any of the following activities which you pursue **IN SUMMER** (May to October) while at Whistler Resort. Mark "X" against those factors which were **not** important to you. Then rank from 1 to 3 (with 1 as most important) the three factors most important to your choice.

- golf
- improving interior of property
- improving exterior of property
- tennis
- indoor activities/T.V./music
- canoeing
- walking/shopping around Village
- kayaking
- enjoying Whistler Resort's natural beauty
- paddle boats
- bars/restaurants/entertainment
- canoeing
- river rafting
- windsurfing
- summer chair lift rides
- swimming
- attending summer festivals
- fishing
- spectating at summer sports events
- horseback riding
- using Conference Centre facilities
- river rafting
- sunbathing
- windsurfing
- mountain hiking tours/excursions
- canoeing
- bicycling
- heli-hiking
- other (please specify) ________________________
- summer hiking tours/excursions
- walking/shopping around Village
- walking/hiking
- attending summer festivals
- horseback riding
- spectating at summer sports events
- area hiking tours/excursions
- sunbathing
- mountain hiking tours/excursions
- bicycling
- other (please specify) ________________________
- summer skiing
- using Conference Centre facilities
- sunbathing
- mountain hiking tours/excursions
- bicycling
- other (please specify) ________________________

16. How many trips to Whistler did you make in the last twelve months?

- a) 1 - 5 14%  
- b) 6 - 10 19%  
- c) 11 - 15 14%  
- d) 16 - 20 13%  
- e) 21 - 25 9%  
- f) 26 - 30 19%  
- g) 31 - 40 5%  
- h) 41 + 7%  

17. What is the total number of days you spent at the property in the last twelve months?

- a) 1 - 10 10%  
- b) 11 - 20 16%  
- c) 21 - 30 20%  
- d) 31 - 40 9%  
- e) 41 - 50 11%  
- f) 51 - 60 15%  
- g) 61 - 70 11%  
- h) 71 - 98 2%  
- i) 99 - 199 6%  

18. If you did work, approximately what proportion of your total vacation period did those days constitute?

- a) total percentage of days off ________
- b) total percentage of long weekends ________
- c) total percentage of annual vacation ________
- d) not working ________

19. Do you rent out your property? Yes 97% No 3%

If yes,

- a) for how long each year do you rent out the property? __________
- b) at what time of the year do you rent out the property? __________

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20. Of the following future plan scenarios, check with a "1" the scenario you consider the most appropriate to your case. Mark "X" against those which are not important to you.

___ a) I will retire to my property at Whistler Resort
___ b) I will keep it as an unaltered secondary residence
___ c) I will sell it as a purely financial venture
___ d) I will dispose of it through dissatisfaction/use now obsolete
___ e) I will dispose of it as it has become a financial burden
___ f) I will improve upon it through renovation and/or extension
___ g) I will give it to the children/keep it in the family
___ h) I do not know my future plans for the property at this time
___ i) other (please specify) ________________________________

21. Indicate your strength of feeling about these statements on the following scale: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree Nor Disagree (NA/ND), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD).

a) I feel satisfied that I have made the correct decision to have this secondary residence in general.
   SA 63%  A 13%  NA/ND 20%  D 2%  SD 2%

b) I feel satisfied that I have made the correct decision to acquire a secondary residence specifically at Whistler Resort.
   SA 71%  A 16%  NA/ND 10%  D 1%  SD 2%

SECTION 3: SOCIO-ECONOMIC DATA

In this section, in order to provide for a full analysis of second homes at Whistler Resort, I need to ask some personal questions. This information remains strictly confidential and will be seen only by those conducting the research.

22. Are you:
   a) married or equivalent 86%
   b) single 9%
   c) divorced/separated 4%
   d) widow/widower 1%

23. How many children do you have in each of the following age categories?
   a) no children ___
   b) pre-school ___
   c) elementary ___
   d) junior high ___
   e) senior high ___
   f) post secondary/working & living at home ___
   g) left home ___

24. Do you own a car? Yes 97%  No 3%
25. What is your principle method of transport to Whistler Resort?
   a) drive car  97%
   b) ride in car  2%
   c) bus  1%
   d) train  

26. What is the highest level of education that you have attained?
   a) university/college postgraduate degree  33%
   b) university/college graduate degree  33%
   c) some university/further education  22%
   d) high school graduate  10%
   e) attended high school  2%

27. What is your occupation? __________________________________________

28. If applicable, what is your partner’s occupation? ______________________

29. Check the total annual gross household income category to which you belong:
   a) $10-19,000  -
   b) $20-29,000  1%
   c) $30-39,000  2%
   d) $40-49,000  5%
   e) $50-59,000  10%
   f) $60-69,000  15%
   g) $70-79,000  2%
   h) $80-89,000  6%
   i) $90-99,000  11%
   j) $100-149,000  20%
   k) $150,000+  28%

30. Approximately, what is the present market value of your permanent residence?
    __________________________________________

31. Check the age-category to which you belong:
   a) 18-24  6%
   b) 25-34  8%
   c) 35-44  25%
   d) 45-49  16%
   e) 50-54  22%
   f) 55-64  17%
   g) 65 +  6%

32. Any general comments? ____________________________________________

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION


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