

5-1-2015

An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourist Behavior: a Market Segmentation Approach

Eric Michael Hungenberg

Follow this and additional works at: <http://digscholarship.unco.edu/dissertations>

Recommended Citation

Hungenberg, Eric Michael, "An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourist Behavior: a Market Segmentation Approach" (2015). *Dissertations*. Paper 25.

This Text is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Research at Scholarship & Creative Works @ Digital UNC. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholarship & Creative Works @ Digital UNC. For more information, please contact Jane.Monson@unco.edu.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Greeley, Colorado

The Graduation School

AN EXAMINATION OF MOTIVES UNDERLYING ACTIVE
SPORT TOURIST BEHAVIOR: A MARKET
SEGMENTATION APPROACH

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Eric Michael Hungenberg

College of Natural Health Sciences
Schools of Sport and Exercise Science
Sport Administration

May, 2015

This Dissertation by: Eric Hungenberg

Entitled: *An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourist Behavior: A Market Segmentation Approach*

has been approved as meeting the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Natural and Health Sciences in the School of Sport and Exercise Science, Program of Sport Administration

Accepted by the Doctoral Committee

Dianna P. Gray, Ph.D., Research Advisor

David K. Stotlar, Ed.D., Committee Member

Robert L. Heiny, Ph.D., Committee Member

James Gould, Ph.D., Faculty Representative

Date of Dissertation Defense _____

Accepted by the Graduate School

Linda L. Black, Ed.D.
Dean of the Graduate School and International Admissions

ABSTRACT

Hungenberg, Eric M. *An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourist Behavior: A Market Segmentation Approach*. Published Doctor of Philosophy dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 2015.

The purpose of this study was to develop and evaluate a Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) that detected unique active sport tourist segments according to their social psychological motives for traveling to a destination to compete in sport. Segments' behavioral intentions, as well as their information source behaviors were also analyzed to gain a greater understanding of how underlying motives for sport event tourism influences consumers' product commitment and marketing communication channel preferences. A convenient sampling approach was used to collect data from 380 athletes participating in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games in Vail, CO. In developing the STMS, items derived from previously validated sport (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002) and tourism motivation scales (Jang & Cai, 2002; Mohammad & Som, 2010) were used to reduce and verify a parceled STMS factor structure. Confirmatory Factor Analysis yielded acceptable psychometric properties for future researchers wishing to accurately and reliably measure motivations of active sport tourists. Further, Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis identified four segments labeled a) Tourism-Oriented ($n=160$), b) Neutral ($n=100$), c) Sport Tourism Enthusiasts ($n=54$), and d) Sport-Oriented ($n=66$). The Sport Tourism Enthusiasts, who exhibited greater mean responses on each of the nine STMS factors, demonstrated elevated conative loyalty characteristics above those of the other

three segments. Additionally, the STMS was able to explain 30% of the variation in consumers' conative loyalty with factors, "Destination Attributes" and "Competitive Desire" being the most influential predictors. Finally, MANOVA indicated that those in the Tourism-Oriented and Sport Tourism Enthusiast groups were most likely to utilize external sources of information, such as Internet sources and Interpersonal sources. Overall, the findings derived from this research will better equip event managers with information necessary to tailor event service elements and communication strategies which may enhance customer satisfaction and lead to greater retention.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many individuals to whom I owe a considerable thanks for the guidance and encouragement showed to me throughout my doctoral work at the University of Northern Colorado. First and foremost, I would like to thank my wife, Erin, for her unyielding support throughout this process. Your sacrifice was immeasurable and for that I will be forever grateful. To my daughter, Tate, thank you for being my perfect escape and an ever-present reason to keep smiling. Thank you mom and dad, for showing me the way and for always encouraging me to chase my dreams. Everything I have accomplished is a result of the opportunities that you created for me.

I would also like to thank the brilliant professors at Northern Colorado that helped shape me into the academic that I have become. To Dr. Gray, thank you for the countless hours of conversation over coffee. I could always rely on you to get the very best out of me and to not settle for anything less. Thank you for believing in me and for providing me affirmation at times when I doubted my future. I would not be in this position without your direction, expertise, and bodes of confidence. In summary, thank you for being the best advisor a student could ever ask for.

Thank you Dr. Stotlar for your willingness to share both professional and personal advice with me. The wisdom and kindness you have shown me over the past few years reinforces why you have had such a large impact on higher education. Thank you Professor Sharp for being someone that challenged me to think critically and to never

stop questioning what may be popular belief. I have always appreciated your straight forwardness and the high standard to which you hold your students. Thank you for pushing me.

To Dr. Gould, someone once said that mentoring is having “a brain to pick, an ear to listen, and an aptitude to know when it is right to push in the right direction.” Words cannot express how grateful I am to have had the opportunity to work with you over the past three years. You were always incredibly supportive of my research interests and were always willing to be my sounding board. I have leaned on you on several occasions, asking for guidance and help, and never once did you lead me astray. I am equally thankful for the time we spent outside of academe. You made me feel just as much like a peer and friend and that meant a great deal to me. Your mentorship has been invaluable in my three years at UNC and for that I will always be in your debt.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Problem Statement	4
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions and Hypotheses	5
Need for the Study	7
Delimitations	9
Limitations	9
Definition of Terms	11
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	13
Market Segmentation	16
Motivation	20
Sport Motivation	21
Tourism Motivation	32
Information Source Acquisition	40
Conclusion	50

III. METHODS	52
Sample	53
Population	53
Sampling Frame	54
Description of Participants	55
Design and Procedures	56
Design	56
Procedure – Pilot Study	58
Procedure – Full Study	60
Instrumentation	61
Sport Motivation	61
Tourism Motivation	62
Conative Loyalty	63
Information Source Acquisition	63
Data Analysis	64
Descriptive Analysis	64
Factor Analysis	65
Cluster Analysis	67
Test of Differences	68
Hierarchical Multiple Regression	69

IV. RESULTS	70
Normality	71
Exploratory Factor Analysis – Sport Tourism Motivation Scale	74
Exploratory Factor Analysis – Information Source Acquisition Scale	77
Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Sport Tourism Motivation Scale	78
Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Information Source Acquisition Scale	82
Developing a Market Segmentation Model	84
Athletic & Travel Status Profiles	87
Conative Loyalty	89
Information Source Acquisition	91
V. DISCUSSION	95
Summary	95
Discussion	96
Conclusion	106
Recommendations for Future Research	108
REFERENCES	110

APPENDICES	146
A. Participation Motivation Scales	146
B. Survey Instrument	149
C. IRB Approval	156

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Demographics for Sport Tourist Participants Competing in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games	57
2.	Descriptive Analysis for Each Sport Motivation Item	72
3.	Descriptive Analysis for Each Tourism Motivation Item	73
4.	Descriptive Analysis for Each Information Source Item	73
5.	PCA Results of Sport and Tourism Motivational Factors	75
6.	PCA Pattern Matrix for Information Sources	78
7.	Fit Indices for Study's Models	79
8.	Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) with Factors, Items, and Their Respective Loadings and Standard Errors (SE)	81
9.	Information Source Acquisition Scale with Factors, Items, and Their Respective Loadings and Standard Errors (SE)	83
10.	Sport Tourism Variable Means Among Clusters	85
11.	Tourism Status of the Segments	88
12.	Athletic Status of the Segments	89
13.	ANOVA Comparison of Behavioral Intentions Across Consumer Segments	91
14.	Information Source Acquisition Preferences Across Segments	92

15.	Information Source Acquisition Preferences According to Years of Experience	93
16.	A Comparison of Event Experience by Cluster Groups	94

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Amidst tourism segments, no industry is growing faster than sport tourism (Midland & Kingston, 2013). In 2008, sport tourism accounted for an astounding \$600 billion and over 10% of the international tourism market (AIPS, 2010). The industry's ability to produce revenue, create jobs, regenerate urban infrastructure, and enhance a destination's local and global appeal have made cities, regions, and even countries increasingly more reliant on visitors traveling for the purpose of sport. This growing development has made sport tourism a highly competitive niche tourism business (Eslami, Farahani, & Asadi, 2013) where only the best managed destinations are likely to flourish.

The concept of sport tourism was adopted in the early 1990s to describe sport-related leisure travel (Kurtzman & Zauher, 1995; Redmund, 1991). Since then, sport tourism has become a multi-billion dollar business, prompting researchers to allocate tremendous time and effort to studying the underlying motives influencing travel-related decisions (Funk, Toohey, & Bruun, 2007; Gibson, 1998; Hinch & Higham, 2001). Sport tourism has been defined as "leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities (active sport tourism), to watch physical activities (event sport tourism), or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities (nostalgia sport tourism)" (Gibson & Fairley, 2011, p.

229). The Travel Industry Association of America discovered that from 2005 to 2010, 38% of US adults attended an organized event, competition or tournament as a spectator or participant, while on a trip of 50 miles or more (Mijares, 2010). This compelling statistic illustrates why scholarly inquiry into sport tourism has grown so dramatically over the past several years (Shipway & Jones, 2007). Yet despite it being a prominent topic among researchers, a number of scholastic endeavors have displayed myopic tendencies towards sport tourism research, concentrating primarily on those traveling for the purpose of spectating sport (See Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1997; Priestely, 1995; Richards, 1996; Trail & James, 2001) and neglecting the consumption behaviors of participants. However, in recent years, amateur athletes have exhibited a strong desire to travel to compete in organized events, creating a new and emerging area of study, deemed active sport tourism (Funk et al., 2007; McGehee, Yoon, & Cárdenas, 2003).

Active sport tourists fall into one of two categories: non-event- and event- related consumption. Non-event sport athletic endeavors are leisure-based (e.g., skiing and golfing), while event sport tourism reflects sport-related travel associated with event participation (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010). Undoubtedly, event sport tourism garners greater interest from sport management scholars due to the economic impact event sport tourism has on local communities throughout the world (Dixon, Henry, & Martinez, 2013). However, variations in the magnitude of a sport event may generate heterogeneous consumption motives from participants. For instance, large scale events (e.g., Ironman and Boston Marathon), by their nature, represent a sport's premier stage for respective competitors. Thus, participants traveling to compete in these events are likely drawn by motives such as competition, prestige, and financial earnings.

Conversely, participants traveling to compete in small-scale events, such as the GoPro Mountain Games, may encompass a wider range of social psychological motives.

De Knop (2004) notes that as interest and participation in sport grows within the leisure sport industry, the desire of people to travel to compete will multiply. A byproduct of this effect will be a greater divergence in the profiles of participants competing in such events. Consumers in destination sport participation are not homogeneous. They possess myriad and complex motivations (Shank, 2002; Stewart, Smith & Nicholson, 2003) and at times, make sports tourism decisions without being cognizant of the underlying forces driving their sport destination selections (Kurtzman & Zauher, 2005). To give an example, it is reasonable to assume that an athlete traveling to a tropical destination to compete in a triathlon will be motivated by forces endogenous with sport participation (e.g., competition, achievement, skill mastery), as well as tourism (e.g., relaxation, escape, novelty, destination attributes). But although consumers may possess multiple reasons for consuming sport tourism experiences, failing to identify consumers' primary and secondary sport tourism motivations limits the effectiveness of pre-event marketing communication strategies, as well as event management decisions. The complex challenge of understanding consumers' underlying motivations for sport participation and travel solicits an opportunity for scholars and marketers alike, to develop effective and comprehensive market segmentation practices that are constructed based on consumers' unique profiles. By researching differences and similarities in consumer motives, this study will determine whether various segments can be defined in such a way that necessitates unique marketing messages that will enhance an active sport tourist's experience.

Problem Statement

Despite several studies (See Daniels & Norman, 2003; Matheson, 2006; Veltri, Miller, & Harris, 2009) confirming that small-scale sport events can have a tremendous economic impact on local communities, there is a gap in research concerning the development of marketing strategies aimed at maximizing the social and psychological experience of sport participants for tourism destinations (Kaplanidou, Kerwin, & Karadakis, 2013; Lima, Eusebio, & Kastenholz, 2012). Not focusing on social and psychological outcomes is in disagreement with literature underlining its importance in strengthening the planning and marketing process of small-scale organized sport events (Gibson, 2004; Gibson, Kaplanidou, & Kang, 2012; Hall, O'Mahony, & Vieceli, 2010). Further, it has been suggested that psychological and sociological factors are directly tied to a consumer's satisfaction (Gibson, et al., 2012; Kaplanidou, et al., 2013). Hence, the more event organizers can tap into and enhance these benefits, the greater the perceived success of the event will be.

Moreover, to my knowledge, few studies have been conducted using segmentation within the context of participant-based active event sport tourism. This gap becomes even more glaring when considering the potential role of market segmentation as input to not just discover visitors' motivations for consumption, but to also understand their communication channel preferences for gathering event-related information. Developing an understanding of the marketing communication platforms that cater to unique marketing segments is an integral facet to the proficiency of sport event organizers. Just as there are individual differences in motives, personality, and demographic profiles that must be taken into consideration when creating a marketing

mix, so too should consumer preferences for acquiring product information. Thus, identifying distinctions among consumer segments is critical for marketers attempting to alter communication features that adhere to varying consumer profiles (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005). Although there is research on information source behaviors of tourists, no research, to my knowledge, has explored the information search strategies of participants competing in an organized sport tourism context. Furthermore, no research has incorporated sport-related and travel-related motives as a means for investigating consumers' information search source preferences. This gap in literature has significant implications for sport management practitioners attempting to develop marketing communication strategies that target sport tourism consumers' unique individualities.

Purpose of the Study

Thus, the purpose of this study is threefold: 1) construct a unified model that segments active sport consumers based on their sport and/or tourism motivations, 2) identify whether underlying motives influence consumer segments' behavioral intentions, and 3) determine whether active sport tourist segments have preferred communication avenues for acquiring pre-purchase information about destination sport events. By gaining empirical answers to these questions, sport tourism event managers and marketers will be better informed in ways to best market sport events so that they may utilize sport to stimulate local economic development.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

- RQ1 Can unique segments be identified based upon an athlete's sport- and tourism-related motives?
- H1.1 Different consumer segments will be distinguishable based on their reported sport and/or tourism motives.

- RQ2 Will motivational profiles of amateur and professional athletes be different according to the consumer segments uncovered from the market segmentation analysis?
- H2.1 Professional athletes will reflect greater motives derived from participating in sport, while amateur athletes will exhibit greater motives germane to tourism.
- RQ3 Will motivational similarities or differences exist between non-local and local athletes according to the consumer segments uncovered from the market segmentation analysis?
- H3.1 Non-local athletes will report greater motives engrained in tourism, while local athletes will display motivations tied to athletic competition.
- RQ4 Will active sport and tourism motives influence consumers' conative loyalty intentions?
- H4.1 Consumers who exhibit positive affects regarding the destination and its unique attributes will report having the strongest conative loyalty characteristics.
- RQ5 Will active sport tourism segments exhibit different conative loyalty characteristics?
- H5.1 Sport tourism consumers who report high levels of both sport and tourism motives will exhibit greater conative loyalty characteristics than consumers displaying a prominent prejudice towards sport or tourism factors.
- RQ6 Will active sport tourist segments differ with regard to their information search behaviors?
- H6.1 Consumer segments exhibiting motives based in tourism will report utilizing more external information sources than sport-focused segments.
- RQ7 Does the amount of previous experience participating in the event influence one's information search behavior?
- H7.1 Athletes who have greater experience will rely more heavily on information sources derived from their internal memory (e.g., previous experience)
- H7.2 Athletes with lesser experience will utilize more external sources to solicit information about the event than their more experienced counterparts.

Need for the Study

According to a 2008 report compiled by Xola Consulting, adventure sport tourism is among the fastest growing segments within the leisure travel industry (Veloz, n.d.). The \$245 billion industry that includes sports ranging from fly fishing to white water rafting is expected to grow at an annual pace of 20%. The popularity athletes attribute to such sports stems from the unique outdoor landscapes and opportunities for excitement, stimulation, and potential adventure (Beaddie & Hudson, 2003). Such distinctive experiences, which cannot be duplicated in urban settings, allow remote locations, such as seaside destinations or mountain towns, to capitalize on the commodification of its natural resources (e.g., mountains, rivers, oceans, beaches, etc.) by merging the nostalgia of nature with the arousal of sport. But although the success of such events is apparent, the causes and meanings underlying the results are rarely analyzed (Crompton, 1999).

The limited understanding of factors representing consumer needs and desires associated with sport tourism (Weed & Bull, 2004) contradicts drastically with the demands and efforts of government entities attempting to develop sport events and activities specifically for the purpose of attracting visitors to the region. Given the importance that in-depth consumer information plays in destination management and marketing (Veal, 2002), this lack of understanding represents a prominent threat to the effectiveness of communities relying on sport tourism as economic stimulus. Empirical research that assists in filling this void, is therefore, clearly warranted.

The tourist experience in natural areas offers a range of physical, psychological, and social benefits (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989), potentially attracting a large and heterogeneous tourist market. Although challenging, understanding the underlying

reasons why individuals choose to travel to consume sport should be a prerequisite to designing events that will better engage all participants through relating to their motivations. This objective often necessitates a market segmentation approach, requiring destination marketers and managers to gain a more in-depth picture of their consumer in terms of their primary and secondary purchase motives. It's clear that a sport tourist's reasons for traveling can include a combination of both sport, as well as tourism motives (Gammon & Robinson, 1997/2003; Ritchie, Mosedale, & King, 2002). Consequently, sport tourism marketers must be cautious not to focus their attention solely on the activity itself, and ignore the many other attractions germane to destination tourism. In other words, simply providing an organized environment to compete in sport may not fully optimize tourists' needs and wants (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005).

By identifying the unique motivation characteristics of sport tourism segments, this research will better equip event managers with information necessary to tailor event service elements that will enhance customer satisfaction and lead to greater retention. Moreover, determining the information source preferences of athletes will highlight marketing communication strategies which are designed to match the profiles of particular segments with the beneficial outcomes they are seeking by purchasing sport tourism experiences. As a result of this research, non-urban destinations, whose economies are fragile, and more reliant on tourism due to a lack of industrial activity (Fredman & Lindberg, 2008; Nepal, 2002), will be more likely to capitalize on the power of sport events as economic stimulus through the influx of nonlocal spending (Schneider, 2009).

Delimitations

This study examines the underlying motives of adventure sport athletes traveling to a destination location to compete in organized sport. Respondents in this study were athletes who were registered to participate in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games, which consist of a wide range of outdoor sports, including, but not limited to, fly fishing, mountain biking, bouldering, and white water kayaking. Adventure sport competitors are unique in that they rely on particular environmental settings for sport performance and functionality. Thus, it's plausible that these athletes' necessity for a specific event location may make them more likely to exhibit favorable attitudes towards destination attributes and other tourism-related motives than the common sport tourist. As a result, findings may not be generalizable to sport tourist populations participating in sport outside the categorization of adventure sport.

Further, the GoPro Mountain Games in Vail, Colorado was chosen as an appropriate sample frame based upon the destination's global popularity as a mecca for outdoor recreationalists. In fact, *U.S. News Travel* (2014) rated Vail as the third best ski destination in the world. Consequently, the destination platform used in this study may engender greater tourism motives from participants, and consequently may not be representative of alternative active sport tourism locations.

Limitations

1. The survey questionnaire was administered in person and through an online survey platform. The survey was taken voluntarily and it is assumed that the responses reflect participants' true feelings and opinions. However, given the

nature of survey research, it is possible that the information collected is not entirely accurate.

2. To obtain an adequate sample size, a convenient sampling approach was used, which will limit the generalizability of this research to the target population under study.
3. This study relied solely on quantitative data to explain active sport tourists' motivational reasons for consumption, and to investigate participants' behavioral intentions and information source preferences. It can be assumed that the results may contain dissimilar findings from those discovered through qualitative methods.
4. Due to logistical constraints concomitant with survey research, authors are forced to focus their attention on a limited amount of variables believed to be most influential in explaining a respective outcome. As a result, it is improbable that any one study can fully explain the underlying reasons why active sport tourists choose to attend an event and return on a regular basis. Thus, it is reasonable that several other factors, not analyzed in this study, are also contributing to active sport tourists' consumer behaviors.
5. Participants not captured in this study, either by way of interception on-site or due to a disinterest in completing the online survey, may reflect differing opinions from those who chose to participate in this study.
6. Segmentation by means of cluster analysis will likely produce unequal group sizes. Unequal sample sizes can have an ill-effect on ANOVA statistical assumptions, such as homogeneity of variance, as well as power (Keppel, 2004).

ANOVA is considered to be robust enough to resolve analyses that fail to accommodate the homogeneity of variance assumption, but the resolution needs to be minimal when the sample sizes are very divergent.

Definition of Terms

Sport Tourism: Leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities (Gibson & Fairley, 2011).

Active Sport Tourism: Active sport tourists can be categorized as either non-event- or event-focused. Non-event active sport tourism reflects athletic endeavors that are leisure based, while event sport tourism reflects sport related travel associated with event participation (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010). For example, an individual who elects to engage in a physical activity for leisure purposes (e.g., golf, skiing, kayaking) while traveling would be considered a non-event active sport tourist. Conversely, an individual registered to compete in an organized sport event while traveling would be considered an active event sport tourist.

Destination Marketing: Marketing strategies which seek to generate heightened levels of awareness among prospective visitors by demonstrating superior and unique brand positioning (Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules, & Shameem, 2003)

Market Segmentation: The division of a heterogeneous market into distinct customer groups, which are internally homogeneous (McKercher, SY Ho, Du Cros, & Chow So-Ming, 2002).

Motivation: The drive to satisfy psychological and physiological needs through the consumption of products and activities (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2006).

Push and Pull Motivation: Push motives reflect internal desires to escape one's existing location, while pull motives represent external or situational factors associated with a particular destination (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977)

Information Search Acquisition: Information search acquisition represents a goal directed behavior in which individuals seek information to answer questions in an effort to mitigate uncertainties pertaining to which products to buy or which services to spend time experiencing (Murray, 1991; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998).

Internal Sources of Information: Involves the retrieval of information stored from memory (e.g., past experience, product trial) (Bettman, 1979).

External Sources of Information: When utilizing external sources of information, consumers are obtaining information from avenues that extend beyond one's memory scan (e.g., sellers, social peer groups, media, Internet) (Peterson & Merino, 2013).

Behavioral Intentions: Ajzen (2002) defines behavior intentions as an indication of an individual's readiness to perform a given behavior. It assumed to be an immediate antecedent of behavior.

Conative Loyalty: Conative loyalty refers to a behavioral intention stage noted by one's repeated episodes of positive affect toward a brand or service (Oliver, 1999).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism activities predominately occur at destinations that extend a combination of tourism products to visitors, offering them an integrated and unique experience (Buhalis, 2000). For instance, Kotler, Haider, and Rein (1993) summarize a destination as a place that utilizes a complementary set of attractions, events, services, and goods to enhance a value proposition to visitors. Fulfilling a deliverable promise of value requires that destination marketers determine the combination of local tourism products and services that are most influential for target segments evaluating a destination experience (Athiyaman, 1997). Once these factors have been identified, destination markets may showcase and promote their strengths in a way that affirms the financial, experiential, entertainment, or social benefits that are unique to particular tourism segments (Pike, 2008).

Destination marketing, then, becomes a critical component in meeting tourism objectives as it seeks to generate heightened levels of awareness among prospective visitors by demonstrating a competitive and unique brand position (Jago et al., 2003). One way destinations choose to differentiate their brand from others and establish greater awareness is through the creation of event tourism (Hall, 1992, 1996; Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Roche, 1994). Event tourism has been defined as the “systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts, and image builders” (Getz & Wicks, 1993, p. 2). It has been suggested by Jago and

colleagues (2003) that event visitors may choose to attend events (or visit events in the future) as a consequence of the unique benefits that they provide. In this way, the destination's product mix and subsequent benefits that a tourism location can offer are what facilitates a distinction from substitute choices. This may occur through a destination's differentiating qualities and/or benefits to event visitors, or through the enhanced cache' that an event affords to a destination.

In reference to the former, Pike (2002) insists that destination events have a significant advantage over manufactured tourism environments because of their inimitable natural resources (e.g. landscapes and terrain). A tourism resource may be viewed as anything that plays a major role in attracting visitors to a destination (Spotts, 1997). Given the dynamic and competitive nature of destination tourism, the success of a destination is often predicated on its ability to relinquish and reconfigure such resources in a way that enriches tourists' individual needs and desires (Teodorescu, Stancioiu, Botos, Arsene, & Ditoiu, 2012).

Adventure sport tourism paints an excellent example of this. For instance, mountain destinations may become an attractive choice among alpine ski enthusiasts seeking a particular ski resort which offers unique terrain and a history of abundant snow fall. Likewise, an avid kayaker may select a destination based on its close proximity to unrivaled white water rapids. These examples reflect an opportunity for destination event marketers to exploit environmental and geographical resources for purposes of designing successful sport events that ensure (a) benefits, (b) perceived by a sizeable customer group, (c) which customers value and are willing to pay for, and (d) cannot readily be obtained elsewhere (Day & Wensley, 1988).

In today's competitive market, event organizers need to recognize where their destinations are placed in terms of travel needs and benefits. To achieve economic long term success, destinations must establish a strong fit between the attributes unique to their environment and the motivations underlying consumer decisions. However, the challenge for destination marketers resides in the long list of criteria used by individuals contemplating tourism-related products. Indeed, tourism demand does not represent a homogeneous group of people with comparable motivations (Wahab, Crompton, & Rothfield, 1976). Instead, factors influencing travelers' pre-purchase decisions may involve a number of factors including, but not limited to, purpose and feature of the trip, elements of the external environment, the motivational characteristics of the traveler, and the particularities and attributes of destinations (Buhals, 2000).

Given that very little is known about the particular benefits that visitors seek or obtain from events, the elements that stimulate or hinder particular benefits, or how such benefits become concomitant with a destination's brand (Jago et al., 2003), a market analysis of this unique sport tourism niche is needed. To achieve this objective, a literature review is presented that reflects the usefulness of a market segmentation strategy according to active sport tourists' motives for participating. Koc & Altinay (2007) assert that destinations need to rely heavily on information that distinguishes consumers in terms of what, when, where, why, and how. Based on this knowledge, marketing strategies can be developed that best suit the desires and benefits sought by its target market(s). Following an overview of market segmentation, an examination of psychological, social, and physical motives will be reported in order to provide a glimpse into the driving forces prompting sport tourists' consumption choices, thus reflecting the

‘why’ in the aforementioned inquiry. Although sport and tourism are believed to be two converging activities (Hinch & Higham, 2001), due to sport being an important activity within tourism and tourism being a prominent characteristics of sport, the ensuing review of literature will partition sport and tourism motives in an effort to highlight unique benefits underlying each behavior. Further, the multiple instruments used to measure sport- and tourism-related motives will be evaluated for the purpose of selecting and justifying the use of this study’s scale. And finally, a comprehensive market analysis cannot be complete without identifying the communication channels that are most likely to be utilized by consumers (Wilkie, 1994). The diversity with which consumers make use of media, social peer groups, and various Internet sources to gather pre-purchase information has created a demand for integrated marketing techniques. For this reason, consumers’ information search behaviors will be discussed in the context of service-oriented products (e.g. tourism experiences or leisure activities). The conclusion will summarize the value in understanding psychological motives and information search acquisition when developing appropriate and effective destination event management and marketing practices.

Market Segmentation

To assist with event tourism design and formulation, destination marketers suggest utilizing market segmentation identification as a means to perform marketing research (Baker, Hozier, & Rogers, 1994; Calantone & Mazanec, 1991; Ritchie, 1996). Market segmentation can be understood as the division of a heterogeneous market into distinct customer groups, which are internally homogeneous (McKercher et al., 2002). Past research of segmentation analyses of tourists indicate that travelers from different

backgrounds in terms of lifestyle, geographical origin, and socio-demographic status will react to different offerings and at different times (Pike, 2008). This occurs for a variety of reasons, including the purpose of travel, individual motivations, time availability, time of year, and ease of access to other discretionary spending options. Thus, the challenge destination events face is not only how to generate a deeper understanding of these diverse individualities, but also how to analyze and use information (such as motivation and participation data) that involves so many dimensions (Rohm, Milne, & McDonald, 2006).

This task points to a central operation that requires destinations to focus its efforts on anticipating a target market's motives and then developing services and communication strategies that meet such demands (Pike, 2008). This form of positioning usually implies a segmentation commitment in which organizations make a resolute decision to concentrate only on certain segments' needs. Kastenholz (2004) supports this approach by illustrating that careful consideration regarding the selection and management of a designated target market that fulfills the economic goals set by the destination represents the marketing strategy most suited to isolated destinations aiming at sustainable development. Market segmentation assists an organization in the identification of preferred target markets, thereby aiding marketers in creating communication strategies that address the motives, attitudes, and behaviors of specific subgroups (Lewis & Chambers, 2000)

Market segmentation's usefulness as a tool to determine the profile of consumers has been presented in marketing literature for over 40 years in general marketing literature and has recently become more present in disciplines pertaining specifically to

tourism (See Alexandris, Kouthouris, Funk, & Giovani, 2009; Chen, 2003; Koc & Altinay, 2007; Park & Yoon, 2009) and sport (e.g., Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002; Hallman, Muller, Feiler, Breur, & Roth, 2012; McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002; Prayag & Grivel, 2014; Rohm et al., 2006). The result of this research is a mature area of study that includes a fairly standardized definition and reasonable criteria for identifying market segments. To give an example, Wilkie (1994) insists on three core requirements for a true market segment. The first relates to high group identity, which is observed when members of a segment are similar, but different from consumers in other segments. The second key element for effective market segmentation occurs when members of a segment behave in a similar manner, and more importantly, respond analogously to a specific marketing strategy. Lastly, Wilkie's third component to market segmentation rests in an organization's practical ability to produce a marketing mix that reaches each segment. Similarly, Morrison (1996) listed eight criteria for effective market segmentation in tourism. According to these standards, an effective market segmentation has the following characteristics:

1. People within a segment should be similar to each other and segments should be as different from each other as possible (homogeneity).
2. Segments should be identified with a reasonable degree of accuracy (measurable).
3. Segments should be large enough in size to warrant separate attention (substantial).
4. An organization needs to be able to easily reach or access the identified segments (accessible).
5. Segments must require different marketing approaches. This suggests that the segments must differ on those characteristics which will be most relevant to the organization's services or products (defensible).

6. Segments must be suited to the products or services offered by the organization (competitive).
7. Identified segments need to be compatible with existing markets (compatible).
8. There must be some stability in the segments. The identified segments need to remain relevant over an extended period of time (durable).

Yet despite the evaluative process of market segmentation being systematized and virtually congruent across disciplines, some outstanding issues remain unresolved. For instance, many have debated which bases and statistical approach provide the best segmentation solutions (Moscardo, Pearce, & Morrison, 2001). Historically, market segmentation has been conducted using either objective (a priori methods) or subjective attributes (posteriori methods). The use of objective variables, such as demographic data (e.g., gender, age, household income, etc.), are commonly used by researchers because they are standard, easily accessible, and are much simpler in terms of statistical analysis (See Gladwell, 1990; Morrison, 1996; Wilkie, 1994). Additionally, marketers have often believed that consumer behaviors are highly linked to demographic variables (Bagozzi, Rosa, Celly, & Coronel, 1998). However, the use of objective characteristics has recently become criticized, prompting scholars to implore future research to center its attention on subjective attributes instead. This argument centers around the belief that when attempting to examine the core motives for consumer behavior, data providing information on how customers feel and think are more useful than demographics (Green-Demars, Pelletier, Steward, & Gushue, 1998; Trail & James, 2001). This approach is further emphasized by those arguing that psychological and behavioral variables are superior bases for segmentation as they better explain an individual's satisfaction with

products and services (See Davis, Chappelle, Sternquist, & Pysarchik, 1993; Gibson, 2004; Hsieh, O’Leary, & Morrison, 1992; Weed, 2006).

In summary, a review of literature suggests that sport participation and consumption motives should be examined as a multidimensional construct, comprised of multiple psycho-sociological factors (Rohm et al., 2006). However, few studies have been conducted using segmentation within the context of participant-based active event sport tourism. Furthermore, little is known how various psychological and sociological motives for traveling to compete in sport may influence a customer’s information search behavior and loyalty intentions. By bridging this gap in the literature, event organizers may become more conversant in marketing mixes that effectively reach their various target markets, thereby increasing the likelihood of repeat purchase.

Motivation

Motives are considered by many scholars to be the driving force underlying all human behavior (Cassidy, 2005; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Lindquist and Sirgy (2006) conceptualize participation motivation as the drive to satisfy physiological and psychological needs and wants through the consumption of products and activities. Schiffman and Kanuk (2001) suggest that motivation describes a process by which five sequential stages generate 1) need recognition, 2) tension reduction, 3) drive state, 4) want, and 5) goal-directed behavior. Among these progressive steps, the “want” stage tends to demand the greatest attention from academics and marketing practitioners because it represents the avenues a person must take to satisfy a desired outcome (Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009). However, a participant cannot reach this stage without an internal desire or drive to pursue such avenues.

According to Fridgen (1996), these drives cause and regulate behavior directed towards either a physiological or psychological objective. However, this suggests that physiological and psychological motives operate independent of one another, but Kurtzman and Zauher (1995) posit that a sport consumption context may be unique in that individuals' desires could be satisfied simultaneously due to sport participation's multifaceted characteristics (e.g., social attributes, physical fitness, value development, aggression stimuli, etc.). This proposition has prompted researchers to further investigate motivational constructs that aid in building an understanding of who sport consumers are and what factors influence their consumption behavior.

Sport Motivation

Motivation research conducted in the field of sport dates back nearly 100 years and has occurred predominately within the sociology and psychology disciplines. Sociologists have largely concentrated their efforts on exploring how sport functions and interacts within a social organization and society (Anderson & Stone, 1981; Caillois, 1961; Huizinga, 1949). Conversely, psychology has directed its efforts to understanding the influence sport has on an individual's development, as well as the motivations perpetuating its appeal (Berlyne, 1960; Maslow, 1954). Yet despite having a rich scholastic history, understanding why individuals consume sport-related products and experiences remains far from straightforward. Consumers have shown to have many diverse reasons for investing in sport. As a result, models of sport consumption behavior often differ based upon the context of the sport and motives of the consumer. In fact, Roberts (2001) determined there to be at least 32 distinct theories of motivation that can be applied to explain the motivations relative to the sport consumer.

For the most part, these motives have been used to analyze sport spectators and participants and can be categorized as utilitarian or hedonic (Hirshman & Holbrook, 1982). Utilitarian motives relate to the usefulness, value, and appropriateness of the behavior as perceived by a consumer. In other words, utilitarian motives represent the functionality or tangible attributes of a sport product or experience. These may include: accessibility, registration/admission costs, customer service or other socio-demographic variables. On the other hand, hedonic motives relate to pleasures experienced or anticipated from a behavior. These often reflect sociological and psychological motives that produce affective outcomes. It should be reiterated that hedonic variables are more beneficial in sport tourism research because they present sport marketers with the “why” characteristics associated with a consumer’s behavior, rather than focusing on their “what” factors, which reflect the kinds of behaviors sport tourists demonstrate (Gibson, 2004).

Sloan (1985) was among the first to identify hedonic theories that explain the behavioral patterns of sport consumers. He categorized these theories as follows: salubrious effect theories, stress and stimulation seeking theories, catharsis and aggression theories, entertainment theories and achievement-seeking theories.

Intrinsic motivation. Salubrious effects theories suggest an individual’s level of involvement in sport is motivated by intrinsic pleasures, as well as an enhanced physical and psychological state (Harris, 1973). When a person is intrinsically motivated, he or she is engaging in an action because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Conversely, then, when an individual’s behavioral goals extend beyond those of intrinsic value, it is considered extrinsic motivation. Studies in a wide range of

life domains (e.g., education, work, interpersonal relationships, politics, and health) have discovered that greater levels of intrinsic motivation are positively correlated with enhanced learning, greater interest, greater effort, better performance, a more positive emotional tone, and enhanced health (Blais, Boucher, Sabourin, & Vallerand, 1990; Fortier, Vallerand, & Guay, 1995; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Kasser & Ryan, 1996; O'Connor & Vallerand, 1990; Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993; Williams, Grow, Freedman, Ryan, & Deci, 1996). Similarly, the power of intrinsic motivation has also been widely reported in leisure and recreation settings (Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995). For instance, greater intrinsic orientations have been found to predict likelihood of participating in physical activity (Standage, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2003), high goal achievement-orientation (Hodge, Allen, & Smellie, 2008), and participation frequency (Alexandris, Zahariadis, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002).

In the context of sport participation, research on intrinsic motives have been rooted in two prominent theories: Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Flow Theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). Deci and Ryan (1985) describe self-determination theory by merging two prevalent ideologies concerning motivation. The first suggests that humans are motivated to maintain an optimal level of stimulation (Berlyne, 1960), while the second reflects humans' basic need for competence (White, 1959) and self-determination (deCharms, 1968). While self-determination theory focuses on ultimate or long term reasons for athletic participation, Flow Theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988) focuses on an athlete's immediate reasons for participating. Csikszentmihalyi characterized "flow" as 1) a holistic feeling of being immersed in, and carried by, an activity, 2) a merging of action and awareness, 3) focus of attention on a

limited stimulus field, d) lack of self-consciousness, and 4) feeling in control of one's actions and the environment. However, according to Schneider (2001), intrinsic motivation described as "flow" can be a predictor of ultimate goals even though an individual may only be driven by instantaneous incentives.

Athletes' intrinsic motives, whether based in "flow" or "self-determination," have also been linked to interest theories (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). An individual's interests in an activity are said to be distinguishable according to feeling-related and value-related valences (Schiefele, 1999). Feeling-related valences reflect the intrinsic feelings that accompany an activity. These include outcomes such as involvement, stimulation, or flow. Conversely, value-related valences refer to the attribution of personal significance or level of importance associated with an object or activity. Although feeling- and value-related valences are highly correlated, it is useful to differentiate them because some activities are likely to provoke feelings, whereas others are more likely to be based on personal significance (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992). Kilpatrick, Hebert, and Bartholomew's (2005) study of collegiate student athletes and non-athletes (leisure participants) portrays an excellent example of this. Findings indicated that student athletes participating in an organized sport exhibited different motivations than did students engaging in exercise. The highest rated motives for student athletes were competition, affiliation, enjoyment, and challenge, where general students cited health- and appearance-related motives most strongly. This research suggests that organized sport participation is more closely tied to intrinsic reasons (e.g., social motives, challenge, and enjoyment), while motivation for exercise is linked to more extrinsic reasons (e.g., appearance, health concerns, stress

management, and social recognition). Given that active sport tourists are participating in organized events, these findings are particularly relevant.

Stress and stimulation seeking theories. Several studies have sought to understand the psychological motivators that influence adventure/risky sport participation (Alexandris, Funk, & Pritchard, 2011; Kerr & Mackenzie, 2012; Shoham, Rose, & Kahle, 1998; Tok, 2011). Past research indicates that participants engaging in risky sports cite a variety of psychological motivators, but one of the most concentrated factors involves a thrill and adventure sensation experienced (Freixanet, 1991; Shoham et al., 1998). Zuckerman (1992) suggests that sensation seeking relates to a physical sensation, rather than cognition, where many of the pleasures sought by sensation seekers involve uncommon bodily stimulation. Zuckerman hypothesized that people who are high sensation seekers require a lot of stimulation to reach their optimal level of arousal. When the stimulation of sensory input is not met, a person finds his/her experience unpleasant (Larsen & Buss, 2008).

For adventure sport athletes, then, sensation/stimulation seeking plays a prominent role in athletes' commitment to sport (See Hungenberg, Gould, & Daly, 2013; Shoham, Rose, & Kahle, 1998; Tok, 2011). For instance, in a qualitative study aimed at analyzing the motives for participation in adventure sports, such as river surfing, mountain biking, kayaking, rock climbing and hang gliding, four out of five practitioners cited adrenaline and thrill sensations as their primary motives for engaging in their respective sport (Kerr & Mackenzie, 2012). Similarly, in an analysis of motivational differences between adventure sport athletes (i.e., surfing) and low risk athletes (i.e., golf), athletes engaged in high-risk activities illustrated that their main reasons for

continued participation related to 1) their sport providing an avenue to participate in a socially acceptable risk taking environment, and 2) an opportunity to satisfy their sensation seeking needs (Diehm & Armatas, 2004). Moreover, those involved in the high risk sport demonstrated greater intrinsic motives and sensation seeking motives than did athletes participating in lesser risk sports. It has been suggested that people involved in activities where there is high risk will receive intrinsic rewards (Trimpop, 1994), such as hormonal pleasures (Zuckerman, 1984). According to Farmer (1992), if risk taking is intrinsically rewarding, then it likely explains why vertigo, aesthetics, and catharsis have been identified as important motivating factors for participating in adventure sports.

Catharsis and aggression theories. Research conducted by numerous scholars (See Bredemeier, Weiss, Shield, & Cooper, 1986; Guivernau & Duda, 2002; Terry & Jackson, 1985) have attempted to determine whether sport acts as a stimulant for aggressive behavior or diminishes it. Instinct theorists, such as Freudians, contend that aggression is instinctive, and that physical activity will provide a cathartic outcome by releasing the pent-up emotions inside of participants (Nucci & Young-Shim, 2005). According to Sloan (1979), “catharsis or reduction of aggression levels will occur either by participating in an aggressive act or vicariously through watching acts of aggression by others. Thus, they must be relieved periodically or erupt, producing catharsis in either case” (p.23). Nearly 50 years ago, Johnson and Hutton (1955) corroborated sport’s cathartic effect by testing the aggression levels of college wrestlers approximately three weeks before a season, and again the morning after the competition. Findings revealed that competition produced a reduced level of aggression in the athlete, confirming similar findings by Minninger (1948) several years earlier.

In spite of the position that sport can render cathartic effects on athletic participants, other scholars have suggested that the masculine norms and confrontational nature of some sports attracts and/or heightens aggression (See Bandura & Walters, 1974; Farmer, 1992; Sonderlund et al., 2014). For instance, sports such as ice hockey, auto racing, and football have been found to induce motives of aggression in sport consumers due to their physical nature (McDonald et al., 2002). Gelfand and Hartmann (1982) determined that participation in competitive games raised both boys' and girls' level of aggression, regardless of whether the outcome was a win or loss. With regards to the aggressive behaviors of sport fans, Bloom and Smith (1996) noted that violence occurring during a hockey game often manifests into violent acts in other social settings. Despite the inconsistencies in aggressive/cathartic research findings, little dispute remains regarding aggression's powerful influence on sport consumers' motivational behaviors.

Entertainment theories. Theories surrounding the entertainment value of sport relate to the excitement felt from a sport event experience due to opportunities for mental action and exploration (Funk, et al., 2009). Motives underlying entertainment theories include: excitement, drama, eustress, player and sport interest, wholesome environment, and physical and celebrity attraction (Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2004; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). In a segmentation study of WNBA fans, Funk and colleagues (2004) revealed that the excitement and entertainment value perceived by spectators was among the most useful predictors in differentiating high from low frequency segments. Specifically, spectators attending three or fewer games during a season were less likely to

describe a game experience as exciting and having good entertainment value than spectators attending 14 games or more.

Gillet (2011), when examining Australian Masters Games participants, also identified excitement as a fundamental motive driving sport consumption. Respondents specifically related their excitement to the prospect of facing unknown competitors and the challenge of adapting to a strange environment. Interestingly, the excitement felt from participating appears to be related very strongly with an individual's strength of motives associated with competition. Thus, entertainment motives could be considered akin to stress and stimulation seeking as excitement represents a unique sensation that is germane to watching and/or participating in a competitive sport environment.

Achievement-seeking theories. Achievement-seeking theories represent the need for an athlete to pursue a sport event experience because it provides an opportunity to be challenged or achieve a sense of mastery and self-esteem (Funk et al., 2009). Bandura (1997) and Schunk (1990) have shown that specific, proximal, and somewhat challenging goals best promote both self-efficacy and performance. Bandura defines self-efficacy as individuals' confidence in their ability to organize and execute a given course of action to solve a problem or accomplish a task. Thus, individuals exhibiting confidence in their abilities are more likely to engage in goal setting and expend significant effort in mastering activity choices which align with their competencies. Importance on doing well, according to Harackiewicz and Elliott (1993), generates in competitors an affective involvement in the task, which ultimately enhances the meaningfulness of the experience.

Among the various achievement theories cited in human behavior literature, Nicholls' (1989) achievement goal theory (AGT) has routinely been applied to research on motivation in sport and exercise in order to explain how psychological dispositions influence performance and involvement in physical activities. Within AGT lie two differentiating criteria, which individuals use to judge their competencies in achievement-oriented settings. These criteria or approaches are 1) task involvement, and 2) ego involvement. When individuals assess their success according to self-referenced criteria, which focuses on one's own effort and improvement, a person is considered to have a "task orientation" toward achievement (Cervello, Moreno, Alonso, & Iglesias, 2006). On the other hand, when individuals evaluate their performance in relation to the ability of others, they are said to be "ego-oriented." Newton and Fry's (1998) study of Senior Olympians revealed that athletes attribute task-oriented achievement to intrinsic motives. Senior athletes believe that success in sport is achieved through hard work, and a willingness to concentrate efforts on self-improvement. In contrast, athletes marginalized the association between success and ego orientation by stating that achievement is a derivative of natural ability and by showing a capacity to maximize extrinsic rewards (e.g., social and career status). In line with Newton and Fry's findings, Hodge and colleagues (2008) found that middle-aged athletes with high goal achievement orientations will exhibit greater intrinsic motives, such as enjoyment, commitment, and self-esteem. Based on these findings, it is evident that a desire to achieve set expectations and/or goals is an integral determinant in a consumer's choice to compete in an organized sport event.

Social motives. Although Sloan (1985) illustrates several factors that motivate individuals to participate in sport, he fails to address the sociological forces influencing activity choices. Kahle (1983) is among many social psychologists who have suggested treating social values as motivational constructs due to their abstract ability to stimulate goal-reaching behavior (See Feather, 1990; Kurpis & Bozman, 2010; Rohan, 2000). For instance, literature on sport participation motivation consistently describes affiliation opportunities as being equally influential as competence, enjoyment, and the excitement of competition (Weiss, 1993). Kane and Zink (2004) illustrate that the establishment of friendships through shared experiences and interests can enhance the meaningfulness an individual feels when engaged in sport. Consequently, physical activity participation appears to be motivated by a socially supportive atmosphere or when participants perceive social support when pushing towards goals (Okun et al., 2003). This indicates that a shared commitment in athletic pursuits can be just as effective as individual motivations (Carron, Hausenblas, & Mack, 1996). Thus, social support and group identity have also been revealed to be important motives for physical activity, especially for those in demand of high-risk intensity (McCarville, 2007).

Measures. Since the seminal work by Sloan (1985) and Kahle (1983), a wide array of motivational scales have been constructed, utilizing discrete motivational facets to explain sport-related consumption. Measures such as the SPEED facets of motivation (Funk et al., 2009), Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (Trail & James, 2001), Sport Interest Inventory (Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001), and the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (Wann, 1995) have all contributed to our understanding of what motives drive an individual to consume sport as a spectator and/or fan. Conversely,

measures such as McDonald et al.'s (2002) Motivations of Sport Consumers (MSC), List of Values (Homer & Kahle, 1988), the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (Gill, Gross, & Huddleston, 1983), Leisure Motivation Scale (Beard & Ragheb, 1983), and the Sport Motivation Scale-II (Pelletier, Rocchi, Vallerand, Deci, & Ryan, 2013) have all established constructs that explain an individual's motivation to participate in sport.

Each of these frameworks used to measure sport participation motivation encompass similar factors (e.g., achievement, competition, aggression, self-esteem, aesthetics, entertainment, value development, stress release, affiliation). However, what differentiates each measure involves the way in which the author(s) chooses to parcel each factor (See Appendix A). For example, many scales elect to reduce the amount of questions in a survey instrument by reducing the amount of items loading on a respective construct. Although this allows for a more condensed survey instrument, exploratory research is strengthened by initially taking larger sets of variables and then reducing them to a smaller, more manageable number while retaining as much of the original variance as possible (Conway & Huffcut, 2003). After reviewing each of the aforementioned scales, McDonald and colleagues' (2002) MSC framework (assesses 13 unique motives captured by three items each) was selected based upon it being the most comprehensive measure of sport motivational constructs.

Having said that, McDonald et al.'s (2002) scale fails to capture the additional motives that exist in the context of visiting a destination. As this study's perspective draws from both sport and tourism contexts, motivational factors derived from tourism are also likely to contribute to the motivational segments embedded among sport tourist participants.

Tourism Motivation

Tourism's ability to affect both local and national economic markets has prompted researchers to allocate tremendous time and effort to studying the underlying motives influencing travel-related decisions. In this pursuit, a number of theoretical frameworks have been used, including Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, Plog's (1974) allocentric-psychocentric typology, expectancy-value theories (Lewin, 1938), goal directed behavior (Bettman, 1979), and the push-pull framework (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977). However, tourism's youthfulness as an area of study has prevented researchers from being able to fully understand it, define it, and agree on the best way to measure it.

Generally, conceptualizing tourist motivation represents a compromise between an individual's psychological needs and the attributes associated with a destination. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), the former represents individuals that are motivated to simply get away, while the latter reflects a person who is motivated to travel to a specific place and at a particular time. In one of the very first attempts to explain travel motivation, Gray (1970) explained these two orientations by categorizing individuals based upon their wanderlust or sunlust. The concept of wanderlust reflects individuals' desire to leave a familiar setting to explore different cultures and places (i.e., novelty). More distinctly put, wanderlust or the novelty motive commonly identified by tourists, refers to an opportunity to discover an authentic experience (MacCannell, 1976). It should be noted that there are those who suggest that novelty motives are the only desires innate in all travelers (See Mayo & Jarvis, 1981), while all other motives associated with travel are acquired over time. For instance, the prestige of a particular destination can drive the motives of very affluent travelers, but status is not an inherent

need, but rather a learned trait through the acquisition of wealth. Thus, an individual's travel motives can change over a lifetime because as new needs are obtained, additional motives are learned (Pike, 2008).

In contrast to wanderlust, sunlust is described as travel which aims to achieve a specific goal or benefit that cannot be realized while at home. As noted in its title, sunlust can involve unique destination offerings, such as beaches, mountainous terrain, or even city architecture. Inevitably, sport event tourists fall into the latter category as they typically travel to a specific destination based on the existence of a particular sport event.

However, amidst these two simplistic classifications lie several other factors explaining individuals' choice to travel. From a risk analysis perspective, Plog (1974) suggested that the level of familiarity and comfort associated with a destination would influence destination choice. Non-adventurous types, which Plog refers to as psychocentrics, will prefer locations that are familiar and safe. Thus, psychocentrics will only choose destinations which have been well-traveled (Litvin, 2006). At the other end of the spectrum are self-confident and audacious travelers, deemed allocentrics, who are more likely to pursue new and daunting locations. Plog's typologies could be linked to Berlyne's (1960) Optimal Arousal Theory, whereby a traveler will seek a level of stimulation best suited for him or her. If a traveler perceives their every-day life as over-stimulating, then they will naturally engage in travel choices which will facilitate relaxation. However, if a soon-to-be traveler deems their life to be boring (under-stimulated), the tourist will find a more adventurous and exciting destination.

Although Plog's psychocentrics-allocentric theory has been widely cited in tourism literature, the concept fails to account for the fact that tourists travel with

different motivations on different occasions. Helping illustrate the complexity of tourism motives was Sirakaya and Woodside (2005), who suggested that a travel decision can be influenced by four interrelated factors:

1. Internal variables (e.g., attitudes, values, lifestyles, images, motivation, beliefs and intentions, personality, lifecycle stage, risk reduction methods, information search behavior)
2. External variables (e.g., constraints, pull factors of a destination, marketing mix, influences of family and reference groups, culture and sub-culture, social class, household-related variables such as life-style, power structure)
3. Nature of the intended trip (party size and composition, distance, time, duration of trip)
4. Trip experiences (mood and feeling during the trip, post-purchase evaluation) (p. 823)

It should be emphasized that no one motive identified above can be solely responsible for a tourist's decision to travel. However, the context in which travel occurs may influence which motives are emphasized over others. For instance, a sport tourism context may engender primary benefits derived directly from leisure activities that accompany a vacation (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987).

Such leisure activities could include sport-related experiences either as a participant and/or fan. In this context, McIntosh and Goeldner (1984) highlight four motivational drivers that could apply to the sport event tourist. The first involves physical motivators, which are directly related to physical needs and desires, such as fitness or sports. The second reflects cultural motivators, which can be linked to traditions and heritage. For instance, cultural tourism may involve visiting a sport museum or a prestigious sport site renowned for its historical reputation. Interpersonal motivators represent the third driver and include the socialization opportunities germane

to travel. As social creatures, people have a desire to develop and maintain relations with others (Handy, 1993) who share similar ideals and interests. This is often referred to as affiliation motivation. The final components are status and prestige motives, which are demonstrated by tourists attracted by high profile destinations, celebrities and/or distinctive sport events (Kurtzman & Zauher, 2005).

For adventure sport tourists relying on specific settings to optimize many of the needs identified by McIntosh and Goeldner (1984), geographical categories, such as space, place, and environment (Hall & Page, 1999) become instrumental in an athlete's choice of destination. According to Hall and Page, space refers to specific locations, whether local, regional or national, and investigates the interrelationships linking tourist motives and destinations (Mitchell & Murphy, 1991). Place refers to space that is infused with meaning (Lew, 2001). In the context of sport tourism, sport has shown a capacity to transform a region or country's meaning purely by its presence. For instance, destinations hosting the Olympic Games or World Cup embody a much different image during an event's tenancy. Standeven and De Knop (1999) described the relationship between place and sport as "an experience of physical activity tied to an experience of place" (p. 58). Lastly, environment relates to the natural and built resources that are used to support activities (Lew, 2001). For example, many outdoor sport events are dependent upon a specific landscape and/or climate conditions, whereas indoor sport events can be made more enticing based on the quality of facility. Thus, Hall and Page's (1999) concept of place can have a significant impact over the travel decisions and motives of sport consumers.

Place attachment. Research shows that individuals attracted to natural environments will develop, over time, an emotional connection with these areas (See Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). A connection to place can manifest into not only physical, but also psychological and social benefits making a particular environment more appealing and involving than alternative locations (Proshansk, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983). This concept, referred to as place attachment, can be understood as the affective link between a destination's attributes and an individual's characteristics (Hammit, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006), and is said to influence what consumers see, think, and feel about a place (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010).

Literature indicates that place attachment is comprised of two components; place identity and place dependence. Place identity is described as “the dimensions of self that define the individual's personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideas, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals, and behavioral tendencies and skill relevant to this environment” (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001, p. 234). Thus, a place may be viewed as an integral part of an individual's identity, resulting in a powerful attachment to places (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). Conversely, place dependence represents the importance of a resource in terms of its ability to enhance the functionality of a desired activity (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). It describes the meaning of a place as a collection of attributes and amenities that permit the actions pertinent to an activity deemed important to one's self (Williams et al., 1992).

Over the last decade, several scholars in leisure, sport, and tourism domains have included place attachment in various decision-making models in an effort to better

understand consumer choices in diverse sport participation contexts, such as hiking, skiing, rafting, kayaking, and marathon running (See Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Melidgdis, 2006; Kaplanidou, Jordan, Funk, & Ridinger, 2012; Kyle, Bricker, Graefe, & Wickham, 2004; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003). Alexandris et al. (2006) suggested that skiers' attachment to place was related to evaluations of a ski resort's physical attributes, such as ski slopes, lifts, and facilities. This indicated that a ski resort's service quality evaluations were highly correlated with visitors' attachment level. Similarly, Kaplanidou et al. (2012) determined that a destination's atmosphere, cultural context, and event characteristics strongly influenced marathon runners' place identity and place dependency, which subsequently resulted in a greater likelihood of repeat visiting in ensuing years. Kyle, Absher, and Graefe (2003) also found that a consumer's place identity was positively correlated with their willingness to accept program fees. Overall, each of these findings illustrate factors that aid destination managers in developing a deeper emotional and cognitive bond with visitors.

Push and pull dichotomy. Although factors directly associated with a destination (e.g., servicescape, destination image, place attachment, etc.) tend to be the focus of destination marketing studies, literature indicates that destination attributes may merely be an enhancement to a traveler's already existing or primary motives for travel (Dann, 1977). For instance, in the pre-purchase stage of travel, the individual consumer becomes a decision-maker with regards to where, when, why, how, and what (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Destination decisions then involve a choice between differing destinations, which provokes the use of a buyer's own criteria. According to Howard and Sheth (1969), choice criteria will be associated with motives. As a result, a preference towards

a particular destination may only be enough to dictate a travel decision if the favorable image of a place complements the consumer's underlying motives. Thus, when attempting to link tourism motives to destination choice, Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) propose using a push and pull approach, which analyzes how destination attributes reinforce travelers' core socio-psychological motives for travel.

These two factors reveal how tourists are "pushed" (escaping from) into making travel decisions and show how they are "pulled" or attracted by a destination's attributes (Uysal & Jurowski, 1993). Stated more clearly, push motivations are related to internal or emotional factors, whereas pull motivations refer to the external, cognitive or situational factors (Cassidy, 2005). Dann (1977) noted two forms of push factors as travel motives; anomi and ego-enhancement. Anomie illustrates a traveler's desire to elude the feeling of isolation obtained in everyday life by getting away from it all. On the other hand, ego-enhancement, rooted in the need for recognition, is obtained through the status achieved by travel (Fodness, 1994).

A seminal piece by Crompton (1979) categorized push and pull motivations into two clusters: socio-psychological motives and cultural motives. Socio-psychological motives are thought to represent push motives and include categories, such as escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, social interaction, family togetherness, and excitement. Cultural motives or pull motives include novelty and education.

However, debate has been raised as to whether "novelty," a key motive often reported in tourism research, is a push or pull motive. Even in Crompton's (1979) research, novelty appeared to be concomitant with curiosity and adventure (new and

different). Further, Hsu and Huang (2008) argue that if “novelty” were replaced by “curiosity” then it undoubtedly becomes a push factor. I only address this because its labeling appears to be contradictory in research investigating push and pull factors for travel. Regardless, Crompton’s push and pull dichotomy has had a great impact on tourism research (Goosens, 2000; Jang & Cai, 2002; Ottevanger, 2007; Yuan & McDonald, 1990).

Yuan and McDonald’s (1990) examination of overseas tourists identified five push factors (novelty, escape, prestige, enhancement and kinship relationships and relaxation/hobbies) and seven pull factors (budget, culture and history, wilderness, ease of travel, cosmopolitan environment, facilities, and hunting). Interestingly, the authors discovered that individuals traveling from different countries significantly differed on the level of importance they attributed to the push and pull factors.

Similarly, Jang and Cai (2002) attempted to uncover push and pull motives perceived by British outbound pleasure travelers. Six push factors and five pull factors were found with “knowledge seeking” and “cleanliness and safety” reported as the most important push and pull factors respectively.

When used in the context of sport-related tourism, Ottevanger (2007) used push and pull travel motives to assess the factors of influence among sport spectators visiting a destination event. Push factors included escapism, relaxation, self-exploration, entertainment and socialization. Pull factors included novelty, fan motives, self-development and destination attributes. Among these factors, fans rated “fan motives”, “entertainment”, “destination”, and “relaxation” as the most influential reasons for travel consumption. A more recent examination of Australian Football League interstate sport

tourists revealed that those traveling to Western Australia to watch their favorite football teams were primarily motivated by vicarious achievement and an opportunity to escape day-to-day activities (Rinaldi, 2011).

As illustrated by the studies mentioned above, the use of push, as well as pull items provides researchers with not just a glimpse at travelers' reasons for escaping the mundane, but also ascertains reasons associated with a particular destination that may have influenced an individual's choice of travel. Because tourism motivation can be a very complex phenomenon, it is important that measurement scales be adaptive and comprehensive. Push and Pull motive scales grant researchers with this flexibility as they permit the tailoring of specific items to fit the context of a study or destination's unique attributes. For this reason, Dann (1977) and Crompton's (1979) push and pull typology remains an appropriate approach to studying travel motivation (Jang & Cai, 2002).

Information Source Acquisition

The significance of studying information search acquisition is borne out of consumer behavior literature suggesting that search activity is a fundamental factor in consumer behavior decision-making models (Assael, 1984; Howard & Sheth, 1969). Several authors (Gursoy, 2001; Schmidt & Spreng, 1996), in fact, argue that the search for information is one of the most important steps in consumers' prepurchase decision-making processes because it signifies the initial stage at which marketers can educate and influence customers, directly or indirectly, about the products they sell (Keller, 2001). Because consumer information search behavior is thought to precede purchase and choice decisions, it is not surprising that the literature addressing this research area is copious and possesses a long history. For instance, two of the most widely cited articles

empirically investigating information search acquisition occurred over a half-century ago (Katona & Mueller, 1954; Stigler, 1961). Since then, a review of the literature indicates that consumer information search behavior has been analyzed from several perspectives, with the most common theoretical foundations being derived from psychology (See Beatty & Smith, 1987), economics (See Srinivasan, 1990), or geography (See Miller, 1993).

Underlying research on prepurchase information search behavior is the belief that individuals are goal directed and will seek information to answer questions in an effort to mitigate uncertainties pertaining to which products to buy or which services to spend time experiencing (Murray, 1991; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998). Though a certain degree of perceived risk exists in any type of product purchase, research indicates that service products warrant a greater amount of improbability than durable products (Murray, 1991; Zeithaml, 1981). Iacobucci's (1992) comparison of consumers' perceptions of a set of goods and services empirically supports this notion by demonstrating that consumers view many service activities as more complex and less standardized than goods.

Among service-oriented industries, tourist consumer behavior is considered to be particularly complex because of the multifaceted elements surrounding the purchase decision to travel (Seabra, Abrantes, & Lages, 2007). First, traveling for the purpose of leisure typically perpetuates a strong emotional component for consumers. It often requires a decision to allocate one's discretionary funds and is the culmination of a long process of planning, choice, and evaluation. Secondly, the intangibility of tourist services creates a significant amount of perceived risk, which often motivates consumers to acquire greater levels of information (Murray, 1991) in an effort to generate images and

expectations that may aid in anticipating service consumption (Seabra et al., 2007).

Thus, it is critical that researchers investigate the extent to which sport tourist consumers search, how they search, and why they search – or don't search (Brown & Goolsbee, 2002).

Internal vs. External Information Sources

Information search can be defined as the motivated activation of knowledge stored in memory or acquisition of information from the environment (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1993). As noted from this definition, information search acquisition can be derived from both internal, as well as external sources. Internal search requires the retrieval of information stored from memory (Bettman, 1979; Leigh & Aro, 1984). Examples of these engrained sources may include personal experiences, either with a specific service, product, or location, as well as any information acquired from a previous ongoing search (Fodness & Murray, 1997; Gursoy, 2003; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998). When contemplating a purchase decision, a consumer will first recall internal sources of information (Bettman, 1979), but in the event that internal information search proves inadequate, consumers will begin to engage in seeking external sources.

External sources refer to avenues of collecting information beyond one's memory scan and can consist of 1) prepurchase, goal-directed, or problem-solving activities, and 2) continuous, regular, general, or ongoing activities (Peterson & Merino, 2013).

Literature in marketing and consumer behavior is rife with evidence indicating that external information represents a motivated and conscious decision by the consumer to pursue new information from the environment or marketplace (Dodd, Pinkleton, & Gustafson, 1996; Furse, Punj, & Stewart, 1984; Gronflaten, 2009). Research examining

external information search can be conceptualized in terms of degree (Fodness & Murray, 1997; Schul & Crompton, 1983) and direction (Snepenger, Meged, Snelling, & Worrall, 1990). Degree of external information search refers to the number of sources used and the amount of time devoted to the search, while direction of search determines the unique external sources sought after and utilized (Fodness & Murray, 1997).

Measuring Information Source Acquisition

Historically, the information sources typically studied include media (e.g., magazines, newspapers, television, radio), individuals (e.g., friends, salespeople, experts), sellers (e.g., stores, catalogs), and personal hands-on experience (e.g. product trial) (Beatty & Smith, 1987). However, several authors note that although a summary of research findings indicate similarities in the information source categories analyzed across studies, the information channels selected should relate to the type of product or service under investigation (Dawes, Dowling, & Patterson, 1991; Strutton & Pelton, 1992). In other words, researchers must take into consideration the types of information sources most suitable for marketers and consumers given a particular product or service context. Consequently, researchers have classified the information sources that consumers use in a variety of ways.

Murray (1991) was among the first to design a survey instrument that tapped into service-oriented consumers' external search activities, as well as their internal search efforts. Murray's 25-item scale, derived from Andreasen (1968), operationalized the following seven sources of consumer information: impersonal advocate, impersonal independent, personal independent, personal advocate, direct observation, personal experience, and outright purchase. Murray (1991) provided evidence that consumer

search behaviors differ significantly in service settings versus product settings. He also found that when consumers are faced with uncertainty in a service purchase context, they will utilize more information sources, not less. However, Murray's scale is not without flaws. Despite indicating that the scale's measures had acceptable reliability estimates (per Nunnally, 1978), Murray (1991) fails to report the factor structure or psychometric properties for the 25-item scale. Further, the scale lacks items examining the degree of involvement exhibited by consumers with specific sources of information. Regardless, Murray's (1991) multi-dimensional scale provided researchers with a foundational basis for measuring service-oriented consumers' information source acquisitions.

Several years later, McColl-Kennedy and Fetter, Jr. (1999) attempted to expand upon Murray (1991) and others' work by developing an information source measurement that encapsulated both 1) external sources of information, and 2) effort of search involved. The measurement's external sources include just four items, which reflect the "marketer-controlled" (e.g., media and marketing materials) and "third party independent" (e.g. word of mouth communications) sources identified by Olshavsky and Wymer (1995). Effort was measured using three items, which examined a respondent's level of willingness to dedicate time and effort to seek out various information sources. To the authors' credit, they attempted to develop a parsimonious measure of external search that was generalizable across service products, and was operational when accompanied by larger model tests. However, their two-factor model proved to be non-invariant across services and its minimal factor structure, limited to just four external items and no internal factors, may fail to fully capture the myriad of communication sources that assist marketers in targeting specific consumer segments. Additionally,

measuring “effort” has since become criticized as it requires respondents to retrospectively evaluate time spent searching, and doesn’t always describe information sources that are most preferred (Moorthy, Ratchford, & Talukdar, 1997). Instead, “search effort” may simply correspond to the amount of time necessary to complete an information search task. For instance, seeing a television commercial does not require as much effort or time as speaking with a knowledgeable third party, but may still prove to be an influential source of information. Thus, the utilization of “effort” to predict information source preferences can result in misleading results, which has dissuaded the use of this variable in many information search examinations.

Further, the emergence of the Internet as a primary search tool has necessitated that recent studies incorporate it as well into information source investigations (Mahoney, Hambrick, Svensson, & Zimmerman, 2013; Peterson & Merino, 2013; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). According to Peterson and Merino (2013), the Internet provides a limitless repository for information that is readily available to consumers and accessible from nearly any location in the world. Moreover, the Internet possesses the ability to aid and facilitate several forms of interaction. For instance, the Internet and social media forums can communicate sensory data that are visual, auditory, olfactory, and gustatory. These communication opportunities afforded by the Internet have granted tourism industries, in particular, with an unprecedented ability to effectively market a destination and its leisure attributes to potential customers.

Seabra, Abrantes, and Lages (2004) developed the Infosource Scale, which incorporated Internet items, in attempt to build a model designed for measuring the information sources suitable for 21st century tourism-specific purchase decisions. The

model includes the following five first-order constructs: 1) information from mass media, 2) institutional brochures, 3) commercial brochures, 4) travel agents, and 5) Internet sources. Each of the five factors demonstrated adequate reliability and validity and were positively correlated with European tourists' fulfillment of expectations when traveling to Portugal at a time that coincided with the World Handball Championship and the European Football Championships. However, the Internet items do not specify which sites were visited by respondents. They simply inquire whether or not the Internet was important when gathering information regarding activities, accommodations, and route selection. Failing to identify consumers' usage of the Internet prevents marketers from understanding whether individuals utilized social media forums, event- or destination-specific sites, or other relevant sites when seeking travel information.

The aforementioned authors have provided future researchers with diverse and appropriate methods for measuring information source acquisition. However, each scale exhibits limitations that warrant additional refinement to more fully and adequately tap various sources of external search. Moreover, authors examining consumers' information source behaviors warn against implementing previous scales in dissimilar contexts (Dawes et al., 1991; McColl-Kennedy & Fetter, Jr., 1999). Thus, future research may benefit by adapting existing scales to better tailor to specific contexts under study.

Theoretical Factors Influencing Consumer Information Search Behavior

Several theoretical approaches are thought to influence a consumer's information source strategies. Beatty and Smith's (1987) psychological/motivation approach suggests that a combination of individual, product class, and task-related variables such as beliefs,

attitudes, knowledge, and involvement are likely to determine a consumer's search motives. Spreng and Olshavsky (1989) argue that the motivation to seek information is related to the magnitude in which an individual desires a good. They note, "The strength of the desire for information about a good is assumed to be directly related to the importance of the good to the consumer" (p. 19). Hence, product enthusiasts exhibiting strong feelings toward particular products or services will display an increased concern in acquiring information in order to attain greater familiarity with their interests (Bloch & Richens, 1983; Venkatraman, 1989). In a study of wine enthusiasts, Dodd and colleagues (1996) found that connoisseurs of wine were likely to spend more time and effort seeking information from external sources than their less involved counterparts. Thus, prepurchase motivation and product involvement are considered to be influential factors in determining active information search behavior.

Authors, such as Johnson and Russo (1984) and Coupey, Irwin, and Payne (1998) have used a consumer information processing approach, which implies that there will be a high probability that a consumers' search strategy utilization will be influenced by an individual's memory and cognitive information processing capabilities. Consumer behavior literature is replete with information suggesting that prior knowledge of a product or service will have significant influence on consumers' selective search behavior and their depth of analysis (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Dodd et al., 1996; Gursoy, 2001, 2003). Some research has revealed an inverse relationship between a consumer's product knowledge and their amount of information search, suggesting that individuals with limited information will exhibit greater levels of external search (Kiel & Layton, 1981). This has especially been the case among tourists, who have been found to

rely more heavily on external sources of information when their familiarity with a location is perceived to be low (Gursoy, 2001; Snepenger et al., 1990). The same concept is also likely to apply to non-experienced individuals participating in leisure events that may accompany travel. However, other researchers (See Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Johnson & Russo, 1984; Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979) have shown this relationship to be positive, indicating that more knowledge is the result of consumers' desire to continually seek out product-related information. This is likely relatable to product enthusiasts desire to progress their knowledge in areas that interest them (Dodd et al., 1996). These findings may imply a curvilinear relationship between cognitive aptitude and information search acquisition, which would posit that low- and high-knowledge holders will exhibit greater seeking than moderately informed individuals.

A third approach involves a consumer's perception of risk amidst prepurchase decisions. According to Murray (1991), the greater the degree of perceived risk in a prepurchase context, the greater the consumer's propensity to seek information about the product will be. Cox (1967) argued that the "amount and nature of perceived risk will define consumers' information needs, and consumers will seek out sources, types, and amounts of information that seem most likely to satisfy their particular information needs" (p. 604). For instance, Lutz and Reilly (1973) posited that as perceived risk increases, consumers will favor product trial or attempt other means of gaining information experientially. Conversely, Perry and Hamm (1969) suggested that increased risk in product purchase would heighten the importance of personal influence, indicating that word-of-mouth communication would be an important source of risk-reduction information. Nevertheless, it's evident that when purchase decisions invoke feelings of

uncertainty and doubt, consumers will utilize more sources to assist in alleviating such negative intuitions.

Service vs. Durable Products

Due to the nature of sport event and tourism products, the processes and strategies used to acquire information are likely to be different from the information search behaviors of consumers purchasing durable products. Services are conceptualized as intangible in that they are not physical objects, but rather reflect performances and experiences (Young, 1981; Zeithaml, 1981). Consequently, consumer behavior investigations are considered to be much more complex for services than for goods, largely due to their intricate properties (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). For instance, service-oriented experiences typically differ from one producer to the next and fail to provide a consumer with any tangible return for his/her investment (Gursoy, 2011). Further, product evaluation often occurs after purchase and consumption (Young, 1981), heightening any prepurchase uncertainty felt by a consumer (Murray, 1991).

Given the desire for marketers to alleviate prepurchase uncertainty, several research inquiries have been employed to determine which information sources customers seek before purchasing service-related products. Young (1981) suggests that service consumers may seek fewer information sources prior to prepurchase decisions due to the fact that service consumption is primarily a personal experience and difficult to comprehend until after product trial. However, this may also explain why consumers seeking to reduce pre-choice uncertainty prefer to procure product information from individuals who have experienced the service directly or indirectly. It has been found that people are 50% more likely to be persuaded by information from other consumers

than from mass media sources, such as television and radio (Walker, 1995). Further, a seminal article by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) revealed that word-of-mouth, in terms of brand switching behavior, is seven times more effective than magazine and newspaper advertising, four times more effective than personal selling, and two times as effective as radio advertising. It's plausible that by listening to the subjective and evaluative feedback of others, prospective consumers' perceived risk is reduced by means of vicarious learning, supporting Urbany and Weilbaker's (1987) assertion that personal sources are more important for consumers in the purchase of experience-type products.

Conclusion

In summary, effective market segmentation requires two primary components: 1) a delineation of consumer characteristics that differentiate consumer groups, and 2) marketing communications which are tailored to such characteristics and are delivered through communication channels that are likely to reach each segment (Wilkie, 1994). In regards to the first task, differentiating consumer groups based upon their sociological and psychological motives for consuming sport tourism experiences is considered to be a useful approach for segmentation as it profiles individuals based upon their underlying reasons for consumption (Gibson, 2004; Weed & Bull, 2009). However, previous research investigating this form of consumer behavior (See Ottevanger, 2007; Rinaldi, 2011) indicates that sport tourism motivation cannot be conceptualized by analyzing just sport or tourism facets in isolation of each other. In fact, Gammon and Robinson (1997/2003) supported this notion by advocating researchers to use broad theoretical frameworks that not only capture general customer motivations, but also highlight particular sport and tourism categories. Thus, developing a better understanding of the

characteristics that differentiate active sport tourism segments requires an explanation of both sport and tourism intentions. Doing so informs event organizers and marketers as to whether active sport tourists' underlying motives are primarily rooted in sport or tourism needs and wants.

Following the identification of consumer segments, attention then turns to the means by which segments seek information pertaining to the product and/or service. Similar to consumer behavior and marketing disciplines, literature in marketing tourism has analyzed information search behavior in a variety of ways. Consequently, nearly 60 variables have been said to influence consumers' external search strategies (Gursoy, 2011). These factors, as noted by Schmidt and Spreng (1996), include several aspects of the environment (difficulty of the choice task, number of alternatives, complexity of the alternatives), situational variables (previous satisfaction, time constraints, perceived risk, composition of traveling party), consumer characteristics (education, prior product knowledge, involvement, family lifecycle, socio-economic status), and product characteristics (purpose of the trip, mode of travel). The multitude of research contexts which have been used to predict consumer information choices indicates that no industry is alike and multiple communication sources are needed to accommodate particular segments. Thus, only by understanding the information search strategies associated with sport tourism will destination managers and marketers be able to execute cost-effective and focused target marketing communication campaigns.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The focal point of this study is to develop a unified scale that segments active sport tourists according to their sport- and tourism-related motives. Previous work investigating the motives of event sport tourists has revealed that although both sport-laden and travel-laden initiatives play integral roles in tourists' decision making processes, spectating consumers will typically cite fan motives as their primary reasons for travel, and reference tourism-oriented factors as secondary (See Funk et al., 2009; Ottevanger, 2007; Rinaldi, 2011). However, a lack of research directed at participants prevents destination marketers from knowing whether the same behavioral characteristics are generalizable to athletes. Thus, this study focused on identifying active sport tourism segments based upon the level of importance attributed to sport, tourism, and/or social reasons for traveling, and ascertaining whether or not segments' underlying motives influenced their behavioral intentions (i.e., conative loyalty).

Given the marketing implications of these findings, a secondary objective was to determine the information search behaviors exhibited by active sport tourism segments. By understanding how this type of consumer acquires product-related information, destination marketers will gain insights into the most effective communication channels for respective segments. Literature indicates that numerous factors, such as prior experience, involvement, and existing knowledge (Bloch & Richens, 1983; Dodd et al.,

1996; Gursoy, 2001) will influence how and to what extent consumers will search for information pertaining to a service product. Thus, a competitor's background and/or history with the competition is likely to have significant impact on his or her information search behaviors. Further, a consumer whose primary interests extend beyond the sport event (i.e., tourism interests, destination attractions) may be more inclined to utilize additional external sources.

The methods used to answer these questions are illustrated in this chapter and are divided into the following sections: 1) sample, 2) design and procedures, 3) instrumentation, and 4) data analysis. The sample section will include a description of the target population, sampling frame, and a description of respondents. The design and procedures section will detail the nature of the study and the processes that took place during data collection. The instrumentation section discusses the scales used to measure the study's variables of interest. Finally, the last section elaborates on the statistical techniques used for the data analysis including a description of the procedures/steps to answer each of the research questions. A pilot study was conducted during the summer of 2014 to assess the accessibility of the target population, and to evaluate the study's survey instrument. An overview of the pilot study is provided in the design and procedures section.

Sample

Population

The target population of this study is adults (18 years of age or older) who are registered to compete in an organized adventure sport event being hosted by a destination location. Adventure sports' travel encompasses travel for the purpose of engaging in a

wide range of sports, ranging from fly fishing to surfing to white-water rafting (Veloz, n.d.). Many of these athletes are considered to be leisure enthusiasts based upon the sports they perform, and have shown a willingness to travel all over the world to discover new settings to practice and compete.

A destination location can be categorized as a city, area or country which can be marketed to groups or individuals as a place to visit or hold an event. Similarly, a tourist destination reflects a travel destination that attracts a large number of travelers or tourists for the purpose of visiting historical sites, natural wonders, unique buildings, or special events (Akpabil, 2014). Thus, this study aimed to target individuals participating in adventure sport and who are competing at a destination location in the United States.

Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is “the list from which the sample is to be drawn in order to represent the survey population” (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). In this case, the sampling frame consisted of individuals participating in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games hosted by Vail, Colorado. This particular event was chosen for several reasons. First, the GoPro Mountain Games attracts both professional and amateur outdoor adventure athletes who travel from all over the world to compete. By obtaining a sample comprised of athletes representing disparate skills and backgrounds, findings will be more generalizable to the active sport tourist population, and will also permit analyses investigating how athletic status may influence various consumer behaviors. The Mountain Games include nine sports and 25 disciplines, including cross country, slopestyle and road cycling, freestyle, 8-ball (race consisting of full-contact interference obstacles), sprint, and extreme kayaking, raft cross, World Cup Bouldering, stand up paddle sprint and surf cross, as well

as trail, mud and road running, and the Ultimate Mountain Challenge (Vail Valley Foundation, 2014). In addition to the athletic events, participants, as well as spectators have the opportunity to enjoy a wide array of other festivities, including live music, interactive exhibitions, film festivals, and other outdoor lifestyle parties. Currently in its 13th season, The Mountain Games in Vail has become one of the largest celebrations of adventure sports, music, and mountain lifestyle, making it an ideal setting for the purpose of this study.

Additionally, the GoPro Mountain Games take place in scenic Vail, Colorado. Vail represents one of the world's most renowned mountain tourism destinations, boasting unrivaled outdoor recreational opportunities, award-winning cuisine, and a one-of-a-kind mountain village. Surrounded by 350,000 acres of national forest, Vail's 5,000 skiable acres makes it the largest ski mountain in North America (Vail Valley Partnership, 2014). At the base of the mountain rests an abundance of shops, restaurants, and year-round activities designed to meet every traveler's needs. In a January, 2013 issue, *Travel +Leisure* identified Vail as America's most visited ski resort destination in America (Stewart, 2013). These attractive characteristics make Vail an excellent platform to research destination sport tourism.

Description of Participants

Among the 563 who started the survey, 380 surveys were deemed usable for further analysis, resulting in a response rate of 68%. Mean and frequency analyses were used to gain an overall understanding of the characteristics of the participants (VanderStroep & Johnson, 2010) and to address missing data. Demographics for the study's sample are illustrated in Table 1.

Design and Procedures

Design

A non-experimental research design was employed by administering a self-report survey questionnaire to athlete participants during the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games.

The questionnaire consisted of multiple scales and items previously found to demonstrate reliable and valid scores in comparable populations. Questions posed in the survey were designed to generate both continuous and categorical data in order to investigate the strength and direction of relationships, and to test for differences among groups and/or segments.

Table 1

Demographics for Sport Tourist Participants Competing in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games

Demographic Variable	<i>N</i>	%	Avg.
Sex			
Male	255	67.1	
Female	125	32.9	
Age			
			32.89
18-25	119	31.3	
26-30	69	18	
31-40	98	25.7	
41-50	63	16.8	
51-60	23	6.1	
61-70	7	1.9	
71+	1	.3	
Athletic Status			
Amateur	293	77.1	
Professional	87	22.9	
Travel Status			
Local	124	32.6	
Non-Local	256	67.4	
# of Nights Stayed			
			2.52
0 Nights	113	29.7	
1-2 Nights	93	24.5	
3-4 Nights	104	27.4	
5+ Nights	70	18.6	
Years of Experience			
			2.36
0 Years	59	15.5	
1-2 Years	178	46.9	
3-4 Years	83	21.9	
5+ Years	60	15.9	
Household Income			
\$25-50,000	140	36.8	
\$51-100,000	124	32.6	
\$101-150,000	59	15.5	
Greater than \$150,000	48	12.6	
Non-disclosed	9	2.4	

Data associated with answering research question one sought to examine whether heterogeneous segments can be identified based upon an athlete's sport-, social-, and tourism-related motives. Research question two determines whether motivational

profiles, according to the consumer segments uncovered in research question one, differ between amateur and professional athletes. Similarly, research question three explored what motivational disparities exist between non-local and local athlete participants. Research question four ascertained the influence sport and tourism motives have on a respondent's conative loyalty intentions, while question five identified differences among the segments' loyalty characteristics.

Research question six and seven relate to active sport tourists' information search behaviors. Specifically, question six examined differences in information source preferences among the segments identified in research question one. Lastly, research question number seven illustrated the influence previous participation experience at the event had on a consumer's information search behavior.

Procedure – Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted in the summer of 2014 at the GoPro Mountain Games in order to evaluate the accessibility of the target population and to assess the reliability of the survey instrument. For the purposes of the pilot study and full study, research design and data collection procedures were submitted to the University of Northern Colorado's Institutional Review Board for approval. Following verification of exempt status, the Vail Valley Foundation (event organizing group) was contacted and informed of the study's intent and of the data collection procedures. After receiving verbal approval to conduct research with event participants, an additional procedural meeting was held between the Vail Valley Foundation and the author to determine the most effective way to disseminate and collect survey data.

It was agreed that data used for pilot analysis will be collected from June, 4 through June 5, 2014, during the opening days of the event. In-person paper and pencil surveys were provided to participants after completing check-in procedures prior to event participation. A total of 125 responses were collected. Among those that completed the survey, 73.6% were male ($n = 92$) and 26.4% female ($n = 33$). The average age of participants was 32 years old and respondents reported having had an average of 1.3 years of experience competing in the Mountain Games. Participants' athletic status was comprised of 58.4% amateur athletes ($n = 73$) and 41.6% professional athletes ($n = 52$). The majority of athlete respondents reported traveling at least 50 miles (73.6%) and the pilot sample spent on average three nights ($M = 3.08$) in Vail or at a surrounding location during the event.

Examination of validity. In order to assess the psychometric properties of the scale, an initial reliability analysis was performed on the sport motivation scale's 13 factors (39 items), the push and pull tourism motivation's five factors (17 items), and conative loyalty's one factor (4 items) (See Appendix B for survey questionnaire). Each of the 13 initial factors included in McDonald et al.'s (2002) Motivation for Sport Consumption scale revealed reliability estimates ranging from .64 (Aesthetics) to .90 (Physical Fitness). Only aesthetics ($\alpha = .64$) and competition ($\alpha = .64$) were slightly below Nunnally's (1978) suggested standard of .70. The tourism motivational factors' reliability estimates also revealed to be adequate with alpha values ranging from .67 (Relaxation) to .80 (Pull/Destination Attributes). Lastly, the conative loyalty factor proved reliable based on a Cronbach alpha value of .85.

After confirming that no items posed threats to the internal validity of the study, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted to merge and reduce the Sport and Tourism Motivation factors into one scale. This procedure was also performed on the Information Source Acquisition's 18 items. Principal Component Analysis suggested a nine-factor Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS), which was comprised of the following factors: Self-enrichment ($\alpha = .89$), Travel Exploration ($\alpha = .84$), Skill Mastery ($\alpha = .86$), Social Needs ($\alpha = .88$), Destination Attributes ($\alpha = .83$), Stress Relief ($\alpha = .70$), Catharsis ($\alpha = .70$), Competitive Desire ($\alpha = .70$), and Physical Fitness ($\alpha = .90$). For the information source items, PCA suggested a four-factor solution. These factors included 1) Interpersonal Sources ($\alpha = .84$), 2) Print/Media Sources ($\alpha = .80$), 3) Internet Sources ($\alpha = .70$), and 4) Internal Memory Sources ($\alpha = .82$). Thus, the pilot study employed on the initial days of competition successfully affirmed the study's procedural design, as well as the reliability of the instrument.

Procedure - Full study

In order to capture the study's target population, a convenient sampling approach was utilized by administering a survey questionnaire to athletes competing in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games on-site and through an online survey platform. To obtain an adequate sample size, the present study utilized an incentive to assist with response rate. On the initial page of the survey, the consent form informed respondents that upon completing the survey, they will be given the option to submit an email address to be entered into a drawing for one complimentary GoPro camera, to be provided by the Vail Valley Foundation. Neither the researcher, nor anyone else at UNC, knew the identity of the individual who received the GoPro camera.

Data collection took place from June, 2014 to August, 2014. Self-administered surveys were provided to participants after completing check-in procedures prior to event participation and by intercepting athletes on-site. (June 5-7). An online survey, using Qualtrics, was also delivered to participants not surveyed on-site through emails generated by the Vail Valley Foundation after the event's completion and remained open until August 1. Using an online method can be advantageous for social science researchers as it permits a wider range of potential participants to be reached in a very cost-effective manner (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009).

Instrumentation

The survey instrument was comprised of five sections: demographic and travel-related information, sport participation motivation, tourism motivation, conative loyalty, and information source preferences. Demographic data solicited information regarding respondents' age, gender, and household income, while travel-related information solicited a respondents' length of trip (number of nights stayed) and whether the participant traveled 50 miles or more to compete. A 50 mile standard for determining non-local status is a commonly used criteria for economic impact studies examining incremental spending (Vander Stoep, 2004). Lastly, respondents were also asked how many times they had participated in the event prior to this year's event. Each descriptive question was measured with one item.

Sport Motivation

McDonald and colleagues' (2002) framework was used in section two to assess sport participation motivation. Its 13 constructs are rooted in Milne and McDonald's (1999) Motivations of the Sport Consumer (MSC) scale and are measured using a total of

39 items (three items per construct): self-actualization, self esteem, value development, stress release, aesthetics, aggression, competition, achievement, social facilitation, affiliation, skill mastery, and physical fitness. This valid and reliable instrument (See Milne & McDonald, 1999; McDonald et al., 2002) was chosen based on its ability to encapsulate the innumerable motives contained within existing sport motivation literature. Items were moderately adapted to fit the study's contextual objective and were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = not important at all, 4 = neutral, 7 = extremely important). A 7-point Likert-type scale was chosen to create more variation in the upper quadrants of the scale based on the likelihood that participants' responses to the sport motivation items would be skewed favorably given that each factor has been previously determined to be influential in athletes' motivation to engage in physical activity.

Tourism Motivation

Section three examined a respondent's push and pull travel motives by adapting questionnaire designs from previously validated scales (See Dann, 1977, 1981; Jang & Cai, 2002; Mohammad & Som, 2010). The 12 push and five pull items of motivation for active sport tourist participants are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important). Four push factors represented considerations made by respondents when evaluating a travel venture (e.g., relaxation, escape, knowledge/education, excitement). One pull factor (5 items) prompted a respondent to assess the importance of various destination attributes when choosing a location hosting a sport event (e.g., Games' festivities, Vail attractions, Vail shopping and nightlife, landscape and scenery, Vail outdoor activities) (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996).

An example of a pull item included in the questionnaire reads, “I am eager to experience Vail’s mountain landscape/scenery.”

Conative Loyalty

Section four examined a respondent’s level of conative loyalty. Conative loyalty refers to a behavioral intention stage noted by one’s repeated episodes of positive affect toward a brand or service (Oliver, 1999). Four scale items were adapted from Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) and measured on a 1-7 Likert-type Scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Examples of questions assessing respondents’ conative loyalty include, “I intend to compete in the GoPro Mountain Games in Vail again,” and “I intend to recommend this event to my friends.” A reliability analysis of the four items indicated that the factor, “conative loyalty” had an acceptable Cronbach alpha ($\alpha = .87$).

Information Source Acquisition

Section five queried respondents’ information source preferences when attempting to gain knowledge about the event. Eighteen items were adapted from Murray (1991) and Davies’ (2014) Consumer Information Acquisition Activities scales to suit the study’s contextual purpose. Both aforementioned authors determined their factor solutions to be reliable according to Nunnally’s (1978) standards. Scale items included in this study’s scale address both internal (e.g. memory) and external sources (e.g., interpersonal, media, third party experts). An example of an internal item is “I rely on past personal experience with the event.” Conversely, an example of an external item is “I speak directly with event staff about the event.” Each item was measured using the same 7-point Likert-type scale identified in the aforementioned scales. It should be noted

that a few questions were modified to reflect current marketing communication sources (e.g, social media and Internet tools).

Data Analysis

Descriptive Analysis

Following the collection of survey information, data was input into IBM Statistics 21 for data coding and analysis. Initial data analysis consisted of examining the frequencies and descriptive characteristics of the data to ensure normality prior to running factor analysis. Additionally, by first analyzing descriptive information, such as frequencies, means, standard deviations, and examinations of normality, data entry errors can be easily identified. Normality was evaluated by examining the skewness and kurtosis values associated with each observed variable. However, it should be noted that there is not a definitive standard as to what values constitute non-normality. For instance, Bryne (1998) suggested that a normally distributed response should have skewness values between ± 1 and kurtosis values between ± 1 ; moderately non-normal data demonstrate skewness values ranging from ± 2.00 to 3.00 ; and kurtosis values from ± 5.00 to 21.00 ; and extreme non-normality is defined by skewness > 3.00 and kurtosis values > 21.00 . Kline (1998) stated that skew indexes greater than 3.0 are extremely skewed and kurtosis values between 8.0 to 20.0 are extreme. Based upon these standards, no observed variables analyzed in the pilot study revealed any signs of non-normality. Only a few items showed skewness above 1.0 with the largest variables approaching 1.5 . Similarly, no items approached Bryne's (1998) moderately non-normal standard of ± 5.00 for kurtosis. Thus, the data used for pilot research could convincingly be deemed appropriate for factor analysis.

Factor Analysis

Before analyzing the psychometric properties of the survey instrument, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted using promax rotation on the 13 sport-related factors and five tourism-related factors in order to converge the two scales into one unified Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS). The purpose of PCA is to extract the most important information from the data set through dimensional reduction, thereby producing a simplified structure of the observation and variables (Ebeling, Vargas, & Hubo, 2013). The same procedure was employed on the Information Source Acquisition items to obtain a reduced factor structure from its original 18-item scale.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was then used to verify the factor structure of the observed variables derived from the aforementioned PCA procedures, but without imposing a preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 1990). The EFA assessed the unidimensionality of constructs by forcing items to load on factors with loadings over .45 (Comrey & Lee, 1992), providing an underlying factor structure. Additionally, the EFA examined the validity of proposed scales by analyzing whether or not they are measuring what they are intending to measure (John & Benet-Martinez, 2000). As criteria for accepting a factor solution, items should explain at least 50% of the total variance for each latent variable (Bollen, 1989), and only items that load clearly and strongly onto one component/factor should be retained (Matsunaga, 2010). Thus, items that crossloaded onto multiple factors or severely harmed a factor's average variance explained were dropped from further analysis.

Following the EFA procedure, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted on the reduced STMS model and the Information Source Acquisition Scale in

order to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. More simply put, the CFA confirmed the factor structures extracted from the EFAs. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), a minimal set of fit indices should be reported when conducting a CFA. To indicate the difference between the observed covariances and model-implied covariances, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was used to assess the model's absolute fit. Absolute fit index values less than .08 are considered good model fit and a value below .05 is considered excellent model fit. Relative fit indices from null models should also be reported (Kline, 2005), including the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Non-Normed Fixed Index (NNFI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973). Values range from zero to one with .90 being considered "acceptable" model fit and values exceeding .95 considered "excellent" fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

In the event that the fit indices fall below the standards identified above, model modification indices should be inspected to determine if improvements can be made by eliminating poor performing items or by unconstraining coefficients. Modification indices are an estimation of "the amount by which the overall model chi-square statistic would decrease" if item pairs causing misfit were modeled or removed (Kline, 2005, p. 148). Kline (2005) indicated that model fit can be weakened due to 1) unusually high or low covariances between items within a factor, 2) unusually high covariances between an item and items indicating other factors, and 3) items sharing too similar wording and interpretation.

Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was conducted using the scale's original sport motivation and tourism motivation items to identify homogeneous groups (segments) of athletes, according to their motives for competing in a destination sport event. This form of analysis is a beneficial tool for identifying cases or observations that share similar characteristics, creating distinctive clusters in a sample (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Validating a cluster analysis often entails examining both hierarchical and k-means methods, as each procedure follows a different approach to grouping the most similar objects into clusters. Per Verma (2013) and Burns and Burns' (2009) advice, Ward's hierarchical method was first used to gain some sense of the possible number of clusters and then the k-means method was used to compare the outcomes.

Ward's hierarchical method uses an agglomerative clustering approach, whereby the pair of clusters with minimum between-cluster distance are merged. Initially, this method begins by starting with each observation representing a single cluster solution and sequentially merges clusters according to their similarity (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). As the cluster procedure progresses, more pairs of clusters are formed and linked to a higher level of the hierarchy. It should be noted that in hierarchical clustering methods, once an observation is assigned to a cluster, there is no possibility of reassigning the observation to another cluster. Once all solutions are formed, possible cluster groups are denoted by examining the distances at which clusters are merged by looking at the dendrogram and Agglomeration Schedule table.

After gaining some sense of the data's possible cluster solutions, the quick cluster technique called K-means was used to further analyze the possible cluster solutions

suggested from the hierarchical method. K-means methods differs from hierarchical clustering in that the number of clusters is pre-specified. Consequently, observations in this approach are successively reassigned to one of the specified clusters to minimize the within-cluster variation (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). In other words, with k-means, cluster affiliations can change throughout the clustering process, which is different from hierarchical methods. To assist in selecting which cluster solution is most appropriate, Calinski and Harabasz's (1974) variance ratio criterion (VRC) was examined, which is an effective technique for determining the "correct" number of clusters in a cluster analysis and has proven to work well in many situations (Milligan & Cooper, 1985). Lastly, to examine the most interpretable and practical solution derived from the hierarchical or k-means method, differences between clusters were affirmed by employing MANOVAs on the reduced Sport Tourism Motivation Scale model produced from the CFA.

Test of Differences

A series of group comparison analyses were assessed using the identified cluster groups. First, chi-square procedures were employed using athletes' athletic status (amateur or professional) and travel status (local or non-local) as dichotomous grouping variables. A chi-squared independence test determined whether an association existed between the dichotomous profiles and cluster groups. Following a significant Pearson chi-square result, proportional tests were conducted to detect which cluster proportions differ significant from each other. Second, an ANOVA examined differences in conative loyalty intentions across active sport tourism segments. Third, a MANOVA analysis determined whether the consumer segments differ in their information search behaviors. Significant differences observed were further examined using Tukey's post hoc test to

identify unique differences between the segments. Similarly, a MANOVA detected whether groups of athletes, based on years of experience participating in the event, differ in their information search behavior.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Lastly, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed using variables, athletic status (amateur or professional) and travel status (local or non-local) as control variables and the Sport Tourism Motivation Scale factors as independent variables to assess whether motives for participating explain an athlete's behavioral intentions (conative loyalty). Hierarchical regression is a useful procedure for evaluating the contribution of predictors above and beyond previously entered predictors, as a means of statistical control, and for examining incremental validity (Pedhauzer, 1997). Additionally, hierarchical regression is deemed to be more powerful and effective than stepwise regression analyses because it is based in theoretical understanding and avoids stepwise limitations regarding degrees of freedom, identification of best predictor set of a prespecified size, and replicability (Lewis, 2007).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to construct a unified Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) that determines consumer segments according to their primary versus secondary motives for traveling to a destination to compete in organized sport. By creating a parsimonious, yet comprehensive measurement instrument that equally weights both sport, as well as tourism motives, future researchers analyzing sport tourist consumer behaviors will benefit by having access to a more functional and valid scale. A secondary objective was to then explore segments' conative loyalty characteristics, identifying target groups who are most likely to engage in repeat purchase and spread positive word-of-mouth communications about the event. And finally, this study sought to examine adventure sport tourist consumers' information source preferences for gathering event-related material. Understanding the variety of marketing channels that best reach preferred target markets complements the information needed to develop effective marketing mixes for this growing consumer base.

This chapter reflects the results of statistical analyses used to answer the research objectives described above and is divided into the following sections: 1) diagnostic and preliminary analysis including results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of the STMS, as well as the information source acquisition scale, and 2) analysis of research questions.

Normality Analysis

Before performing factor analysis on the data, it was necessary to screen the data (Byrne, 1998) to ensure normality. Non-normal data has been found to be especially harmful to CFA procedures (Kline, 1998). The normality of each observed variable was analyzed by examining skewness and kurtosis values. Consistent with the descriptive results found in the pilot data, no items in the sport motivation, tourism motivation, and information source acquisition scales were found to violate the normality standards established by Bryne (1998) or Kline (1998). Each item's mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values can be found in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

Table 2

Descriptive Analysis for Each Sport Motivation Item

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Self Actualization				
SA1	5.05	1.45	-.838	.667
SA2	5.26	1.52	-.837	.290
SA3	5.38	1.40	-1.00	.983
Self Esteem				
SE1	5.08	1.52	-.775	.274
SE2	5.64	1.24	-1.237	2.418
SE3	5.16	1.44	-.837	.581
Value Development				
VD1	5.12	1.55	-.821	.214
VD2	5.34	1.49	-1.029	.804
VD3	5.24	1.56	-.812	.150
Stress Relief				
SR1	4.51	1.90	-.404	-.939
SR2	5.13	1.65	-.913	.192
SR3	5.00	1.74	-.738	-.258
Aesthetics				
A1	5.35	1.49	-.854	.316
A2	5.60	1.45	-1.213	1.365
A3	5.34	1.44	-1.014	1.014
Aggression				
AG1	3.99	1.91	-.099	-1.041
AG2	3.99	1.94	-.064	-1.122
AG3	4.06	1.84	-.163	-.892
Competition				
C1	4.98	1.57	-.760	.156
C2	4.23	1.77	-.192	-.886
C3	4.84	1.60	-.603	-.067
Risk Taking				
RT1	4.13	1.95	-.170	-1.159
RT2	3.94	2.01	.007	-1.247
RT3	4.8	1.75	-.596	-.435
Achievement				
AC1	5.7	1.37	-1.011	.660
AC2	5.36	1.60	-.750	-.264
AC3	5.31	1.62	-.846	.029
Social Facilitation				
SF1	5.36	1.53	-.921	.299
SF2	5.26	1.41	-.754	.373
SF3	5.44	1.50	-.988	.534
Affiliation				
AF1	5.11	1.51	-.680	.056
AF2	5.71	1.26	-1.087	1.214
AF3	5.50	1.39	-1.099	1.095
Skill Mastery				
SM1	5.44	1.42	-.906	.536
SM2	4.92	1.65	-.588	-.326
SM3	5.38	1.47	-.798	.034
Physical Fitness				
PF1	5.75	1.42	-1.263	1.191
PF2	5.68	1.43	-1.348	1.708
PF3	5.77	1.50	-1.554	2.109

Table 3

Descriptive Analysis for Each Tourism Motivation Item

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Relaxation				
R1	4.29	2.08	-.277	-1.225
R2	4.80	1.63	-.578	-.234
R3	4.90	1.76	-.662	-.419
Escape				
E1	4.16	2.02	-.167	-1.229
E2	5.05	1.81	-.818	-.236
E3	4.84	1.77	-.610	-.521
Knowledge/Education				
KE1	4.28	1.91	-.287	-.947
KE2	3.54	2.26	.207	-1.439
KE3	5.27	1.72	-.921	.044
Excitement				
EX1	4.99	1.77	-.721	-.317
EX2	4.91	1.90	-.688	-.566
EX3	5.77	1.41	-1.308	1.385
Destination Attributes				
DA1	5.46	1.59	-1.002	.305
DA2	3.39	1.96	.231	-1.287
DA3	4.71	1.92	-.600	-.684
DA4	5.49	1.71	-1.130	.443
DA5	4.79	1.83	-.627	-.532

Table 4

Descriptive Analysis for Each Information Source Item

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Third Party (1)	3.90	1.99	-.126	-1.189
Social Media Ads (2)	4.05	1.92	-.189	-1.077
Org. Group Website (3)	5.35	1.69	-1.143	.658
Neutral Source Website (4)	4.07	1.87	-.145	-.951
Previous Participants (5)	4.85	1.82	-.613	-.559
Social Media Comments (6)	4.28	1.96	-.298	-1.076
Friends/Relatives (7)	4.61	1.89	-.470	-.810
Newspaper Ads (8)	3.20	1.84	.394	-.949
Host Newsletter (9)	3.33	1.91	.328	-1.082
Radio Ads (10)	3.01	1.89	.540	-.895
Video Footage (11)	5.13	1.81	-.776	-.349
Past Personal Experience (12)	5.91	1.50	-1.589	2.005
Previous Athlete Competitor (13)	5.21	1.80	-.936	-.075
Previous Involvement (14)	5.69	1.65	-1.404	1.178
Recall Relevant Events (15)	4.94	1.70	-.645	.125
Event Org. Print Information (16)	4.09	1.92	-.137	-1.056
Like Athlete Opinions (17)	5.01	1.71	-.776	-.140
Event Staff (18)	3.84	1.96	.042	-1.191

Exploratory Factor Analysis – Sport Tourism Motivation Scale

Principal components analysis (PCA) using promax rotation was used with the goal of reducing the factors underlying McDonald et al.'s (2002) sport participation motivation questionnaire and the tourism push and pull questionnaire into a single parsimonious model. Initial eigenvalues above one indicated an 11-factor solution, which explained 66% of the original model's variance. However, to further eliminate factors that may be trivial, Comrey and Lee (1992) suggest adjusting the factor loading criteria based on the following standards: loadings of .71 or higher can be considered excellent, .63 is very good, .55 is good, .45 is fair, and .32 is poor. Other researchers suggest that setting the factor loading cutoff to .40 is the lowest acceptable threshold (Matsunaga, 2010, p. 101). Thus, to acquire the number of loadings and their absolute magnitude, a factor loading criteria of .60 was used. This produced a nine-factor STMS model which eliminated a total of 9 factors and 19 items from the two original scales, while maintaining 62% of the explained variance (See Table 5 for factor loadings). Factor labels were established and internal consistency for each of the nine factors were examined using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were excellent according Nunnally's (1978) suggestions (alpha should exceed .70): Self-enrichment ($\alpha = .91$), Travel Exploration ($\alpha = .85$), Skill Mastery ($\alpha = .80$), Social Needs ($\alpha = .86$), Destination Attributes ($\alpha = .78$), Stress Relief ($\alpha = .73$), Aggression ($\alpha = .77$), Competitive Desire ($\alpha = .74$), and Physical Fitness ($\alpha = .89$).

Table 5

PCA Results of Sport and Tourism Motivational Factors

	Component									
	SE	TE	SM	SN	DA	SR	AGG	CD	PF	
...Makes me the kind of person I am	.825									
...Helps me reach my potential	.813									
...Helps me accomplish things	.790									
...Give me a feelings of self-assurance	.731									
...Understand the value of hard work and dedication	.728									
...I feel that I am a successful person	.719									
...Makes me feel confident about my abilities	.677									
...Teaches me lessons...										
...Helps me grow as a person										
...One way in which I can express myself										
I put a bit of my personality into my athletic performance										
Traveling...visit new places		.831								
Traveling...will allow me to experience new lifestyles or traditions		.797								
I want to feel like I am on an adventure		.684								
Traveling...will provide me with a change...		.682								
I would like to escape from the ordinary		.662								
...I am able to get away...		.610								
Traveling...will enable me to experience something thrilling and exciting										
Traveling...will create a memorable experience										
By participating...I will become refreshed										
I enjoy competing...difficult to master			.823							
My sport is constantly changing because it is difficult to master			.751							
It takes...skill on my part to attain results...			.697							
...Willing to work all year to be successful in my sport										
I enjoy the artistry of competing										
...Desire to be a success in my sport										
...Spend time with friends				.891						
...Camaraderie among competitors				.828						
I feel a bond with people who compete beside me				.801						

Table 5, continued

PCA Results of Sport and Tourism Motivational Factors

	Component									
	SE	TE	SM	SN	DA	SR	AGG	CD	PF	
...Leads to improved social relationships				.726						
... Gives me a chance to meet new people				.689						
...I feel like I belong to a special group										
...Festivities accompanying the Games					.753					
... Vail's landscape/scenery					.673					
... Vail's attractions offer an unrivaled destination experience					.633					
... Vail's outdoor activities					.600					
The atmosphere at a sport event...										
... Vail's shopping/nightlife										
...Get away from daily pressures						.665				
...Remedy for me if I am tense, irritable, and anxious						.662				
Participating makes me feel less stressed						.605				
...Get away from daily life stress										
...Form of relaxation										
I feel less aggressive after participating...										
...Brings out my aggressive nature							.797			
...Enjoyment comes from my sport's aggressive aspects							.772			
Part of the fun of competition is the danger involved							.602			
...Helps me develop a competitive work ethic										
Competition is the best part...								.720		
I put my entire self on the line...								.711		
The better the opposition, the more I enjoy competing...								.642		
My goal is to be an outstanding performer...										
I have to sacrifice my body...										
...To stay physically fit									.839	
...Because it develops physical fitness									.839	
...Keeps me healthy									.810	

Note. Factor loadings < .60 are suppressed

Component Key: SE (Self Enrichment), TE (Travel Exploration), SM (Skill Mastery), DA (Destination Attributes), SR (Stress Relief), AGG (Aggression), CD (Competitive Desire), PF (Physical Fitness)

Exploratory Factor Analysis – Information Source Acquisition Scale

Principal Component Analysis using promax rotation was also conducted to perform Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the modified Information Source Acquisition scale (Murray, 1991; Davies, 2014) to shrink the information source items into a more manageable factor structure. Initial eigenvalues exceeding one suggested a four-factor solution, which explained 63% of the original scale's variance. Table 6 illustrates the reduced four-factor model, which maintained all of the scale's original items except one ("Pay attention what others have said about the event on social media outlets"). This item was removed due to it crossloading on the "Interpersonal" and "Internet" factors. According to Matsunaga (2010), only items that load clearly and strongly onto one component/factor should be retained in exploratory research. Further, reliability analysis prompted the removal of a second item loading on the "Print/Media" factor due to an increase in reliability if the item was removed. Moreover, the item, which portrays an individual's utilization of information acquired from event staff, may fail to accurately reflect the latent construct in which it is loading on. In summary, each of the four factors maintained at least three items (See Table 6) and revealed acceptable internal consistency: Interpersonal ($\alpha = .86$), Print/Media ($\alpha = .83$), Internet ($\alpha = .74$), and Internal Memory ($\alpha = .77$).

Table 6

PCA Pattern Matrix for Information Sources

	Component			
	Interpersonal	Print/ Media	Internet Sources	Internal Memory
Ask the opinion of a friend or relative	0.899			
Seek opinions from like athletes	0.886			
Ask the opinion of an athlete who has previously competed in the event	0.831			
Pay attention to what previous participants of the competition had to say about the event	0.749			
Read local newsletters from the host community regarding the event		0.926		
Seek information from a newspaper ad		0.894		
Pay attention to radio ads about the event		0.863		
Read available information such as printed brochures or other info. provided by event		0.552		
Speak directly with event staff about the event		0.518		
Look for information provided by the event organizing group's official website			0.841	
Be attentive to ads from the event organizing group's social media accounts			0.700	
Look to a website from a neutral source to read about the activity			0.578	
Read a report written by a knowledgeable third party			0.496	
View previous video footage of the event's competitions			0.589	
Pay attention to what others have said about the event on social media outlets	0.494		0.497	
Rely on past personal experience with the event				0.917
Think about my previous involvement with this event				0.874
Try to recall relevant events which I can associate with the event				0.433

Note. Factor loadings < .4 are suppressed

Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Sport Tourism Motivation Scale

CFA using Lisrel 8.80 was utilized to confirm and examine the STMS's latent constructs and items identified from the exploratory factor analysis results detailed above.

The maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method was used for parameter estimation. Maximum Likelihood is a popular estimation procedure used for confirmatory factor analysis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) and has been found to be an acceptable estimation method for ordinal data when the number of response categories are above five, treated as continuous data, and are normally distributed (Mindrila, 2010).

The goal of this model testing procedure was to identify, validate, and retain a minimum of three items per factor. Examinations of the model's fit indices, parameter estimates, reliability values, and average variance explained estimates provided empirical support for the nine-factor, 37-item Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) model. A summary of fit indices, detailed in Table 7, validate the hypothesized EFA model. Further, each of the item's parameter estimates were significant at $p < .0001$, indicating acceptable component fit. Loadings for each of the 37 items exceeded .60 with the exception of two: 1) Pull travel item associated with Vail festivities (.50) and 2) Stress relief item associated with stress remedy (.59). See Table 8 for parameter estimates and standard errors of the STMS model.

Table 7

Fit Indices for Study's Model

Model	χ^2	Df	RMSEA ^a	NNFI ^b	CFI ^b
1. STMS Model (37 items)	1451.79	593	0.063	.95	.96
2. Information Source Scale (16 items)	331.50	98	0.081	.94	.95
3. Information Source Scale II	246.08	71	0.081	.95	.96

Note. The Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation procedure was used

^aRoot mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Steiger, 1990): Values $\leq .05$ indicate excellent fit
Values $\leq .08$ indicate acceptable fit

^bNon-normed fit index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Hu & Bentler, 1999): Values $\geq .90$ indicate good fit and values $\geq .95$ indicate excellent fit

To further verify the model's convergent and discriminant validity, each factor's Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was analyzed (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Fornell and

Larcker recommend that each latent construct's AVE estimates exceed .50. The following AVE values for each of the nine STMS factors were generated: Self-enrichment (AVE = .59), Travel Exploration (AVE = .50), Skill Mastery ($\alpha = .57$), Social Needs (AVE = .55), Destination Attributes (AVE = .65), Stress Relief (AVE = .49), Aggression (AVE = .54), Competitive Desire (AVE = .49), and Physical Fitness (AVE = .74). Note that with the exception of only two factors (AVE estimates = .49), all factors captured 50% or more of the variation in the indicators and all factors' AVE values were greater than their squared correlations. Thus, an analysis of the model's loadings and AVE values indicate evidence of the STMS's convergent and discriminant validity. Moreover, each of the fit indices illustrate acceptable model fit, preventing the need to examine the model's modification indices for adjustments. Overall, CFA results affirmed the validity of this study's sport tourism motivation measurement. Table 8 identifies the final Sport Tourism Motivation Scale that can be used to properly measure sport tourism motivation. The STMS contains nine factors, made up of 37 items.

Table 8

Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) with Factors, Items, and Their Respective Loadings and Standard Errors (SE).

Self Enrichment (AVE = .59)	Loadings	SE
Competing makes me the kind of person I am	.72	.48
Participating in this event helps me to reach my potential	.75	.44
Participating in this event helps me accomplish things	.76	.42
Participating gives me a feeling of self-assurance	.78	.39
Competing in this event will help me understand the value of hard work and dedication	.77	.40
By participating, I feel that I am a successful person	.78	.39
Participating makes me feel confident about my abilities	.80	.36
Travel Exploration (AVE = .50)	Loadings	SE
Traveling to participate in this event will allow me to visit places I have never been	.60	.64
Traveling to participate in this event will allow me to experience new/different lifestyles or traditions	.81	.34
I want to feel like I am on an adventure	.69	.53
Traveling to this event will provide me with a change from a busy job	.74	.45
I would like to escape from the ordinary	.68	.54
By participating in this event, I am able to get away from the demands at home	.71	.50
Skill Mastery (AVE = .57)	Loadings	SE
I enjoy competing in my sport because it is difficult to master	.72	.48
My sport is constantly changing because it is difficult to master	.76	.43
It takes a high degree of skill on my part to attain the results I expect	.79	.24
Social Needs (AVE = .55)	Loadings	SE
I enjoy participating because it gives me a chance to spend time with friends	.70	.51
There is a certain camaraderie among the people who I compete with	.74	.48
I feel a bond with people who compete beside me	.78	.39
Participating with a group leads to improved social relationships	.75	.43
I enjoy participating because it gives me a chance to meet new people	.72	.48
Destination Attributes (AVE = .65)	Loadings	SE
I look forward to the festivities accompanying the Games (e.g. concerts, film festival, Mountain Games festivals)	.50	.75
I am eager to experience Vail's mountain landscape/scenery	.81	.34
I hope to experience other Vail outdoor activities while visiting	.76	.42
Vail's attractions offer an unrivaled destination experience	.69	.53
Stress Relief (AVE = .49)	Loadings	SE
By participating in this event, I am able to get away from daily pressures	.71	.50
Competing is an excellent remedy for me if I am tense, irritable, and anxious	.59	.65
Participating makes me feel less stressed than I did before I started	.78	.39

Table 8, continued

Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) with Factors, Items, and Their Respective Loadings and Standard Errors (SE).

Aggression (AVE = .54)	Loadings	SE
By participating, I can bring out my aggressive nature	.70	.50
When participating, much of my enjoyment comes from my sport's aggressive aspects	.87	.24
Part of the fun of competition is the danger involved	.62	.62
Competition (AVE = .49)	Loadings	SE
Competition is the best part of participating in this event	.69	.53
I put my entire self on the line when I play my favorite sport	.67	.55
The better the opposition, the more I enjoy competing in this event	.73	.47
Physical Fitness (AVE = .74)	Loadings	SE
I compete in order to stay physically fit	.88	.23
I compete because I feel it keeps me healthy	.87	.25
I compete in sport because it develops physical fitness	.83	.32

Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Information Source Acquisition Scale

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using Lisrel 8.80 was also conducted to confirm the Information Source Acquisition Scale's hypothesized factor structure identified from the EFA. Similar to the approach used to validate the STMS, ML was used to examine the Information Source Acquisition Scale's parameter estimation. Each of the 16 parameter estimates were significant at $p < .0001$, confirming the model's component fit. Among the four latent constructs, all revealed acceptable AVE estimate values ranging from .58 (Internal Memory) to .61 (Interpersonal) with the exception of "Internet", which had an AVE value of .37. Fit indices were in alignment with the "acceptable" thresholds established by Hu and Bentler (1999), supporting the four-factor scale's construct validity and global fit (See Table 7 for summary of fit indices). However, in an effort to improve the model, specifically pertaining to the poor AVE estimate value associated with the "Internet" factor, two items loading poorly onto the latent construct were subsequently removed before retesting. An examination of the new

14-item model revealed significant improvements to the model's convergent validity. For instance, "Internet's" AVE estimate value increased from .37 to .50, which places it within Fornell and Larcker's (1981) threshold for acceptable AVE estimates (See Table 9 for item loadings and standard errors). Despite dropping items, model two retained a minimum of three items per factor and maintained an acceptable global fit (See Table 7). Table 9 identifies the Information Source Acquisition Scale that can be used to properly measure the sources consumers may utilize to gain prepurchase information regarding an event. The final Information Source Acquisition Scale contains four factors, made up of 14 items.

Table 9

Information Source Acquisition Scale with Factors, Items, and Their Respective Loadings and Standard Errors (SE).

Internet (AVE = .50)	Loadings	SE
Read a report by a knowledgeable third party	.81	.34
Be attentive to ads from the event organizing group's social media accounts	.64	.59
Look to a website from a neutral source to read about the activity	.66	.56
Interpersonal (AVE = .61)	Loadings	SE
Ask the opinion of an athlete who has previously competed in the event	.84	.30
Ask the opinion of a friend or relative	.72	.49
Seek opinions from like athletes	.84	.30
Pay attention to what previous participants of the competition had to say about the event	.72	.48
Print/Media (AVE = .58)	Loadings	SE
Read local newsletters from the host community regarding the event	.82	.33
Seek information from a newspaper ad	.87	.24
Read available information such as printed brochures or other info. provided by the event	.57	.68
Pay attention to radio ads about the event	.76	.43
Internal Memory (AVE = .59)	Loadings	SE
Rely on past personal experience with the event	.80	.37
Think about my previous involvement with this event	.93	.14
Try to recall relevant events which I can associate with the event	.51	.74

Developing a Market Segmentation Model

To ascertain the most interpretable cluster or segment solution among the sport tourism respondents, both Ward's hierarchical method, as well as the K-means method were used to perform cluster analysis on the study's original 39 sport motivation and 17 tourism motivation items. Given that cluster analysis is primarily an exploratory technique, choosing the appropriate cluster solution was based upon practical considerations, or which solution was most functional, given the context and objective of the study. According to Kotler and Keller (2009) and Tonks (2009), the following criteria should be used to help identify a clustering solution:

- *Substantial*: The segments are large and profitable enough to serve.
- *Reliability*: Only segments that are stable over time can provide the necessary grounds for a successful marketing strategy. If segments change their composition quickly, or their members' behavior, targeting strategies are not likely to succeed. Therefore, a certain degree of stability is necessary to ensure that marketing strategies can be implemented and produce adequate results.
- *Accessible*: The segments can be effectively reached and served, which requires them to be characterized by means of observable variables.
- *Actionable*: Effective programs can be formulated to attract and serve the segments.
- *Parsimonious*: To be managerially meaningful, only a small set of substantial clusters should be identified.
- *Familiar*: To ensure management acceptance, the segments composition should be comprehensible.
- *Relevant*: Segments should be relevant in respect of the organization's competencies and objectives.
- *Compatibility*: Segmentation results meet other managerial functions' requirements.

Ultimately, Ward's hierarchical four-cluster solution was deemed most comprehensible after conducting a MANOVA, which revealed significant differences in mean values across the four cluster groups on the nine sport tourism motivation factors derived from the CFA, Wilks' $\lambda = .169$, $F(27,368) = 33.452$, $p < 0.0001$. Additionally,

Ward's method produced clusters of more equal size (e.g., Cluster 1 = 160; Cluster 2 = 100; Cluster 3 = 54; Cluster 4 = 66), whereas the k-means approach produced clusters of disparate and concerning sizes (e.g., Cluster 1 = 98; Cluster 2 = 8; Cluster 3 = 169; Cluster 4 = 105). Univariate tests (using Ward's solution) indicated that all nine factors were significant at $p < .0001$ as indicated in Table 10. The largest F -value was reached with variable, "Travel Exploration" ($F = 138.09, p < .0001$), suggesting that the clusters differ most on their desire to escape everyday life, relax, and experience a new and compelling location with regards to why they elected to participate in the event. The partial eta squared values associated with each factor were as follows: Self Enrichment (.45); Travel Exploration (.52); Skill Mastery (.23); Social Needs (.27); Destination Attributes (.35); Stress Relief (.32); Aggression (.26); Competitive Desire (.33); Physical Fitness (.14). Table 10 also illustrates results produced from Tukey's post hoc test, indicating which segments are homogeneous or distinctive from other groups.

Table 10

Sport Tourism Variable Means Among Clusters

Variable	Market Segments				MANOVA	
	<i>Tourism-Oriented</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Sport Tourist Enthusiasts</i>	<i>Sport-Oriented</i>	<i>F value</i>	<i>P value</i>
Self-Enrichment	5.613 ^{a,d}	4.076 ^b	6.423 ^c	5.303 ^{a,d}	100.84	.000
Travel Exploration	4.9 ^a	3.782 ^b	6.117 ^c	2.566 ^d	138.09	.000
Skill Mastery	5.306 ^{a,d}	4.387 ^b	6.321 ^c	5.525 ^{a,d}	36.837	.000
Social Needs	5.638 ^{a,d}	4.608 ^b	6.43 ^c	5.494 ^{a,d}	45.26	.000
Destination Attributes	5.525 ^a	4.755 ^b	6.315 ^c	3.697 ^d	67.11	.000
Stress Relief	5.208 ^a	3.77 ^b	6.247 ^c	4.677 ^d	58.17	.000
Aggression	3.89 ^a	3.107 ^b	5.716 ^c	4.434 ^d	44.47	.000
Competitive Desire	4.66 ^a	3.513 ^b	5.963 ^c	5.116 ^d	60.62	.000
Physical Fitness	5.954 ^{a,d}	5.003 ^b	6.494 ^c	5.727 ^{a,d}	20.49	.000
<i>N</i>	160	100	54	66		

Note. Each subscript letter denotes a distinctive subset of Ward's Hierarchical Cluster solution at $p < .05$: a=homogeneous subset 1; b=homogeneous subset 2; c=homogeneous subset 3; d =homogeneous subset 4. Columns sharing similar subscripts reflect non-significant differences with other respective segments.

After settling on Ward's hierarchical four-group solution, the next step involved labeling the cluster groups according to their sport tourism motivation characteristics. The group that responded most favorably to both sport and tourism-related motives was labeled the Sport Tourism Enthusiast Group (54 members, 14% of the sample). Their enthusiasm for both sport and tourism was exhibited by reporting the highest mean values for each of the nine sport and tourism factors. In fact, their average response across the nine factors was 6.2 and their average number of nights stayed was 2.80, which was the largest duration of stay for any segment. Conversely, the group that indicated the most amount of indifference with regard to sport or tourism reasons for competing in the Games was deemed the Neutral Group (100 members, 26% of the sample). This segment valued the nine STMS factors inconsequentially as evidenced by their lower mean values on seven of the nine motivational factors. Additionally, their average nights stayed was 2.4 during the games. The largest cluster/segment identified was labeled the Travel-Oriented Group (160 members, 42% of the sample). Only the Sport Tourism Enthusiast segment had a larger duration of stay ($M = 2.61$) and valued tourism-related factors, such as "travel exploration" "stress relief" and "destination attributes" greater than this segment. Among these three travel-related factors, "destination attributes" was the most important factor the Travel-Oriented group reported when determining to travel to a destination to compete in sport ($M = 5.53$). On the other hand, the Sport-Oriented segment (66 members, 18% of the sample) recognized motives attributable to athletic competition more so than the Neutral and Tourism-Oriented groups. Members of this group acknowledged "physical fitness" ($M = 5.73$) and "skill mastery" ($M = 5.53$) as their two most important reasons for engaging in active sport tourism. Additionally, the Sport-

Oriented Group recognized “competitive desire” significantly more than their Neutral and Tourism-Oriented counterparts. Not surprisingly, this group placed very little worth in tourism-related motives such as “travel exploration” ($M=2.57$) and “destination attributes” ($M=3.70$), suggesting that their value in traveling to sport events, such as the GoPro Mountain Games, is centered around sport, not vacation. This was also evidenced by reporting the lowest duration of stay among the four segments ($M=2.28$).

Overall, the characteristics distinguishing each segment fulfill the study’s primary objective, which is to examine how primary versus secondary motives rooted in sport or tourism influence sport tourism consumer decisions. Each of the segments reveal target groups which may have significant impact on a destination event’s planning, marketing, and budgeting decisions. Moreover, effective programs can be constructed to enhance these segments’ event experience. Thus, Ward’s Hierarchical four-cluster solution meets not only the statistical criteria for an appropriate cluster solution, but also fulfills Kotler and Keller (2009), as well as Tonk’s (2009) criteria for an effective market segmentation model.

Athletic and Travel Status Profiles

The four clusters were also examined using chi-square analysis to discover whether motivational segments were associated with a particular travel (local vs. non-local) and athletic (professional vs. amateur) profile. The chi-square test for travel status was found to be statistically significant, $X^2(3, N = 380) = 13.49, p = .004$, suggesting that a distinct relationship exists among local/non-local athletes and their proportional compositions within the four sport tourism segments. The nature of these relationships is illustrated in the column proportion tests identified in Table 11. Not surprising, the

proportion of non-local respondents within the Tourism-oriented (73.1%) and Sport Tourism Enthusiast (77.8%) segments were significantly greater than the Sport-Oriented segment (51.5%). Additionally, the Sport-Oriented cluster had a significantly greater percentage of local athletes than did any other segment (48.5%). The significant results produced from the cross-tabulations indicate that out-of-town visitors may be characterized by a greater desire to utilize sport as a means for discovering new and exciting tourism experiences, whereas local athletes may be more likely to demonstrate a combination of both sport and tourism reasons for participating. This is evidenced by 39% of local athletes residing in the Travel-Oriented segment and 26% residing in the Sport-Oriented segment. These findings confirm hypothesis H3.1.

Table 11

Tourism Status of the Segments

Travel Status	Market Segments (% By Column and Row)					Total
	Local vs. Non Local	Travel-Oriented	Neutral	Sport Tourism Enthusiasts	Sport-Oriented	
Non Local (More than 50 Miles)	Count	117 ^a	63 ^{a,b}	42 ^a	34 ^b	256
	% within Tourism Group	45.7%	24.6%	16.4%	13.3%	100.00%
	% within Segment	73.1%	63%	77.8%	51.5%	67.4%
	Count	43 ^a	37 ^{a,b}	12 ^a	32 ^b	124
Local	% within Local Group	34.7%	29.8%	9.7%	25.8%	100.00%
	% within Segment	26.9%	37.0%	22.2%	45.5%	32.6%
	Total Count	160	100	54	66	380

Note. Each unique subscript letter denotes a subset of cluster categories whose column proportions differ significantly from each other at the .05 level following a Bonferroni adjustment. Columns sharing similar subscripts reflect non-significant differences with other respective segments.

With regard to athletic status, only a “marginally” significant association was found between amateurs and professionals and the four identified segments, $X^2(3, N = 380) = 6.96, p = 0.73$. However, non-significant proportion results at the .05 level

indicate that amateurs and professionals do not differ with regard to their segment profiles, disconfirming Hypothesis H2.1 (See Table 12).

Table 12

Athletic Status of the Segments

Athletic Status		Market Segments (% By Column and Row)				Total
		Travel-Oriented	Neutral	Sport Tourism Enthusiasts	Sport-Oriented	
Amateur	Count	126 ^a	82 ^a	42 ^a	43 ^a	293
	% within Athletic Status	43%	28%	14.3%	14.7%	100.00%
	% within Segment	78.8%	82%	77.8%	65.2%	77.1%
Professional	Count	34 ^a	18 ^a	12 ^a	23 ^a	87
	% within Athletic Status	39.1%	20.7%	13.8%	26.4%	100.00%
	% within segment	21.3%	18%	22.2%	34.8%	22.9%
	Total Count	160	100	54	66	380

Note. Each unique subscript letter denotes a subset of cluster categories whose column proportions differ significantly from each other at the .05 level following a Bonferroni adjustment. Columns sharing similar subscripts reflect non-significant differences with other respective segments.

Conative Loyalty

A hierarchical multiple regression procedure was used to determine whether sport and tourism motives significantly explain an athlete's behavioral intentions. Before interpreting the regression results, tolerance statistics were examined to confirm the assumption of collinearity. According to Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980), values approaching 1.0 indicate little multicollinearity, whereas a value close to 0 may suggest a multicollinearity risk. As each variable's tolerance ranged from .89 to .99, a conclusion was made that multicollinearity was not a concern, justifying the subsequent interpretations.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis reveal that after controlling for athletic status and travel status, a model with all nine STMS factors significantly explained consumers' behavioral intentions, $Adj. R^2 = .29$, $F(11,368) = 14.851$, $p < .0001$.

Based upon Cohen's (1988) effect size evaluations, the STMS factors had a large effect ($R^2 > .25$) on participants' conative loyalty. Additionally, when controlling for all variables in the model, only "Destination Attributes" ($p < .0001$), "Travel Exploration" ($p = .001$), "Competitive Desire" ($p = .003$), "Social Needs" ($p = .005$), and "Self Enrichment" ($p = .020$) remained unique predictors of consumers' loyalty intentions. Among the significant predictors, "Destination Attributes" was the greatest predictor of a participant's conative loyalty characteristics ($\beta = .322$). This finding confirms hypothesis H4.1, which suggests that consumers who exhibit positive affects regarding the event destination and its unique attributes will be most likely to report having positive behavioral intentions regarding repeat participation and event-related word-of-mouth communications.

In addition to determining how sport tourism motivational factors explain a participants' conative loyalty, it was also of interest if segments' conative loyalty evaluations differ. Results from a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicate that participants' conative loyalty responses significantly differ across the four sport tourism segments, $F(3, 376) = 18.557, p < .0001$. Post hoc analyses using Tukey's post hoc criterion for significance and a Bonferroni adjustment reveal that the Sport Tourism Enthusiastic segment reported having greater conative loyalty mean values than did the other three segments (See Table 13), confirming hypothesis H5.1. Additionally, the Sport-Oriented and Tourism-Oriented segments exhibited greater conative loyalty than the Neutral segment. Although post hoc tests revealed non-significant differences, it should be noted that the segment motivated by tourism-related factors had a greater conative loyalty mean value than the Sport-Oriented segment. In summary, although

each segment's conative loyalty mean values are favorable, participants' expressing motives rooted in tourism, as well as sport, display the greatest behavioral intentions towards the GoPro Mountain Games, making the Sport Tourism Enthusiast group a likely segment to repeat visit and speak positively to social peer groups about the event.

Table 13

ANOVA Comparison of Behavioral Intentions Across Consumer Segments

Variable	Tourism-Oriented (a)		Neutral (b)		Sport Tourist Enthusiasts (c)		Sport-Oriented (d)		Post Hoc
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Conative Loyalty	6.34	.79	5.8	1.11	6.85	.33	6.26	.86	a > b c > a,b,d d > b

Information Source Acquisition

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether segments had different information source utilization preferences for pre-event information search. To conduct this procedure, the four cluster groups acted as categorical independent variables and the four information source acquisition factors (Internet Sources, Interpersonal Sources, Print/Media Sources, and Memory Sources) were used as dependent variables. Results indicate that the four segments' utility of information sources were significantly different, Wilks' $\lambda = .675$, $F(12,987.157) = 13.149$, $p < 0.0001$. Univariate tests also revealed significant differences for each of the four information source dependent variables as evidenced by Table 14. Post hoc tests suggest that the Sport Tourist Enthusiasts will utilize each of the four sources more than other segments. Also, each segment demonstrated favoring memories derived from past experiences more than any other information source as their largest mean values were all associated with Memory Sources. With regards to hypothesis H6.1, the Tourism-

Oriented segment responded more favorably to each of the external sources than did the Sport-Oriented segment. This was based upon greater mean values associated with each of these sources (See Table 14).

Table 14

Information Source Acquisition Preferences Across Segments (Mean Values)

Variable	Market Segments				MANOVA	
	<i>Tourism-Oriented</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Sport Tourist Enthusiasts</i>	<i>Sport-Oriented</i>	<i>F value</i>	<i>p value</i>
Internet Sources	4.175 ^a	3.507 ^{b,d}	5.438 ^c	3.187 ^{b,d}	31.199	.000
Interpersonal Sources	4.878 ^{a,b,d}	4.545 ^{a,b,d}	6.079 ^b	4.640 ^{a,b,d}	14.860	.000
Print/Media Sources	3.511 ^a	2.918 ^{b,d}	4.940 ^c	2.667 ^{b,d}	33.259	.000
Memory Sources	5.658 ^{a,d}	4.840 ^b	6.216 ^c	5.621 ^{a,d}	15.761	.000
<i>N</i>	160	100	54	66		

Note. Each subscript letter denotes a distinctive subset of Ward's Hierarchical Cluster solution at $p < .05$: a=homogeneous subset 1; b=homogeneous subset 2; c=homogeneous subset 3; d=homogeneous subset 4. Columns sharing similar subscripts reflect non-significant differences with other respective segments.

The final research question pertaining to participants' information search behavior ascertained how years of experience participating in the event affected their information source utilization preferences. To determine such distinctions, respondents were first categorized into groups based upon experience (Group 1 = No Experience; Group 2 = 1 year of experience, Group 3 = 2-3 years of experience; Group 4 = 4 or more years of experience). Results of a MANOVA indicate significant differences in the utilization of information sources across the groups, Wilks' $\lambda = .047$, $F(12,987.157) = 9.545$, $p < 0.0001$. However, ensuing univariate tests yielded significant differences only among the dependent variables, "Interpersonal Sources" ($p = .028$) and "Memory Sources" ($p < .001$). The group with only one year of experience exhibited greater preferences for relying on interpersonal sources than did those with four or more years of experience (See Table 15). This may indicate that lesser experienced participants may seek a form of social confirmation from their peers before electing to compete. However, the group

with no experience did not differ significantly with the more experienced groups raising concern that lack of experience may not directly correspond with interpersonal search behavior. Secondly, it came at no surprise that those who have one or more years of experience will rely on past memories from the GoPro Games or like events significantly more than those with no experience. Moreover, it is also noteworthy that although no significant differences were discovered between the groups and their utilization of Internet sources, mean values associated with each group suggest a declining trend in the use of these sources as participants gain more personal experience. Thus, despite larger mean values suggesting that lesser experienced athletes will rely more heavily on external information sources, statistical results cannot confirm this, inhibiting the acceptance of Hypothesis H7.2.

Table 15

Information Source Acquisition Preferences According to Years of Experience (Mean Values)

Variable	Groups Based on Experience Participating				MANOVA		
	<i>No Experience (a)</i>	<i>1 Year of Experience (b)</i>	<i>2—3 Years of Experience (c)</i>	<i>>4 Years of Experience (d)</i>	<i>F value</i>	<i>p value</i>	<i>Post hoc tests</i>
Internet Sources	4.2316	4.1563	3.8797	3.7986	1.586	.192	
Interpersonal Sources	4.9068	5.2090	4.8608	4.6016	3.073	.028	b > d
Print/Media Sources	3.1059	3.6484	3.4175	3.2760	2.047	.107	
Memory Sources	4.3842	5.500	5.8522	5.8924	21.595	.000	b,c,d > a
<i>N</i>	59	128	97	96			

Table 16

A Comparison of Event Experience by Cluster Groups

<u>Segment</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Travel-Oriented	160	2.28	2.31
Neutral	100	2.26	2.27
Sport Tourism Enthusiasts	54	1.87	1.80
<u>Sport Oriented</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>3.10</u>	<u>2.39</u>

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter is comprised of four sections: 1) Summary, 2) Discussion, 3) Conclusions, and 4) Recommendations for future research. In the summary section, an overview of the study and overall purpose is given. A discussion section will follow, providing an explanation of findings derived from empirical analyses outlined in chapter four. The third section will provide a brief conclusion, indicating this study's contribution to research investigating the adventure sport tourism market and illustrating marketing implications for sport tourism practitioners. Finally, recommendations for future research are offered.

Summary

The primary focus of this study was to construct and evaluate a unified sport tourism scale that detected unique active sport tourist segments according to their social psychological motives for traveling to a destination to compete in sport. Making sense of the underlying reasons for competing in sport tourism events, such as the GoPro Mountain Games, helps extend research investigating whether athletes' consumer motives are predominately rooted in tourism, thus making benefits associated with sport secondary, or vice versa. Moreover, this research will assist communities and organizations in developing a better understanding of this type of consumer's behavioral intentions and information source acquisition behaviors, which aids in the identification of marketing communication channels that are most relevant for individuals consuming

sport in a tourism context. These research initiatives were based upon Wilkie's (1994) three-level benefit segmentation procedure, which investigates benefits sought, personal characteristics, and attitudinal outcomes of product consumers. In this case, consumer segments were defined by athletes' psycho-sociological benefits or outcomes when engaging in active sport tourism, and then evaluated according to personal characteristics (i.e., athletic profile and travel status) and consumer attitudes (i.e., conative loyalty intentions and information search behaviors).

Discussion

Development of the Sport Tourism Motivation Scale

The first step in building a better understanding of this rapidly growing consumer base required constructing a unified scale which comprehensively assessed the multitude of motivations guiding sport tourist purchase decisions. Historically, several authors have examined the motives of tourists, but a number of problems have been cited when attempting to utilize existing scales in dissimilar contexts. For instance, Pearce (1993) notes that there is little comparative study in tourism, suggesting that variables found to be useful in one study, may be less inclusive in another. To give an example, while Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) have collectively established a fairly accepted typology of tourists based on motivation, the items utilized in their scales are considerably different from those used by Funk et al. (2009) in a sport tourism context. Funk et al.'s SPEED scale includes just one factor (Diversion) representing what is considered to be a tourist motive, while the others relate to motives reflecting sport event attendance. Conversely, in Ottevanger's (2007) study of push and pull factors explaining sport tourists' motives to attend destination sport events, only one factor measured fan motives, while the others

reflected tourism-oriented constructs. Further, Ryan and Glendon's (1998) adapted Leisure Motivation Scale to tourism encompasses many of the intrinsic motives observed in a tourism context, but fails to capture the destination attributes and environmental characteristics emphasized in sport tourism studies conducted by Kaplanidou et al. (2012) or Mohan (2010). Thus, it's apparent that sport tourism motivational studies will render unique items according to the author's academic background, the context under study, and the research objective. However, omitting pertinent factors inherent to particular tourist contexts will only increase the unexplained variance in an outcome, rendering additional gaps in organizations' understanding of active sport tourists.

As a result, this study developed a survey instrument that placed equal weight on items pertaining to sport, tourism, and destination motives. As constructed, the STMS model proves to be a valid and reliable survey instrument that captures the multi-faceted elements of sport tourism motivation noted above. The STMS improved upon the content of McDonald et al.'s (2002) scale and the Push and Pull questionnaires adapted by Jang and Cai (2002), as well as Mohammad and Som (2010) by reducing the factor structures to encapsulate the best aspects of both scales and by establishing construct and convergent validity through CFA, which the previous authors failed to do. The STMS' construct validity was established through the inspection of multiple fit indices (RMSEA = .067; CFI = .96), which indicated the data fit the model well. Also, convergent validity was observed (the AVE values for all factors exceeded .50 with the exception of two who's AVE values were .49) and the alpha values of the subscales were above Nunnally's (1978) .70 cutoff, suggesting good internal consistency. The results illustrate acceptable psychometric properties for future researchers wishing to accurately and

reliably measure motivations of active sport tourists competing in an organized destination sport event.

The use of this scale can be beneficial in multiple sport tourism contexts wishing to determine how motivational forces influence various consumer behaviors. For instance, the STMS will allow academics and practitioners with a measurement instrument that can be used to develop consumer profiles according to the motivational reasons driving participation. Its predictive validity may also enable analyses to determine how psycho-sociological data influences consumers' incremental spending, length of stay, merchandise spending, behavioral intentions, sponsorship recognition, information search behaviors, commitment to place, and other consumer behaviors. For the purpose of this study, the STMS was used as a market segmentation tool, which permitted subsequent analyses aimed at determining how active sport tourist segments (based on motivational preferences) differed and/or explained participants' conative loyalty and information search behaviors.

Segmenting Adventure Sport Tourist Consumers

Findings from Ward's hierarchical cluster method revealed that the prevalence and strength of sport and tourism motives can be used as a successful market segmentation approach, confirming previous research (See Funk, Toohey, & Bruun, 2007; Hallman et al., 2012; Prayag & Grivel, 2014) whereby athletes' motivational intensity was used to effectively analyze heterogeneous sport tourism consumer groups. Among GoPro Mountain Games athletes, four unique segments were identified: 1) Sport Tourism Enthusiast Segment, 2) Tourism-Oriented Segment, 3) Sport-Oriented Segment, and 4) Neutral Segment.

Characterized as being enthusiastic and highly motivated about all aspects of the event, the Sport Tourism Enthusiast Group reported that tourism, sport, and social outcomes all have an equally positive influence on their event participation. Interestingly, when using motivational factors for the purpose of market segmentation, it is not uncommon to identify a homogeneous group of respondents that demonstrate greater motivational regard for most, if not all factors. In a study of youth participants at the Interamnia World Cup, Prayag and Grivel (2014) detected one segment exhibiting greater motives on nearly all sport tourism items. In this study, they too, elected to label this group the “Enthusiastic” segment. In a segmentation analysis of fantasy baseball consumers, Dwyer, Shapiro, and Drayer (2011) also observed this trend by detecting a segment referred to as the “Advocate” group, which was characterized as the most highly active or motivated group among the four segments. Thus, it appears that a proportion of many consumer markets may be comprised of a segment which reflects a strong and elevated sense of excitement and enthusiasm for particular products or services.

Such product enthusiasm or motivation is suspected to influence a consumer’s level of interest and involvement in external and internal information searching (Antil, 1984; Venkatraman, 1989; Dodd et al., 1996), explaining why this group evaluated each of the four information source categories higher than the other segments. Compared to people who do not exhibit strong feelings toward a product, enthusiasts will not just engage in purchase behaviors more frequently, but will also partake in greater amounts of nonpurchase search behavior (Bloch & Richens, 1983). By progressively seeking information, whether through media sources or through social peer groups, enthusiasts naturally develop product class expertise. This specialized knowledge assists this type of

consumer in product selection, which creates negotiating power in the marketplace (Brucks, 1985; Moore & Lehmann, 1980), and makes them an influential source of information for fellow consumers (Leonard-Barton, 1985). This segment is therefore most likely to spread positive word-of-mouth communications concerning the positive elements of the event, making them a significant marketing ally for event organizers.

Further, Alba (1983) notes that product enthusiasts are more likely to recall advertising information and are more sophisticated in terms of recognizing information, not only directly related to the event, but information pertaining to brands associated with an event. Similarly, Spence and Engle (1970) have found enthusiasts to be especially vigilant and sensitive to the exposure of product information. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that this group's receptiveness concerning event-related information makes them particularly acute to ancillary products, festivities, and sponsors accompanying an event, which is likely to translate into greater expenditures while visiting a destination. Maybe more importantly, their enthusiastic and highly involved portrayals may explain why this group reported lengthier stays and greater conative loyalty than the other segments. Although the Sport Tourism Enthusiast group represented the smallest segment in terms of numbers, product enthusiasts are considered to be a significant force in the marketplace, and should not be overlooked or taken for granted by event marketers and managers.

The largest segment, labeled Tourism-Oriented, indicated that their primary motives for attending the Games centered around a desire to experience something new, relax, and enjoy the destination's many tourism offerings. This points to the importance of event design when developing a destination sport event's schedule and festivities

surrounding an event. Chalip (1992) insisted that event organizers should pay close attention to the way they construct an event's atmosphere, given the value attendees place on the festivities surrounding the event. Green (2001) further corroborates this by stating that athletes participating in an event often revel in the atmosphere accompanying competition as it provides an opportunity to celebrate sports' sub-culture. Consequently, when marketing an event to this segment, organization's must acknowledge participants' desire to explore a destination's offerings by disseminating information pertaining to local attractions or activities that may enhance a consumer's overall visit. It may even be wise to use this data to leverage cross-marketing or sponsorship contracts with other tourism entities residing in the event's community. By demonstrating an event's ancillary benefits to local businesses, event organizing groups may engender greater goodwill, thus rendering increased community support, both financially and from a public perception standpoint.

Further, this segment's high evaluation of Vail's attributes reinforces the value of a particular environment and placement when organizing a destination event. Hall and Page (1999) note that a tourist's attraction to a destination is greatly influenced by its physical settings, such as its landscape and climate. This was clearly evident among the Games' largest segment of participants who cited experiencing Vail's attractions, mountain scenery, and outdoor activities as one of the primary reasons for competing in the Games. Given that an event's destination can heavily influence participants' motives for attending or not attending, careful consideration should be given to consumers' evaluation of location and its accompanying attributes. Doing so may reveal significant implications as to the decision to keep an event at its existing location or transport it to a

new location. Also, a consumer's perception of the event location may also have a considerable impact on their length of stay. For instance, if a sport tourism consumer exhibits equal regard to the destination as it does for the event, it may prompt a visitor to extend their travel beyond the time needed to compete.

In contrast to the Tourism-Oriented and Sport Tourism Enthusiast segments, the Sport-Oriented group exhibits very little interest in the festivities and attractions associated with the event and the destination location. Instead, this segment is primarily driven by competition, skill mastery, and physical fitness. However, this segment represents just 17% of the population sampled. Even among professional athletes, only 35% resided in the Sport Motivated group, despite logic suggesting that these athletes, if any, would predominately express sport-related motives *above* others when citing reasons for competing. This empirical evidence would indicate that tourism, not sport motives, are the primary reasons why the majority of athletes choose to attend sport tourism events, such as the Mountain Games each year.

Interestingly, this conclusion contradicts findings reported in other studies that have attempted to determine sport tourists' underlying reasons for consumption. For example, Ottevenger (2007) examined spectators motives for traveling to attend major tennis events in London and Paris and determined that the sport event and individuals' fandom were the primary motives for sport tourism consumption above motives such as host destination, relaxation, and escapism. Similarly, Rinaldi's (2011) examination of motives among Australian sport tourism fans revealed that individual's positive emotions after a team's win was the strongest motive for traveling to attend Australian Football League (AFL) games. This research implies that individuals' motives for traveling to

spectate sport are often sport-laden, while this study insinuates that tourists traveling to participate in sport may be more tourism-focused.

This irregularity may illustrate important characteristics inherent with the GoPro Mountain Games that make the consumer experience distinctive from fans traveling to attend a sport event. First, adventure sport often occurs in non-urban areas in which environmental features create a sense of location primacy for sport tourists. In the case of this study, Vail, Colorado's mountain landscape and renowned tourism offerings (e.g., restaurants, shopping, lodging accommodations) make traveling to compete a multi-faceted experience, with participants likely to be drawn by Vail's ecological and hospitality attributes as much as the event competition. After all, 54% of the population sampled in this study (regardless of travel status) indicated that motives related to traveling and experiencing the destination were prominent reasons for competing in the event. Also, Vail is first and foremost, a tourist destination. Consequently, consumers traveling to a location characterized as such are likely to embody a tourist disposition regardless of the reason for traveling (e.g., sport event participation). Conversely, a metropolitan area hosting a sport event may be less likely to engender a tourist disposition from sport tourists as was the case in Ottevenger (2007), Rinaldi (2011), and Funk et al.'s (2009) studies. These contrasting findings illustrate destination characteristics that may impact the way destination marketers tailor communication strategies for sport tourism events.

Additionally, the Tourism-Oriented segment reported valuing external sources of information more so than the Sport-Oriented segment. Specifically, the Tourism segment found Internet sources to be significantly more useful than did the Sport-Oriented and

Neutral groups. It's certainly plausible that consumers captivated by the destination's scenery, festivities, and hospitality will spend more time searching for information than will consumers who are merely concerned with the sport competition. As mentioned previously, this was demonstrated by the Tourism-Oriented segment's high evaluation of Vail's extension event aspects. Extension or ancillary events represent event offerings that supplement the Games' primary sport events, but often incentivize consumers registration decisions equally as much as the competition. As the tourism segment represents the largest of the four consumer clusters, continuing to market the event's ancillary festivities to non-locals may generate greater knowledge of the event's destination offerings and subsequently result in greater lengths of stay.

The Sport-Oriented group rated Memory sources as their primary means for obtaining information about an event. This may likely be the result of this group's knowledge of the location and experience participating in the event. The Sport-Oriented group was comprised of the largest proportion of local athletes relative to the other segments and reported having the highest average with regards to years of experience (See Tables 11 & 16). Prior knowledge also played an integral role in all of the athlete's information source preferences with more experienced athletes favoring Memory sources and athletes with little to know experience relying significantly more on Interpersonal sources and Internet sources. Given that much of a consumer's purchase risk and event-related trepidation can be minimized from existing knowledge and product trial (Lutz & Reilly, 1973), it is logical that athlete's would favor this form of information search acquisition. However, when experience is minimal and product trial opportunities are not

feasible (Kiel & Layton, 1981), consumers will begin to rely on external sources, such as interpersonal sources or media sources, as was evident in this study.

This finding highlights content strategies event marketers must take into account when disseminating information to prospective or registered athletes. For instance, if lesser experienced athletes are more likely to consume pre-purchase information from media and Internet sources than these communication channels' content should be tailored to this participant's needs. Such information could pertain to increasing athletes' knowledge of event scheduling, lodging, or acquainting visitors with the destination. By increasing consumers' familiarity with a destination and the sport event, event organizers may facilitate psychological images and expectations associated with traveling and competing that will mitigate pre-purchase uncertainties.

Lastly, this study also attempted to identify motives which stimulate greater loyalty intentions among consumers. It was found that the nine factors that make up the Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS) explained nearly one-third of respondents' positive affects towards the event, as well as their desire to attend the event next year. Among the STMS's nine factors, competitive desire and destination attributes were the most influential reasons for athletes' conative loyalty intentions. Athletes' competitive desire is likely to be a driving force in this study's case because the GoPro Mountain Games, which are going on their eighth consecutive year, are considered to be some of the most premier outdoor adventure sport events in the United States. Consequently, its status and longevity has helped develop a reputation that attracts talented athletes from all parts of the world who come to gauge their athletic skill sets against others. Further, the event's consistent location appears to have allowed athletes to develop a greater

connection to Vail. Generally speaking, people may develop a greater attachment to a particular location if they associate place-related meaning with social interactions (Milligan, 1998). In the case of athletes participating in the Mountain Games, this social interaction comes in the form of competition and the numerous festivities surrounding the sport events. Moreover, athletes commonly develop propensities towards specific environments that fulfill certain goals and activity needs (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). This is consistent with previous research (See Kaplanidou et al., 2012; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007) revealing there to be a significant relationship between sport tourists' positive perceptions of place characteristics (e.g., destination atmosphere, attractions) and repeat behavioral intentions and word-of-mouth activity. Thus, it appears that both destination and event-related characteristics play prominent roles in sport tourists' conative loyalty.

Conclusion

Adventure sport tourism, now encompassing over one quarter of the tourism industry (George Washington University, 2013), has safely established itself as a sustainable economic force. It's growth and potential economic stimulus has forced tourism boards to acknowledge its importance and aggressively pursue strategies that will foster a competitive position amongst those fighting to reap its commercial benefits. With this proposition in mind, this research provides an initial look at this niche consumer by developing an in-depth market market analysis on adventure sport tourists, illustrating segments' reasons for attending the Games, and detailing their unique preferences for acquiring event- and destination-related information. Overall, it can be concluded that one cannot describe active sport tourists' behavioral intentions by just

analyzing sport and tourism motives in isolation of each other. Instead, one must conceptualize this type of consumer behavior as a convergence of two influential motives (e.g., sport and tourism motives).

Further, this study's findings reveal important marketing strategies for destination marketers wishing to enhance their marketing communication platforms. For instance, all segments expressed utilizing Interpersonal sources and Memory sources more so than Internet and Print/Media Sources. On the surface, this finding may be received by organizations with frustration as it appears to marginalize the effectiveness of communications directly managed by event marketers. However, realizing the importance of social peer groups, experience, and/or product trial in consumers' information acquisition may illuminate ways in which Internet marketing, a communication medium often controlled by an event organization, may be strengthened. For example, by integrating testimonials and video footage of past competitors performing in competitions, organizations may induce vicarious learning through consumers' ability to observe and listen to the experiences of others. The Internet equips organizations with interactive abilities whereby people with common interests can carry out their social discourse and activities (Sands, 2003). Thus, if interpersonal sources are an integral source of information for consumers in purchases of experience-type products (Urbany & Weilbaker, 1987), then organizations need to develop communication strategies that deliver such messages. Doing so may stimulate greater engagement and utility, yielding event organizations with more control over the information acquired by prospective consumers.

The diverse utility of information sources also reinforces the importance of integrated marketing, whereby organizations communicate to consumers across a myriad of marketing communication channels rather than relying on just one communication medium (Nowak & Phelps, 1994; Rapp & Collins, 1990). This position is based upon active sport tourists' heterogeneous information search behaviors in which no one external communication channel was primarily favored over the others. It is important to realize that target audiences, no matter how large, small, or diverse, are composed of individuals who evaluate communications differently (Lala, 2011). Thus, communication strategies should be constructed in ways that are in alignment with a target group's interests and delivered through channels that are sure to be seen. After all, if a marketing mix fails to reach its designated target, one of two errors are occurring: 1) there is an inherent weakness in the characterization of the segment, or 2) inappropriate communication channels are being used to deliver a message's content.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study introduces a new survey instrument, the Sport Tourism Motivation Scale (STMS), which can be used to reliably measure an individual's motives for consuming sport in a tourism setting. However, to further strengthen the STMS's validity and reliability, it must be analyzed in other contexts. For instance, conducting comparative analyses to test active sport tourists competing in a destination residing outside of the United States will aid in ensuring its cross-cultural validity. Further, the STMS may be used on athletes competing in different sports to determine whether disparate activity choices render heterogeneous consumption motives rather than treating sport tourism athletes as a homogeneous group (as was the case in this study).

With the growth club sport has seen in recent years, it may also be informative to determine the underlying reasons driving a team's event choices. Prayag and Grivel (2014) attempted to uncover youth athlete's motives for participating in destination events, but rarely are the athlete's in this case, making the purchase decisions. Rather, it is often the players' coaches and/or parents who are dictating travel schedules. Thus, exploring coaches and parents' sport tourism motives may inform club sport event organizers' management and marketing communication best practices.

Additionally, conducting research aimed at assessing the importance tourism factors have on sport event volunteers working at a destination location is a matter that demands greater attention from sport management scholars. Jarvis and Blank (2011) initiated research in this area at an event located in Germany, but more investigations are needed to fully understand how tourism demands and outcomes predict volunteer satisfaction, intent to return, and desire to repeat visit.

Lastly, this study's information source acquisition scale could be strengthened by developing items that will express the many marketing mediums encapsulating the Internet, rather than treating it as an umbrella information source. Thus, future research is encouraged to analyze Internet sources in isolation of one another. Creating multiple Internet factors may highlight which Web 2.0 sources, specifically, are utilized most by consumers when gathering pre-event information.

REFERENCES

- Adventure Travel Trade Association. (2010) ATTA news. Retrieved from ATTA:
<http://www.adventuretravelnews.com/president-felipe-calderon-mexico-has-to-become-champion-of-adventure-travel>
- AIPS. (2010). Sport tourism at heart of travel sector growth. Retrieved from
<http://www.aipsmedia.com/index.php?page=news&cod=4432&tp=n#.U71w6lLp>
NWU
- Ajzen, I. (2004). Perceived behavioral control, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32(4), 665-683.
- Akpabil, K. (2014, October 3). What is a tourist destination? *Graphic Online*. Retrieved from <http://graphic.com.gh/features/opinion/31625-kofi-akpabili-what-is-a-tourist-destination.html>
- Alba, J. W. (1983). The effects of product knowledge on the comprehension, retention, and evaluation of product information. In R.P. Bagozzi & A.M. Tybout (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (Vol. 10), (pp. 577-580). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research.
- Alba, J. W., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13, 411-453.

- Alexandris, K., Funk, D. C., & Pritchard, M. (2011). The impact of constraints on motivation, activity attachment, and skier intentions to continue. *Journal of Leisure Research, 43*(1), 56-79.
- Alexandris, K., Kouthouris, C., & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18*, 414-425.
- Alexandris, K., Zahariadis, P., Tsorbatzoudis, C., & Grouios, G. (2002). Testing the sport commitment model in the context of exercise and fitness participation. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 25*(3), 217-230.
- Anderson, D. F., & Stone, G. P. (1981). Sport: A search for community. In S.L. Greendorfer & A. Yiannakis (Eds.), *Sociology of sport: Diverse perspectives* (pp. 164-172). West Point, NY: Leisure Press.
- Andreasen, A., R. (1968). Attitudes and customer behavior: A decision model. In H. H. Kassarijianand & T. S. Robertson (Eds.), *Perspectives in consumer behavior* (pp. 489-510). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Antil, J. H. (1984). Conceptualization and operationalization of involvement. In Kinnear, T.C. (Ed.), *Advances in Consumer Research* (Vol. 11), (pp. 203-209). Provo UT: Association for Consumer Research.
- Assael, H. (1984). *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action*. Boston: Kent.
- Athiyaman, A. (1997). Knowledge development in tourism: Tourism demand research. *Tourism Management, 18*(4), 221-228.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Rosa, J. A., Celly, K. S., & Coronel, F. (1998). *Marketing Management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Baker, K. G., Hozier, G. C., & Rogers, R. D. (1994). Marketing research theory and methodology and the tourism industry: A nontechnical discussion. *Journal of Travel Research, Winter*, 3–7.
- Baloglu, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market segments of push and pull motivations: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 8(3), 32-38.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1974). Catharsis - A questionable mode of coping with violence. In S. K. Steinmetz & M. A. Straus (Eds.), *Violence in the family* (pp. 303-307). New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.
- Beattie, P., & Hudson, S. (2003). Emergence of mountain-based adventure tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 625-643.
- Beard, J. G., & Ragheb, M. G. (1983). Measuring leisure motivation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 15(3), 219-22.
- Beatty, S. E., & Smith, S. S. (1987). External search effort: An investigation across several search categories. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14, 83-95.
- Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E., & Welsch, R. E. (1980). *Regression diagnostics: Influential data and sources of collinearity*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Berlyne, D. E. (1960). *Conflict, arousal, and curiosity*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bettman, J. R. (1979). *An Information Processing Theory of Consumer Choice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Blais, M. R., Sabourin, S., Boucher, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (1990). Toward a motivational model of couple happiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *59*, 1021-1031.
- Bloch, P. H., & Richins, M. L. (1983). A theoretical model for the study of product importance perceptions. *Journal of Marketing*, *47*, 69-81.
- Bloom, G. A., & Smith, M. D. (1996). Hockey violence: A test of cultural spillover theory. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *13*, 65-77.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: Wiley Interscience Publication.
- Bredemeier, B. J., Weiss, M. R., Shields, D. L., & Cooper, B. A. B. (1986). The relationship of sport involvement with children's moral reasoning and aggression tendencies. *Journal of Sport Psychology* *8*, 304-318.
- Brown, J. R., & Goolsbee, A. (2002). Does the internet make markets more competitive? Evidence from the life insurance industry. *Journal of Political Economy*, *110*(3), 481-507.
- Brucks, M. (1985). The effects of product class knowledge on information search behavior. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *9*(3), 174-187.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, *21*, 97-116.
- Burns, R., & Burns, R. (2009). Cluster analysis. In R. Burns & R. Burns (Eds.), *Business Research Methods and Statistics using SPSS* (pp. 442-567). London: Sage.

- Byrne, B. M. (1998). *Structural equation modeling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers
- Caillois, R. (1961). *Man, play and games*. New York: Schocken
- Calantone, R., & Mazanec, J. (1991). Marketing management and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 101-119.
- Calinski, T., & Harabasz, J. (1974). A dendrite method for cluster analysis. *Communications in Statistics – Theory and Methods*, 3(1), 1-27.
- Carron, A. V., Hausenblas, H. A., & Mack, D. (1996). Social influence and exercise: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 18(1), 1-16.
- Casper, J. (2004). *Explaining adult tennis participants' participation frequency and purchase intention with the sport commitment model*. (Doctoral Dissertation). University of Northern Colorado. (Order No. 3158412)
- Cassidy, F. (2005). *What motivates sports event tourists? A synthesis of three disciplines*. University of Southern Queensland. [Online] Available: http://eprints.usq.edu.au/845/1/Cassidy_Sept_5_2005_version.pdf
- Cervelló, E., Moreno, J. A., Alonso, N., & Iglesias, D. (2006). Goal orientations, motivational climate and dispositional flow of high school students engaging in extracurricular involvement in physical activity. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 102, 87-92.
- Chalip, L. (1992). The construction and use of polysemic structures: Olympic lessons for sport marketing. *Journal of Sport Management*, 6, 87–98.
- Chen, J. S. (2003). Market segmentation by tourist's sentiments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30, 178-193.

- Child, D. (1990). *The essentials of factor analysis, second edition*. London: Cassel Educational Limited.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Comrey, A. L., & Lee, H. B. (1992). *A first course in factor analysis (2nd ed.)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publisher.
- Conway, J. M., & Huffcut, A. I. (2003). A review and evaluation of exploratory factor analysis practices in organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 6(2), 147-168.
- Coupey, E., Irwin, R. I., & Payne, J. W. (1998). Product category familiarity and preference construction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24, 459-468.
- Cox, D. E. (1967). *Risk taking and information handling in consumer behavior*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Crompton, J. (1979). Motivation for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Crompton, J. (1999). *Measuring the economic impact of visitors to sports tournaments and special events*. Ashburn, VA: National Recreation & Parks Association.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1988). *Optimal Experience: Psychological studies of flow in consciousness*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Daniels, M. J., & Norman, W. C. (2003). Estimating the economic impacts of seven regular sport tourism events. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 8(4), 214-222.
- Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4, 184-194.

- Dann, G. (1981). Tourist motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(2), 187-219.
- Davis, B., Chappelle, D., Sternquist, B., & Pysarchik, D. (1993). Tourist market segmentation in Michigan's Upper Peninsula: A regional approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 2(19), 38-46.
- Davies, M. (2014). *The relationship between information source utilization, basic need satisfaction, and self-determined motivation of adult golfers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Northern Colorado, Colorado.
- Dawes, P. L., Dowling, G. R., & Patterson, P. G. (1991). Information sources used to select different types of management consultancy services. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 8(2), 185-99.
- Day, G. S., & Wensley, R. (1988). Assessing advantage: A framework for diagnosing competitive superiority, *Journal of Marketing*, 52, 31-44.
- deCharms, R. (1968). *Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior*. New York: Academic.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- De Knop, P. (2004). Total quality, a new issue in sport tourism policy. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(4), 303-314.
- Diehm, R., & Armatas, C. (2004). Surfing: an avenue for socially acceptable risk-taking, satisfying needs for sensation seeking and experience seeking. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 663-677.

- Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailoring design method*. New York: John Wiley.
- Dixon, A. W., Henry, M., & Martinez, J. M. (2013). Assessing the economic impact of sport tourists' expenditures related to a university's baseball season attendance. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, 6, 96-113.
- Dodd, T. H., Pinkleton, B. E., & Gustafson, A. W. (1996). External information sources of product enthusiasts: Differences between variety seekers, variety neutrals, and variety avoiders. *Psychology and Marketing*, 13, 291-304.
- Dwyer, B., Shapiro, S. L., & Drayer, J. (2011). Segmenting motivation: An analysis of fantasy baseball motives and mediated sport consumption. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 20, 129-137.
- Ebeling, B., Vargas, C., & Hubo, S. (2013). Combined cluster analysis and principal component analysis to reduce data complexity for exhaust air purification. *The Open Food Science Journal*, 7(1), 8-22.
- Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 109-132.
- Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., & Miniard, P. W. (1993). *Consumer behavior*. Hillsdale, IL: The Dryden Press.
- Eslami, S., Farahani, A., & Asadi, H. (2013). The effects of development of sport tourism on the employment: A review of related research. *International Journal of Sport Studies*, 3(1), 105-110.
- Farmer, R. J. (1992). Surfing: motivation, values and culture. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 15, 241-264.

- Feather, N. T. (1990). Bridging the gap between values and actions: Recent applications of the expectancy-value model. In T. E. Higgins & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 151–192). New York: Guilford Press.
- Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 555-581.
- Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1997). Tourist information search. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*(3), 503-523.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 19*, 39-50.
- Fortier, M. S., Vallerand, R. J., & Guay, F. (1995). Academic motivation and school performance: Toward a structural model. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 20*, 257-274.
- Fredman, P., & Lindberg, K. (2008). Special focus: Mountain tourism. *Tourism Economics, 14*(2), 245-247.
- Freixanet, M. G. (1991). Personality profiles of subjects engaged in high physical risk sports. *Personality and Individual Differences, 8*, 241-252.
- Fridgen, J. D. (1996). *Dimensions of tourism*. MI: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Funk, D. C., Filo, K., Beaton, A. A., & Pritchard, M. (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 18*, 126-138.

- Funk, D. C., Mahony, D. F., Nakazawa, M. & Hirakawa, S. (2001). Development of sport interest inventory (SII): Implications for measuring unique consumer motives at sporting events. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 3, 291-316.
- Funk, D. C., Ridinger, L., & Moorman, A. J. (2004). Exploring Origins of Involvement: Understanding the Relationship between Consumer Motives and Involvement with Professional Sport Teams. *Leisure Sciences*, 26, 35-61
- Funk, D. C., Toohey, K., & Bruun, T. (2007). International Sport Event Participation: Prior Sport Involvement; Destination Image; and Travel Motives. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7, 227-248.
- Furse, D. H., Punj, G. N., & Stewart, D. W. (1984). A typology of individual search strategies among purchasers of new automobiles. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10, 417-431.
- Gaiser, T. J., & Schreiner, A. E. (2009). *A guide to conducting online research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.
- Gammon, S., & Robinson, T. (1997/2003). Sport and tourism: a conceptual framework. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 8(1), 21-26.
- Gelfand, D. M., & Hartmann, D. P. (1982). Response consequences and attributions: Two contributors to prosocial behavior. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), *The development of prosocial behavior* (pp. 167-198). New York: Academic Press.
- George Washington University. (2013). New study reveals rapid growth in adventure sport tourism. Retrieved from <http://www.gwutourism.org/blog/new-study-reveals-rapid-growth-in-adventure-tourism/>

- Getz, D. & Wicks, B. (1993). Editorial. *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1(1), 1-3.
- Gibson, H. (1998). Sport tourism: A critical analysis of research. *Sport Management Review*, 1(1), 45-76.
- Gibson, H. (2004). Moving beyond the 'what is and who' in sport tourism to understanding 'why'. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(3), 247-265.
- Gibson, H., Attle, S., & Yiannakis, A. (1997). Segmenting the sport tourist market: A lifespan perspective, *Journal of vacation marketing*, 4(3), 52-64.
- Gibson, H., & Fairley, S. (2011). Sport tourism. In P. Pedersen, J. Parks, J. Quarterman, & L. Thibault (Eds.), *Contemporary Sport Management* (4th ed., pp. 226-246). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Gibson, H., Kaplanidou, K., & Kang, S. J. (2012). Small-scale event sport tourism: A case study in sustainable tourism. *Sport Management Review*, 15, 160-170.
- Gill, D. L., Gross, J. B., & Huddleston, S. (1983). Participation motivation in youth sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology* 114, 1-14.
- Gillet, V. G. (2011). Identification and analysis of psychological motives among local and non-local Masters Games participants: Empirical evidence for the unique characteristics of sport tourists (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). School of Commerce and Management, Southern Cross University, 2011.
- Gladwell, N. J. (1990). A Psychographic and sociodemographic analysis of state park inn users. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 15-20.
- Goossens, C. (2000). Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 301-321.

- Gray, H. P. (1970). *International travel: International trade*. Lexington, MA: Heath Lexington Books.
- Green, B. (2001). Leveraging subculture and identity to promote sport events. *Sport Management Review, 4*, 1-19
- Green-Demers, I., Pelletier, L. G., Stewart, D. G., & Gushue, N. R. (1998). Coping with the less interesting aspects of training: Toward a model of interest and motivation enhancement in individual sports. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 20*, 251-261.
- Greenwell, T. C., Fink, J. S., & Pastore, D. L. (2002). Perceptions of the service experience: Utilizing demographic and psychographic variables to identify customer segments. *Sport Marketing Quarterly 11*, 234-242.
- Grolnick, W. S., & Ryan, R. M. (1987). Autonomy in children's learning: An experimental and individual difference investigation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 890-898.
- Gronflaten, O. (2009). Predicting travelers' choice of information sources and information channels. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*(2), 230-244.
- Guivernau, M., & Duda, L. J. (2002). Moral atmosphere and athletic aggressive tendencies in young soccer players. *Journal of Moral Development, 31*, 67-85.
- Gursoy, D. (2001). *Development of travelers' information search behavior model* (Ph.D. thesis). Virginia Polytechnical Institute and State University. Blacksburg, Virginia.
- Gursoy, D. (2003). Prior product knowledge and its influence on the tourist's information search behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 10*(3/4), 113-130.

- Gursoy, D. (2011). *Modeling tourist information search behavior: A structural modeling approach*. Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.
- Gursoy, D., & McCleary, K. W. (2004). An integrative model of tourists' information search behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(2), 353-373.
- Hall, C. M. (1992). *Hallmark tourist events*. Chichester: John Wiley.
- Hall, C. M. (1996). Hallmark events and urban reimagining strategies: Coercion, community and the Sydney 2000 Olympics. In L.C. Harrison, W. Husbands (Eds.), *Practicing Responsible Tourism: International case studies in planning, policy and development*. New York: John Wiley.
- Hall, J., O'Mahony, B., & Veceli, J. (2010). An empirical model of attendance factors at major sporting events. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*(2), 328-334.
- Hall, C. M., & Page, S. J. (1999). *Geography of tourism and recreation: Environment, place, and space*. London: Routledge.
- Hallmann, K., Müller, S., Feiler, S., Breuer, C. & Roth, R. (2012). Suppliers' perception of destination competitiveness in a winter sport resort. *Tourism Review, 67*(2), 13-21.
- Hammitt, W. E., Backlund, E. A., & Bixler, R. D. (2006). Experience use history, place bonding, and resource substitution of trout anglers during recreation engagements. *Journal of Leisure Research, 25*(1), 17-41.
- Handy, C. (1993). *Understanding organizations*, (4th ed.), London: Penguin Books.
- Harackiewicz, J. M., & Elliott, A. J. (1993). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*, 904-915.

- Harris, D. V. (1973). Femininity and athleticism: Conflict or consonance? In D. F. Sabo & R. Runfola (Eds), *Jock: Sports and male identity*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Harrison-Hill, T., & Chalip, L. (2005). Marketing sport tourism: Creating synergy between sport and destination. *Sport in Society: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics*, 8(2), 302-320.
- Hodge, K., Allen, J. B., & Smellie, L. (2008). Motivation in masters sport: Achievement and social goals. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 9, 157-176.
- Howard, J., & Sheth, J. (1969). *The theory of buyer behavior*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hinch, T. D., & Higham, J. E. S. (2001). Sport tourism: A framework for research. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(1), 45-58.
- Hirshman, E., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46, 92-101.
- Homer, P., & Kahle, L., (1988). A structural equation test of the 'Value-Attitude Behaviour Hierarchy'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 638-64.
- Hsieh, S., O' Leary, J. T. & Morrison, A. M. (1992). Segmenting the international travel market by activity. *Tourism Management*, 13(2), 209-222.
- Hsu, C. H. C and Huang, S. (2008). Travel motivation: A critical review of the concept's development. In A.G., Woodside & D., Martin (Eds.), *Tourism Management: Analysis, Behaviour and Strategy* (pp. 14-27). Cambridge MA: CABI Publishing.

- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Huizinga, J. (1949). (Original 1938). *Homo Ludens*. Boston: Beacon.
- Hungenberg, E., Gould, J., & Daly, S. (2013). An examination of social psychological factors predicting skiers' skill, participation frequency, and spending behaviors. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 18(4), 313-336.
- Iacobucci, D. (1992). An empirical examination of some basic tenets in services: Goods-services continua. In T. Swartz, D. E. Bowen, & S. W. Brown (Eds.), *Advances in services marketing and management* (Vol. 1, pp. 23-52). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., Mules, T., & Shameem, A. (2003). Building events into destination branding: Insights from experts. *Event Management*, 8(1), 3-14.
- Jang, S. C., & Cai, L. A. (2002). Travel motivations and destination choice: A study of British outbound market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 13(3), 111-133.
- Jarvis, N., & Blank, C. (2011). The importance of tourism motivations among sport event volunteers at the 2007 World Artistic Gymnastics Championships, Stuttgart, Germany. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 16(2), 129-147.
- John, O. P., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2000). Measurement: Reliability, construct validation, and scale construction. In Reis, H.T. & Judd, C.M. (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology* (pp. 339-370). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Johnson, W. R., & Hutton, D. (1955). Effects of a combative sport upon personality dynamics as measured by a projective test. *The Research Quarterly*, 26, 49-53.
- Johnson, E. L., & Russo, J. E. (1984). Product familiarity and learning new information. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11, 542-550.
- Jorgensen, B. S., & Stedman, R. (2001). Sense of place as an attitude: Lakeshore property owners' attitudes toward their properties. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 21, 233-248.
- Kahle, L. R. (1983). *Social values and social change: Adaptation to life in America*. New York: Praeger.
- Kane, M. J., & Zink, R. (2004). Package adventure tours: Markers in serious leisure careers. *Leisure Studies* 23(4), 329-345.
- Kaplan, R., & Kaplan, S. (1989). *The experience of nature: A psychological perspective*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kaplanidou, K., & Gibson, H. J. (2010). Predicting behavioral intentions of active event sport tourists: The case of a small-scale recurring sports event. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 15(2), 163-179.
- Kaplanidou, K., & Vogt, C. (2007). The interrelationship between sport event and destination image and sport tourists' behaviours. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12, 183-206.
- Kaplanidou, K., Jordan, J. S., Funk, D., & Ridinger, L. L. (2012). Recurring sport events and destination image perceptions: Impact on active sport tourist behavioral Intentions and place attachment. *Journal of Sport Management*, 26, 237-248.

- Kaplanidou, K., Kerwin, S., & Karadakis, K. (2013). Understanding sport event success: Exploring perceptions of sport event consumers and event providers. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 18*(3), 137-159.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the American dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin 22*, 280–287.
- Kastenholz, E. (2004). Management of demand as a Tool in sustainable tourist destination development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 12*(5), 388-408.
- Katona, G., & Mueller, E. (1954). A study of purchase decisions. In L. H. Clark (Ed.), *Consumer behavior* (Vol 1., pp. 30 – 87). New York: New York University Press.
- Katz, E., & Lazarsfeld, P. (1955). *Personal Influence*. New York: Free Press.
- Kiel, G. C., & Layton, R. A. (1981). Dimensions of consumer information seeking behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research 18*, 233-239.
- Keller, K. (2001). Mastering the marketing communications mix: Micro and macro perspectives on integrated marketing communication programs. *Journal of Marketing Management, 17*, 819-847.
- Keppel, G. (2004). *Design and analysis: A researcher's handbook* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kerr, J. H., & Mackenzie, S. H. (2012). Multiple motives for participating in adventure sports. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13*, 649-657.

- Kilpatrick, M., Hebert, E., & Bartholomew, J. (2005). College students' motivation for physical activity: Differentiating men's and women's motives for sport participation and exercise. *Journal of American College Health, 54*, 87-94.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Koc, E., & Altinay, G. (2007). An analysis of seasonality in monthly per person tourist spending in Turkish inbound tourism from a market segmentation perspective. *Tourism Management, 28*(1), 227-237.
- Kotler, P., Haider, D. H., & Rein, I. (1993). *Marketing place: Attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states, and nations*. New York: Toronto: New York: Free Press; Maxwell Macmillan Canada; Maxwell Macmillan International.
- Kotler P., & Keller, K. L. (2009). *Marketing management* (13th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Kurpis, L. H., & Bozman, C. S. (2010). The motivations associated with attendance and participation in an amateur sporting event. In L.R. Kahle & A.G. Close (Eds.), *Consumer behavior knowledge for effective sports and event marketing* (pp. 183-205). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kurtzman, J., & Zauher, J. (1995). Agency Report - Tourism Sport International Council. *Annals of Tourism Research, 22*(3), 707-708.

- Kurtzman, J., & Zauher, J. (2005). Sports tourism consumption. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 10*(1), 21-31.
- Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., & Graefe, A. R. (2003). The moderating role of place attachment on the relationship between attitudes toward fees and spending preferences. *Leisure Sciences, 25*, 33–50.
- Kyle, G. T., Bricker, K., Graefe, A., & Wickham, T. (2004). An examination of recreationists' relationships with activities and settings. *Leisure Sciences, 26*, 123-142.
- Kyle, G. T., Graefe, A. R., Manning, R. E., & Bacon, J. (2003). An examination of the relationship between leisure activity involvement and place attachment among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Journal of Leisure Research, 35*, 249–273.
- Lala, G. (2011). Marketing communications: A conceptual approaches. *Marketing From Information to Decision, 4*, 199-209.
- Larsen, R. J., & Buss, D. M. (2008). *Personality psychology: Domains of knowledge about human nature* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Leigh, T. W., & Aro J. R. (1984). A script-theoretic analysis of industrial purchasing behavior. *Journal of Marketing, 48*(Fall), 22-32.
- Leonard-Barton, D. (1985). Experts as negative opinion leaders in the diffusion of a technological innovation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 11*(March), 914-926.
- Lew, A. A. (2001). Literature review: Defining a geography of tourism. *Tourism Geographies, 3*(1), 105-114.
- Lewin, K. (1938). *The conceptual representation and the measurement of psychological forces*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

- Lewis, M. (2007). Stepwise versus hierarchical regression: Pros and cons. Paper presented at the 2007 *Southwest Educational Research Association*.
- Lewis, R. C. & Chambers, R. E. (2000). *Marketing Leadership in Hospitality: Foundations and Practices*, (3rd Ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Lima, J., Eusébio, C., & Kastenholz, E. (2012). Expenditure-based segmentation of a mountain destination tourist market. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 29(7), 695-713.
- Lindquist, J. D., & Sirgy, M. J. (2006). *Shopper, buyer, and consumer behavior*, (2nd ed.). Cincinnati: Atomic Dog Publishing.
- Litvin, S. (2006) Revisiting Plog's model of allocentricity and psychocentricity... one more time. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 47(3), 245.
- Lutz, R. J. & Reilly, P. J. (1973). An exploration of the effects of perceived social and performance risk on consumer information acquisition. In S. Ward & P. Wright (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research*, (Vol. 1, pp. 393-405). Urbana, IL: Association for Consumer Research.
- MacCannell, D. (1976). *The tourists: New theory of the leisure class*. New York: Schocken.
- Mahoney, T. Q., Hambrick, M. E., Svensson, P. G., & Zimmerman, M. H. (2013). Examining emergent niche sports' YouTube exposure through the lens of the psychological continuum model. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 13(3/4), 218-238.
- Mannell, R. C., & Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(3), 314- 331.

- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper.
- Matheson, V. A. (2006). Is smaller better? A comment on “Comparative Economic Impact Analyses” by Michael Mondello and Patrick Rishe. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 20, 192-195.
- Matsunaga, M. (2010). How to factor-analyse your data right: Do's dont's, and how-to's. *International Journal of Psychological Research*, 3(1), 97–110.
- Mayo, E., & Jarvis, L. P. (1981). *The psychology of leisure travel*. Boston, MA: CBI.
- McCarville, R. (2007). From a fall in the mall to a run in the sun: One journey to Ironman Triathlon. *Leisure Sciences*, 29,159-173.
- McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Fetter, Jr., R. E. (1999). Dimensions of consumer search behavior in services. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 13(3), 242-265.
- McDonald, M. A., Milne, G. R., & Hong, J. (2002). Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11, 100-113.
- McGehee, N. G., Yoon, Y., & Cárdenas, D. (2003). Involvement and travel for recreational runners in North Carolina. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17(3), 305-324.
- McIntosh, R., & Goeldner, C. (1984). *Tourism Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, (4th Ed.). Columbus, Ohio: Grid Publishing Inc.
- McKercher, B., SY Ho, P., Du Cros, H., & Chow So-Ming, B. (2002). Activities-based segmentation of the cultural tourism market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 12(1), 23-46.

- Midland, & Kingston. (2013). *Sport tourism presentation: Developing a sport tourism strategy*. Retrieved from <http://www.region9tourism.ca/index.cfm/linkservid/387AEE77-DE2F-82B3-C0F186A971E3BD65/showMeta/0/>
- Mijares, T. (2010). Evolution and development in sport tourism. Retrieved from <http://www.scribd.com/doc/91927442/Sports-Tourism-Evolution-and-Development-as-of-Jan-26-2010>
- Miller, H. J. (1993). Consumer search and retail analysis. *Journal of Retailing*, 69, 160–192.
- Milligan, M. J. (1998). Interactional past and potential: The social construction of place attachment. *Symbolic Interaction*, 21(1), 1-33.
- Milligan, G. W., & Cooper, M. (1985). An examination of procedures for determining the number of clusters in a data set. *Psychometrika*, 50(2), 159-179.
- Milne, G. R., & McDonald, M. A. (1999). *Sport marketing: Managing the exchange process*. Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.
- Mindrila, D. (2010). Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Diagonally Weighted Least Square (DWLS) estimation procedures: A comparison of estimation bias with ordinal and multivariate non-normal data. *International Journal of Digital Society*, 1(1), 60-66.
- Minninger, W. C. (1948). Recreation and mental health. *Recreation*, 42, 340-346.
- Mitchell, L. S., & Murphy, P. E. (1991). Geography and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 57–70.

- Mohammad, B. A. M. A., & Som, A. P. M. (2010). An analysis of push and pull travel motivations of foreign tourists to Jordan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(12), 41-50.
- Mohan, L. J. (2010). Effect of destination image on attendance at team sporting events. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(3), 157-170.
- Moore, W. L., & Lehmann, D. R. (1980). Individual differences in search behavior for a nondurable. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 7(December), 296-307.
- Moorthy, S., Ratchford, B. T., & Talukdar, D. (1997). Consumer information search revisited: Theory and empirical analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23(4), 263-277.
- Morrison, A. M. (1996). *Hospitality and Travel Marketing* (2nd ed.). Albany, New York: Delmar.
- Moscardo, G., Pearce, P., & Morrison, A. (2001). Evaluating different bases for market segmentation. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 10(1), 29-49.
- Murray, K. M. (1991). A test of services marketing theory: Consumer information acquisition activities. *Journal of Marketing* 55, 10-25.
- Nepal, S. (2002). Mountain tourism: Toward a conceptual framework. *Tourism Geographics*, 7(3), 313-333.
- Newton, M., & Fry, M. (1998). Senior Olympians achievement goals and motivational responses. *Journal of Aging & Physical Activity*, 6, 256-270.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1989). *The competitive ethos and democratic education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Nowak, G. J., & Phelps, J. (1994). Conceptualizing the integrated marketing communications' phenomenon: An examination of its impact on advertising practices and its implication for advertising research. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, 16(1), 49-66.
- Nucci, C., & Young-Shim, K. (2005). Improving socialization through sport: An analytic review of literature on aggression and sportsmanship. *Physical Educator*, 62(3), 123-129.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Connor, B. P., & Vallerand, R. J. (1990). Religious motivation in the elderly: A French-Canadian replication and an extension. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 130, 53-59.
- Okun, M., Ruehlman, L., Karoly, P., Lutz, R., Fairholme, C., & Schaub, R. (2003). Social support and social norms: Do both contribute to predicting leisure-time exercise? *American Journal Health Behavior*, 27, 493-507.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 33-44.
- Olshavsky, R.W. & Wymer, W. (1995). The desire for new information from external sources. *Proceedings of the Society for Consumer Psychology*, 17-27.
- Olshavsky, R.W., & Granbois, D. (1979). Consumer decision making - fact or fiction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 6, 93-100.
- Ottevanger, H.J. (2007). *Sport tourism: Factors of influence on sport event visit motivation* (Doctoral dissertation). Bournemouth University, United Kingdom. Johannesburg, South Africa.

- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., & Berry, L.L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *The Journal of Marketing*, 49(4), 41-50.
- Pearce, D.G. (1993). Comparative studies in tourism research. In D.G. Pearce & R.W. Butler (Eds.), *Tourism research: Critiques and challenges* (pp. 20-35). London: Routledge.
- Pedhauzer, E.J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioral research* (3rd ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.
- Pelletier, L.G., Rocchi, M.A., Vallerand, R.J., Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (2013). Validation of the revised sport motivation scale (SMS-II). *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 14, 329-341.
- Perry, M., & Hamm, C.B. (1969). Canonical analysis of relations between socioeconomic risk and personal influence in purchase decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 6, 351-354.
- Peterson, R.A., & Merino, M.C. (2013). Consumer information search behavior and the internet. *Psychology & Marketing*, 20(2), 99-121.
- Pike, S.D. (2002). Destination image analysis – A review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 541-549.
- Pike, S.D. (2008). *Destination marketing: An integrated marketing communication approach*. Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 4, 55-58.

- Prayag, G., & Grivel, E. (2014). Motivation, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: Segmenting youth participants at the Interamnia World Cup 2012. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 23, 148-160.
- Priestley, G. (1995). Sports tourism: The case of golf. In G. J. Ashworth & A. G. J. Dietvorst (Eds.), *Tourism and spatial transformations: Implications for policy and planning* (pp. 205–223). Wallingford, UK: CAB International.
- Proshansky, H. M., Fabian, A. K., & Kaminoff, R. (1983). Place-identity: Physical world socialization of the self. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 3, 57-83.
- Rapp, S., & Collins, T. (1990). *The great marketing turnaround: The age of the individual and how to profit from it*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Redmond, G. (1991). Changing styles of sports tourism: Industry/consumer interactions in Canada, the USA, and Europe. In M.T. Sinclair & M.J. Stabler (Eds.), *The Tourism industry: An international analysis* (pp. 107-120). Wallingford, UK: CAB International.
- Richards, G. (1996). Skilled consumption and UK ski holidays. *Tourism Management*, 17, 25-34.
- Rinaldi, G. (2011). Sport tourism: An exploration of the motivations and tourism experiences of Australian Football League interstate sport tourism traveling to western Australia (Thesis Paper). Editch Cowan University, Australia.
- Ritchie, B. J. R. (1996). Beacons of light in an expanding universe: An assessment of the state-of-the art in tourism marketing research. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 5(4), 49-84.

- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Smith, B. (1991). The impact of a mega-event on host region awareness: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research, 30*(1), 3–10.
- Ritchie, B., Mosedale, L., & King, J. (2002). Profiling sport tourists: The case of super 12 Rugby Union in the Australian Capital Territory, Australia. *Current Issues in Tourism, 5*(1), 33-44.
- Roberts, G. C. (2001). Understanding the dynamics of motivation in physical activity: The influence of achievement goals on motivational process. In G. C. Roberts (Ed.), *Advances in motivation in sport and exercise* (pp.1-50). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Roche, M. (1994). Mega-events and urban policy. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(1), 1-19.
- Rohan, M. J. (2000). A rose by any name? The values construct. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 4*, 255–277.
- Rohm, A. J., Milne, G. R., & McDonald, M.A. (2006). Mixed-method approach for developing markets segmentation on typologies in the sports industry. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 15*, 29-39
- Ryan, C. & Glendon, I. (1998). Application of leisure motivation scale to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 25*(1), 169-184.
- Sands, M. (2003) Integrating the web and E-mail into a push-pull Strategy. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 6*(1), 27-37.
- Schiefele U. (1999). Interest and learning from text. *Sci. Stud. Read, 3*, 257–258.
- Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (2001). *Consumer behavior*, (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Schmidt, J. B., & Spreng, R. A. (1996). A proposed model of external consumer information search. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 24, 246-256.
- Schneider K. (2001). Intrinsisch (autotelisch) motiviertes Verhalten dargestellt an den Beispielen des Neugierverhaltens sowie verwandter Verhaltenssysteme (Spielen und leistungsmotiviertes Handeln). In H. Heckhausen & J. Kuhl (Eds.), *Motivation, Volition, Handlung*. Gottingen: Hogrefe.
- Schneider, T. (2009). Shifting the paradigm. *Sports Travel*, 3, 4. Los Angeles, CA: Schneider Publishing.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schunk, D. H. (1990). Goal setting and self-efficacy during self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychology*, 25, 71-86.
- Schul, P., & Crompton, J. (1983). Search behavior of international vacationers: Travel-specific lifestyle and sociodemographic variables. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22(2), 24-30.
- Seabra, C., Abrantes, J. L., & Lages, L. F. (2004). The infosource scale: A measure to assess the Importance of External Tourism Information Sources. *Journal of Business Research*, 42(4), 357-371.
- Seabra, C., Abrantes, J. L., & Lages, L. F. (2007). The impact of using non-media information sources on future use of mass media information sources: The media role of expectations fulfillment. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1541-1554.
- Shank, M. (2002). *Sports marketing: A strategic perspective*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

- Shipway, R., & Jones, I. (2007). Running away from home: Understanding visitor experiences in sport tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9, 373-383.
- Shoham, A., Rose, G. M., & Kahle, L. R. (1998). Marketing of risky sports: From intention to action. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(4), 307-321.
- Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism Management*, 26(6), 815–832.
- Sloan, L. R. (1979). The function and impact of sports for fans : A review of theory and contemporary research. In J. H. Goldstein (Ed.), *Sports, games, and play: Social and psychological viewpoints* (pp. 219-262). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sloan, L. R. (1985). The motives of sports fans. In Goldstein, J.H. (2nd Ed.), *Sports, Games, and Play: Social and Psychological viewpoints* (pp. 175-240). Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Snepenger, D., Meged, K., Snelling, L., & Worrall, K. (1990). Information search strategies by destination-naïve tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29, 13-16.
- Sonderlund, A., O'Brien, K., Kremer, P., Rowland, B., De Groot, F., Staiger, P., Zinkiewicz, L., & Miller, P.G. (2014). The association between sport participation, alcohol use and aggression and violence: A systematic review. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 17(1), 2-7.

- Spence, H. E., & Engel, J. F. (1970). The impact of brand preference on the perception of brand names: A laboratory analysis. In P. McDonald (Ed.), *Marketing involvement society and the economy* (pp. 267-271). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Spotts, D. M. (1997). Regional analysis of tourism resources for marketing purposes. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35, 3-15
- Spreng, R. A., & Olshavsky, R. A. (1989). Exploring the headwaters of the prior knowledge - search relationship. In *Enhancing knowledge development in marketing* (pp. 220-224). Educators' Proceedings, Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Srinivasan, N. (1990). Pre-purchase external search for information. In V. Zeithaml (Ed.), *Review of marketing* (pp. 153-189). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Standage, M., Duda, J. L., & Ntoumanis, N. (2003). A test of self-determination theory in school of physical education. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 411-433.
- Standeven, J., & De Knop, P. (1999). *Sport tourism*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Stewart, S. (2013). America's most-visited resorts. *Travel and Leisure*. Retrieved from <http://www.travelandleisure.com/articles/americas-most-visited-ski-resorts?xid=HD011513AmericasMostVisited>
- Stewart, B., Smith, A. C. T., & Nicholson M. (2003). Sport consumer typologies: A critical review. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12, 206-21.

- Stigler, G. J. (1961). The economics of information. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 69, 213-225.
- Strutton, H. D., & Pelton, L. E. (1992). The influence of older consumers' information search strategies on their use of health care innovations. *Health Marketing Quarterly*, 9(3/4), 67-84.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer Behaviour in Tourism*. Leeds, West Yorkshire: Human Kinetics.
- Teodorescu, N., Stancioiu, A, Botos, A., Arsene, O., & Ditoiu, C. (2012). Means of assessing a sport tourism destination's competitive advantage sources. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, 12(4), 498-506.
- Terry, P. C., & Jackson, J. J. (1985). The determinants and control of violence in sport. *Quest*, 37, 27-37.
- Tok, S. (2011). The big five personality traits and risky sport participation. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 39(8), 1105-1112.
- Tonks, D. G. (2009). Validity and the design of market segments. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25(3/4), 341-356.
- Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24, 108-127.
- Trimpop, R. M. (1994). *The psychology of risk taking behaviour*. Netherlands: Elsevier Science.
- Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 38(1), 1-10.

- Urbany, J., & Weilbacker, D. (1987). A critical examination of Nelson's theory of information and consumer behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16, 208-215.
- U.S. News Travel. (2014). Best ski destinations. Retrieved from http://travel.usnews.com/Rankings/Best_Ski_Destinations/
- Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21, 844-846.
- Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., Senécal, C. B., & Vallières, E. F. (1993). On the assessment of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education: Evidence on the concurrent and construct validity of the Academic Motivation Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 159-172.
- Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., Blais, M. R., Brière, N. M., Senécal, C. B., & Vallières, E. F. (1992). The Academic Motivation Scale : A measure of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52, 1003-1017.
- Vail Valley Foundation. (2014). About the GoPro Mountain Games. Retrieved from <http://www.mountaingames.com/summer/about/about/about-the-summer-mountain-games.aspx>
- Vail Valley Partnership. (2014). Visit Vail Valley. Retrieved from <http://www.visitvailvalley.com/general.asp?id=17>

- Vander Stoep, G. A. (2005). Challenges of using estimations of economic impacts for cultural tourism. In Bricker, K., (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 2004 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium* (pp. 109-117). Newtown Square, PA: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northeastern Research Station.
- VanderStroep, S. W. & Johnson, D. D. (2010). *Research methods for everyday life: Blending qualitative and quantitative approaches*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Veal, A. J. (2002) *Leisure and Tourism, Policy and Planning*. Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing.
- Venkatraman, M. P. (1989). Involvement and risk. *Psychology and Marketing*, 6, 229-247.
- Veloz, L. (n.d.). Adventure sports tourism. *USA Today*. Retrieved from <http://traveltips.usatoday.com/adventure-sports-tourism-13864.html>
- Veltri, F. R., Miller, J. J., & Harris, A. (2009). Club sport national tournament: Economic impact of a small event on a mid-size community. *Recreational Sports Journal* 33, 119-128.
- Verma, J. P. (2013). Cluster analysis: For segmenting the population. In *Data analysis in management with SPSS software* (pp. 317-412). New Delhi: Springer.
- Vogt, C. A., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1998). Expanding the functional information search model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), 551–578.
- Wahab, S., Crompton, L. J., & Rothfield, L. M. (1976). *Tourism Marketing*. London: Tourism International Press.
- Walker, C. (1995). Word-of-mouth. *American Demographics*, 17(7), 38-44.

- Wann, D. L. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 19*, 377-396.
- Weed, M. E. (2006). Sports tourism research 2000–2004: a systematic review of knowledge and a meta-evaluation of method. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 11*(1), 5–30.
- Weed, M., & Bull, C. (2004). *Sports tourism: Participants, policy and providers*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Weed, M., & Bull, C. (2009). *Sport tourism: Participants, policies & providers* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Weiss, M. R. (1993). Psychological effects of intensive sport participation on children and youth: Self-esteem and motivation. In B.R. Cahill & A.J. Pearl (Eds.), *Intensive participation in children's sport* (pp. 39-69). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Weissinger, E., & Bandalos, D. (1995). Development, reliability and validity of a scale to measure intrinsic motivation in leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research, 27*(4), 379-400.
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review, 49*, 250-256.
- Wigfield A., & Eccles J. 1992. The development of achievement task values: a theoretical analysis. *Development Review, 12*, 265–310.
- Wilkie, W. L. (1994). *Consumer Behavior*. (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc.

- Williams, G. C., Grow, V. M., Freedman, Z. R., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (1996). Motivational predictors of weight loss and weight-loss maintenance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 115-126.
- Williams, D. R., Patterson, M. E., Roggenbuck, J. W., & Watson, A. E. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: Examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. *Leisure Sciences*, *14*, 29-46.
- Williams, D. R., & Roggenbuck, J. W. (1989). Measuring place attachment: Some preliminary results. In L. H. McAvoy & D. Howard (eds.), *Abstracts: 1989 Leisure Research Symposium* (p. 32). Arlington, VA: National Recreation and Park Association.
- Xiang, Z., & Gretzel, U. (2010). Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management*, *31*, 179-188.
- Young, R. F. (1981). The advertising of consumer services and the hierarchy of effects. In J. H. Donnelly & W.R. George (Eds.), *Marketing of services* (pp. 196-199). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Yuan, S. & McDonald, C. (1990). Motivational determinates of international pleasure time. *Journal of Travel Research*, *24*(1), 42-44.
- Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F. and Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management*, *31*, 274-284.
- Zeithaml, V. A. (1981). How consumer evaluation processes differ between goods and services. In J. H. Donnelly & W. R. George (Eds.), *Marketing of services* (pp. 186-190). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (April), 31-46.

Zuckerman, M. (1984). Sensation seeking: a comparative approach to a human trait. *Behaviour and Brain Science*, 7, 413-434.

Zuckerman, M. (1992). What is a basic factor and which factors are basic? Turtles all the way down. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13, 675-681.

APPENDIX A

PARTICIPATION MOTIVATION SCALES

APPENDIX A

Participation Motivation Scales

	Motivations of Sport Consumers ¹	List of Values Theory ²	Participation Motivation Questionnaire ³	Leisure Motivation Scale ⁴	Sport Motivation Scale – II ⁵
Self Esteem	√ (3)	√ (1)			√ (3)
Achievement/Accomplishment	√ (3)	√ (1)	√ (2)	√ (2)	
Aesthetics	√ (3)				
Affiliation/Sense of Belonging	√ (3)	√ (1)			
Aggression	√ (3)				
Amotivation					√ (3)
Competition	√ (3)		√ (3)		
Excitement, Drama, Eustress		√ (1)	√ (2)	√ (1)	
Friends (Bond with)			√ (2)		
Fun and Enjoyment		√ (1)	√ (1)		
Knowledge				√ (4)	√ (3)
Identity				√ (1)	√ (3)
Physical Fitness	√ (3)		√ (3)		
Risk Taking / Sensation Stimulation	√ (3)			√ (2)	
Sense of Security		√ (1)			
Self Actualization/ Fulfillment	√ (3)	√ (1)	√ (2)	√ (4)	
Self Respect		√ (1)	√ (1)		
Skill Mastery	√ (3)		√ (3)	√ (2)	
Social Facilitation	√ (3)		√ (3)		
Social Pressures			√ (1)		
Stress Reduction	√ (3)		√ (2)	√ (1)	
Value Development	√ (3)			√ (3)	√ (3)
Escape			√ (3)		
Prestige/Recognition					√ (3)
Warm Relationships		√ (1)			

Note: Parentheses indicate the number of items used to measure the construct

1 McDonald, Milne, & Hong (2002)

2 Homer & Kahle (1988)

3 Gill, Gross, & Huddleston (1983)

4 Beard & Ragheb (1983)

5 Pelletier, Rochi, Vallerand, Deci, & Ryan (2013)

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX B

Survey Instrument

UNIVERSITY of NORTHERN COLORADO



CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Project Title: An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourist Behavior

Researchers: Eric Hungenberg, 970-381-4336, eric.hungenberg@unco.edu

Research Advisor: Dr. Dianna Gray, 970-351-1725, dianna.gray@unco.edu

Purpose and Description: The purpose of this study is to identify an athlete's motives for traveling to a destination to compete in an organized sport event. This will require you to answer questions relating to sport, travel, and social motives. This study also seeks to better understand participants' consumer loyalty and means for acquiring event information (e.g., website, social media, friends/family). Findings will be reported to the event organization (Vail Valley Foundation) so that they may develop a marketing mix that will cater to distinct consumer segments. Information is also a part of a dissertation paper that may be published in an academic journal in the future.

There are no foreseeable risks to participants. The survey should take no more than 15 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary and by finishing the survey, your email address will be entered into a raffle with a chance to win a complimentary GoPro camera. The GoPro camera will be provided by the Vail Valley Foundation. No one at UNC will know the identity of the individual who receives the GoPro camera.

You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Survey data and raffle data will be separated and stored in a secured office, accessible only by the research parties identified above. Email addresses will be removed from the survey questionnaire and used for the sole purpose of the raffle and will be disposed of immediately following the raffle. All data will be destroyed three years after the end of the data collection (including signed consent forms).

Having read the above and having had an opportunity to ask any questions, please complete the questionnaire if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you acknowledge that you are a minimum of 18 years of age and agree to give us permission for your participation. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado Greeley, CO 80639; 970-351-2161.

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Researcher

Date

Pay attention to radio ads about the event (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
View previous video footage of the event's competitions (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rely on past personal experience with the event (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ask the opinion of an athlete who has previously competed in the event (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Think about my previous involvement with this event (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Try to recall relevant events which I can associate with the Mountain Games (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Read available information such as printed brochures, pamphlets, or other information provided by the event organizer (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seek opinions from like athletes (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speak directly with event staff about the event (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Thank you for your participation. The final few questions request basic information about yourself and travel plans

Age: _____

Sex

- Male (1)
 Female (2)

I traveled more than 50 miles to compete in this event (Yes / No)

- Yes (1)
 No (2)

How many nights will you be staying in Vail or a nearby location? _____

Athletic Status

- Amateur (1)
 Professional (2)

Household Income

- \$25-50,000 (1)
 \$51-100,000 (2)
 \$101-150,000 (3)
 Greater than \$150,000 (4)

How many times have you participated in the Mountain Games? _____

If you would like to be entered in a raffle to win a GoPro camera compliments of the Vail Valley Foundation and GoPro, Inc. please provide a valid email address below

Email: _____

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER

APPENDIX CUNIVERSITY of
NORTHERN COLORADO*Institutional Review Board Approval Letter*

DATE: May 7, 2014

TO: Eric Hungenberg

FROM: University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB

PROJECT TITLE: An Examination of Motives Underlying Active Sport Tourism
Behavior: A Market Segmentation Approach

SUBMISSION TYPE: Amendment/Modification

ACTION: APPROVAL/VERIFICATION OF EXEMPT STATUS

DECISION DATE: May 7, 2014

Thank you for your submission of Amendment/Modification materials for this project. The University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB approves this project and verifies its status as EXEMPT according to federal IRB regulations.

Eric -

Hello and thank you for making all of the requested modifications so swiftly and completely.

There are no further requests for revisions. Please be sure to use all the revised materials (scripts, consent form) in your participant recruitment and data collection.

Best wishes with your research. Don't hesitate to contact me with any IRB-related questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Dr. Megan Stellino, UNC IRB Co-Chair

We will retain a copy of this correspondence within our records for a duration of 4 years.

If you have any questions, please contact Sherry May at 970-351-1910 or Sherry.May@unco.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB's records.