



**Individuals' Motivation to Participate in Sport Tourism:
A Self-Determination Theory Perspective**

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Abstract

Using self-determination theory (SDT) as a conceptual framework, we utilized previous research to develop a conceptual model to better understand individuals' motivation to participate in sport tourism and events. The model represents the six propositions we put forward that depict the relationships between motivational factors associated with sport tourism and event participation and individuals' controlled or autonomous motivation. Specifically, organizational motivations are proposed to enhance controlled motivation, while destination/environmental motivations and group/social identity motivations are proposed to increase both controlled and autonomous motivation. Finally, competition, emotional, and learning motivations are proposed to enhance autonomous motivation. Uses of the model and future directions are presented in the discussion.

Keywords: sport tourism participation, motivational factors, self-determination theory

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Introduction

Gibson (2004) suggests we, as sport tourism scholars, need to “embark on work that is both theoretically grounded in longitudinal, or is based on work that already exists so that we can get some progression in the knowledge base” (p. 248). She goes on to state that we need to use theories from parent disciplines of sociology or social psychology to further develop our own understanding of sport tourism. One area that has centered on creating definitions, typologies, and descriptive information is individuals' motivation to participate in sport tourism and events (Weed, 2009).

Hemmatinezhad, Kalar, and Nia (2010) argued that understanding why individuals participate in sport tourism, is a necessary first step to develop a theoretical understanding of how to capitalize on the growth of the sport tourism industry (also see Hinch & Higham, 2011). Sport tourist motivations are a function of a sport tourist perceived needs and become the drivers through the decision-making process, which ultimately lead to purchase or participation intentions (Collier, 1999). These motivational forces engender as intrinsic and extrinsic forces (Dann, 1981), which may be impacted by the reason for travel, level of competition, among other traveler characteristics and event types (Robinson & Gammon, 2004). What is currently missing from this line of research is a strong theoretical foundation, which could provide an explanation of the various motivations (Gibson, 2004; Weed, 2006, 2009).

Self-determination theory (SDT) may provide a theoretical foundation for understanding individuals' motivations to participate in sport tourism and events, and fill this gap in the literature. Developed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), SDT provides a unique framework for understanding the numerous motives individuals possess when deciding to participate in physical activities (Garcia-Mas et al., 2010), or in this case of this manuscript, sport tourism and events. For instance, Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) argued intrinsically motivated individuals engage in activities for pleasure and satisfaction from their participation, while extrinsically motivated individuals engage in an activity for external rewards or forces. It is the different degrees and levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which lead to what they defined as autonomous or controlled

motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). These latter two constructs will be at the center of this manuscript.

Therefore, the purpose of this manuscript is to develop a conceptual model to help explain individuals' motivation to participate in sport tourism and events. To accomplish this, we outline sources for motivation to participate in sport tourism and events, and link those to the main constructs of SDT. Specifically, we utilized previous research to help explain individuals' motivation to actively engage in sport tourism and events. It is important to note, this manuscript will concentrate on the active sport tourist, defined as "individuals who pursue physical involvement in a competitive or non-competitive sports while traveling" (Hinch & Higham, 2011, p. 42), rather than sport spectators who have received considerable attention in the literature (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2010). This market, active participants, is important to understand as it has been characterized as physically active, college educated, relatively affluent, and 18-44 years old (Delpy, 1998; Gibson, 1998), and thus yield significant buying power. The development of this model will provide researchers and practitioners with a framework to better understand sport tourism and event participants' behavior and feasibly impact marketing and design strategies.

Literature Review

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

SDT is a macro theory of human motivation that addresses fundamental issues related to an individual's "personal development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, non conscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and the impact of social environments on motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 2008b, p. 182). Under SDT, three basic needs are considered the driving force behind an individual's motivation: (a) autonomy, people feel a sense of choice and endorsement of an activity (b) competence, people feel efficacious or self-confident about an activity, and (c) relatedness, the need to experience social interactions or the desire to feel connected with others (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Further, Deci and Ryan (2008b) stated that "the most central distinction between SDT is between autonomous and controlled motivation" (p. 182). These two forms of motivation reflect individuals intention to act, while amotivation results when a person sees know value in a certain behavior and has no desire. Given the context of this framework, we will not discuss amotivation in further detail.

Autonomous Motivation. Autonomous motivation occurs when individuals identify with the value in the activity, and integrate that value into their own sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). Individuals in this category experience volition, self-control and/or self-endorsement in their decision to participate in an activity (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). Deci and Ryan (2008a) further outlined that autonomous motivation has been associated with greater persistence, more positive effect, enhanced performance, and greater psychological well-being. Using the previous constructs within SDT, autonomous motivation is comprised of identified regulation and integrated regulation, two forms of extrinsic motivation, as well as intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008b).

Identified Regulation. Identified regulation occurs when individuals begin to identify with the value of the activity and accept responsibility for their behavior (Ryan, Lynch, Vansteenkiste, & Deci, 2011). Thus, individuals in this group feel an increase sense of autonomy for their decisions or actions. This form of motivation is considered a self-dependent action, however, it is important to note, the desired outcome remains as the external reward (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Integrated Regulation. When individuals both identify with the value of the behavior and begin to incorporate it into their life's values and goals they would be driven by integrated regulation (Ryan et al., 2011). This type of regulation involves a person choosing to participate in activity because the importance and value of the activity has been integrated into the person's sense of self (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Integrated regulation is similar to intrinsic motivation in that they both are guided by a sense of volition and choice, and provides individuals with a sense of autonomy in their decision-making processes (Deci & Ryan, 2008b).

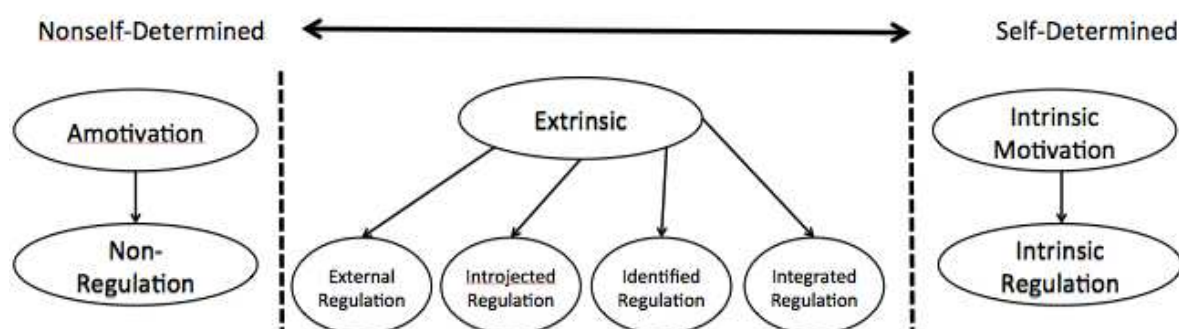
Intrinsic Motivation. Intrinsic motivation develops within an individual and is defined as the interpersonal drive individuals to do things (Ryan & Deci, 2000). An individual's behavior is influenced by internal satisfactions, which include specific feelings, achievements, successes and enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan et al., 2011). Therefore, intrinsic motivation is exemplified when individuals participate in an activity for the enjoyment or stimulation attained from partaking in the activity (Ryan & Deci, 2007). Furthermore, intrinsically motivated behaviors are "those that are freely engaged out of interest without separable consequences, and, to be maintained, they require satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and competence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 233).

Vallerand, Blais, Briere, and Pelletier (1989) posited three types of intrinsic motivation exist within an individual: motivation to accomplish, motivation to know, and motivation to experience stimulation. Motivation to accomplish can be defined as challenging oneself to overcome previous performances or to reach a new height in performance (Vallerand & Lossier, 1999). Individuals who receive pleasure from developing new skills or reaching new levels in the skill competence are driven by the motivation to accomplish (Carbonneau, Vallerand, & Lafrensiere, 2012). Motivation to know is characterized by individuals who participate in an activity because of the pleasure and satisfaction derived from the new experience or knowledge gained from the activity (Carbonneau et al., 2012; Vallerand & Lossier, 1999). The simple act of learning is the driving force behind individuals' motivation to know (Bruner, 1966, Carbonneau et al., 2012). Lastly, individuals who participate in an activity for the pleasant sensations derived from it experience motivation of stimulation (Vallerand & Lossier, 1999). Carbonneau et al. (2012) suggested "experience stimulation is operative when one engages in an activity for the stimulating sensations, excitement, or aesthetic enjoyment associated with it" (p. 1150). Further, they posit motivation of stimulation is related to theories of arousal, and that individuals are driven to reach their optimal level of arousal (Carbonneau et al., 2012).

Controlled Motivation. Controlled motivation occurs when individuals feel compelled to engage in an activity due to external forces, or motivation based on rewards or punishments outside of the individual's control (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). For instance, individuals who are motivated for reasons such as receiving rewards, social approval, or avoiding punishment (Amorose & Horn, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2007) would be functioning under a form of controlled motivation. Moreover, individuals who participate in an activity because of controlled motivation "experience pressure to think, feel, or behave in particular ways" (Deci & Ryan, 2008b, p. 182). Deci and Ryan (2008b) suggested controlled motivation consists of both external regulation and introjected regulation.

External Regulation. First, external regulation is the process of performing a task in order to gain external rewards, social approval or to avoid some form of punishment by appeasing external constituencies (Amorose & Horn, 2001; Lox, Ginnis, Pertruzzello, 2006; Pope & Wilson, 2012, Vallerand & Fortier, 1998). External regulation is simply completing an activity because a person feels obligated to do so, or is associated with the fulfillment of rewards and/or avoidance of punishment.

Figure 1. Conceptual model of Self-Determination Theory developed by Lox, Martin Ginnis, & Pertruzzello (2006).



Introjected Regulation. The second form of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation, which occurs when individuals begins to internalize the reason for their actions (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Ryan (1982) suggested individuals who fall into this category are motivated for socially comparative reasons such as feelings of guilt, anxiety or to enhance their ego. Ryan et al. (2011) suggested introjected regulation might stem from pressuring oneself using internal contingencies (i.e., shame, guilt, pride, self-esteem), and group these motives into the categories of “should” and seeking approval from oneself and others.

Motivations to Participate in Sport Tourism and Events

As previously mentioned, a considerable amount of attention has been devoted to understanding factors individuals evaluate when selecting events or sport tourism destinations. We have distilled the current literature and developed six major themes we will use to tie into the two distinct forms of motivation within SDT: autonomous and controlled. In each section, we begin with a review of the current literature and conclude with the proposed relationships.

Organizational Motivations. When determining which event to participate in, the organizational aspects of events differentiate one event from another. In turn, motivations to participate may engender through the perception of how well the organization is prepared to stage the event, the unique qualities associated with the event, or the reputation the event has in the marketplace. These organizational factors may influence individuals through various methods.

When evaluating the organizational components of an event, it is important to assess the event’s infrastructure and inter-structure in place for non-local residents.

Kurtzman (2005) argued that events should provide amenities and services for tourists, and a plan to market these items to individuals outside the local community. Hallmann, Kaplanidou and Breur (2010) outlined several organizational components events should include in their services (e.g., logistics, security, huge event, baggage pickup, expo, timing and sponsorship) to enhance the event's image. Failure in any one of these services may impact future attendance, as well as word-of-mouth knowledge about the event.

Getz and McConnell (2011) denoted participants preferred events to be well organized, challenging course, scenic route, and a user-friendly website; whereas cost, prizes, or exclusivity of the event were not as important. Ryan and Lockyer (2002) found individuals rated organizational aspects of the event as more important among experienced competitors, and asserted event managers should pay particular attention to signage, competent officiating, punctuality in event start time, and efficiency throughout the entire event. Participants in two different Masters Games reported that event organizations should treat competitors as serious athletes who demand accuracy in timing, measurement, and performance recording (Trauer, Ryan, & Lockyer; 2003).

It is also feasible the event's image may be a larger motivating factor than the destination's image. For instance, Hallman and Breuer (2010) indicated the event's image was rated higher than destination image, and the events' edition (i.e., the number of the times the event has been hosted) was the only macro level organizational variable to impact the event's image. Alternative to their expectations, this latter finding was a negative relationship indicating a potential lack of the event to modernize the event. Xu and Pegg's (2007) bolstered these findings when they found that previous experience or the event's reputation of having a strong standard of competition enhanced the event's image among their participants.

Organizational factors may provide individuals with controlled motivation. As outlined above, the event's image, operational management, or the potential rewards may serve as the source of motivation for individuals to participate in the event. For example, many sport events include medals, trophies, goodie-bags, among others rewards, which could motivate a person to participate in the event. These sources of motivations are consistent with either external regulation (i.e., motivation for gain external rewards or avoid punishment) or introjected regulation (i.e., seeking approval and recognition from others) because individuals who are motivated by these factors are focused on items external to their control. Thus, we put forward the following proposition:

Proposition 1: Organizational factors (e.g., image, reputation, operational management and rewards) enhance individuals' controlled motivation.

Environmental/ Destination Motivation. The second motivational factor is the local community or host city of the event that we have defined as environment and destination. While the two could be discussed and evaluated separately, previous research has commonly placed the two constructs into the same overarching theme. For instance, Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) defined environmental motivations as scenery, new places, experiencing new culture, the best location in the area and other factors directly related with the host destination including entertainment. Bourdeau, Corneloup, and Mao (2002) stated that “the location of sites and itineraries thus depend on the diverse natural conditions which do not readily lend themselves to the satisfaction (accessibility), demographic or economic needs” (p. 23). Moreover, a destination’s attractiveness may enhance individuals’ motivation to travel to a destination (Yoon & Usysal, 2005), and Snelgrove and Wood (2010) asserted the same could be applied to events.

Shonk and Chelladurai (2008) outlined various factors of service quality spectators may use in the evaluation of an event. This information may also serve as motivations to participate in an event. For instance, accessibility, the ease of an individual to reach the location through standard transportation (Getz, 1997), is further broken down into three components: destination, venue, and accommodations. Accessibility has been found to be important among rock climbers (Bourdeau et al., 2002), as well as spectators at the Lillehammer Olympic Games (Teigland, 1999). Attarian (2002) reported rock climbers are motivated by the physical and mental requirements of the route, the outdoor setting, and the remoteness of the site provided by the destination.

The other two components of accessibility have also demonstrated significance in the literature. Hinch and Higham (2004) reported that individuals factor in the transportation routes to the venue itself when making a decision about traveling to a destination. For instance, with the growing popularity of rock climbing, more recreational facilities are providing an indoor rock-climbing wall. The increased accessibility was reported by many of the individuals who utilized the synthetic alternative as a reason for participating in the sport (Mittelstaedt, 1997). Finally, the accommodations and entertainment options may also impact individuals’ motivation to travel to the destination

(Bernthal & Sawyer, 2004; Shonk & Chelladurai, 2008). Accommodation and entertainment quality comprised of perceived value, friendly community and the physical environment may also affect motivation levels to participate in a sport event (Shonk & Chelladurai, 2008).

Hallman and colleague's (2010) found that "destination" was commonly give as a response to the question "name three words that sprang to mind when they thought of the sport event" (p. 21). The responses in this category bolster the notion that using the components of service quality may provide greater insight into destination/environmental motivations. For instance, participants included words such as accommodations, central station, airport, and major city to support the destination as a motivating factor (Hallman et al., 2010). Moreover, participants included words such as river, green, fresh air, trees, hilly, countryside, and scenery further supporting the environment as a potential motivator.

Urry (2002) found marathoners have a desire to collect places, and that some marathons have even become known as 'The Big Five': Berlin, Boston, Chicago, London, and New York. These marathons then become destination of choice compared to other marathon events that may possess alternative motivators. The notion of traveling to an elite event or 'destination mecca' is also supported in the rock climbing literature (Kulczycki, 2011).

It is worth noting, some researchers have suggested that the destination and environment were not as strong motivators as other motivational factors. For instance, Snelgrove and Wood (2010) found evidence to suggest that destination motivations may be limited to first-time visitors, while repeat visitors may be motivated by various other factors. This is further supported by several other research studies that have demonstrated novelty plays an important role in sport tourism choices (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010; Lee & Crompton, 1992; Wahlers & Etzel, 1985). Walker, Hinch, and Higham's (2010) reported that some participants had a moderate place motivation while others did not indicate the same further supporting the mixed results of destination as a source of motivation.

In developing the model, environmental and destination factors are predicted to influence individuals through both controlled and autonomous motivation. First, a destination may be considered accessible to the participants, and rather than selecting an event further away, they choose the local or more accessible option. This form of decision-making would be consistent with controlled motivation as the decision is largely

based on external factors outside of their control. Secondly, an event considered elite in the sport type might be an individuals' sole drive for their participation. For instance, outlined earlier was the notion marathoners like to collect places and some events are considered must haves (i.e., the "Big Five"), and the appeal of these events is simply the status gained from completing them.

Proposition 2a: The accessibility of the destination may increase individuals' controlled motivation.

Proposition 2b: The reward gained from collecting a destination may enhance individuals' controlled motivation.

In addition to controlled motivation, the destination and environment may provide individuals with characteristics to increase their level of autonomous motivation. For example, the topography of the location or the challenge created by the destination may provide individuals with a source of motivation. In support of this assertion, Richards (1996) found that skiers are drawn to the technical difficulty of the various courses the topography of the destination provides. Roehl, Ditton, Holland, and Perdue (1993) and Tabata (1992) found similar results among those who participate in sport fishing and scuba diving respectively. Both studies indicated that individuals selected their destination of choice based on the quality of the sporting experience provided by the destination. Furthermore, Shipway and Jones' (2007) found the topography of the course and the challenges provided by the location were significant motivating factors to participate in marathons. Hemmatinezad and colleagues' (2010) participants expressed great importance in the host destination, the entertainment offered, and the chance to compete in a new environment. Therefore, the motivation to select events with this rationale is consistent with autonomous motivation as the choice is dependent on the opportunity for individuals to further challenge themselves.

Proposition 2c: The challenge provided by the destination may enhance individuals' autonomous motivation.

Social/ Group Identity Motivation. Social identities provide individuals with a sense of belongingness or membership to a wider social group, a place within that environment, and the subsequent opportunity to use membership of that group (Green & Jones, 2005). Traditional social identities have been gained through ascribed groups

such as gender, race, religion and work. However, as sport, leisure, and tourism become more important to individuals, these contexts will subsequently form stronger, more valued social identities for those individuals (Green & Jones, 2005).

Cassidy and Pegg (2008) support social identity as a potential source of motivation. According to their study of the Australian University Games, the primary motivation for attendance was to “go with friends.” They found that 29% of respondents in the study reported socializing and spending time with friends was a critical factor in their decision to participate in the event. Furthermore, their findings support the notion that a cohesive and purposeful social program as a component of the wider sporting activities, are a critical factor for the successful staging of sport events (Cassidy & Pegg, 2008).

According to Bouchet, Lebrun, and Auvengre (2004), the majority of participants in large sporting events engage in their sport together rather than against someone with the intention of helping each other and of sharing an intense and unique moment. Moreover, Bouchet et al. (2004) suggested that sport tourism is the opportunity to form lasting relationships with other tourists and residents during the activity or beyond the stay. Ko, Park, and Claussen (2008) established evidence to support the need for socialization opportunities when they found that participants were highly motivated by the social aspects of sport. Moreover, Ko et al. (2008) posited that event managers should create a risky and fun environment where the participants can socialize with other participants rather than focusing too much on the competition itself.

Green and Jones (2005) suggested sport tourism engenders a positive social identity for individuals who choose to participate in events associated with their identity. Building on this, Shipway and Jones (2007) found marathon runners wore clothing and other running paraphernalia as designators that they are part of the runners' culture. Additionally, they discovered runners utilized story telling about past events to further entrench themselves into the runners' culture. Similarly, repeat visitors in a Canadian cycling event were more likely to be motivated by a strong cycling identity, and the level of their identification significantly predicted participation in the event (Snelgrove & Wood, 2010).

Sport tourism organizations and events may be able to encourage participation from individuals through the socialization opportunities. By highlighting the social opportunities involved, organizations may engender a form of autonomous motivation through integrated regulation. Ryan et al. (2011) suggested that integrated regulation

occurs when individuals both identify with the value of the behavior and they begin to incorporate the behavior into their life's values and goals. Therefore, organizations that use socialization opportunities may create a pull effect on individuals who want to be a part of a sporting culture.

Proposition 3a. An organization that concentrates on creating social opportunities for its participants may enhance autonomous motivation.

Another aspect of social motivation is affiliation; the need to feel part of a group has a large impact on motivations to become a sport tourist (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). When becoming a sport tourist, individuals join a group of people who they otherwise would not have known, and form strong social bonds with the group (Bouchet et al., 2004). Similarly, participants in small-scale sport events reported spending time with friends and family is a major component for their participation (Carmichael & Murphy, 1996). According to Ryan et al. (2011), the opportunity to engage in an activity to enhance one's affiliation with others would be considered autonomous motivation. The activity has become internalized and important to ones' sense of self, and therefore, the individuals would be driven to engage in the activity through either identified or integrated regulation.

Proposition 3b: The ability to participate with friends or family may enhance individuals' autonomous motivation.

Competition Motivation. The competition motive can be described as the desire to enter into a rivalry in order to determine ones' ability in relation to another (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002), and is linked to individuals' ability to challenge themselves through the participation in the event. Challenging oneself may occur when individuals select an event based on the competition level provided by the event. For instance, Cassidy and Pegg (2008) found 14.5% of respondents said their main reason for attendance was to compete against other athletes. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) also gave reference to the importance of physical competition when they reported sport tourists' intentions to travel will rise if they know they can compete against other athletes and increase their fitness levels.

In Getz and McConnell's (2011) investigation, participants suggested that "challenging myself" as one of the predominant motivating factors, followed closely by improving their athletic ability. Bolstering these findings, Gillet and Kelly (2006) reported that participants were drawn to the event because of the "sporting challenge" (p. 248) the event offered. Moreover, these participants indicated they participated in the events to compete against unknown competition, and winning the gold. While winning the gold may be considered an extrinsic reward within the SDT framework, numerous participants stated that winning the gold created a sense of accomplishment. And in doing so, they were able to establish how good they were in their division, which was the main motivating factor rather than the actual medal (Gillet & Kelly, 2006). Lastly, Ogles and Master's (2003) found personal and self-esteem motivations were paramount to other motivations (e.g., social) for marathon runners.

Competition motivation is the impetus for several changes in the event and sport tourism industries. For instance, Richards (1996) outlined how the enhancement of championship golf courses, black diamond ski slopes and tournament quality tennis courts provide individuals with the chance to test their skills at the same level as the professional idols. Additionally, golfers may select courses based on the level of challenge, and the ability to test their skills (Humphreys, 2011). Gibson (1998) developed a profile of active sport tourists and further outlined the various tourism industry organizations that have altered their amenities to include a sport or physical activity component. In doing so, these organizations have developed new and intriguing opportunities for individuals to challenge themselves while on vacation.

The major forces of the competition motivation may enhance and individuals autonomous motivation through intrinsic motivation. Similar to motivation to accomplish, the competition motivation is a driver to compete to determine how strong an individual is at a certain event. This internal drive to participate in an event is consistent with the intrinsic motivation as individuals are driven by the opportunity to test their own limits and abilities. With this form of intrinsic motivation closely related to autonomous motivation, we predict the competition motivation will enhance an individuals' autonomous motivation.

Proposition 4: The competitive challenge provided by the event may increase individuals' autonomous motivation.

Emotional Motivation. Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) defined the emotional motivation factor as the excitement, enjoyment, and self-fulfillment individuals' gain from participating in sport tourism. The majority of the participants in their study commented on how important it was to have fun while touring, and how their moods rose during and after the actual competition (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2010). Building from the work of Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010), we include escapism, nostalgia and enjoyment as additional components of emotional motivation.

Escapism. Escapism is an intrinsic motivation primarily dealing with sport tourists' emotions, and has long been considered a source of motivation for travel (Crompton, 1979). Escapism involves getting away from the routine and stresses of everyday life, but not necessarily away from people (Yfantidou, Costa, & Michalopoulos, 2008). Most individuals expect to participate in a sport event that will temporarily take them away from reality and allow them to forget about everyday stresses (Gammons, 2004).

Green and Jones (2005) asserted individuals who travel to compete in events do so to escape from their identities associated with the home lives, which could not be accomplished through training or competing in local community events. Stewart (2001) further bolsters this notion when he found individuals travel to support their teams to attain a release from everyday life, search for camaraderie, develop friendships and a sense of belonging and the opportunity to partake in activities they cannot do at home. In Getz and McConnell's (2011) study, participants' need for escapism was a much stronger motivation than the previously discussed social motivations. Additionally, these participants indicated that they found the sport to be quite pleasurable and integral to their lifestyle, as well as that they participated in the event to have fun and for the thrill of it (Getz & McConnell, 2011).

This internal drive to participate in an event for their personal satisfaction, enjoyment, or freedom aligns with autonomous motivation. In seeking events to get away from their daily routine, they are seeking to devoid themselves of items that may be considered a component of controlled motivation (e.g., work). Additionally, the notion that individuals compete in activities for the excitement and pleasure gained from the activity is related to the motivation to experience stimulation a sub-dimension of autonomous motivation. Therefore, escapism may enhance individuals' autonomous motivation.

Proposition 5a: Individuals' autonomous motivation may be enhanced by their desire for escapism.

Nostalgia. Another form of emotional stimulation may come in the form of nostalgia. According to Fairly (2003), sport tourism has the potential to spark feelings of nostalgia, yearning to relive previous life experiences, which bring sport tourist to a different type of reality. Using marketing that incorporates various components to enhance feelings of nostalgia has proven to be effective in marketing campaigns and useful for target segmentation (Fairly, 2003). Sport tourism nostalgia can range from physical places such as museums, stadiums, or halls of fame to actual experiences of participating or watching a sport in which an individual once participated. Another large part of sport tourism nostalgia is identification with a sport (Fairly, 2003). Identified regulation may explain the impact nostalgia has on an individuals' autonomous motivation. For example, individuals who are driven by the history of the location will be the largest motivator for their decision to participate in an event. Primary to this source of motivation is individuals' internalization of the event as part of their identity. This form of internalization is consistent with integrated regulation as their participation adds greater value and reaffirms their sense of self.

Proposition 5b: The nostalgic components of the event may enhance individuals' autonomous motivation.

Enjoyment. Wahlers and Etzel (1985) found that stimulus avoiders tend to choose more structured and culturally enriching vacations, whereas stimulus seekers are more likely to opt for highly novel and adventurous vacations. Similarly, Petrick (2002), using the concept of novelty as conceptualized by Cohen (1972) and Lee and Crompton (1992), found that golf tourists varied by age in terms of types of novelty that motivated them to select a particular type of golf vacation. Younger golfers in their study tended to rate thrill, boredom alleviation and surprise as important motives more so than their older counterparts. Finally, in a study of individuals who participated in an intramural sport program, Cooper, Schute, and Phillips (2012) found that regardless of age, gender, or class rank, students reported they were motivated to participate out of interest in or for the enjoyment that derived from participation. Similar to escapism, enjoyment will

enhance individuals' motivation to experience stimulation, and thus increase their levels of autonomous motivation.

Proposition 5c: The enjoyment provided by the event may enhance individuals' autonomous motivation to participate.

Learning Motivation. The desire to learn about or explore the destination of choice may also enhance individuals' motivation to participate in an event (Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2008). Focused on large international events, Kim and Chalip (2004) found individuals who attended the FIFA World Cup in South Korea did so because they wanted to take the opportunity to learn more about the local culture. Funk and Bruun (2007) effectively argued that international sport tourists are very interested in learning more about the culture of the host country, and this serves as a strong motivating factor to travel to a sport event. Toohey, Taylor, and Lee (2002) found individuals who traveled to the FIFA World Cup in 2002 felt that learning about the culture was an important outcome of traveling to South Korea. Similarly, in a study of the Gold Coast Marathon held in Queensland, Australia, Funk, Toohey, and Bruun (2007) found international participants were motivated to participate in the event to learn more about the Australian culture. The learning component within this construct is directly related to motivation to know, an autonomous motivation. Individuals desire to experience and learn about a new culture or event is the driving force behind this selection process. Therefore, we propose the individuals' desire to learn about a new culture or event would enhance their autonomous motivation.

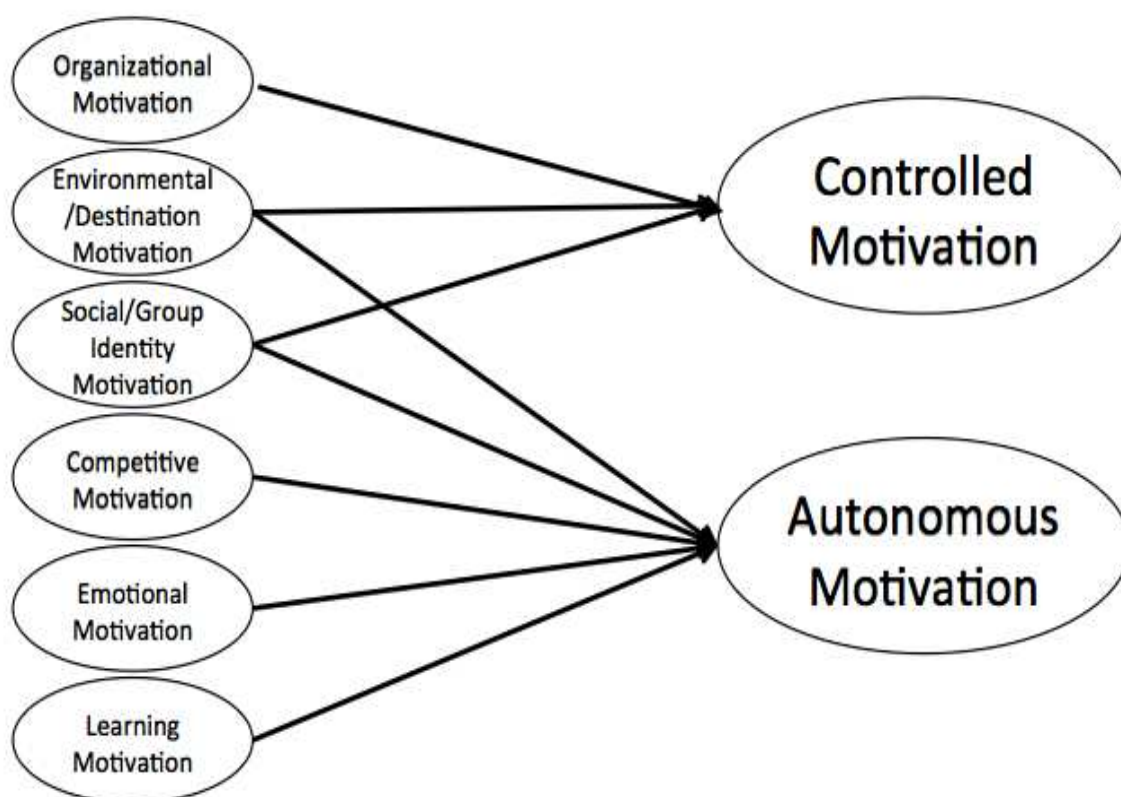
Proposition 6: The ability to learn about a new culture will increase individuals' autonomous motivation.

Discussion

Through an extensive literature review we have proposed how SDT could potentially provide a viable framework for understanding individuals' motivations to participate in sport tourism and events and developed the model presented in Figure 2. Previous literature on motivations to participate has lacked a strong theoretical underpinning and has focused mostly on descriptive research (Weed, 2006, 2009).

Weed further suggested that the literature has concentrated on developing typologies based on participation rates of sport participants rather than a stronger understanding of why individuals are motivated to participate in events. Additionally, in line with Gibson's call (2004) to utilize theoretical frameworks from other disciplines such as psychology and sociology, we utilized SDT as a theoretical foundation to outline several motivating factors and categorized them into the sub-dimensions of autonomous and controlled motivation.

Figure 2. Conceptual model depicting the relationship between motives to participate in sport tourism and events with controlled and autonomous motivation.



Using the propositions outlined above, we developed the conceptual model provided in Figure 2. This model provides a visual representation of the impact the motivational factors associated with sport tourism and event participation may have on either autonomous or controlled motivation. Organizational motives are proposed to affect controlled motivation, but not autonomous motivation. Destination/environmental and social/group identity motives are proposed to impact both an individual's controlled

motivation and autonomous motivation. The last three forms of motivation (competition, emotional and learning) are proposed to impact individuals' autonomous motivation.

This model provides event organizers and host community officials a method to better understand participants' motivation in selecting their events. In doing so, this model could be utilized to identify key point of interest, and assist with the future design and implementation of subsequent events. For example, if an event owner collects data from the participants and identifies a strong association with the event and a specific motive (e.g., socialization opportunity created by an after party) among the majority of the participants, they can utilize the information for their marketing, planning and implementation stages for future events. Furthermore, they can utilize the information garnered from this model to help transition individuals from a controlled motivation state to an autonomous state.

Following the main tenets of SDT, transitioning individuals from controlled to autonomous forms of motivation may assist with the long-term viability of the event. As outlined by Deci and Ryan (2008a), autonomous motivation has been associated with greater persistence, more positive effect, enhanced performance, and greater psychological well being, which in the current context, may provide individuals with a greater motivation to participate in an event. It may also be plausible event managers' ability to transition individuals from controlled to autonomous motivation may enhance repeat visitation and participation. For instance, Hallman and Breur (2010) found that event and destination image, in our model organizational and environmental motivations, predicted future participation in the event. Although not part of their study, it is plausible some respondents may have decided to participate in the different events through controlled motivation, and given the positive emotional experience, competitive challenge or the learning opportunities provided, their motivation may transition to autonomous motivations to participate.

This framework also provides several new avenues for future research. First, empirical data should be collected to test the propositions within the model. This should occur through a multiple contexts, samples, and methods to establish the model's generalizability. Next, the model may serve as a foundation to determine differences between two or more groups within sport tourism and event participation that may assist event organizers and host officials with their decision-making processes. For example, endurance-sporting events attract individuals from the local community and visitors to the community. Using the model to test for differences between the two groups may

allow for better marketing efforts and event design to attract the most from each group. Finally, antecedents and outcomes should be tested along with the model. For example, the model provides a framework that should allow for researchers to identify the form of motivation and the impact the two have on re-visitation or repurchase intentions.

Similar to Robinson and Gammon (2004), our framework is not exhaustive of all the potential sources of motivation, and we agree with their assertion that motivations may alter from event to event or person to person. This assertion does not reduce the viability of SDT as a potential theoretical foundation for understanding individuals' motivations to participate in sport tourism and events. For instance, Vallerand (2001) suggested the two forms of motivation (i.e., autonomous and controlled) should not be viewed as a dichotomy, but rather, the two forms should be considered to fall on a continuum through the various sub-dimensions of motivation. Furthermore, Vallerand (2001) outlines contextual motivations, which he defines as "motivational orientations that are specific to various contexts such as education, leisure and interpersonal relationships" (p. 313). Considering this, it is important to outline the various motivations for each event and take into consideration the impact the context has on motivation.

In conclusion, this framework provides a theoretical model for researchers to develop a stronger understanding of individuals' motivations to participate in sport tourism and events. As mentioned previously, research in this area has largely focused on typologies and frameworks that provide us with description of the sport event participants, but as Weed (2009) posited, the current literature does little to explain why the individual is motivated to participate. Using SDT as a framework, researchers can measure which motivating factors have been internalized by the participants and provide them with the greatest motivational source to participate in the current and future events.

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