
Development of a Conceptual Model in International Sport Tourism: Exploring Pre-and Post- Consumption Factors

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Abstract

The purpose is to develop a model of consumer behavior in international sport tourism that examines both pre-and post-consumption factors in international sport tourism. A secondary purpose is to address international visitation by introducing national culture as an important component of the model. The proposed model suggests that certain cultural characteristics influence an international sport tourist and these cultural characteristics impact both motivation and travel constraints. Motivation also has a direct relationship to travel constraints. Both motivation and travel constraints influence the tourist's image of both the destination and the sporting event. Finally, trip quality leads to satisfaction, which mediates the relationship with intent to return. Discussion follows with application to understanding the purchase decision making process drawn from the literature in sport tourism, consumer behavior, cross cultural studies and information processing theory.

Keywords: consumer behavior, information processing theory, purchase decision, sport tourism

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Introduction

Sport tourism has become a global phenomenon attracting international visitors to destinations all over the world (Greenwell, Danzey-Bussell, & Shonk, 2013). As an academic study, sport tourism has gained increasing attention from scholars despite little attention prior to the mid 1990s (Gibson, 2005). More recently, Weed (2008) compiled the top articles in sport tourism between 2000 and 2006, and “behavior of the sport tourist” garnered the largest number of articles of any topic. Other recent studies have examined consumer behavior in sport tourism (Bouchet, Leburn, & Auvergne, 2004; Funk & Bruun, 2007; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005; Wicker, Hallmann, & Zhang, 2012).

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) suggest that sport tourists make consumer decisions without truly being aware of the subtle or hidden forces shaping or attracting their sport destination selection. Bouchet, et al. (2004) proposed a comprehensive framework for analyzing sport tourism consumption that grew out of the literature in environmental psychology, ethnology and sociology. Kim and Chalip (2004) proposed a conceptual model of event interest and intent to attend a sporting event that included push factors (demographics, fan motives, travel motives), mediating factors (attractions and constraints), and outcomes (attendance motives). While there have been a number of isolated articles within the literature that discuss consumer behavior in sport tourism, there has been no attempt to create a comprehensive framework that explains the reasons why sport tourism consumers make purchase decisions. In particular, we address sport tourists who will travel internationally.

In the United States, the number of sporting events is growing faster than the number of athletes that participate in them (O'Connor, 2013). Miller and Washington (2013) report that annual spending for sports-related travel in the United States totals \$44.5 billion and over 50 million adults attended an organized sports event, competition, or tournament either as a spectator or participant in 2012 while traveling 50 miles from home. Table 1 depicts the increasing attendance and economic impact of active, event, and nostalgia (Gibson, 2005) sport tourists in the United States during 2012.

Active Sport Tourism	Event Sport Tourism	Nostalgia Sport Tourism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active road races: More than 8.1M adults compete each year • Adventure and Obstacle Races: 2012: > 2M participants competed • Golf Travel: 17.3M U.S. travelers between 2012-2013 • Marathons <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ No. of marathons: 400; increase of 29% since 1997 ○ No. of half marathon participants: 590K; increase of 63% since 1997 ○ No. of marathon participants: 410,000; increase of 31% since 1997 • Outdoor Adventure: 73.5M participants in camping, hiking, backpacking, biking, snorkeling or scuba diving and horseback riding • Ski Travel: 11.5 participants: spending a total of \$6B annually • Snowboarding: 8.2M annual participants • Triathlons <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ No. of traditional and off-road participants: 2M 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boston Marathon – EI: \$100M • Honolulu Marathon – EI: \$100M • Indianapolis 500, 500 festival and weekend events – EI: \$340M • Kentucky Derby – EI: > \$400M • Major League Baseball (MLB) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ All-Star Game – EI: \$75M ○ World Series – EI: \$250M • NASCAR <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Daytona 500 – EI: \$240M ○ Brickyard 400 – EI: \$220M • National Basketball Association (NBA) All-Star Game – EI: \$35M; direct spending by fans: \$50M • National Football League (NFL) Super Bowl - EI: \$400 M; direct spending by fans estimated at \$150M • New York City Marathon – EI: \$250M • United States Tennis Association (USTA) US Open – EI: \$750M 	<p>Sport Hall of Fames: There are more than 60 national sport hall of fame and museums along with many other team, local, and state sport museums. Attendance figures for 2012 of most popular below:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Baseball Hall of Fame (Cooperstown, NY): 350K • Hockey Hall of Fame (Toronto, Ontario, Canada): 300K • NASCAR Hall of Fame (Charlotte, NC): 262K • Naismith Memorial Basketball Hall of Fame (Springfield, MA): 200K: Earns \$13M in annual revenue • World Golf Hall of Fame (St. Augustine, FL): 210K • Pro Football Hall of Fame (Canton, OH): 200K: Earns \$8M in annual revenue

Table 1: Summary of participation and estimated economic impact in sport tourism (adapted from Miller & Washington, 2013).

In addition to domestic travel, an increasing number of sport tourists are also traveling outside of their country of residence. While mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup and Olympic Games have traditionally attracted a large number of international visitors, there are an increasing number of less known sporting events that attract foreign travelers. Osman (2013) reported that foreign visitors to Indonesia rose by 7.65% in May 2012 to 700,708 as compared to 650,883 in May 2011. Many of these visitors were from the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Hong Kong, Thailand, China, Philippines, Taiwan, Japan and Saudi Arabia and traveled to Indonesia for events such as the Jakarta Marathon and Bali Marathon. More than 1.2 million international visitors traveled to the UK in 2008 to watch English Premier League soccer matches and these spectators included 88,000 Germans, 75,000 Spaniards, 52,000 Dutch, 267,000 Irish, 95,000 Americans, 86,000 Norwegians, 65,000 Italians, 55,000 Australians, 46,000 French and 39,000 Swedes (Meikle, 2010). Of the 40,000 participants running in the 2009 New York City Marathon, a total of 20,000 were international visitors (Belson & Robbins, 2009).

This influx of international visitors has spurred increasing competition amongst sport tourism operators and should not be overlooked as sport travelers have an increasing number of purchase options to choose from. One way for sport tourism operators to gain competitive advantage and to better market their products is to understand the consumer decision making process of those who travel for sport-related purposes. For example, sport tourists face conflicting choices between which sporting event to attend (e.g., go to the qualifying matches of the FIFA World Cup or attend a match between teams from two different countries like Arsenal and Juventus), active vacation (e.g., ski in Aspen, Colorado or in Andorra in the eastern Pyrenees mountains in Southern Europe), nostalgic vacations (e.g., visit Old Trafford stadium in Manchester, England or visit the Soccer Museum in Sao Paulo, Brazil) or just a destination city (e.g., London versus Madrid).

In an effort to address the current gap in the literature and to explain this process, we purpose to develop a model of consumer behavior in international sport tourism that examines both pre-and post-consumption factors in international sport tourism. Considering that many sport tourism options attract a good number of foreign travelers, a secondary purpose of the paper is to better understand how national culture contributes to this decision making process. For example, communications from sport tourism operators regarding a soccer match may be targeted to two different groups like Japanese and Koreans or Argentineans and Colombians. We draw from the extant literature in consumer behavior concerning the purchase decision making process, consumer choice along with the literature on national culture. Our model also draws from information processing theory.

Review of Literature

Information Processing Theory and Consumer Decision-Making

Information processing theory, as developed by Bettman (1979) is based on information processing that take place within the consumer. Bettman suggests the consumer receives a lot of information from marketers, competitors and the environment. As this information overloads the consumer, it becomes more difficult for an individual to manage. According to Tybout, Calder & Sternthal (1981), information processing theory explains consumer behavior in terms of cognitive operations and behavior is a consequence of not only what people think about but how they think about it. Incoming information is stored in active memory and may stimulate the retrieval of object-relevant thoughts that have been processed earlier. Information processing theory is central to all consumer behavior models and consists of five main stages. These five stages include: a) problem recognition; b) information search; c) evaluation of alternatives; d) purchase decision; and e) post-purchase behavior. According to Sirakaya and Woodside (2005), problem recognition represents a discrepancy between a consumer's desire and his/her perceived state. The consumer unconsciously uses psychological processes such as beliefs, motives and attitudes during the information search, alternative evaluation, selection and post-purchase behavior stages. While most models of consumer decision making suggest consumers make a purchase decision, Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) point out that many purchases do not involve any decision making process. Instead, purchases may occur out of necessity, derived from a culturally mandated lifestyle, reflect preferences acquired in early childhood, result from conformity to group norms, or from imitation of others. Hoyer (1984) suggests that consumers tend to apply very simple choice rules that allow a quick and effortless decision when the product is purchased frequently and the importance of the choice is low. Consumers may also use different types of heuristics and information at different stages of a choice. Consumers who are making a repeat purchase spend little time and effort in the decision making process and are often content with a satisfactory solution rather than making the optimal choice (Thøgersen, Jørgensen, & Sandager, 2012).

Consumer Decision-Making in Sport & Tourism

Within the sport marketing literature, Trail and James (2013) proposed a model of sport consumer behavior that suggests the decision making process is influenced by both internal motivators and external activation. In their model, culture impacts internal motivators (e.g., individual's personality, personal needs, values and goals) and external activators (e.g., awareness, interest and evaluation of the product). They suggest that attitude toward the product is the primary determinant for whether people intend to consume, but there are also external factors that constrain individuals from consuming a product.

Most tourist decisions offer consumers choice situations where outcomes have unknown probabilities due to the intangible and experiential nature of tourism (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005). Because most decisions are influenced by a number of factors, we know that many human decisions are not rational (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998). Most models of consumer behavior in tourism view decision-makers as functional, although some acknowledge the constraints on tourism decisions. Further, most purchases involve high-involvement, extensive decision-making processes due to the high costs involved in those decisions. However, tourists who have prior experience with a service are less involved and normally experience a more cursory information search (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Tourists who have an elaborate vision of their destination are more likely to bypass the evaluative phase of decision making and seek closure on their purchase decision (Walters, Sparks, & Herington, 2012).

Considering both the rising supply and interest in traveling to attend or participate in sport events over the last two decades, it may be argued that sport tourists have a larger offering of events to choose from compared to the past. Thus, the decision-making process becomes more complex as tourists must choose from this variety. At the same time, communication technologies has helped to spread the occurrence of these events worldwide, thus individuals are more aware of what is happening everywhere. Marathon runners have numerous choices and thousands of international visitors run in marathons in New York, Boston and Honolulu. In this respect, understanding consumer choice is also relevant within the context of the purchase decision making process. Much of the existing literature on consumer choice has highlighted the complexity of the choice environment and the imperfect processing capability of the consumer. For example, Hassan, et al. (2013) point out that consumers are uncertain as to both the information available to make their choice and the means for evaluating their decisions when making a decision. Furthermore, consumers are often forced into a dynamic search while under conditions of extreme time pressure and choice overload (Reutskaja, Nagel, Camerer, & Rangel, 2011).

Culture

By its very nature, tourism denotes travel away from one's primary residence and toward a different culture and it is cultural differences that attracts tourists to a destination (Reisinger & Crotts, 2010). Today it is not unusual for a sport tourist to travel outside of their home country, thus experiencing new cultures when attending a sport event, visiting a nostalgic sport monument or actively participating in sport. Culture is defined as the "values, beliefs, norms, and behavioral patterns of a national group" (Leung et al., 2005, p. 357). Culture has also been defined as 'a collective programming or mindset' distinguishing one from another in a group, organization, and country (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Sekaran, 1983).

Hofstede (1980, 2001) is one of the first individuals quantifying differences among national cultures with five different dimensions: Power distance (PD), Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), Individualism/ Collectivism (INDCOL), Masculinity/ Femininity (MASFEM), and Long-Term Orientation.

Conceptualizations of national culture have built off of the work of Hofstede (1980, 1991). [Triandis \(1989\)](#) describes a country's culture as forces that shape individual perceptions, dispositions and behaviors towards integration in nations. These forces include national symbols (e.g., sport teams), a single dominant language, history, educational system, political and legal system, and shared mass media, market and services. Triandis proposed three dimensions of cultural variations: a) individualism-collectivism; b) tightness-looseness; and c) cultural complexity. Triandis made the argument that various aspects of the self are differentially sampled in different cultures, depending upon the complexity, level of individualism, and looseness of the culture. [Schwartz \(1999\)](#) describes three bipolar dimensions of culture: a) Autonomy versus Conservatism; b) Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism; and c) Mastery versus Harmony.

Methodology

Proposed Model

Based on a thorough review of the literature, we propose a model of consumer behavior in international sport tourism. Our model draws from the literature in cross cultural studies, consumer behavior, recreation, tourism and sport tourism, Theory building is not a one-shot attempt, but rather a continuum that serves for further development (Weick, 1998) and requires the researcher(s) to specify specific behavioral manifestations (Chelladurai & Selah, 1980). The proceeding paragraphs will explain these behavioral manifestations and the relationships between variables. Many of these relationships draw from Trail and James (2013) and our model incorporates elements of information processing theory.

The proposed model assumes that a tourist may exhibit one or more of three distinct types of behavior associated with sport tourism: a) active participation; b) watching sporting events; and/or c) reliving nostalgic memories of the past through sport (Gibson, 1998). Second, as noted by Gammon and Robinson (2003), we assume that a tourist may be primarily motivated to travel when the primary purpose is for sport (sport tourism) or where sport is a secondary purpose (tourism sport). Thus, we suggest the decision making process in international sport tourism entails a dynamic process whereby consumers choose to engage in international travel to engage in active, event or nostalgic sport vacations using decision-making criteria relevant to their cultural characteristics, travel constraints and motivations.

A number of variables are included within the model, including culture, motivation, travel constraints and destination and event image. Our model follows Trail and James (2013) who suggest culture impacts internal motivation (i.e., what we label motivation) and external activation (i.e., what we label travel constraints). Certain cultural characteristics have an influence on an international sport tourist and these characteristics are said to impact both motivation and travel constraints. Motivation also has a direct relationship to travel constraints. Both motivation and travel constraints influence the tourist's image of both the destination and the sporting event. Destination image is similar to attitudes as described in James and Trail (2013). Destination and event image mediates the relationship with a consumer's intent to consume, which directly contributes to trip quality. Finally, trip quality leads to satisfaction, which mediates the relationship with intent to return.

As noted by Pfeffer (1982) defining the appropriate level of analysis is important. Culture can act at the three levels of analysis: individual, organizational, and field level (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These levels are permeable and the boundaries are blurry. In the proposed model, all of the factors interact at the individual level with the exception of culture, which occurs at the institutional level. These levels are depicted in Figure 1. In other words, when we say that Americans are individualistic we accept the notion that American society as a whole values individualistic as opposed to collectivistic values. But this is a generalization not a fact. Culture in fact is shaped at both the group and institutional level but is ultimately manifested at the individual level. Thus, not every American will have only individualistic values, but likewise, not every American will have only collectivistic values.

The model draws from information processing theory, thus assuming that a tourist processes through various stages in the decision-making process. These stages include problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post purchase behavior. Each of these stages are depicted in Figure 1. In the problem recognition stage, a sport tourist residing in one culture may recognize the need to travel to another culture. For example, a marathon runner residing in Nigeria travels to the New York City Marathon. Thus, they may be motivated to search for information about the event or sport destination. However, certain constraints may inhibit travel to certain events or destinations. Thus, they may evaluate alternatives prior to making a purchase decision. Finally, they evaluate the quality of the trip. The boundaries for each stage are permeable, thus meaning they may occur earlier or later in our linear model. It also assumes that a sport tourist traveling internationally faces a highly complex decision-making process due to the variety of diverse cultures, multiple motivations, constraints to travel, and images of both the destination and the sporting event. Next, we explain each of the salient variables in the model

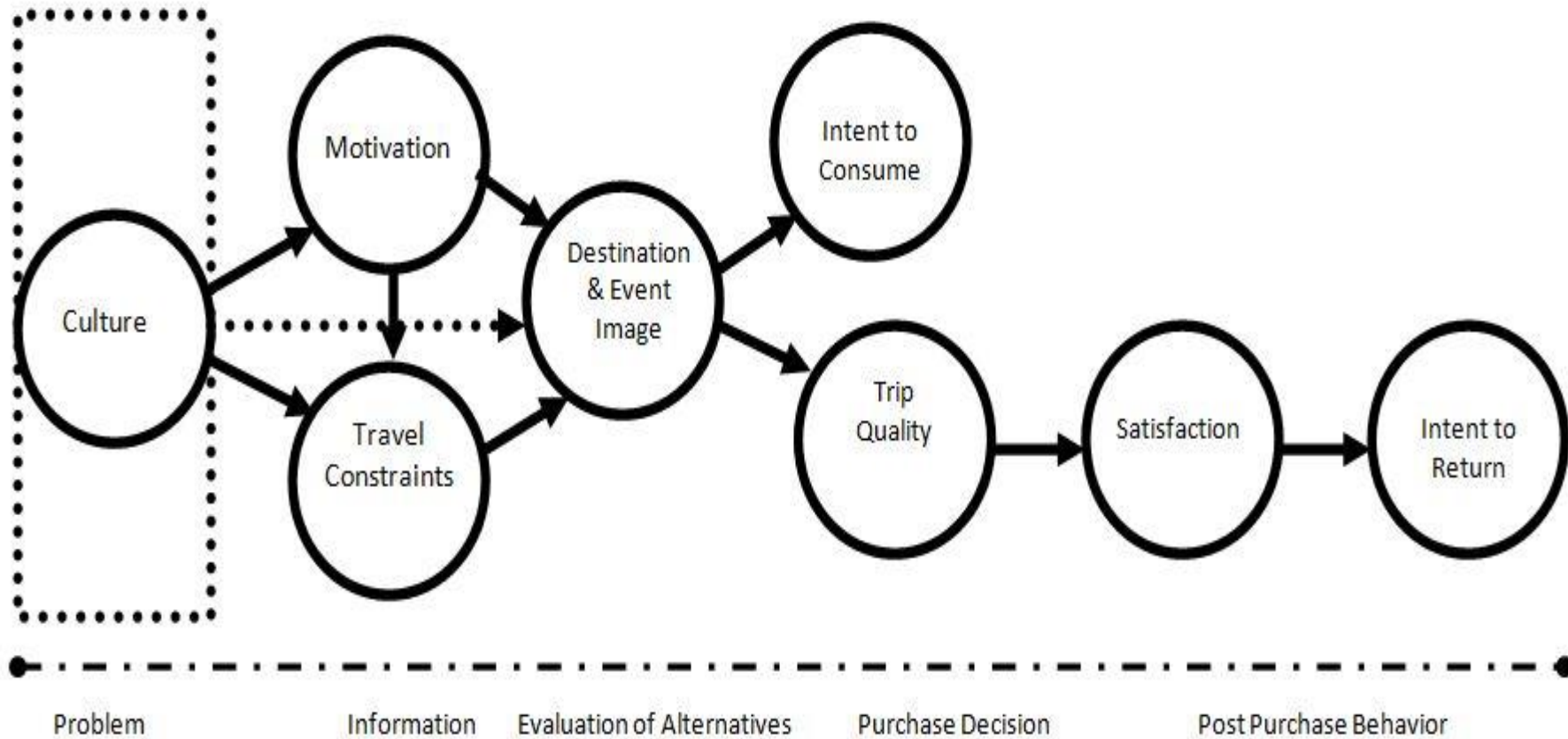


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Note: The dash line box denotes *Culture* can act at the three levels of analysis, individual, organizational, and field level (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These levels are permeable and the boundaries are blurry.

Cultural Characteristics

Culture consists of elements such as beliefs, ideology, customs, rituals, laws, rules and values ([Krawczyk, 1980](#)) along with norms and signs that include verbal along with nonverbal communication ([Luschen, 1967](#)). Pigeassou ([2004](#)) suggests that sport tourism entails temporary journeys toward specific destinations to experience sport culture.

Cultural characteristics in our model are adapted from Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture. We have named the four subdimensions of culture in our model as follows: a) gender; b) uncertainty avoidance; c) individualism-collectivism; and d) long-term orientation.

Gender Empowerment

The first proposed cultural factor in our model is *Gender Empowerment* which draws from Hofstede's (1980) dimension of masculinity/femininity and gender empowerment as defined by the United Nations (UN). The UN defines Gender Empowerment as "whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision-making" (UNDP, 1995, p. 73). According to Hofstede (1980), masculine cultures put greater emphasis on values like competitiveness and acquisition of wealth as compared to feminine values like relationship building and quality of life.

Uncertainty Avoidance

According to Hofstede (1980), uncertainty avoidance explains how humans deal with basic facts of future uncertainty and human life and he claimed that certain countries would have more uncertainty than other countries. Sport and tourism are both services that are characterized by their intangible nature. Uncertainty suggests that a consumer needs more tangible and concrete information in order to make a purchase decision. A traveling spectator is uncertain as to how he or she will be treated in a foreign land, the problems that may be encountered when traveling; and the outcome of the sporting contest for which they participate or watch.

Individualism–Collectivism

[Milner, Fodness, and Spence \(1993\)](#) suggested that members of individualist cultures exhibited different thought processes, value systems and behaviors throughout the process of making purchase decisions in contrast to those in collectivistic cultures.

Because of the collectivistic nature of Japan, a study by [Reisinger and Turner \(1999\)](#) reasoned that Japanese tourists may perceive individualistic Australians as not being responsive to their needs. In a study by [Pizam and Sussman \(1995\)](#), British tour guides noted that French (individualistic) travelers preferred traveling alone, while Japanese (collectivistic) tourists preferred traveling in a group. Thus, confirming [Meng's \(2010\)](#) contention that a tourist from a collectivistic culture is more likely to travel in a group than a tourist from an individualistic culture.

Long-Term Orientation

Hofstede's (2001) dimension of *Long Term Orientation* described virtues that were oriented towards future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift. In contrast Short Term Orientation described virtues related to the past and present, such as respect for tradition, preserving face and fulfilling social obligations. According to Wang (2014), countries (e.g., most Asian countries) that emphasize a long-term orientation are future oriented, careful with their money, persistent in pursuing goals, view time as an infinite resource and encourage patience. Most European countries and the United States exhibit short-term orientation, thus considering time a limited resource, discouraging patience and emphasizing instant gratification and satisfaction.

Research by Kim and Lee (2000) suggests great there is variability between cultures and motivation. For example, their findings suggest that American tourists show more individualistic characteristics, whereas Japanese tourists show more collectivistic characteristics in their travel motivations. As noted by Trail and James (2013), culture impacts internal motivators such as personality and an individual's personal needs, values and goals. Culture can also place certain constraints on travelers. For example, research by Lee & Tideswell (2005) point to constraints imposed by family members within the Korean culture that discourages or forbids travel. In a similar manner, Chinese tourists are constrained by factors such as language, distance, cost and government control from traveling outside of the country (Sparks and Pan, 2009). Thus, we propose the following:

Proposition 1: The visitor's perception of cultural characteristics directly influences motivation.

Proposition 2: The visitor's perception of cultural characteristics directly influence travel constraints.

Motivation

Motivation is defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal-seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989). Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) specify the following types of motives related to sport tourists: a) economic orientation; b) intellectual orientation; c) social orientation; d) and political orientation.

Economic Orientation

Tourists with an economic orientation are motivated by economy, luxury and well organized activities. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) describe an individual skiing at a top ski resort where lessons, amenities and accommodation are available as an example. Tourists motivated by economic reasons may also employ cost cutting measures such as going on day-trip excursions in contrast to staying overnight at a destination.

Intellectual Orientation

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) describe a tourist with an intellectual orientation as one who appreciates aesthetics, comparisons, and contests of highly skilled athletic performances. Research of consumer motives in sport has also examined factors such as aesthetics, acquisition of knowledge and physical skills (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003). Aesthetically motivated consumers appreciate the beauty of the game. Those motivated by the acquisition of knowledge seek a greater understanding and knowledge of the game along with the technical aspects of the sport. Well-executed athletic performance and the athletics skills of athletes is also a motivator for some consumers in this category. A study by James and Ross (2004) found that motives for physical skill differed across different sports such as wrestling, women's softball and baseball.

Social Orientation

Numerous studies within the sport consumer behavior literature have listed social interactions as an important motivational factor (James & Ross, 2004; Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003). Many of these studies highlight that sport spectators and participants are motivated by consuming sport in conjunction with friends and family. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) suggest that affiliation, social interactions and cooperative spirit are primary characteristics for those sport tourists who have a social orientation. For an international sport tourist, the actual sport contest may not be the

overriding factor, but rather the social contacts made during their travel. For example, in a study of bus trekkers following a team in the Australian Football League, Fairley (2003) highlighted how tourists formed strong social bonds with those with whom they travelled and these social connections became more important than the success or failure of the team.

Political Orientation

Tourists motivated by a political orientation are influenced by status, power, sport icons, and symbols and these individual's value personal contact, association or residual influences (Kurtman & Zauhar, 2005). A sport tourist who travels to a mega-event such as the Super Bowl may be motivated to attend as a way to meet famous celebrities, ex-athletes and others of influence who attend the game. Furthermore, an increasing amount of literature has focused on sport as a catalyst for the development and peace movement (Beutler, 2008; Darnell, 2010; Black, 2010) and the corresponding relationship between sport and politics.

Motivation can influence both constraints facing a traveler as well as the image the tourist has of the destination or event. Pearce (2011) notes that motivation to travel must be considered in relation to the constraints that prevent an individual from meeting their stated needs. For example, factors like health issues, financial resources, seasonality and the influence of an individual's social circle can impose constraints on travel. Research has also suggested a relationship between motivation and image (Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000) and it has been suggested that motivations and images of a destination can be perceived differently by visitors of different nationalities (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). Thus, we propose the following:

Proposition 3: The visitor's perception of motives directly contributes to destination image

Proposition 4: The visitor's perception of motives directly contributes to event image

Proposition 5: The visitor's perception of motives directly contributes to travel constraints

Travel Constraints

Research concerning leisure activity motivation was followed by studies that examined constraints placed on travel (Kimm, 2012). Much of the literature on

constraints in the tourism literature points to three types, structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal factors (Nyaupane, & Andereck, 2008). These are explained below.

Structural Constraints

Structural constraints are those intervening factors between a tourist's leisure preference and participation (Hudson, 2000). The primary structural constraints include factors related to time, cost and place (Nyaupane, & Andereck, 2008). Other constraints may include family life cycle, season, and opportunity (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). Hinch and Jackson (2000) suggest other factors like seasonal cycles in personal income, school, work commitments, travel industry operations, and attraction schedules constrain a traveler at different times of the year. McKercher & Lew (2003) suggest that travelers are always making a trade-off between travel time and time spent at the end destination.

Interpersonal constraints

Interpersonal constraints occur as a result of interaction or the relationship between individuals characteristics and may occur when one cannot find a companion to travel with (Hudson, 2000). Hinch and Jackson (2010) suggest that individuals wishing to travel with a companion will need to do so with someone who has similar seasonal travel patterns. The party composition of a tourist's travel party may entail family members, friends, colleagues or other business associates. A study by [Jang, et al. \(2004\)](#) found that Japanese pleasure travelers travel in small size groups with no children. Scott and Turco (2007) investigated domestic and international travelers to the Little League World Series in Williamsport, Pennsylvania. Their findings suggested the average domestic visitor was in a travel party of four, whereas the average international visitor traveled in a party of three.

Intrapersonal Constraints

Intrapersonal constraints involve individual psychological states that interact with leisure preferences and may include stress, depression, religiosity, anxiety, perceived self-skill and one's evaluation of the appropriateness of various leisure activities. Intrapersonal constraints are unstable and can change within a short period of time (Nyaupane, & Andereck, 2008). Hudson et al. (2010) studied constraints to sport tourism for Chinese-Canadians and Anglo-Canadians and found that Chinese Canadians were

constrained by intrapersonal factors. Previous research has found a significant relationship between image and travel constraints, especially during the early decision-making process (Chen, Chen, & Okumus, 2013). Thus, we propose the following:

Proposition 6: The visitor's perception of travel constraints directly contributes to destination image.

Proposition 7: The visitor's perception of travel constraints directly contributes to event image.

Destination and Event Image

Destination image (DI) has been defined as a set of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place or destination (Crompton, 1979). It "consists of all that the destination evokes in the individual; any idea, belief, feeling or attitude that tourists associate with the place" (Alcañiz, García, & Blas, 2009, p. 716). Although scant literature exists concerning event image, it has been defined as "the cumulative interpretation of meanings or associations attributed to events by consumers" (Gwinner, 1997, p. 147). Event image has also been defined as a "cognitive construction associating rational and affective representations of an event by a person or a group" (Ferrand & Pages, 1996, p. 282).

A sport tourist's behavioral intentions to visit a destination are influenced by event and destination image perceptions (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). Kaplanidou and Gibson (2012) note that when sport events are viewed as tourist attractions, event image can have a parallel structure to destination image and can be processed holistically. Formation of the event image is similar to destination image and consists of both a cognitive and affective components. Scholars agree that image consists of either two or up to three dimensions (Pan & Li, 2011) with general agreement that it consists of a cognitive and affective component (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The proposed model includes these two dimensions.

Cognitive Image

Sport tourists will make perceptive or cognitive evaluations about a destination, thus referring to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about the place (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004). Image is measured in terms of a set of attributes that correspond to the attractions of a locale (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005). Studies of image

have measured the cognitive dimension using items measuring destination attributes such as suitable accommodations, quality restaurants, beaches, historical attractions, beautiful scenery, and great museums (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). Other studies have included items related to attractions, comfort, value for money, and exotic atmosphere (Lee, et al., 2005).

Affective Image

The affective dimension of TDI refers to appraisals relating to an individual's feelings towards an object (Beerli & Martín, 2004). The affective component refers to tourists' evaluative state (e.g., good, pleased, happy, etc.), which is widely suggested to be important in relation to consumer behavior (Lee, et al., 2005). Tourist motivations are related to the affective component of image, and an individual's affective image toward a destination is influenced by the benefits sought from the touristic experience (Dann 1996; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007) measured the affective component using a seven point semantic differential scale using the following five items: exciting-gloomy, unpleasant,-pleasant, arousing-sleepy, distressing-relaxing, and unfriendly-friendly.

Scholars suggest that image plays two important roles. First, it impacts the choice decision-making process (Chon, 1990). Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez, (2001) argues that image influences a tourist in the process of choosing a stay. Milman and Pizam (1995) suggest that destinations with more positive images are more likely to be selected in the decision-making process. Second, it conditions the after decision-making behaviors, including perceived trip quality (Bigne, et al., 2001; Lee, et al., 2005). Therefore, we propose the following:

Proposition 8: Destination image directly contributes to international sport tourist's intent to purchase.

Proposition 9: Event image directly contributes to international sport tourist's intent to purchase.

Proposition 10: Destination image directly contributes to perceived trip quality.

Proposition 11: Event image directly contributes to perceived trip quality.

Trip Quality, Satisfaction and Intent to Return

The service quality literature generally considers how overall service quality impacts a customer's post-purchase evaluation of a destination (Moutinho, Albayrak, & Caber, 2012). Service quality has been defined as "the difference between what is expected from each of the service dimensions and what a consumer perceives he or she receives from them" (MacKay & Crompton, 1988, p.46). Quality is created by processes of service delivery (e.g. friendliness, courtesy, reliability) and the outcomes of services (e.g., food, facilities, accommodation) in tourism (Žabkar, Brenčič, & Dmitrović, 2010). Studies examining perceived service quality in tourism (Haghkhah, et al., 2011; Žabkar, et al., 2010) and sport tourism (Shonk & Chelladurai, 2008, 2009) suggest that quality directly links to satisfaction and intent to return. A tourist's trip quality positively influences both satisfaction and intent to return (Perera & Vlosky, 2013). Based on the extant literature on service quality, satisfaction and intent to return, we propose the following:

Proposition 12: Perceptions of trip quality directly influence an international visitor's satisfaction with the destination

Proposition 13: Perceptions of trip quality directly influence an international visitor's satisfaction with the sporting event.

Proposition 14: Perceptions of satisfaction directly influences an international visitor's intent to return to the destination.

Proposition 15: Perceptions of satisfaction directly influences an international visitor's intent to return to the sporting event.

Discussion and Conclusion

The primary purpose of this paper was to develop a model of consumer behavior in international sport tourism that examines both pre-and post consumption factors in international sport tourism. The proposed model suggests that certain cultural characteristics influence an international sport tourist and these cultural characteristics impact both motivation and travel constraints. Motivation also has a direct relationship to travel constraints. Both motivation and travel constraints influence the tourist's image of both the destination and the sporting event. Finally, trip quality leads to satisfaction, which mediates the relationship with intent to return. Our model assumes two important factors. First, we make the assumption that a sport tourist making a purchase decision

may behave as either an active sport participant, spectator or as visitor to a nostalgic sport attraction. This is an important aspect of our theoretical model because we believe it allows for generalizing to a larger population than if it were simply focused on one type of sport tourism behavior (e.g., active sport tourism

A secondary purpose of our model is to address the increasing number of international sport tourists by introducing national culture as an important component of the model. Short of a study Ozdipciner, Li, and Uysal (2012) which considered demographics, preferences, and attitudes in understanding travel behavior decision criteria across origins of countries, there has been little research related to cultural impacts of tourism and purchase decision. However, it only makes sense that a tourist traveling across their own borders will take into account the culture of not only the destination they are visiting, but also the differences between how sport is consumed and/or played in their country of origin versus the destination country.

Motivation, defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal-seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989), is another important factor in our model. Numerous motivators are highlighted in the consumer behavior literature, including factors such as aesthetics, drama, economics, entertainment, escape, family, group affiliation, mental well-being, risk taking, self-esteem, social needs, and others (Trail & James, 2001). While some of these motivational factors may be subsumed within our model, we could not include all of them for parsimonious reasons. Further, the motivational factors included in the model are drawn from extant research specifically germane to the unique aspects of sport tourism.

As Olshavsky and Granbois (1979) point out, many purchases do not involve any decision making process. It is possible that our model is not germane to situations where a sport tourist is required to attend an event at a particular destination. For example, a member of a sport team may simply be told that the winner of the game is going to be played in a particular city on a certain date. Consider a collegiate basketball player in the United States playing in the NCAA tournament. Based on a bracket system, the player has no decision process in terms of the destination or event. Furthermore, most likely the player has all of his or her travel and accommodations arranged by the university. One may assume that consumers will undergo a more detailed process of making decisions when consuming active or nostalgic sport vacations. However, even in these instances it is possible that active sport tourists who attend the same ski resort or nostalgic museum each year make very few decisions.

Major cultural changes have occurred since Hofstede (1980) published his seminal piece and much of his research was conducted between 1967 and 1973. McCoy, Galletta, and King (2005) argue that due to changes since Hofstede's work, his cultural dimensions should only be used at the national level, and are not suited for individual models of behaviors. Spector, Cooper and Sparks (2001) found a lack of internal consistency with respect to cultural factors. However, other research has shown that some of the dimensions are still valid enough to measure the cultural differences among countries around the world.

Future research should test this model empirically and validate the key relationships within the model. Researchers seeking to empirically test the model may consider using instruments from studies by Hofstede (1980), Prayag & Ryan (2011), and Moutinho, Albayrak, and Caber (2012). Future research may also add additional dimensions and/or moderating and mediating variables. As discussed, it is possible that the purpose of travel may moderate the relationship between the dimensions in our model and purchase decision. Future research may also consider consumer decision making in sport tourism through a different theoretical lens. To reiterate, in our study we have viewed the decision making process for a sport tourist within the context of information processing theory related to purchase decision process and consumer choice. In addition, we have also taken into account important cultural factors.

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